POETIC ANUMĀNA AND VYANJANĀ

While establishing the theory of vyanjana in the fifth ullasa of his Kāvvaprakāśa (between 1050-1100 A.D.), Mammata attacks anumana (inference) as a substitute of vyanjana (suggestion). The sense obtained by the Vyanjanāvādins through vyanjanā is arrived at by the Naiyāyikas through anumāna. Mammata, while referring to the Nyāya standpoint in this connection, does not mention any Naiyayika by name. Govinda Thakkura² and some later commentators understand nanu vācvād asambaddham tāvan na pratīyate, etc., of the Kāvyaprakāsa to refer to the views of Mahimabhatta, the author of the Vyaktiviveka (between 1020-1050 or 1100A.D.),3 though ancient commentators Manikyachandra4 and Someśvara read no such reference. bhatta; however, cannot be taken to be the first to propound such views. Even Anandavardhana (about 860-890 A.D.)5 knew the Naiyāyikas who fought against vyañjanā and included it in anumāna. He criticizes their viewpoint.6

Mammata first explains in brief the Nyaya standpoint and then offers his own criticism with a view to supporting the theory of vyañjanā.7 The vyangyārtha (the sense suggested) cannot be thought of as having no relation with the vācyārtha (the literal sense), otherwise there will be a danger of anything being signified by any word whatsoever. Thus, according to the Naiyāyikas, one must accept the relation of a linga and a lingi between the vācyārtha and the so-called vyangyārtha; and the so-called vyangvārtha ought to be regarded as the sense inferred through vācvārtha. As one infers a lingi by means of a linga or hetu endowed with three conditions, viz., pakṣa-sattva, sapakṣa-sattva and vipakṣa-vyāvṛttatva, so one can infer the so-called vyangyārtha by means of the vācyārtha. Thus one need not accept vyañjanā for this purpose. After this brief introduction of the Nyaya viewpoint, Mammata gives an example so as to illustrate how the Naiyāyikas try to prove the vyangyārtha to be nothing but the anumeyartha. A woman, fed up with a religious person whose presence poses obstacle to her dalliance with her lover, says to him:

bhama dhammia visaddho so suṇao ajja mārio teṇa golāṇaikacchakudangavāsiṇā dariasiheṇa 8

[Wander ye, the religious one, without any fear; for that dog has been killed today by an arrogant lion that lives in the bower of the marshy bank of the Godāvarī river.]

From the vācyārtha or literal sense it appears that she tells the religious person to wander about near and in the bower fearlessly; but actually what she means and intends to communicate is just the opposite: she wants that the man should no longer come to that place, so that she may enjoy the love of her lover without any hindrance—a meaning that has been regarded as the vyangyārtha by the Vyanjunāvādins and anumeyārtha by the Naiyāyikas. A Naiyāyika would communicate this sense inferred to others through the following syllogistic argument consisting of five parts (avayavas):

(1) Pratiñjā: godāvarīkacehakunjam⁹ bhīrubhramaṇā-yogyam.

[The bower on the marshy bank of the Godāvarī is not for a timid person a place to wander about.]

(2) Hetu: bhayakāranasimhopalabdheh.

[Because it has the cause of fear viz., the presence of a lion.]

(3) Dystānta: yad yad bhirubhramanayogyam tat tad byayakāranābhāvavad yathā grham.

[Where there is no cause of fear that is a place for a timid person to wander about, e.g., a house.]

(4) Upanaya: na cedam kuñjam tathā bhayakāraṇābhavavat simhopalabdheḥ.

[This bower is not without the cause of fear on account of the presence of a lion.]

(5) Nigamana: tasmād bhirubhramaṇāyogyam.

[Hence not a place for a timid person to wander about.]

Mammața has the following objections to this syllogistic inference:

(1) Definite inferential knowledge may be accomplished only through a valid hetu or linga. Above, the presence of the lion has been understood as a cause for a fearful person for desisting himself from wandering about in the bower, whereas even a timid person may run such a risk on account of the orders of his elders or master, love for his beloved, or any such reason. This hetu is, therefore non-conclusive (anaikāntika).

