## CONCEPT OF THE SASTRA

The term  $\dot{sastra}$  derived from  $\dot{sas}$ , to rule or to instruct, by adding the unādi (4-159) suffix strn is analysed as sisvate anena. A more fanciful etymology of this term is suggested as « what instructs and protects » 1. This is generally translated as science and includes religious or secular treatise. It represents organized and systematic body of knowledge, branch of learning and so on. A wide variety of the śāstras includes such exact sciences as Physics. Chemistry, Astronomy and Mathematics, Social Sciences, such as. Economics and Politics, Life Sciences, like Ayurveda, sciences of language, such as, phonetics, linguistics, grammar and etymology, practical arts and crafts or śilpaśāstra, speculative systems represented by the philosophical schools, vast religious and mythological literature, Purāṇas, Epics, Tantra, Āgamas, Koṣas and so on. The only exception to the category of śāstra seems to be kāvya, representing artistic creation and loka wordly phenomenon<sup>2</sup>. Veda (including Āgama, Śruti, Nigama), tantra, vidyā, samhitā, vidyāsthāna and kalā may be broadley treated as synonyms of the śāstra 3. So far as the linguistic form is concerned sūtra in prose epitomized

Yacchāsti vaḥ kleśaripūnaśeṣān samtrāyate durgatito bhavācca / tacchāsanāt trāṇaguṇācca śāstrametaddvayam cānyamateṣu nāsti // Nāgārjuna, Mādhyamaka-kārikā 5.

<sup>2.</sup> See appendix, sūkti nos 25, 27, 29-31 and 45.

See Manu 12.94 & 99; Jaimini Sūtra I.2.2; Sānkarabhāsya on the Vedānta-Sūtra 1.1.3.

by kalpasūtras and the sūtras of Pānini appears first and is followed by the śloka and Āryā metres which are termed as kārikā or even sūtra. But the sūtra form was never given up. It was adopted by the Buddhist and Jain traditions also as illustrated by the Suttapitaka a «basket of doctrinary lectures», and the Sūtrakrtānga<sup>4</sup>. In later ages it was accompanied by auto-comments (vrtti, vivrti, vivarana) of the author of the sūtras with necessary illustrations. Reputed śāstric works were commented upon by other scholars. Medieval age of scholasticism is marked by plethora of commentaries and sub-commentaries thereon. Orthodox Brahmanical schools refer to Vedas as omniscient, self-valid, infallible and eternal science or \$\bar{s}\ar{a}stra\$ which are the ultimate source of and final authority for all the knowledge including that of the six Vedāngas or limbs of the Vedas, the four Upavedas, vidyāsthānas or branches of learning and so on 5. Non-Vedic śāstras propounded by the Buddhists, Jainas and others are unreliable and invalid in orthodox view 6. This is, however, not borne out fully by the facts of the evolution of the śāstras in India. The Vedic literature consisting of the Sainhitas, Brahmanas, Āranyakas and Upanisads is not uniform. It does not represent one consistent thesis. It shows change and evolution. The mood of prayer in the mantras is hardly reflected in the ritualistic explanations of the Brāhmanas or these in turn hardly form the symbolism of the Āranyakas or the mysticism of the Upanisads. There is no real thematic unity and continuity in the evolution of the Vedic literature. Vedas changed their form and content through continuous evolution and self-criticism. The constituent elements of the Vedas

<sup>4.</sup> See Kõgen Mizuno, Buddhist Sütras, origin, development, transmission, Tokyo, Kosee Publishing Co. Ltd., 1982.

<sup>5.</sup> Mahābhārata (Sāntiparvan, Ch. 122) mentions that eighteen Vidyās (i.e. six Vedāngas, four Vedas, Mīmāmsā, Nyāya, Purāṇa, Dharmaśāstra, Āyurveda, Dhanurveda, Gandharva Veda and Arthaśāstra) were elaborated by Maheśvara which were again elucidated into 300 śāstras and 70 Tantras into thousands of ways and that these are all derived from the Veda: Saśvad abhyasyate loke veda eva tu sarvaśah and these śāstras may therefore be termed as vedavādas or elaborations of the Veda.

<sup>6.</sup> See *Praśastapādabhāṣya* and Kandalī thereon, p. 428; (I.3.4.); *Nyāyatātaparyaṭīkā*, II. 1.68; Kumārila (I.3.4) includes Sāṃkhyayoga, Pāñcarātra and Pāśupatas also along with the Buddhists; *Kusumāñjali* II.3; *Ātmatattvaviveka* pp. 430-33; *Sāṁkyatattvakumudī* on *Kārikā* 5.

