SOME CORROBORATIVE EVIDENCES FROM THE ARTHASĀSTRA OF KAUŢILYA

The Arthaśāstra of Kauṭilya can profitably be used to elucidate a variety of terms and sentences occurring in later sources of ancient Indian history which have so far been defying adequate comprehension. We shall be studying a few of them in the present paper.

The Asokan Pillar Edict VII contains the following exhortation:

Avihisāye bhūtānam anālambhāye pānanam

Of the two words, avihimsā and anārambha, the latter admits of different interpretations. In the monastic terminology of the Buddhists, it means «suitability of a land for the construction of a vihāra or a $Kut\bar{\imath} \,^{1}$. But since Aśoka is speaking of all living beings and not only of the monks, this meaning is completely ruled out.

Somethimes « anārambha » is taken to mean « lack of effort » which has been condemned by the Mahābhārata². So, this meaning too is not

applicable to the line in the Aśokan inscription.

D. R. Bhandarkar has translated the above quoted extract from R. E. VII as follows:

« non-injury to (all) creatures and non-slaughter of (all) life ».

But this translation should appear to be extremely incongruous for the simple reason that « non-injury » covers « non-slaughter » as well.

The real meaning of the word « anārambha » is brought out by the Arthaśāstra of Kauṭilya. While describing the virtues of a parivrājaka, it mentions Ahirinsā and Anārambha in one and the same breath. This identical description in the two near-contemporary sources may not be

^{1.} Upasak, Dictionary of Early Buddhist Monastic Terms, Varanasi, 1975, p. 12.

^{2.} Mbh. 2.14.7:

Anārambhaparo rājā Valmīki iva sīdati

incidental. It may even suggest the Asokan scribe's borrowing from the Kautilyan terminology.

In the context of a parivrājaka, the meaning of the word anārambha as « non-slaughter » does not make sense, for the parivrājakas, by no stress of imagination, can ever be associated with any kind of slaughter of animals so as to be told to refrain from it. From the Arthaśāstra of Kauṭilya-it-would-appear-that-the-word-«-anārambha-»-meant-«-self-less conduct » ³.

Aśoka's scribe also had the same meaning in mind when he exhorted the people to ensure «non-injury» to (all) creatures and « self-less conduct » towards (all) living beings.

The Arthaśāstra of Kautilya contains copious allusions to the manufacture and sale of a variety of wines suggesting thereby that drinking was prevalent in the society and that it constituted an attractive source of entertainment in utsavas, samājas and yātrās 4. Lest unrestricted drinking on such occasions should result in unseemly behaviour of the people and pose serious security problems for the king when he participated in them 5, Kautilya had striven to contain it and prescribed punishment in the form of fines for unauthorised drinking. Aśoka informs us in his R.E.I. that no samāja should be held, for he sees much evil in it. Among these evils associated with the samājas, drinking must have been the one over which Asoka was greatly exercised and which he steadily wanted to prohibit. Inter alia, it was his pro-prohibition attitude that led him to take the extreme step of banning altogether the samājas which Kautilya had only sought to regulate. That excessive drinking on festive occasions very often led to tragedies, including murders, is illustrated, among other literary works, by the Upamitibhavaprapañchakathā (p. 392).

While dealing with the king's judicial functions, the Greek writers make the following observation:

« He (Chandragupta Maurya) remains there all day thus occupied, not suffering himself to be interrupted, even though the time arrives for attending to his person. This attention to his person consists of friction with pieces of wood, and he continues to listen to the cause, while the friction is performed by four attendants who surround him » 6.

4. Ibid. 2.25.36:

Utsavasamājayātrāsu

Chaturahah sauriko deyah

dhishthitāni gachchhet

^{3.} Kaut. 1.3.12-13: Parivrājakasya... anārambho... sarveshāmahiṁsā

^{5.} This explains why Kautilya (1.21.46) advised the king not to join in these festivities all alone:

Yātrāsamājotsavapravahaņāni dašavargikā-

^{6.} H. and F., Strabo III, pp. 106-7.

That these attendants were inavariably females working as « snā-paka » and « samvāhaka » is borne out by the Arthaśāstra 7.