- (2) A religious person may fear a dog in order to avoid its contact but may be brave enough not to be afraid of a lion. One has thus in the above syllogistic argument an adverse (viruddha) hetu also.
- (3) The hetu, i.e., the presence of the lion, in the pakşa, i.e., the bower on the marshy bank of the Godāvari, is not beyond doubt; for that religious man has neither ascertained the presence of the lion by perception or by inference but comes to know of it merely though the words of that woman; and one's words might be unrelated to fact. The hetu is, therefore, unestablished (asiddha) also.
- (4) The *hetu* is thus defective. A defective *hetu* (called *hetvābhāsa*) cannot prove the existence of a *sādhya*.

The objections of Mammata may be answered away as under:

- (1) The dearest thing for a person, particularly for a timid one, is his 'own life. 10 A timid person may not carry out the orders of his elders or master, or may not care for the love of his beloved or any such thing if it invites an encounter with a lion and is thus sure to take his own life. Thus the hetu here is hardly non-conclusive (anaikāntika).
- (2) Probably Mammata takes it for granted that the religious person under reference is not of a timid nature; he fears the dog just to avoid its inauspicious contact, otherwise he is courageous enough not to care for the lion. This does not appear to be true. Had it been true, there would have been no point in the woman's telling him of the presence of arrogant lion that has killed that dog; for the man, even after being told of all this, may not keep himself off. The woman appears to be sure of his timid nature as well as of his reaction to know of the presence of a lion. A timid person who fears even a dog will certainly be terrified the moment he comes to know of the presence of a lion and will not dare come to that place again. Thus the Naiyāyikas, and not Mammata, are right in understanding the background of the above verse. The hetu is, therefore, not adverse (viruddha).
- (3) A timid person may not dare confirm the presence of a lion by endangering his own life. Information through the words of some other person is enough to invoke fear in his mind.

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It is, therefore, not unnatural that he may believe what the woman says to him. The woman is confident that he will trust her, otherwise she would not have said so to him. We know she is, no doubt, a cunning woman and what she states to the man may be a sheer lie; but we have no grounds to hold that the man knows her nature and intention well. The hetu may thus hardly be held to be unestablished (asiddha).

(4) The cognition obtained through poetic anumāna need not be pramātmaka (containing definite knowledge), because its main objective is to afford aesthetic pleasure and not the definite knowledte of a thing. It may, therefore, be well accomplished even through a defective hetu or hetvābhūsa.

It is obvious from the foregoing lines that the objections advanced by Mammata against the above syllogistic inference hardly hold water. It appears to us that the Naiyāyikas or Anumānavādins are nearer the truth.

Mammața refers to the following verse also and tries to show that the Naiyāyikas are wrong in accepting the vyangyārtha as anumeyārtha (the sense inferred):

niśśesacyutacandanam stanatatam nirmṛṣṭarāgo 'dharo, netre dūram anañjane pulakitā tanvi taveyam tanuḥ mithyāvādini dūti bāndhavajanasyā jñātapiḍāgame, vāpiṃ snātum ito gatā si na punas tasyādhamasyāntikam 12

[The slopes of your breasts have (their) sandal completely washed off; the lower lip has its redness clean washed out; the eyes are without collyrium at the end; (and) horripilated is this slender frame of yours. O liar, O ye messenger, who have not realized the agony that overtakes (your) friend, you had gone from here to the pond for a bath and not to that wretch.]

"You had gone from here to the pond for a bath, and not to that wretch" is here the vācyārtha; and "You had gone from here only to that wretch in order to dally (with him)" is the vyangāyrtha which the Naiyāyikas take to be anumeyārtha. A Naiyāyika would advance his syllogistic argument as follows:

(1) Pratijñā: sā (dùti) tadantikam eva rantum gatāsit.

[She (the lady-messenger) had gone only to him in order t^o dally (with him).]

(2) Hetu: tasyāḥ stanatatādinām niśśesacyuta candanattvādeḥ.

[Because the slopes of her breasts, etc., have their sandal completely washed off, etc.]

(3) Drstānta: yatra yatra nāryah stanataṭādīnām niśśeṣa-cyutacandanatvādikam tatra tatra ramaṇajanyam.

[Where there is the complete removal of the sandal, etc, from the slopes of the breasts, etc., of a woman, it is due to amorous dalliance.]

(4) Upanaya: atra ca tasyāḥ stanataṭādīnām niśśieṣacyuta-candanatvādikam.

[Here one finds the complete removal of the sandal, etc., 'from her breasts, etc.]