took shape in different times and different places to respond to different needs. It is, therefore, no surprise that the Pūrvamīmāmsā declares primarily on the basis of the Brāhmanas that action is the sole end of the śruti (Jaimini Sūtra 1.2.1) whereas the Uttaramīmāmsā based on the Upanisads holds that the Vedas reveal Brahman or knowledge which is never defiled by action. This mutually contradictory and even hostile approach to the Vedas amongst its closest adherents is possible because the nature of each constituent is different from the other. Upanisads are themselves critical of the Vedic knowledge and ritualism 7. The theistic Gītā is similarly critical of the ritualistic Vedism, although it declares unequivocally that the śāstra is the real authority to determine right and wrong 8. Cārvāka, Buddhists and the Vaiśesikas did not accept śabda, scriptural authority, as a means of knowledge. Jainas who accept the śabda pramāna posit their faith in their own Agamas (religious literature). The attitude of the heterodox schools of Indian philosophy is hostile to the Vedic authority. The Tantric tradition, post-Samkara schools of Vaisnava Vedānta, Śaiva and Vaisnava religious sects, Pāñcarātras, and the Bhakti movement derived its inspiration mainly from the non-Vedic sources. Their relation with the Vedas and attempts at reconciliation with the Vedic tradition are superficial. Similarly the « Purānas have only a superficial acquaintance with the Vedas » 9. One orthodox school accuses the other of going against the Vedic meaning. Mahābhārata, Nātyaśāstra. Sāhityaśāstra were declared as the fifth Veda, different from the four Vedas. Ayurveda, although treated first as Upaveda, secondary to Veda, asserted itself as an independent Veda. All this signifies that notwithstanding the efforts at reconciliation with the Vedas and occasional lip-service to the authority of the Vedas, these were more of a symbol or a myth than the real factual source in the development of the Sāstras

<sup>7.</sup> Muṇḍaka I.1.5 specifies knowledge derived from the four Vedas and the six Vedāṅgas as inferior (aparā vidyā which is equivalent to avidyā). See also Īśāvāsya 9-11; Kaṭha 2.4.5; 2.22; Chāndogya VII.1.3.4.

<sup>8.</sup> See Bhagavadgītā II, 42-46; XI, 48; XV, 20; XVI, 23-24.

<sup>9.</sup> R. C. HAZRA, Puranic records, p. 222.

in India 10. This shows that the śāstras including the philosophical systems carved out their own destiny. In doing so they compromised their position slightly formally and occasionally so that the intellectual and cultural link with the Vedas may be maintained even with regard to the secular subjects. Vedas in the orthodox śāstras were admitted as an authority (Āgama, śabda) for knowledge but were never allowed to impose uniformity of thought, meaning or style. Reason was not only an aid to the authority of the scriptures. It was also the other way round. The scriptures, even when not abused or held guilty, were bended to yield the desired meaning which was sought by a śāstra on other grounds. Independence and reasoning were not compromised in order to proclaim faithfulness to the tradition. This does not, however, mean that there is complete or sharp or revolutionary break from the Vedic tradition. Marginal, occasional, symbolic, mythical and dialectical relationship has always existed between the Vedas and subsequent development of the śāstras. Even the heterodox schools for that matter imbibed certain features of form and content of the Upanisadic idealism. Asceticism of the Jainas and the Buddhists can also be traced back to the Upanisads. It was on the pattern of the Vedic authority that the Jainas developed their own Āgamas and accepted śabda as a pramāna, wich in a sense undermines the supremacy of the reason. This is also evident from their acceptance of the right faith as a prerequisite of right knowledge.

Dialectical tension persists in the origin and development of the śāstras as a result of continuous though contrived efforts at reconciliation and synthesis with the past represented in orthodox schools by the Vedic authority and acceptance of śabda as a pramāṇa on the one hand an overpowering necessity for change, assertion of supremacy of reason over authority, conflict between opposite points of view within the orthodox schools and outside of it on the other. Even such śāstras which are based primarily on the reasoning, observation and experimentation, Āyurveda, for example, are constrained to quote the authority and accept śabda in order to justify their position.

<sup>10.</sup> See Louis Renou, The Destiny of the Veda in India, Delhi, Motilal Banarsidass, 1965.

The six Vedārigas, limbs of Veda, i.e. śikṣā, phonetics, kalpa, science of rituals with its fourfold division of Srauta-, Grhya-, Dharma-, and Sulva-sūtras, vyākarana, grammar, nirukta, etymology, chandas, metrics, and jyotisa, astronomy, originated in the Vedic schools, caranas or śākhās and in some special technical Schools of the Vaiyākaraṇas, grammarians, Nairuktas, etymologists and the Yājñikas, experts in the science of sacrifice, referred to by Yāska in his Nirukta. These Vedāngas as a body of knowledge were better organized than the Vedas and systematized the matters within their scope. Sāyana in his commentary on the Baudhāyanasūtra explains that since the Brāhmaṇas were numerous and since the rites prescribed by the Vedas could not be easily comprehended through them, therefore, the Kalpasūtras were written which had such advantages as being clear, short, complete and correct 11. Belief in degeneration of the values with the advent of the age of Kali, gradual decline of powers of perception and understanding, necessity for providing short treatise in view of very extensive literature on a subject are generally cited as the basis for writing a śāstra. There is no doubt about the Vedic origin of the Vedānga but it is significant to note that many extant works of the Vedānga are of late origin (such as Siksās ascribed to Pānini and others, the Chandas-Sūtra of Pingala and the Aṣṭādhyāyī of Pāṇini). Even in the face of Patañjali's assertion that Pāṇini deals with both Vedic and laukika (non-vedic) words it can be said that the  $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$  is mainly concerned with the  $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$  (classical Sanskrit) than the Chandas (Veda)  $^{12}$ . There are a number of  $S\bar{u}tras$ which refer to the Vedic accent exclusively but it is a very insignificant part of the whole where we have little or no treatment of the Vedic grammar. Chandas-Sūtra of Pingala treats mainly Prakrit and Sanskrit metres and includes only a few of leading Vedic metres. Closely allied to the Vedanga is the concept of Upaveda

