THE WORKS
OF
CE PANDIT GURU DATTA
VIDYARTHII, M. A.,
WITH
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

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THE works of Pandit Guru Datta Vidyarthi, M. A. undoubtedly occupy the foremost position in the whole range of Sámajic literature that exists in English. In point of sublimity of thought, nobility of conception, beauty and gracefulfulness of style, breadth and comprehensiveness of vision and force and impressiveness of meaning, the works are simply unsurpassed. Pandit Guru Datta was one of those rare geniuses of whom any civilized country may justly be proud. He died while yet in his youth. His career of usefulness to the Arya Samaj was sadly brief. Being a man of extremely inquisitive and analyzing faculties, no religion except that of the Vedas could satisfy his profoundly philosophical and scientific mind. He accordingly enlisted himself under the banner of Swami Dayananda Saraswati, and evinced a great interest in the advancement of his Vedic mission. The truths of the Vedic Religion, however, did not strike a deep and permanent root in his mind till he had been brought, by the chance of unhappy circumstances, under the magnetising touch of that great Yogi, Swami Dayananda Saraswati. When the great Rishi was lying seriously ill at Ajmere, he, along with myself, was deputed by the Lahore Arya Samaj to attend upon the Swamiji there. The dying scene of Swamiji, which he was fortunate enough to witness, gave a death-blow to his old cherished sceptic ideas, and inspired in him a spirit that has ever since immortalised his name. He saw, on the one hand, the dreadful disease giving rise to such excruciating pains that even the bravest and mightiest of men, having less insight into the realm of Spirit, would give way under its fearful and cruel onslaughts, and on the other, the Swami's calm, dignified, cheerful and brightened-up face, without the least indication of any sort of suffering or remorse. This singular scene threw a fascinating charm over him; how it affected him cannot be described in words, nor could the Pandit himself explain it. It appears to have taken entire possession of his soul, and transformed him into something far above the ordinary run of humanity. His
real conversion, thus, dates from the day of Swamiji’s death, after which we saw him ever fired with an extraordinary enthusiasm for “Dharma,” his whole nature permeated with the grand elevating truths of the Vedic Religion, restless for the promotion of the mission of Swami Dayananda Saraswati. His body, mind and wealth were all at the service of the Arya Dharma and his only occupation was the discovery and elucidation of the Vedic truths. The lectures that he delivered on various subjects connected with the Arya Dharma produced a profound influence upon the people, and the appearance of his Vedic Magazine caused a great stir in the religious world. That cursed disease—consumption—carried him off in his youth and thus cut short his very useful career. It is much to be regretted that we could not have more than three issues of his Magazine. The purifying and ennobling truths that are stored up in these publications will ever remain a source of admiration to the learned and religious-minded men.

These magazines and other works of Panditji have, since his death, been in such a scattered condition as to be hardly within the reach of every man. Their aggregate high price, (Rs. 4 nearly), too, was a bar in the way of their extensive circulation. Besides, some of them are out of print. To remove these defects, I, as one of his old friends and admirers—as one who had a close connection with him for several years—actuated principally by the motive of (1) giving a wide currency to the “Vedic Siddhants,” and (2) keeping always a-fresh in the minds of the people, the fair name of one who was once an ornament of the Arya Samaj, and whose name is still a source of pride to this country, have got all his works reprinted in one compact and handy volume. Its price has been fixed so low as to make it accessible to all classes of people.

The present Volume contains (1) all the subjects treated of in Panditji’s Vedic Magazine, (2) all his works published separately in pamphlet form, (3) most of his learned, instructive and interesting articles in the Arya Patrika, and (4) two of his unpublished papers, one of which is a lecture on Religion delivered during his early life when he was yet hardly out of his teens, and the other, a note on Revelation, written at my own request, on an Urdu pamphlet of mine
entitled the *Maslah-i-Ilhám* (the Doctrine of Revelation). The change in the religious life of Pandit Guru Datta becomes all the more prominent and striking when one reads the above-mentioned lecture along with his other writings. It is, indeed very strange that the subject of Religion, which is so much decried in that lecture, soon after became a favourite topic of his written as well as, oral discourses.

It is worth notice that some of the fragments of his Criticism on Professor Monier Williams' "Indian Wisdom," as embodied in this volume, are entirely new, and others different from what was already in print on the subject. These additions and changes have been made with the help of the original manuscript in the author's own handwriting which were so fondly and carefully preserved by me. Some mistakes of omission and commission have also been rectified with the help of the same manuscripts. Besides, I have made certain alterations which the sense of the text rendered imperative.