(5) Nigamana: tasmāt sā tadantikam eva rantum gatā sīt. [Hence she had gone only to him so as to dally (with him).]

Mammata says that the hetus put forth for inferring the amorous dalliance by the lady-messenger with the Nāyaka are non-conclusive (anaikāntika); for they are not definitely related with the dalliance only and are possible on account of other reasons also, as they have been described here in the verse as the effects of a bath (Mammata does not refer to other reasons possible). But we trust no sahīdaya will mistake these for the hetus of a bath, etc., for the following reasons:

- (1) The sandal on the slopes of the breasts of that lady-messenger may be completely washed off only on account of the passionate close embraces and caresses by the Nāyaka. It cannot be due to a bath, as in that condition the sandal from the entire periphery of her bosom, and not only from their slopes, will be removed.¹³
- (2) The redness of her lower lip may be clean washed out only owing to the passionate kisses by the Nāyaka. One cannot take it as the result of a bath; for in that condition her lips will not be bereft of their natural redness. Acāryas on kāma-sāstra (erotics) prescribe kiss only on the lower, and not on the upper one, of a woman, which is generally known as adhara-pāna; and hence the washing out of the redness of her lower lip is the hetu only of dalliance.

(3) The collyrium might have been removed from her eyes at the ends $(d\bar{u}ram)^{16}$ through kisses by the $N\bar{a}yaka$; for the $Ac\bar{a}ryas$ on $k\bar{a}mas\bar{a}stra$ prescribe kiss at the end of the eyes of one's beloved.¹⁷

- (4) The horripilation on her slender body, too, does not appear to be due to a bath. Even if it is admitted that the water of the pond in which she has taken a bath is very cool, her walk from the pond to the house of her mistress should have given sufficient warmth to her body and hence no horripilation due to cold (and the poet does not specifically tell us that the season is winter!). The horripilation is due to the intense sexual enjoyment which she has experienced and the thought of which is still overpowering her.
 - (5) The Nāyikā's rebuking her as a liar (mithyāvādinī) and as the one who has not realized the agony of (her) friend, none other than the Nāyikā herself (bāndhavajanasyājāātapīdāgame) clearly shows that she has told her a lie that she had gone to the pond in order to take a bath, and not to the Nāyaka. It proves that she does not bear the signs of a bath but only those of dalliance.

Mammata holds that a Vyañjanāvādin reaches the vyangyārtha by taking the help of the word adhama used of the Nayaka, whereas for an Anumānavādin the wretchedness of the Nāvaka is not established by valid reasons. The argument is not too solid to be answered away. The Anumānavādin may have recourse to mithyavadini, bandhavajanasyajñatapidagame and adhamasva to reach the anumeyartha. They lend substantial support for taking the aforesaid hetus to be of dalliance. So far as the wretchedness of the Nāyaka is concerned, the Nāyikā alone is an authority. Had she given valid reasons for establishing his wretchedness, the poetic effect of the verse would have been probably feebled or marred at all. She might have a definite knowledge of the love-intrigue between the lady-messenger and the Nayaka, otherwise she should have never called her a liar. Both an Anumānavādin and a Vyanjanāvādin have to trust the Nāyikā for her assessment of her Nāyaka as a wretch (who dallies with the maidservant). If one doubts the Nāyikā, the Vyanjanāvādin will also have no grounds to believe her. Moreover, one must not forget

that like vvañjana poetic anumana also cannot operate irrespective of context, etc. The poetic annuana is an extra-ordinary anumana, which, unlike the stale anuman of logic, affords aesthetic pleasure. 18 In the poetic anumana, one should not concentrate much on whether the animeva is real or unreal, because in both the conditions it affords aesthetic pleasure (camatkāra). To tell the truth, the unreal anumeya will be able to afford more aesthetic pleasure than the real one;19 and therefore, it is not necessary that the hetu should always be a valid one; even a hetvābhāsa is capable of giving rise to poetic anumevārtha. The anumāna of logic is pramātmaka (containing definite knowledge), while the poetic anumana need not be so. A Vvanjanavadin may distinguish his vyanjana from anumana by holding that in anumāna the hetu is always correlated with the prativamāna, whereas the vvafiaka is not so being only ordinarily related to it and consequently can provide us with several prativamanas; but the treatment of the vvañjaka by the Vvañjanāvádins is such as leads one to the conclusion that there is a correlation between the vyanjaka and prativamāna: the vvañjaka associated with a vaktr (speaker), boddhavya (one to whom something is conveyed), kāku (intonation), etc., gives rise to a definite prativamana and thus assumes the nature of a hetu. Thus the poetic anumana can well replace vyaniana. As is obvious from the above lines, Mammata's criticism of the theory of anumina in reference to the verses bhama dhammia, etc., and nissesacyutacandanain stanatatam, etc., does not appear to be justified and speaks volumes of the strained labour he had to put on in finding fault with it.