<sup>11.</sup> Tataśca coditānām karmanām sukhāvabodhāya bhagavān baudhāyanah kalpamakalpayat / yato brāhmanānāmānantyam duravabodhatayā [...] ato na taih sukham karmāvabodha iti kalpasutrānīmāni pratiniyataśākhāntarānyangīcakruh pūrvācāryāh / kalpasya vaiśadya-lāghava-kārtsnyaprakaranaśuddhyādibhih prakarsairyuktasya /

<sup>12.</sup> Nirukta I.20; Mahābhāṣya I; Nāṭyaśāstra I.8-12 (N.S. ed); Vākyapadīya II.478-484 (University of Poona, Sanskrit Series, Vol. II).

implying Vedic linkage of Ayurveda, science of life, Dhanurveda, science of archery, Gandharva-Veda, science of music, and the śastra-śāstra, science of arms, which according to the Caranavyūha (xxxvk.4) are related to the Rk-, Yajur-, Sāma-, and Atharva Vedas respectively. While Caraka, Suśruta, Bhāvaprakāśa and Astāngahṛdava-sūtra (8.8) declare Āvurveda as the subordinate limb of the Atharvaveda, the Kāśyapasamhitā and the Brahmavaivartapurāṇa (1.16.9-10) consider the Ayurveda to be the fifth Veda (Pañcama Veda). This notion of fifth Veda propagated to gain respectability is also applied to Mahābhārata, Nātyaśāstra and the Sāhityaśāstra. This implies more of independence and difference in character of these sciences than their dependence on the Vedic authority, although it is always declared that these constitute the essence of the Vedas. Some other śāstras, such as Arthaśāstra, Kāmaśāstra do not lay claim to their Vedic origin. There is, however, a pathetic anxiety amongst some puritans and obscurantists to trace everything, even the latest scientific and technological discovery to the Vedas. Such a belief is extremely dangerous more particularly in secular fields because this means that all knowledge is rooted in the hoary past and that it can never grow, it can not be forwardlooking and futuristic. Acceptance of verbal testimony has fortified this belief. However, inspite of this belief, new śāstras continued to flourish exercising their independence by way of either interpreting the past or by open and hostile criticism.

Chāndogya Upaniṣad (VII.1.2., repeated in VII.1.4, VII.2.1. and 7.7.1) gives a long list of the vijñāna, knowledge derived from the śāstras. Nārada says to Sanatkumāra (VII.1.2) — « Sir, I know the Rgveda, the Yajurveda, the Sāmaveda, the Atharvaveda, Itihāsa-Purāṇa as the fifth, the Veda of the Vedas (i.e. Grammar). Propitiation of the manes, Mathematics (rāśi), Augury (Daiva), Chronology (nidhi), Logic (Vakovākya), Polity (ekāyana), Science of the Gods (deva-vidyā, etymology according to Saṁkara), the Science of Veda (i.e. Sikṣā, kalpa and chandas according to Saṁkara), Demonology (bhūtavidyā), the science of Rulership (kṣatravidyā; Dhanurveda according to Saṁkara), Astrology (nakṣatravidyā), the Science of Snake-charming and the Fine Arts (Sarpa-devajana-Vidyā)». The list of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (II.4.10 recurring

in IV.1.2 and IV.5.11 and also in Maitrī Upanisad VI.32) perhaps includes "grammar to Fine Arts" given in the list of the Chandogya Upanisad, under vidyā and further adds Upanisads, verses, sūtras, explanations and commentaries to the list. Thus another term which may be treated as synonym for the śāstra is vidyā. Nyāya enumerates four vidyās (i) Ānvīksikī, logic and metaphysics, (ii) Trayī, the triple Vedas, (iii) Vārtā, sciences of agriculture, commerce, medicine, etc. (iv) Dandanīti, the science of government. Manu adds Ātma-vidyā, science of spirituality, to this list. According to others vidyā has fourteen divisions, viz., the four Vedas, the six Vedāngas, Dharmaśāstra, Purāna, Mīmāmsā and Nyāya (Nandipurāņa; Yājñavalkya Smṛti, 1.3). By adding four upavedas to this list the Vidyā has eighteen divisions (Vidyāsthānas). This implies that the concept of śāstra was extended to include philosophy, purely secular subjects like agricultural sciences, political sciences and economics and the Purāna, mythology, which were not earlier included in the Vedānga concept. Śilpaśāstra, practical arts and crafts, included under the upaveda, was further elaborated under the term kalā. Kāmaśāstra (I.3.17) and Saivatantra mention the sixty-four kalās which include science of architecture and metallurgy and the technology of manufacturing weapons.

The enunciation of the *trivarga* <sup>13</sup> or three objects of human life to wich was added at a later stage *moksa*, liberation, as the fourth and final goal under the impact of asceticism and spirituality, sought to establish one of these four objects as the subject of a *śāstra*. While Dharmaśāstra deals mainly with the Dharma, Arthaśāstra with the *artha*, Kāmaśāstra with the *kāma*, matters falling within the domain of one *śāstra* are also treated in the other. Hence the dictum: *śāstram śāstrāntarānubandhi* <sup>14</sup>, one *śāstra* is related to the other. This interdisciplinary character of many a *śāstra* is dictated not only by the interrelatedness of certain sub-

<sup>13.</sup> Hiranyakeśī Gṛhyasūtra II.19.6 mentions the trivarga for the first time. It is accepted in the Purāṇas and Smṛtis of Viṣṇu and Manu and is alluded to in the Gītā. The set of four values of human life with the supremacy of the mokṣa is axiomatic in classical Sanskrit literature and consequently śāstra is defined as what teaches the means of and warns against the obstacles to the caturvarga, set of the four values.