The present Volume is the first of its series. It is presented to the public with a view to encourage the appreciation of the Aryan Shástras among those of my countrymen who cannot have recourse to them in their original Sanscrit language.

**Lahore:** JIVAN DAS, *Pensionor,* 15th October 1897. *(Vice-President, Lahore Arya Samaj.)*
PUBLISHERS' NOTE.

The present publication is based on the edition of Pandit Guru Datta's works, edited and published by Lala Jivan Das, Pensioner, in 1897.

The publishers desire to express their very great obligations to Lala Jivan Das for his kindly giving permission to reprint his book. Every attempt has been made to improve the printing and get-up of the book, the paper used being of a very superior quality. The biographical sketch has also added much to the value of the book. Notwithstanding all these improvements in the present edition, its price has been much reduced. In the end the publishers hope that the book in its present form will meet the approval of the public.
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.

THE short span of Pandit Guru Datta's life is full of very interesting and glorious events. It is not given to every man to achieve a fair name in the annals of his country. Thousands come on the stage of life and depart without leaving any trace behind. They are never thought of or remembered, even by those who had close contact with them through friendship, partnership in business or any other kindred cause. How many of those that were known to us during our younger days still claim a place in our mind. Hundreds of men known to us in our mature life, when the faculty of judgment is generally ripe, have passed away and with their death have vanished their names out of our memory, nay the mind is some times led to doubt whether any such persons existed at all. Such is the sad fate of the majority of us. Those who leave footprints on the sands of time are undoubtedly men of extraordinary merit and exceptional capacities. In an age which is remarkable for its re-actionary tendencies and reckless spirit of criticism and in a country where the growth and development of genius is retarded, to an almost immeasurable extent, by unnatural customs and institutions; where low and base passions, directed for the most part, towards the attainment of pelf and power and other things requisite for self-aggrandisement, do not favour the appreciation of true worth, the perpetuity of a good name implies, the possession, on the part of the hero, many a brilliant and transcendental quality. That Pandit Guru Datta should be held in grateful remembrance by learned and enlightened men of all sects and denominations in this land is a proof positive of his excellence and towering genius. He is, no doubt, little known beyond India, but this need not in any way detract from his greatness. Vico and Bishop Butler who exercised a profound influence on the philosophical and religious speculation of Italy and Great Britain were hardly known until recently outside the limits of their respective countries. A philosopher whose business lies in the realm of abstract thought can not at once be known among those who live thousands of miles away from the land of his birth, especially when ignorance of the common herd acts as a great deterrent in the spread of his ideas. Similarly a religious reformer whose work consists in the enunciation of the higher principles of life on the spiritual plane, can not receive a universal homage at the hands of foreigners whose tone of speculation is entirely at variance with
his. At best, he can be known only among men engaged in a kindred occupation. And we find that, scarcely had a couple of months elapsed since the entrance into public life of Pandit Guru Datta when his name, as an expositor of the Vedic principles, came to be known in all enlightened circles. In England he was well known among that class of men who call themselves Oriental Scholars.

This is an age of show and ostentation. Every man who has a smooth tongue and can wield some hold on the people by his eloquence, is anxious to pass for a great man. There are men whose mental acumen is not of a high order, who have no strength of purpose, and whose moral condition is far from inspiring, yet they display not the least reluctance in asserting their claims to greatness. The ways in which they manage to attract people towards them are curious. They have a number of men in their pay whose business consists in singing their praises. These underlings serve as their forerunners and heralders and wherever they go, they expatiate on the virtues of their masters which are merely imaginary and persuade the people to get up demonstrations in their honor and celebrate their arrival by letting off bombs. This is the way in which greatness is assumed and forced upon the people. There is one more trait in greatmen of this type which it would be well to mention here. They assume a tone of reserve and seriousness; every word that escapes their lips is carefully thought and every act that they do is perfectly studied. Pandit Guru Datta was singularly free from affectations and false pretensions. Everything that he did was, of course, not without cause and reason, but it appeared to be natural and the difference between his life and that of pseudo-great-men was broadly transparent. Pandit Guru Datta was great in the real sense of the term. He had, in the first place, an unbounded faith in the Divine Father; 2ndly his thoughts and ideas were pure, energising and elevating; 3rdly, he exercised a magnetic influence on the people; 4thly he had some thing of that divinity in him that characterises great-men; 5thly, he was true in word, thought and deed. His life presented a singular uniformity; 6thly, he was uncompromising in Dharma, he never pandered to the prejudices and superstitions of men like pseudo-reformers and as such he was above the age in which he lived; 7thly, he was a genius; 8thly, he was a man of will and action and could by inherent divine power in him subdue all difficulties and enlighten the world. He was every inch a greatman. His contemporaries are still living. Some of them who vied his rise with an evil eye and who wanted to defame him in order to secure self-aggrandisement may still be seen to speak ill of him but there are others who hold him in high esteem,
and consider him to be one of the great men of the age. That he was great there can be no doubt and the reader shall find, on a close study of his life, that he was far above the level, of ordinary mortals.