According to the Anumānavādins, there are only two types of meanings: vācya (literal) and anumēva (inferred), the laksya (referential) and vyangya (suggested) being included by them in the anumēya. The purport understood just after listening to a word or a sentence is vācya or mukhya and that whose realization needs efforts is gauna (secondary) or anumēya. The anumēyārtha is realized through some literal (vācya) or inferred (anumita) meaning and is of three kinds: vastu, alankāra and rasa, etc., first two of which may also be vācya but the last (rasa etc.) of which is always anumēya. The meanings are further divided according to a word (pada) and a sentence (vākya). Of them, the meaning of a word, being without parts (nirānīca), lacks the sādhyasādhanabhāva (the relation of a probans and a

probandum) and is consequently always $v\bar{a}cya$ and never anumeya. The meaning of a sentence is twofold: $v\bar{a}cya$ and anumeya. The latter is obtained through the former and is always $prativa-m\bar{a}na$. The literal meaning of a word is the hetu of its meaning inferred (anumeyārtha) and the literal sense of a sentence, that of its sense inferred. Thus the Anumānavādins recognize that the sentence—meaning has its own peculiarity from the word-meaning.

It will not be improper here to take into account the Nyava theory of sense (artha). It appears that according to the Nyāya logic a word has sakti and laksana, while a sentence possesses anvaya and tātparya.²² The literal meaning of a word is the one which directly relates the word to its bearer and this peculiar relation is termed by the Nyāya logicians sakti (capacity). sanketa (desired intention), iccha (wish) or samaya (the relation of one occasioning the other). It almost corresponds to Mill's concept of denotation, or Frege's Bedeutung (Reference). The relation between the word and its sakti is only arbitrary. The laksyartha (secondary meaning) is the unusual referential meaning, possible on account of the sense of the word which, through usages, associations or analogies, relates the word to an altogether different object. For example, in gangāyām ghosah (There are huts in/on the Ganges) the case-affix vām literally conveys the sense of in or on; but as the situation of huts in/on the Ganges is impossible, we take the locative in gangāvām to refer to the bank of the river and thus gangāyām ghoşah comes to mean that there are huts on the bank of the Ganges. The important condition for laksana is that the secondary meaning should not be directly connected with the direct sense, not that it should not directly follow from that sense. For instance, in kākebhyo dadhi raksatām (Protect the curds from the crows and other creatures) and vastih pravesavah (Permit the men with sticks), the word kākebhyah and yastih are capable of conveying a sense through their literal meaning.23

A sentence possesses anvaya and tatparya, and not sakti or laksanā. Anvaya is the literal sense of a sentence. When a sentence offers a sense different from the literal, it is because of the intention of the speaker, determined by context, etc., and is termed tātparya (intentional sense or the sense intended).²⁴ The sentence-meaning follows from the synthesis of sakti and laksanā

of individual words and is thus the product or effect of individual words considered separately. The anvaya or literal sense of a sentence is the product of the fakti of individual words; and the tatparya, that of the lakṣaṇā of the individual words. The Naiyāyikas take tātparya to form the grounds for lakṣaṇā, suggesting thereby that one has recourse to lakṣaṇā only when the sense intended by the speaker is not offered by the denotative sense of a word. Similarly when the anvaya or the literal sense of a sentence fails to provide the sense intended by the speaker, one resorts to the tātparva.