<sup>14.</sup> See Appendix, Sūkti No. 16.

iects but also because the trivarga, set of three values or the purusārtha-catustaya, set of four values, of human existence was integrated and harmonized. Thus it is said that the Mahābhārata contains all the four values, Vātsyāyana (3rd century A.D.) pays collective obeisance to the trivarga at the very outset and Kṛṣṇa declares in the  $G\bar{t}t\bar{a}$  (7.11) that «I am  $k\bar{a}ma$  uninimical to Dharma ». The first three values are believed to lead to the final and ultimate end of human existence, the moksa. All the philosophical schools except the Carvaka believe in this ideal and are thus declared the moksa-śāstras i.e. sciences of spirituality 15. This position is seriously questioned and integral relationship between Indian Philosophy and moksa and characterization of Indian Philosophy as spiritual is disputed on the grounds that there is hardly any school, except the vijñānavādin which denies the independent reality of matter in an ontological sense and that on a comparative study of the role that God plays in the Indian and Western philosophical traditions, one would find that this role in the Indian intellectual tradition in the field of philosophy is far more marginal than in their counterpart systems in the western tradition 16. The great intellectual debate between the Buddhists and the Naiyāyikas lasting from the fifth to the eleventh century and then the development of Navyanyāya which covers a period of nearly five hundred years, from twelfth century to the seventeenth century A.D. and its contribution to logical thought to practically all the branches of learning, disprove exclusive concern of the Indian philosophy with moksa and spirituality. The great intellectual debate carried on

<sup>15.</sup> See *Sāṁkhyapravacanabhāṣya*, Delhi, Bharatiya Vidya Prakashan, 1977, p. 7.

<sup>16.</sup> See Daya Krishna, (i) Three conceptions of Indian Philosophy, in « Philosophy East and West », (January 1965), pp. 37-51; (ii) Three Myths about Indian Philosophy, in « Diogenes ». For opposite view see Karl H. Potter, (i) Indian Philosophy's alleged Religious orientation, in « Philosophic Exchange », vol. I, No. 3 (Summer 1972), pp. 159-174 (The Journal of the Centre for Philosophic Exchange of the State University of New York, College of Arts and Science at Brockport, New York, U.S.A.); (ii) Encyclopedia of Indian Philosophies, Vol. II, Delhi, Motilal Banarsidass, 1977. Daya Krishna's reply to Karl H. Potter's counter-position is contained in his recent paper, Indian Philosophy and Moksa, revisiting an old controversy, in « Jøurnal of Indian Council of Philosophical Research », vol. II, no. 1.

by stating all counter-positions ( $p\bar{u}rvapak\bar{s}as$ ) and defending the final position is the very characteristic of a  $s\bar{a}stra$  based on reasoning (tarka).

The Nirukta of Yāska (700 B.C.) is one of the most authoritative, richly documented and closely knit exegetical work. The Astādhyāyī of Pānini (500 B.C.) is universally recognized for its thoroughness, with which it investigates the roots of the language and the formation of its words, for its precision of expression, and above all, for its wonderful competence in using a concise terminology and a style which covers the entire material of the language within the shortest possible compass. The well-known definition 17 of the sūtra is based on the nature of Pānini's Sūtras. This emphasizes economy of words, clarity, meaningfulness, comprehensiveness, consistency and flawlessness. The vast literature in Sanskrit written in the śūtra form, e.g. the Kalpa Sūtras, Pāṇinian sūtras and the earliest formulations of the six systems of Indian Philosophy, bears witness to the concise nature of the Sūtras written to memorize and explained through the oral and recorded tradition of interpretation in the unbroken line of teachers and their students. Upanisads employed a number of methods in their exposition. Amongst these the method of disputation or dialogue, as found in the dialogues between Yama and Naciketas in the Kathopanisad, between Āruni and Śvetaketu and Nārada and Sanatkumāra in the Chāndogya and between Yājñavalkya and Maitreyī and Yājñavalkya and Janaka in the Brhadāranyaka is very important. Amongst other methods are the symbolic 18, the aphoristic, the etymological and the synthetic. The maxims (nyāyas) such as Arundhatīnyāya and analogies (drstānta) are frequently employed as also the tales (ākhyānas) are told to drive home a point. Mīmārisā had enunciated various principles of interpretation of philosophy. Nvāvasūtras are pre-eminently devoted to the methods and tech-

<sup>17. (</sup>i) Alpākṣaramasaṃdigdhaṃ sāravadviśvatomukham / astobhamanavadyaṃ ca sūtraṃ sutravido viduḥ //

quoted in the Nyāyatātparya-ṭīkā 1.1.3, and Padamañjarī of Haradatta.