Pandit Guru Datta was born at Multan on 26th April, 1864. Multan, Birth and parent-age.

is a unique city in some respects in the Punjab. The climate is dry but salubrious; the temperature seldom falls below 110 degrees. The soil is not much productive, date palms are grown in abundance and the Multani dates are prized all over the Province for their sweetness. The dust storms are frequent and the city and its surroundings may be seen covered with a thick haze, especially in the summer season, when sultry winds continue blowing all the day. These surroundings, however unpleasant they may appear to people living in the South-Eastern Districts, have produced a strong and hardy race, strong in constitution and robust in intellect. They have been instrumental in developing special traits which give dignity to character. Born and brought up amid such environments, the toughness of fibre which marked Pandit Guru Datta was a matter of course. But there was also an additional reason for it. He came of a family which had, for successive generations, distinguished itself in the battlefield, and which had at one time wielded the sceptre of sovereignty over a wide and extensive area. During the early period of Mohammedan invasions when the Hindu Government was broken up into small principalities owing to inter necine quarrels and rivalry, Raja Jagdish, the ancestor of the Sadana family to which Pt. Guru Datta belonged, had made a bold stand against the tyrannical excesses of the foreign conquerors and had, in the serious complications that followed it, sacrificed his all, even his life for the protection of his subjects. The blood of such an intrepid warrior coursed through the veins of the Sadana family and most of its successive members had given proof of their martial spirit by feats of heroic character. Lala Ram Kishen, the father of our hero, had, however, no chance of distinguishing himself in the field. During his time, the Government was fairly well settled, there was no longer prevailing that anarchy and confusion which has been the chief characteristic of the latter Mohammedan rule. He had consequently given himself up entirely to literary pursuits. He was a Persian scholar of great repute and one of the much respected members of the Punjab Educational Department. Constitutionally he was strong; quick-witted, possessing a keen and penetrating intellect and a very tenacious memory. He retained the vigour of his intellect to the very last. Commencing the study of Sanskrit late in life he acquired such a mastery over that language that he could write and speak it with ease and without
any serious mistakes. He was married at an early age, as is the custom among the Hindus, to a handsome girl. She, though unlettered possessed a remarkable sagacity and shrewdness. Religious by nature, she was very noble-minded and bore up all trials and difficulties with passive resignation. Her spirit quailed not under misfortunes. She bore him several children, but few of them survived. Pandit Guru Datta was the last male child, the deaths of a number of the boy's sisters had told terribly upon his parents and they were considerably borne down by these mishaps. The birth of Guru Datta, however, alleviated their sorrow a good deal. The story runs that in their distressed condition they had recourse to their family Guru whom they begged to pray to the Almighty to bless them with a male child. Their wishes having been fulfilled, they took the child to the Guru who named him Mula. The story is not incredible because in India people, who are Guru worshippers, do think that the favour of Gurús can bring them happiness, &c., though it can hardly stand to reason that in the present case the sex of the child was the result of the prayers and supplications of the Guru. The Law of Karma demanded that Guru Datta be the last child of his parents and before his birth they should receive so many shocks. And so it came to pass.

Like other natural laws, the Law of heredity is also immutable. The leading characteristics of the parents are invariably transmitted to their children. The child is, in most cases, a likeness of the parents. The causes which contributed to the high physical and intellectual stamina of Pandit Guru Datta were various and manifold. His high spiritedness was due to the race from which he was descended, the patience and forbearance which were so largely reflected in his life, were the result of the strong influence of his mother. The strength of purpose, acuteness of vision, subtlety of intellect, were, in a large measure, drawn from his father. Another reason of his having possessed great mental powers was that he was the last child of his parents and was born in the maturest years of their life. The youngest child is always better off than others as regards mental and physical constitution.