The animeya or prativamāna sense falls within the pale of the tātparva. The tātparva represents the sense intended by the speaker when the anvava fails to convey it and thus embraces the anumeya or prativamana sense. It is for this reason that the Anumānavādins distinguish anumevārtha from the vācvārtha. Since the sense achieved through poetic inference does not preclude the sense intended to be communicated by the speaker with context, etc., in mind, it will not be proper to take, like Anandavardhana²⁷, the anumeya as quite different from the pratipādya. We certainly do not mean that the pratipadva or the sense to be conveyed is only anumeya. It is vacya only when it is the same as the literal sense; but it will be anumeva when it is different from the literal sense, because it falls within the pale of the tatparya. Anandavardhana appears to have devised a well planned strategy against the Anumanavadins' approach. According to this approach, the anumeyārtha proves, as we have seen above, to be the tātparva. The tātparva is held by the Naivāvikas as the intention of the speaker: vaktur icchā tu tātparyam;28 but as is obvious from their treatment, the tatparva is not merely the intention of the speaker (vaktur icchā) but the sense intended by him to be communicated. Anandavardhana holds that it is only the abhiprāya of the speaker which is inferred.²⁹ The abhiprāya seems to have been confined by him only to the speaker's intention to speak out the (audible) form of a word (sabdasvarapa-prakāsanecchā) and to express some idea or sense by means of the word (sabdenārthaprakāsanecchā). This intention has been guished from the pratipādva or the sense which is the subject of the user's desire to express some idea or sense. This pratipadya is of two kinds: vacya and vyangya.30 It clearly shows that

according to him it is only the intention which can be inferred, and not the idea or sense. Anandavardhana seems to have used the word abhipraya here for the Nyaya term tatparya and mistaken the Nyāya tātparya only for the speaker's intention to speak or express;31 or he presents the Nyaya concept of tatparya after distorting and twisting it so as to suit his own view. One cannot delimit the abhiprava only to the speaker's intention. ought to be taken as embracing the idea or sense which he intends to convey and as equivalent to the tatparva. In fact, if we think from the speaker's side, the intention to speak or express is the result of the idea or sense already existing in his mind; for it is for its communication that he embarks upon speaking or expressing. If we consider from the listener's side, the idea or sense communicated is the result of the speaker's intention. one finds somebody as intending to speak or as speaking, one can easily infer that there are some ideas or sense which he is to communicate. It is, therefore, difficult to admit, in Anandavardhana's tone, that only the intention of the speaker is anumeya, and not the pratipadya or the sense to be conveyed.32 Once the speaker starts expressing his ideas or sense, it is his pratipādya and not only his intention that one comes to know of. When the speaker wishes to speak out the pratipadva, the listener who understands that he wants to speak something knows of it only as nirvikalpa (indeterminate); but on its expression he acquaints himself with it and thus knows of it as savikalpa (determinate). The pratipādva may sometimes be the same as the literal sense and sometimes different from it. In the former state it is vācva, being anvaya; and in the latter anumeya or pratiyamāna (or vyangya according to the Vyanjanāvādins), being tātparya. The pratipādya thus need not always be the abhiprāya or tātparya It is abhiprāya or tātparya only when it deviates from the anvaya and is thus prativamana.

Ānandavardhana distinguishes between two types of ryangyas abhiprāyarāpa (the one which represents the intention of the speaker) and anabhiprāyarāpa (the one which does not represent his intention).³³ By doing so he probably wants to establish that the ryangya is not always the same as the tātparya of the Naiyāyikas but sometimes, when determined by some other factors than the speaker, different from it. But as the meaning of a

word or a sentence in the final analysis is to be determined by the intention of individual who uses that word or sentence and his intention is determined by context, etc., one cannot think of a meaning which is not the speaker's tātparya. Even then, if one accepts a vyangya as something different from the speaker's tātparya, one would be recognizing a vyangya irrespective of context, etc. Does Anandavardhana's use of the word tātparya in the context of vyanjanā or dhvani, though interpreted otherwise by his followers,³⁴ not betray the fact that his subconscious mind is haunted by the idea that vyangyārtha is nothing but tātparya? Even the Dhvanikāra employs this word in a similar context.³⁵

One should not confuse the animeyārtha with the vācyārtha; for the Animānavādins, themselves are well concscious of the distinction between them. The poetic animāna may thus well substitute vyañjanā.