 <sup>(</sup>ii) Laghūni sūcitārthāni svalpākṣarapadāni ca / sarvataḥ sārabhūtāni sūtrānyāhurmanīṣinaḥ // quoted in the Yuktidīpikā, Delhi, Motilal Banarsidass, 1967, p. 2.

uoted in the Yuktidīpikā, Delhi, Motilal Banarsidass, 1967, p. 2. 18. Satya Prakash Singh, Upanisadic Symbolism, Delhi, 1981.

niques of argumentation, disputation and dialectics. Out of the sixteen padarthas of Nyaya, all excepting only the prameya, object of valid knowledge, are directly related to the methods of disputation. The Nyāyabhāṣya on it further explains the threefold methodology of the Nyāyaśāstra, or of any other śāstra for that matter, consisting in enunmeration (uddeśa), definition (laksana) and analysis (parīkṣā). Kauṭilya in the last fiftheenth Chapter of his book the Arthaśāstra explains and illustrates the 32 methods, devices or techniques used to elucidate a scientific treatise. These are known as tantra-yuktis. The Suśrutasamhitā (Uttaratantra, Ch. 65) describes closely allied 32 tantrayuktis. These are also stated in the Visnudharmottara (I.6). The Carakasamhitā (Siddhisthāna, Ch. 12.78) mentions 36 tantrayuktis. The later works like the Astāngahrdaya and the Astāngasangraha (49.98) mention 36 tantrayuktis. The commentator of Caraka, namely, Cakrapāṇi mentions that an old commentator Bhattara Haricandra had added paripraśna, counterquestion, vyākarana, elucidation, vyutkrāntābhidhāna, explication and hetu, means of knowledge, to the list of 36 tantrayuktis. Kālamegha wrote an independent work called Tantrayuktivicāra 19 in view of their importance for scientific methodology. According to S.C. Vidyabhusan 20, the tantrayukti was compiled possibly in the 6th Century B.C. to systematize debates in the parisads or the learned assemblies and considers the tantrayuktis as the terms of scientific argument. According to S. N. Dasgupta 21 these are modes of expression and maxims, Dr. Radhakrishnan translates them as technical terms and R. Samashastri as paragraphical divisions of treatises. The Suśrutasamhitā states the nature and purpose of the tantrayuktis as refutation of the wrong statement of opponent and establishment of his own sentences. In a nutshell the tantravuktis serve the well-recognized system of stating and meeting the pūrvapaksa and finally establishing a thesis (siddhānta). The tantrayuktis have been explained and illustrated by Kautilya and Caraka in the context of their own śāstra but these are of general application. According to the Arthaśāstra (1) prakarana or topic is

<sup>19.</sup> Edited by N. E. Muttuswami, Keral State Publication, 1976.

<sup>20.</sup> History of Indian Logic, pp. 211-25.

<sup>21.</sup> History of Indian Philosophy, vol. II, p. 392.

the object with respect to which a statement is made, (2) vidhāna or statement of contents is the serial enumeration of the sections of a science, (3) yoga is the syntactical arrangement, (4) padārtha or a meaning of the word is restricted to technical meaning of a particular term, (5) hetvartha is reason proving a thing, (6) uddeśa is a statement in brief, (7) nirdeśa is a detailed statement, (8) upadesa is general advice for regulating the conduct, (9) apadesa is reference to the opinions of others on a given subjects, (10) atideśa is application to a new context (according to Caraka it is prognostication), (11) pradeśa is indication of what is to be explained later on, (12) upamāna (accepted by some as a pramāna) is analogy which proves the unknown with the help of the known, (13) arthāpatti is implication or presumption (accepted by the Mīmāmsā and the Vedanta as a distinct means of knowledge) of something not directly mentioned but is understood or implied by the statement. (14) saniśaya is doubt with reasons on both sides, (15) prasanga is similarity of a situation, (16) viparyaya is proving a thing with the help of the opposite, (17) vākyaśesa consists in supplying a word or an idea not expressly mentioned, (18) anumata is approval by non-contradiction of other's opinion, (19) vyākhyāna is the description of a speciality, (20) nirvacana is derivation of a word on the basis of its components, (21) nidarśana is illustration by analogical description, (22) apavarga is exception to a general rule. (23) svasañjñā is technical use of a term not sanctioned by others, (24) pūrvapakṣa is prima facie view meant for rejection, (25) uttarapaksa is the final view in a matter, (26) ekānta is an invariable rule that is applicable unexceptionally, (27) anāgatāveksana is reference to a future statement, (28) atikrāntāveksana is reference to a past statement (29) niyoga is direction, such as, « thus and in no other way », (30) vikalpa is alternative or optional direction, (31) samuccaya is combination of two ways, (32) ūhya is understanding of the implicit.

The great significance of the *tantrayuktis* is underlined by Caraka (12.86) by saying that without these none can grasp the meaning of a *śāstra*, these are like lamps (66.43) knowledge of which makes a doctor venerable. Caraka has discussed in the *Sūtrasthāna* and the *Vimānasthāna* of his *Saṃhitā* important methodological

issues relating to theoretical investigation (parīkṣā), the strategy or methods of verification (siddhi upāya), standards of investigation (vimāna) and the ways of discussion in a friendly and hostile assembly of experts (vādamārga). Discussion through dialogue (samvāda) has been very popular way of advancing arguments. This is found not only in the *Upanisads*, Gītā and the śāstric works but also in the poems, Raghuvamsa, Kirātārjunīya, Siśupālavadha and others and is perhaps precursor of the śāstrārtha, disputation regarding the meaning of śāstra. Even now this is popular in all the traditional centres of Sanskrit learning, such as, Varanasi. The old Ācāryas like Śamkara, resorted to śāstrārtha in order to establish supremacy of their school of thought or śāstra. Āgamadambara (Act I) has given even rules of conducting a debate and disputation. The whole logic and methodology of science, discussed in the Carakasarihitā in great details, amply prove the rational and scientific basis of the śāstra. Caraka (Samhitā, Siddhisthāna Sūtra 49) has declared that a śāstra like a weapon destroys if badly handled and protects if handled deftly. In the very beginning of the VIII Chapter of the book, Vimānasthāna, the question is raised as to how one should determine that a particular śāstra, a scientific treatise, is better than the others in the field. In reply to this the characteristics of a good śāstra are stated as follows:

tatra yanmanyeta sumahadyaśasvidhīrapuruṣāsevitamarthabahulamāptajanapūjitam trividhaśiṣyabuddhihitamapagatapunaruktadoṣamārṣaṃ supraṇītasūtrabhāṣyasaṃgrahakramaṃ svādhāramanavapatitaśabdamakaṣṭaśabdaṃ puṣkalābhidhānaṃ kramāgatārthamarthatattvaviniścayapradhānaṃ saṃgatārthamasaṃkulaprakaraṇamāśuprabodhakaṃ lakṣaṇavaccodāharaṇavacca, tadabhiprapadyeta śāstram / śāstraṃ hyevaṃvidhamanala ivādityastamo vidhūya prakāśayati sarvam //

This characterization of a śāstra underlines comprehensive treatment of a subject, stylistic perfection, logical order and recognition by experts of great eminence. Aruṇadatta in his commentary, Sarvāngasundarā, on the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya mentions 15 flaws to be avoided in a śāstra. These are (1) use of unfamiliar words (aprasiddha śabda), (ii) bad composition i.e. lacking in the

objectives of the sūtra and bhāsya (duhpranīta), (iii) unrelatedness to the aphorism (asangatārtha), (iv) harshness in pronunciation (asukhārohi), (v) opposition to example, rule and convention (viruddha) (vi) over-elaboration (ativistrta), (vii) being extremely brief (atisaniksipta, opposite of the ativistrta) (viii) lacking in proper statement of objectives (aprayojana), (ix) lacking in logical order (bhinnakrama), (x) doubt on account of fallacies (samdigdha), (xi) tautology or repetition of the same meaning (punarukta) (xi) lacking in evidence (nihpramāṇa), (xiii) lacking in complete or conclusive treatment of a subject (asamāptārtha), (xiv) use of a word incapable of conveying the intended meaning (apārthaka), and (xv) self-contradiction (vyāhata). Some of these flaws are just the opposite of the qualities mentioned by Caraka, others are actual defects. Out of these, apasiddha śabda, asukhārohi and apārthaka relate to the word, ativistrta, atisamksipta, bhinnakrama and duhpranīta to the logical and stylistic imperfection and the others to the meaning or content of a śāstra. Many of these qualities and flaws of a śāstra remind us about the whole scheme of gunas and dosas found in the works of Sanskrit poetics, such as the Kāvyaprakāśa (see Ch. VII and XIII) and one can say that many merits and demerits of an artistic work apply equally well to the composition of a śāstra. The author of an anonymous commentary Yuktidīpikā on the Sāmkhyakārikā in its introductory verses (9,13,14) declares the latter as a śāstra, as distinct from the Prakaraṇa (a monograph dealing with one part or topic of a śāstra) mainly because it deals with the entire subject-matter of the sāmkhya in a logical order through definitions and characterizes the treatise as concise (alpagrantha), full of contents (analpārtha), possessed of all the tantragunas and reflecting the original image of tantra, i.e. śāstra of the great sage Kapila. According to an old Kārikā quoted in this commentary (p. 2) the tantra-gunas, merits or characteristics of a śāstra, are (1-3) possibility (upapatti or sambhava) of sūtra, pramāna and avayavas i.e. the śāstra should contain (i) aphoristic statements which by their very nature will contain laksanas or definitions, (ii) pramānas on which the thesis is based and (iii) the avayavas or parts, which are of two kinds: (a) enquiry (jijñāsā), doubt, purpose, possibility of attainment and removal of doubt for

self-understanding, and (b) five members of syllogism for making others understand: i.e. pratijnā, proposition (i.e. statement of proposition which is sought to be established) hetu, reason, drstanta, verificatory evidence exemplifying the reason, upasamhāra, showing relevance of the evidence in a given case and nigamana, deduction of conclusion. These three terms, namely, sūtra, pramāna and avayavas may be said to constitute the logical aspect of the tantraguṇas, (4) anyūnatā or completeness, (5-6) mention of doubt (samśaya is sāmānyābhidhāna), that is general statement, and of decision (nirnaya) that is specific statement which may be expressed or implied, (7-8) uddeśa, brief statement and nirdeśa, detailed statement (9) anukrama, putting the things in sequence, (10) samjñā, term, which is either rooted in the technical meaning (arthanibandhanā) or is merely conventional (svarūpanibandhanā). In a śāstra terms are coined and used on the basis of their conceptual significance. The same technical terms are used subsequently in a discipline as there is no fun in coining new terms when the old ones can be usefully employed. (11) Upadeśa, statement of the result (phala). The commentator has illustrated all these characteristics of a śāstra for his text, the Sāmkhyakārikā. By way of his "-iti" used in the Kārikā quoted by him, he adds utsarga, general rule, apavāda exception and atideśa, extended application, to the list of eleven gunas or sampat which are identified with the tantrayuktis. He further points out that on account of these gunas the sāmkhya is an independent śāstra authough it may, like other śāstras, such as yoga, may have some common points. What really constitutes it as a śāstra is the fact that it explains the entire subject-matter of the sāmkhya 22. The discussion on the nature of a śāstra in the Yuktidīpikā emphasizes logical and stylistic perfection, its convincing presentation and completeness in its treatment of the subject. It also points out that one śāstra may share certain common points with others but in order to be treated as an independent śāstra it should fulfil the basic condition of exhaustive

<sup>22.</sup> Siddham tamtrayuktīnām sambandhopapattestantramidamiti / sakalapadārthasamgrahāttantrāntarānyetāni, evamihāpi sakalapadārthasamgrahāttantrāntaratvamabhyupagantavyam / tasmād yuktametat tantramidam / Yuktidīpikā, Delhi, Motilal Banarsidass, 1965, p. 5.

treatment of a subject critically examined and logically presented, otherwise it would be either a dependent treatise or a *prakaraṇa* dealing with a topic or two.