"The most fortunate period in which to be born," says A. J. Davis, "is anywhere between the mother's thirtieth and forty-fifth and the father's thirty-fifth and fiftieth year. Robust and rational children, who possess the best constitutions physically and spiritually, result from parents considerably advanced in organic development." 'The youngest child,' he remarks, 'is the smartest.' Most of the great writers, painters, literary men and thinkers were either the last children of their parents or born between the respective ages that have just been named. The Fourth Volume of the Great Har
monia contains a number of names that corroborate the truth of the statement. The advantage of birth was thus no mean a factor in the determination of Guru Datta's high mental powers. And to this advantage was added the fruit of an exceptionally good Prarabhda and these two combined to raise him to the position of a great man. There was, as we have already stated, not the least show in Pandit Guru Datta. Everything was spontaneous, which showed that his greatness was intrinsic, natural, and a gift of Providence.

The child was a pet of his parents and they loved him intensely he being their only male child and "obtained," as the term goes in our midst, after a good deal of prayer and supplication. He was at first named Mula as has already been said, but the name was soon changed by the family Guru who gave him the name of Vairagi which was highly significant, in view of the future career of the child. This Guru we cannot credit with a high power of Yoga, since, if he had been a Yogi, he could not, under any circumstances, have preferred to live in the tumult and bustle of a large city and consent to perform priestly functions to a community overridden with superstition. Possibly, he was a very sagacious man, far above the average run of priests and had some acquaintance with phrenology. He could, it appears, read the future of the child by the observance of his features. The natural expression on the child's face converging towards Vairag might have given him the idea, that he was destined to lead a life of renunciation—renunciation of the pleasures of senses—and so he suggested the name Vairagi, which was immediately adopted by the parents as they had an unbounded faith in their Guru. The child gave early indication of exceptional powers and the parents appear to have been alive to this fact. They sufficiently discerned the bent of his mind and brought him up with extreme care. He began to run while yet he had scarcely advanced beyond a year. Being naturally very inquisitive, he put numerous question to his parents and relations about the objects he saw and displayed a marvellous capacity in understanding and grasping things.

Guru Dutta was hardly five years old, when he was put to Alphabet. Early education. His father, being in the Educational line, had a happy knack in teaching children. He held out many inducements to the boy, in order to make him learn his lessons. He seldom had recourse to reprimands, was very indulgent towards him, and always allowed him to follow his own inclinations. The rudiments of Arithmetic
were taught in the following year and Guru Datta could multiply large figures by memory very easily.

The child remained under the special care and supervision of his father who carefully studied his habits and tastes. He was undoubtedly a man of remarkable sagacity and possessed a thorough knowledge of the laws which govern the development of the juvenile mind. He was very anxious to educate his son himself. He took him to the suburbs of the town and answered his interesting, though somewhat crude, questions with some degree of minuteness. The child finished elementary lessons in Urdu, Persian &c., in the course of a short period. He had now to learn English. And in this his father could be of little help to him, but Lala Rum Krishen knowing as he did the temperament of his son thought that no one would be able to produce in his mind a desire for the study of English, as he himself. He, therefore, made a resolute determination to learn the First Book himself, and then teach it to Guru Datta. In those days, 'how to speak English' by Colonel Holryd, the then Director of Instruction, was taught to the beginners. Lala Ram Kishan set to reading it with all his vigour and, despite the disadvantages of advanced age, went through it in a very short time, and then taught it to Guru Datta.

At the age of eight, he was sent to the District School at Jhang, his father being a teacher in that school. In English he was just as well up as boys of his class, but in other subjects Persia Arithmetic &c., he was far ahead. Of Persian, he had read several important books; and before he left the school, having finished his education there, he had read and assimilated the poems Maulana-i-Rumi, Shams Tabrez and Diwan-i-Hafiz. These books, though at some places, embodying thoughts that to a superficial eye might appear unwholesome as regards moral development of youths, reflect that profound mysticism which has been prized all over the eastern countries for centuries together, and where the poetic vision rises high, the mind of a pure-hearted reader is thrown into a semi-mesmeric state. The charm that some of the verses exercise is truly profound, the figure of a devotee saturated with love and Bhakti rises unbidden before the mental eye and one cannot help feeling himself under the influence of a magnetic current of thought, flowing uninterruptedly towards him. These books were not without their effect on the little Vairagi. Already a mystic by nature, he was profoundly influenced by them. For hours together he would look towards the heaven with an attention that was seldom disturbed by the noise and bustle
of the people around, and contemplate the majesty of the all-powerful Lord who bespangled the immeasurable firmament with countless millions of brilliant lights. At this period of life he was strongly convinced of the existence of God and once when his mother remonstrated with him, while engaged in his nocturnal observations, he remarked: "Look mother! look towards heaven, at the shining stars and the different forms there; they must have their Maker and I am learning the way to reach Him. You do the same." This reply, though not very unusual in the case of a Vairagi, would appear to be very startling when coming from a boy of eleven or twelve years.