Probably we should recognize only two meanings: the vacya and the prativamana. It is curious to note that the Dhvanikara also admits only two meanings.³⁶ The vacva is the literal meaning of a word or a sentence, while the prativaniana represents the sense which the speaker wants to convey—laksyartha in case of a word and tatparva (embracing the anumevartha or vvangyartha) in case of a sentence. The anumana functions only in a sentence. So the vvanjanā of the Vyanjanāvādins should also be recognized to function in a sentence and should not, therefore, be accepted as a padavrtti (function of a word). The Alankarikas, no doubt treat of the śābdi vyanjanā (verbal suggestion); but it is not because vyanjana operates in words but merely because certain words with several meanings functioning as vvañjakas are inevitable and cannot be dispensed with, otherwise there will be no vyangvārtha at all. Vyanjanā should, therefore, be considered only a vākyavritti (function of a sentence), and not a padavrtti. In case of the sabdi, vyanjana, the sense determined by conjunction, disjunction, association, antagonism, motive, context, characteristic, proximity of another word, efficacy, propriety, place, time, gender, accents and the like³⁷ is the anvaya (literal sense of a sentence) and the pratiyamana (implied) sense is the tatparva.

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NOTES

- 1. Vide P. V. Kane: *History of Sanskrit Poetics*, Motilal Banarasidass, Delhi, 3rd edition, 1961, p. 274.
 - 2. Probably 15th entury A.D. ibid., p. 275.
 - 3. Ibid., p. 256.
- 4. He wrote his commentary in *samuat* 1215 (i.e. 1159-1160 A.D. and a manuscript of the commentary is dated *samuat* 1215 *ibid.*, p. 274.
 - 5. Ibid., p. 202.
- 6. Vide *Dhvanyāloka* ed.with *Locana* by Jagannātha Paṭhaka, Chowkhamba Vidyabhawan, Varanasi, 1st edition, 1965, *Vṛtii* on III.33, pp. 484–90.
- 7. Vide Kāvyaprakāsa with Vāmanācārya Rāmabhaṭṭa, Jhalakikar's ommentary entitled Bālabodhini, ed., R. D. Karmarkar, Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, 6th edition, 1950, pp. 252-56.
 - 8. Gāthāsaptašatī, II.75, Sanskrit version: bhrama dhārmika viśrabdhaḥ sa śunako 'dya māritas tena godānadīkacchakuñjavāsinā dṛptasiṁhena II

Paramānanda Šāstrī's edition (Prakāšana Pratisthāna, Ānandapurī, Meerut, 1st edition, 1965) reads godātaṭavikaṭa—instead of godānadīkaccha—. Abhinavagupta (Dhvanyāloka, Locana, p 52) reads gadānadīkūlalatāgahanavāsinā.

- 9. Mammata's words godāvarītīre ca simhopalabdhin (p. 254) and godāvarītīre simhasadbhāvah (p. 255) prove the existence of the lion on the marshy bank of the Godāvarī, while the poet tells it to be in the bower on the marshy bank of the Govāvarī. The woman who speaks the verse to the religious person wants to ward him off the bower, and not off the bank of the river, as she is not concerned with the entire bank.
- 10. Brhadāranyakopanişad, II.4.5, na vā are jāyāyai kāmāya jāyā priyā bhavaty ātmanas tu kāmāya jāyā priyā bhavati.... na vā are vittasya kāmāya vittam priyam bhavaty ātmanas tu kāmāya vittam priyam bhavati.... na vā are lokānām kāmāya lokāh priyā bhavanty ātmans tu kāmāya lokāh priyā bhavanti.... na vā are sarvasya kāmāya sarvam priyam bhavaty ātmanas tu kāmāya sarvam priyam bhavati.

- 11. Infra.
- 12. Amarusataka, 105.
- 13. Commentators try to justify it as the hetu of a bath thinking that the lady-messenger could only rub during her bath in the pond the slopes of her breasts on account of the presence of many youths there, and not her entire breasts (vide Vāmanācārya Rāmabhaṭṭa Jhalakikar's Bālabodhinī, p. 20). The poet tells nothing of this. It is just the stretch of their own imagination and can hardly be taken as authentic.
- 14. Commentators think that the redness of the lower lip washed out during a bath was due to chewing the betel-leaf (vide Bālabodhinī, p. 20, Nāgesvarī, ed. Hariśańkara Śarmā, Kashi Sanskrit Series 49, Varanasi, 3rd edition, 1967, p. 6). The poet does not indicate that the lady-messenger did chew the betel-leaf. It is the play of their own imagination, which betrays the pains they put on in their justification.
- 15. Vide Vātsyāyana: Kāmasūtra, III.3.11-12; also Kālidāsa: Kumārasambhava, VIII.8-9.
- 16. Vidyācakravartin in his commentary Sampradāyaprakāsinī, takes dūram to mean profusely (atyantam), (vide Kāvyaprakāsa, ed. R. C. Dwivedi, Motilal Banarasidass, Delhi, Vol. I, 1966, p. 11). Majority of commentators do not agree with him.