It was to lay down the logical structure of a śāstra that the concept of four-fold anubandhas, preliminaries was developed. Kumārila says that Jaimini in his very first sūtra has stated the subject-matter (visaya) and prayojana, objective, and has implied its connection (sambandha) with the śāstra which thus persuades the listeners (see Ślokavārtika 1.1.12, 16-19). To this was added the consideration of the adhikārin or competent student. This again is implied by the term atha in the sūtra. Like Mīmāmsā, Vedānta (see Vedāntasāra) also accepts the scheme of four-fold preliminaries of a śāstra. Another closely allied concept is the definition of an Adhikarana or chapter of a śāstra. Each Adhikarana or Chapter consists of live limbs, namely, statement of the subject or topic under consideration (visaya), doubt (visaya) related to it, prima facie view (pūrvapakṣa), rejoinder (uttara) and final conclusion or thesis (siddhānta). Thus various methods and standards relating to both the form and content of a śāstra were prescribed so that rational, logical, objective and scientific tradition may be maintained.

Science and technology flourished not only in ancient India but it continued to grow with the same vigour throughout the medieval period. According to A. Rahman <sup>23</sup>, the projection of science and technology as a European tradition was dictated by political objectives of the colonisers who over-emphasized the mythological and mystical traditions of Indian thought and denigrated the rational and scientific tradition. This distortion of Indian tradition is sharply corrected when we look at the rich wealth of manuscripts in the field of science and technology in medieval India. A Bibliography <sup>24</sup> has listed a number (indicated against the name of scien-

<sup>23.</sup> Science and Technology in Medieval India - A Bibliography of Source Materials in Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian, ed A. Rahman, et al., New Delhi, Indian National Science Academy 1982, Introduction, p. xi. See also A. Rahman, et al., Science and Technology in India, Delhi, Indian Council for Cultural Relations, 1973, also A. Rahman, Trimurti, Science, Tecnology & Society, Delhi, Peoples Publishing House, 1972.

<sup>24.</sup> Ibid., and A Bibliography of Sanskrit Works on Astronomy and Mathematics, New Delhi, Indian National Science Academy, 1966.

ce) of manuscripts written in Sanskrit during 8-19 centuries A.D. in agriculture — 15, Architecture — 246, Astronomy — 2136, Botany — 33, Geography including Gemology and Geology — 83, Mathematics — 126, Medicine — 4106, Physics — 103, Zoology — 102. General attitude towards sciences and scientific literature may be summed up in the oft-quoted sūktis selected at random from various sources and appended to this paper.

## APPENDIX

- 1. Vidyayā vindate'mrtam, Kenopanisad 12.
- 2. Vidyayāmṛtamaśnute, Īśopaniṣad 11; Maitryupaniṣad VII, 9.
- 3. Sā vidyā yā vimuktaye.
- 4. Śāstrāņyadhītya medhāvī, Amrtopaniṣad 1.
- Yasya nästi nijā prajñā kevalam tu bahuśrutah / na sa jānāti śāstrārtham darvī sūparasāniva // Mahābhārata, Sabhāparva, 54, 4.
- 6. Pathakah pāthakāścaiva ye cānye śāstracintakāh / sarve vyasanino mūrkhāh yah kriyāvān sa panditah // Ibid, 313, 110.
- Sāstradṛṣtānavidvānyaḥ samatītya jighāmsati / sa pathaḥ pracyuto dharmātkupathe pratihanyate // Mahābhārata, Sauptikaparva VI, 20.
- 8. Yah śāstravidhimutsrjya vartate kāmakāratah / na sa siddhimavāpnoti na sukham na parām gatim // Gītā XVI, 23
- Tasmācchāstram pramānam te kāryākāryavyavasthitau / jñātvā śāstravidhānoktam karma kartumihārhasi // Gītā XVI, 24.
- 10. Sarvam śāstramavidvadibhirmrgyamānam na siddhyati, Agnipurāna 337, 4.
- 11. Sarvameva kalau śāstram yasya yadvacanam dvija, Visnupurāna VI, 1, 14.
- 12. Svakarmadharmārjitajīvitānām śāstreşu dāreşu sadā ratānām / jitendriyāṇāmatithipriyāṇām grhe'pi mokṣaḥ puruṣottamānām //
- 13. Tarkaśca vādahetuḥ syānnītistvaihikasādhanam / purāṇāni mahābuddhe ihāmutra sukhāya vai // Bṛhannāradīyapurāṇa 9, 106.
- 14. Kalatriṇam vā śāstrajñam śrotriyam vā guṇanvitam / yo dattvā sthāpayed vṛttim tasya puṇyaphalam mahat // Ibid, 13, 28.
- 15. Prabhuḥ svāmī yathā bhṛtyamādisatyetadācara / tathā śrutismṛti cobhe prāhatuḥ prabhusammatam // itihāsapurāṇādi suhṛtsammitamucyate / suhṛdavatpratibodhyainam pravartayati tattvataḥ kāvyālāpādikam yacca kāntāsammitamucyate // Skandapurāṇa, Mā., Kau., 40, 69-70.