The mention of the cow is conspicuous by its absence in the list of the creatures whose slaughter was banned by Aśoka vide his Pillar Edict V. It is so because the cow was exempted from slaughter by the vast majority of the people since ancient times. Kauṭilya has made it abundantly clear that calves, bulls and cows were not to be killed 8. In this connection D.C. Sircar's observation « that beef was taken by the Indians in the 3rd Century B.C. » 9 is belied by the internal evidence of the Arthaśāstra of Kauṭilya, Megasthenes', account and the Aśokan inscriptions. When Aśoka includes shaṇḍaka (bull set free) in the list of creatures whose slaughter was prohibited, he simply takes care to emphasise the fact that like the vatsas, the vṛshas and the dhenus, the shaṇḍakas too are not to be killed.

Ancient Indian warfare was heavily elephant-oriented. Kautilya has gone to the extent of saying that the king's victory dependend upon his elephants more than anything else ¹⁰. And the finest elephants of his time were available in Kalinga ¹¹. Kalinga was also known for its cotton fabrics ¹². As would appear from the account of Pliny ¹³, Kalinga, being « nearest the sea » had a flourishing trade with the outside world. Thus, it would appear that Aśoka was impelled to conquer Kalinga by his desire to obtain the priced elephants, the fine cotton fabrics and the busy sea-ports of it.

The Arthaśāstra of Kauṭilya contains numerous references to āṭa-vikas. A kingdom is very often threatened by the hostile kingdoms as also by the foresters ¹⁴. It refers to the aṭavī-pāla, antapāla, and chiefs of pura and rāshtra whose cooperation was absolutely necessary for the

 Kauţ. 1.21.28: Snāpakasamvāhakāstarakarajakamālākārakarmadāsyah kuryuḥ

8. Kaut. 2.26.13: Vatso vrsho dhenus'chaishāmavadhyāh

9. Select Inscriptions, p. 60, fn. no. 1.

10. Kaut. 2.3.16:

Hastipradhāno hi vijayo rājñām

11. İbid. 2.3.16: Kalingängagajāh śreshthāh12. Ibid. 2.12.120:

12. Ibid. 2.12.120: Kālingakam Kārpāsikam śreshṭhamiti

13. Indian Antiquary, 1877, p. 338.

14. Kauţ. 2.1.44: Parachakrāţavīgrastam Vyādhidurbhikshapīditam Desam pariharet rājā Vyayakrīdāścha vārayet free flow of commercial goods 15 . Another passage in the same work alludes to the lifting of cattle by the hostiles and the foresters 16 . Very often the foresters have been spoken of along with the enemies 17 . Sometimes they have been coupled with the $s\bar{a}mantas$. Care was taken by the state to see that the disgruntled elements of society did not join hands with the $s\bar{a}mantas$ and the $\bar{a}tavikas$ 18 .

All-these references, combined together, go to shed welcome light on the nature of the āṭavika-rājyas. Generally speaking, an ancient Indian

kingdom had four territorial divisions in it:

- (1) Pura (Urban areas).
- (2) Rāshṭra (Rural areas).
- (3) Sīmanta (Border lands).
- (4) Aṭavī (Forested areas).

Though the forested areas were very often technically included in the kingdom and were taken care of by a high functionary of the state called the Aṭavīpāla, they were semi-independent territories mainly because of their difficult accessibility. Lying beyond the sphere of effective control of the central government, they had their own armies and could be of much service or disservice to their nominal over-lords. If hostile, they could easily create problems for them by operating as cattle-lifters, way-layers and bandits. They could even enter into conspiracies with the neighbouring kings and feudatories against their central government. R.E. XIII has it that these turbulent forest-dwellers created similar problems for Aśoka who was forced to administer a stern warning to them to the effect that, though he was compassionate, he was strong as well and that if they did not mend their ways, they would be killed ¹⁹.

15. Ibid. 2.16.25:

Atavyantapālapurarāshtra-mukhyaischa pratisamsargam gachchhedanugrahāratham

16. Ībid. 2.29.7: Parachakrāţavībhayadanupravishţānām paśūnām pālanadharmeņa daśabhāgam dadyuh

17. Ibid. 1.13.40: Amitramātavikam.

18. Ibid. 1.13.16: Parasparādvā bhedayedenān Sāmantātavikatatkulīnāvaruddhebhyaścha

19. R.E. XIII: Yo pi cha apakareyati kshamita viya mate va devanam priyasa yam śako kshamanaye ya pi cha atavi devanampriyasa vijite bhoti ta pi anuneti apunijapeti anutape pi cha prabhave...