Commentators have accounted for the removal of collyrium during a bath at the ends of her eyes, and not from the rest part of her eyes by saying that one closes one's eyes during a bath and consequently collyrium stays therein; but the argument hardly holds water, as during a bath even in a pond one would rub and wash one's eyes and the collyrium applied to them would be washed out also from the rest part of the eyes.

- 17. Vide on kiss on eyes Vātsyāyana: op. cit., 11.3.4; cf. Māgha: Śiśupālavadha, X.54, vide on kiss at the ends of eyes, Bālabodhinī, p. 20, Udāharaņacandrikā (Kāvyapradīpa, ed. Pt. Durgāprasāda and Wāsudev Laxmaņ Śāstrī Paņśikar, N.S.P., Bombay, 1933, p. 12); Nāgeśvarī, p. 6, etc.
- 18. Vide Ruyyaka on Mahimabhatta's *Vyaktiviveka*, *Vimarsa* I, p. 69, kavyanumanam tarkanumanavilaksanam kavyasya camatkarasaratvat. nyayamukhenapi camatkara eva visranteh . tarkanumanam tu karkasanyayarupataya pravittam tarkasya karkasatam

udvahati. kavyatve 'tadvaiparityāt sahṛdayānām adhikārād na vyāptyādimukhenā 'numānapradarśanasamarthanam iti. Śaṅkuka had already hinted at this extraordinary nature of poetic anumāna and anumeya in the context of rasa (cf. Kāvyaprakāsa, p. 90).

- 19. Ibid, p. 76, atra pratītisāratvāt kāvyasyānumeyagatam vāstavāvāstavatvam prayojakam. Ubhayathā camatkāra-pratītilakṣaṇārthakriyāsiddheḥ. pratyutā'vāstavatve yathā sidhyati na tathāvāstavatva iti kāvyānumiter evānumānāntaravilakṣaṇate 'ty anumānāvādino 'yam abhiprāyaḥ. Vide also Mahimabhatta's words: tenātra gamyagamakayoḥ sacetasām satyāsatyatvavicāro nirupayoga eva. kāvyaviṣaye ca vācyavyaṅgyapratītinām satyāsatyatvavicāro nirupayoga eva 'ti tatra pramāṇāntaraparīkṣo 'pahāsāyai 'va sampadyata iti. tatra hetvādibhir akṛtrimair akṛtrimā eva pratyāyante. tatrai 'ṣām anumeyatvam eva na vyaṅgyatvagandho 'pi 'ti, kutas tatra sukhāsvādalavo 'pi sambhavati. eṣa eva lokataḥ kāvyādāv atisaya ity upapadyata eva ratyādau gamye sukhāsvādaprayojano vyaṅgyatvopacāra iti. (ibid,, p. 78).
- 20. Vide Mahimabhatta: Vyaktiviveka, Vimarśa I, p. 47; Revāprasāda Dvivedī's gloss on it, p. 48.
 - 21. Ibid., p. 47-49.
- 22. Vide for details S. S. Barlingay: A Modern Introduction to Indian Logic, National Publishing House, Delhi, 2nd edition, 1976, pp. 23-42.
- 23. Vide Viśvanātha Pañcānana Bhattācārya: Nyāyasid-dhāntamuktāvalī, Śabdakhanḍa, ed. Harirāma Šukla, Chowkhamba Vidyabhawan, Varanasi, 3rd edition, 1972, pp. 285-301.
- 24. *Ibid.*, pp. 315–17; vaktur icchā tu tātparyam, p. 315. Vide for details S. S. Barlingay: "Meaning, Use and Intention", *Indian Philosophical Review*, 1971, No. 1.
- 25. Vide S. S. Barlingay: A Modern Introduction to Indian Logic, p. 38.
- 26. Vide Viśvanātha Pañcānana Bhaṭṭācārya: op. cit p. 285, lakṣanā śakyasambandhaḥ tātpraryānupapattitaḥ.
 - 27. Dhvanyāloka, Vrtti on III, 33, p. 486-87.
- 28. Vide Visvanātha Pañcānana Bhattācārya: op. cit., p. 315, Ānandavardhana might have been cognisant with the Nyaya concept of tātparva.