- 16. i) bhūyo vidyah praśasyo bhavati, Nirukta;
  - ii) naikam śāstramadhīyāno gacchati śāstranirnayam, Caraka;
  - iii) ekam śāstramadhīyāno na vidyāt śāstraniścayam / tasmād bahuśrutah śāstram vijānīyāccikitsakah // Suśruta;
  - iv) ekameva śāstram jānānah na kimcidapi śāstram jānāti.
  - v) śāstram śāstrāntarānubandhi, Dandin, Viśrutacarita;
  - vi) sarvapārşadam hīdam śāstram, Vākyapadīya;
  - vii) śāstram ca vividhāgamam, Manusmṛti, 12, 105.
- 17. i) mamgalādīni hi śāstrāni prathante, Mahābhāsya, Paspaśāhnika
  - ii) mangalādīni mangalamadhyāni mangalāntāni ca śāstrāņi prathante / Ibid, under Bhuvādisūtra.
- Dharmamartham ca kāmam ca pravartayati pāti ca / adharmānarthavidveṣānidam śāstram nihanti ca // Arthaśāstra 15, 72.
- 19. Sästram vinayavrddhaye, Kāmandaka.
- Ākārasadṛśaprajñaḥ prajñayā sadṛśāgamaḥ / āgamaiḥ sadṛśārambhaḥ ārambhasadṛśodayaḥ // Raghuvaṃśa 1, 15.
- Senā paricchadastasya dvayamevārthasādhanam / śāstreşvakunthitā buddhirmaurvī dhanuşi cātatā // Ibid, 1.19.
- 22. Āgamadīpadṛṣṭena khalvadhvanā sukhena vartate lokayātrā / divyam hi cakṣurbhūtabhavadbhaviṣyatsu vyavahitaviprakṛṣṭādiṣu ca viṣa-yeṣu śāstram nāmāpratihatavṛtti / tena hīnaḥ satorapyāyatalocanayorandha eva janturarthadarśaneṣvasāmarthyāt // Dandin, Daśakumāracarita, Aṣṭa-mocchvāsa.
- Yauvanārambhe ca śāstrajalaprakṣālananirmalāpi kāluṣyamupayāti buddhih, Kādambarī, Sukanāsopadeśa.
- 24. Anekasamáayocchedi parokşārthasya daráakam / sarvasya locanam áāstram yasya nāstyandha eva saḥ //
- 25. Dve vartmanī girām devyāḥ śāstram ca kavikarma ca / prajñopajñam tayorādyam pratibhodbhavamantimam // Bhaṭṭatauta, quoted in Gopālakṛta-Kāvyaprakāśa-Vyākyā.
- 26. Samaşţih sarvaśāstrāņām sāhityamiti gīyate.
- 27. Gurūpadešādadhyetum šāstram jaḍadhiyo'pyalam / kāvyam tu jāyate jātu kasyacitpratibhāvatah // Bhāmahālamkāra 1, 5.
- 28. Sāstreşu mūrkhāh kavayo bhavanti.
- 29. Tatra lokāśrayam kāvyamāgamāstatvadaršinaļ // Bhāmahālamkāra.
- 30. Sabdaprādhānyamāśritya tatra śāstram pṛthagviduh / arthatattvena yukte tu vadantyākhyānametayoh / dvayorgunatve vyāpāraprādhānye kāvyadhīrbhavet // Bhatṭanāyaka.
- Ānandanişyandişu rūpakeşu vyutpattimātram phalamalyabuddhiḥ / yo'pītihāsādivadāha sādhustasmai namaḥ svādaparānmukhāya // Daśarūpaka 1,6.
- Sarvašāstrārthasampannan sarvašilpapravartakam / nāţyākhyan panıcaman vedan setihāsan karomyaham // Nāṭyašāstra 1, 55.

- 33. Dhigjīvitamśāstrakalojjhitasya.
- 34. Na śāstram vedatah param.
- 35. Mürkhasya kim śāstrakathāprasamgaih.
- 36. Sästram hi niścitadhiyām kva na siddhimeti, Māgha, Siśupālavadha.
- 37. Sāstrādrūdhirvalīyasī.
- 38. Śrotrasya bhūşanam śāstram.
- 39. Babhāra śāstrāņi dṛśam dvayādhikām, Naişadhīyacarita 1, 6.
- 40. Sāhitye sukumāravastuni dṛḍhanyāyagrahagamthile tarke va mayi samvidhātari samam līlāyate bhāratī, Sriharṣaviṣaye.
- 41. Sastreņa raksite rāstre sāstracintā pravartate.
- 42. Sāstrāņyadhītyāpi bhavanti mūrkhāh.
- 43. Kāvyaśāstravinodena kālo gacchati dhīmatām, Bhartrhari, Nītiśataka.
- 44. Rşīņāmapi yajjñānam tadapyāgamapūrvakam, Vākyapadīya 1, 30.
- 45. Saktirnipunatā lokaśāstrakāvyādyavekṣaṇāt, Kāvyaprakāśa 1, 2.