The Harshacharita informs us that Pushyamitra, the commander of the Mauryan army, killed his master Brhadratha, while he was inspecting his army 20. It is anybody's guess as to what time Pushyamitra had chosen to effect his coup de tat. But a conjecture can he hazarded on the basis of the king's schedule of work prescribed by Kautilya. According to it, the king's day and night were divided into 8 parts each, each part, thus being of one and a half hours' duration. Under this scheme, the seventh part of the day was allotted to the king for the inspection of his army 21, while the eighth part was meant for discussions with his Commander-in-Chief 22. Assuming that the king's day started with sun-rise approximately at 6 a.m., the seventh and the eight parts of the day would fall between 3 p.m. and 6 p.m. It was during these three hours in the afternoon that the Commander-in-Chief had an access to the king. Pushyamitra seems to have assissinated his master some time during this period, while the latter was inspecting his army in the company of his Commander-in-Chief.

Public opinion was regarded as an important factor in ancient Indian polity. Kauṭilya has used the word *mata* for opinion and has differentiated it from *kimvadantī* (rumour), *chāra* (news) and *apavāda* (slander). Like other political thinkers, he too was of the view that public discontent (*prakṛti-kopa*, *janapada-kopa*, *amarsha* or *aparāga*) could be a major cause of the undoing of the ruler. The popular discontent finds expression in a variety of ways including (1) *dharna* ²³ (2) hunger strike ²⁴ (*anaśana* or *prāyopaveśana*) (3) migration ²⁵ and (4) regicide ²⁶.

But Kautilya, being a staunch advocate of the principle of legitimacy, has purposely refrained from describing these popular expressions

Also, the Brāhmanas of Kashmir had undertaken hunger strike to remove Tunga from Prime Ministership around 980 A.D.

Prajñādurbalam cha bala-darśanavyapadeśadarśitāśeshasainyah senānīranāryo Mauryo Brhadratham pipesha Pushyamitrah svāminam.

Kauţ. 1.19.18:
 Saptame hastyaśvarathāyudhīyān paśyet

^{22.} Ibid. 1.19.19:
Ashṭame Senāpatisakho
Vikramam chintayet

^{23.} Mbh. 1.1.120: Rathasyaikāmagratastishṭhamānām

^{24.} Ibid. 1.2.183:
Kṛtānaśanasaṅkalpā yatra
bhartṛīnupāviśat

^{25.} Mbh. 1.75.4: Sthātum tvadvishaye rājan na śakshyāmi tvayā saha 26. Ibid. 1.120.7:

^{26.} Ibid. 1.130.7: Katham Yudhishthirasyārthe na no hanyuḥ sabāndhavān

of discontent. Allusions to *dharnas*, hunger strikes or other forms of civil disobedience are conspicuous by their absence in his *Arthaśāstra*. While denying to the people the right to resist the ruler, Kautilya only refers to the harm that his unpopularity may bring to him. He makes the king conscious of the fact that excessive taxes and punishments are counterproductive²⁷. An angered, greedy, frightened and slighted people are prone to cross over to the enemy's side ²⁸. If a king, he observes, is inaccessible to the people, he is sure to give birth to popular discontent and may even fall a prey to his enemies ²⁹. At the best, he cites the examples of such kings as had come to grief in the past for their indiscretion ³⁰. But quite unlike the *Mahābhārata*, the *Manusmrti* or later works, the *Artha-sāstra* of Kautilya does not propound the thesis of popular resistance to or revolt against a legitimate authority.

^{27.} Kauṭ. 1.13.4:

paurajānapadān

danḍakarābhyām pīḍayati

^{28.} Ibid. 1.13.22:
Kruddhalubdhabhītāvamānināstu pareshām kṛtyāḥ

^{29.} Ibid. 1.19.31-32:
Durdaršo hi rājā
... prakṛtikopamarivašam vā
gachchhet

^{30.} Ibid. 1.7.12-15.