- 29. Dhvanyāloka, Vṛtti on III, 33, p. 487, tasmād vaktrabhiprāyarūpa eva vyange lingatayā śabdānām vyāpāraḥ.
- 30. *Ibid*, pp. 486–87, dvividho vişayah śabdānām—anumeyah pratipādyas 'ca. tatrā 'numeyo vivakṣālakṣaṇaḥ. vivakṣā ca śabdasvarūpaprakāśanecchā śabdenā 'rthaprakāśanecchā ca 'ti dviprakārā. tatrā ''dyā na śābdavyavahārāṅgam. sā hi prāṇitvamātrapratipattiphalā. dvitīyā tu śabdaviścṣāvadhāraṇāvasitavyavahitā 'pi śabdakaraṇavyavahāranibandhanam. te tu dve 'pi anumeyo viṣayaḥ śabdānām. pratipādyas tu prayoktur arthapratipādanasamihāviṣayikṛto 'rthaḥ. sa ca dvividhaḥ—vācyo vyaṅgyas ca. prayoktā hi kadācit svaśabdenā 'rthaṃ prakāśayituṃ samīhate kadācit śvaśabdānabhidheyatvena prayojanāpekṣayā kayācit.
- 31. Mammata seems to delimit the *tātparya* only to the literal sense of words used. Vide *kāvyaprakāsa*, pp. 227-28, upāttasyai "va śabdasyā 'rthe tātparyam na tu pratītamātre.. He confuses the *tātparya* with the *anvaya*.
- 32. Dhvanyāloka, Vrtti on III, 33, p. 487, sa tu dvividho 'pi pratipādyo visayah śabdānām na lingitayā svarūpeņa prakāśate,.. vivaksāvisayatvam hi tasyā 'rthasya śabdair lingitayā pratīyate na tu svarūpam.
- 33. *Ibid*, p. 487, pratiyamāne tasminn abhiprāyarūpe 'nabhi-prāyarūpe ca...
- 34. *Ibid*, *V_Itti* on II. 27, p. 282; III. 39, p. 513 (yadā vakro-ktim vinā vyangyo rthas tātparyena pratīyate tadā tasya prādhānyam); III. 42, p. 532 (*Sangrahasloka*, yasmin rasovā bhāvo vā tātparyena prakāsate). Abhinavagupta interprets the word tātparya in *V_Itti* on II. 27 as: yo rtho bhimato yatra tatparatvam sa dhvaner mārga itye vamrūpah. The meaning which is implied predominantly and at which words *finally* aim can be nothing but the tātparya. One should have no valid objection if the *Vyanjanāvādins* give the tātparya the denomination of *dhvani*, etc.; for it is not the different denomination that makes the real difference.
- 35. Dhvanyāloka, II. 22, yas tātparyeṇa vastva anyad vyanakty uktim vinā svataḥ. It has been explained by Abhinavagupta as: svatas tātparyeṇe 'ty abhidhāvyāpāranirākaraṇaparam idam padam dhvananavyāpāram āha.
 - 36. *Ibid.*, **I.** 2.

yo 'rthaḥ sahrdayaślāghyaḥ kāvyātmeti vyavasthitaḥ t vācyapratīyamānākhyau tasya bhedāv ubhau smṛtau ti 348 maan singh

However, Ānandavardhana takes the meanings to be of three types: $v\bar{a}cya$, laksya and vyangya (or $pratiyam\bar{a}na$), though the last two, laksya and vyangya, could form a single class, the $pratiyam\bar{a}na$. [1 am grateful to my friend Prof. S. S. Barlingay for inviting my attention to the above $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$.] Does it point out that the author of the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}s$ ($Dhvanik\bar{a}ra$) is different from that of the Vrtti, i.e. Ānandavardhana.

37. Vide Bhartthari: Vākyapadīya, II. 317-18, samyogo viprayogas' ca sāhacaryam virodhitā I arthah prakaraṇam lingam śabdasyā 'nyasya sannidhih II sāmarthyam aucitī deśah kālo vyaktih svarādayah I śabdārthasyā 'navacchede viśeṣasmṛtihetavah II Vide for details Mammaṭa: Kāvyaprakāśa, Vṛtti on II, 19.