Perhaps by far the most marked tendency in school-boys is that towards verse-making. Even students, not possessed of a poetic bent of mind, may be seen composing verses. There is hardly anybody who in his school days has not been fired with the ambition of becoming a poet. But this ambition, though almost general, is not of a permanent character. It is short-lived, and, in most cases, vanishes when the student has scarcely advanced beyond the Entrance Class. This, however, was not the case with Guru Datta. He had much of poetic element in him, and having a natural aptitude for verse-making, his compositions were free from artificiality. There was a good deal in them characteristic of a natural-born poet. His verses were sweet, beautiful and melodious and they were often composed without much exertion. So great was indeed his power in this particular department that he is said to have once translated a long Urdu passage into Persian verse quite extempore. But he did not cultivate his poetic taste. After passing the middle School Examination he was sent to Multan, his native place, for studying in the High School. His favourite book of study in those days was Masnavi Maulana Rumi. Being a student of extraordinary intellectual acumen, he was one of the shining students of his class and always occupied high position in Examinations, and had earned the favour and good-will of his teachers, especially of the Head Master, Babu M. M. Sircar, who, confident of his great powers, foreshadowed his future career. He was very fond of study, and there was no Library in Multan that he did not have recourse to for the improvement of his knowledge. The big library of the school and that situated in Langhe Khan garden he had totally ransacked and finished within a short time. Master Daya Ram being on the school staff at the time and perceiving that Guru Datta was strongly inclined towards religion gave him two books entitled 'India in Greece' and
the ‘Bible in India’ for study. Just before this he had come across a book called the Aina-i-Mashabi Hanud. These books gave him much information concerning the ancient history of this country. From Aina-i Mashabi Hanud which embodied the cogent points of the Hindu creed, he learnt the mystic recitation of Anhad, an attribute of God, which he kept up for some time. Soon after he came to know of the efficacy of Pranayam as a factor in psychic development. He practised it daily without fail, and one result of this practice was that his mind, already very penetrative, came to possess of a great power of abstraction. He could so devote his attention to an object as to be unconscious of all things around him. He could so far withdraw his mind from outer activity and direct it towards the object of his observation as to enter into its heart and minutely examine all its parts. This accounts, to a large extent, for his remarkable powers of retention, every thing was realized in his mind and so strongly impressed on it that nothing external could efface it.

The Education in the High School gave quite a different turn to the mind of Guru Datta. As he read and assimilated English authors, his old beliefs were shaken, and that faith which characterised his talk was no longer observable. The change was not due to mental incapacity, for Guru-Datta had remarkable power of analysis and could, without any difficulty, relagate the various items composing a statement to their respective categories. However complicated a thought, or however great a jumble of heterogenous ideas, his mind was never confused. But just at the time when he was prosecuting his studies at Multan, there was a great religious commotion going on in the Punjab. The sudden inrush of Western ideas, the gloss and glitter of the new civilization, the currency of the novel modes of thought and life, and the Missionaries’ eloquent and pathetic exhortation to the Hindus against idol-worship, had quite upset the thoughts of the educated people. The school books, at least some of them, fostered and encouraged a spirit of skepticism. Pandit Guru Datta found that the Persian works that he had studied, and the Hindu beliefs in which he was nurtured, were too much theoretical and absurd; and naturally an aversion was produced in his mind towards them. He became skeptic and began to doubt even the existence of God. At this time, when the Western civilization was carrying before its tide everything, when doubt and skepticism had almost banished faith from the realm of religion, when, in consequence, people were embracing Christianity in large numbers, and when there was a widespread unrest among the masses,
there appeared on the scene a mighty Reformer. His advent reversed the order of things. Highly intellectual, he shattered to pieces in no time the grounds of materialists; the Muhammedans, Christians and Hindus, who came forward to argue with him and to check the growth of the religion that he inculcated, sustained, each one of them, a crushing defeat. They found themselves face to face with an intellectual giant who completely overpowered them and left no passage for retreat. The humiliation of these people shows that the respective religions whose cause they took up and fought for, were without any inherent vitality. His ideas were at once reasonable and ennobling, and the Vedic Dharma, which he expounded, was highly conducive to the harmony of physical, moral and spiritual natures of man. The highest Western thought could not influence him in any way; he stood on a far higher plane, and the religion which he offered to the people was truth without the least tinge of falsehood—pure, sublime, and soul-inspiring. As soon as the ideals and truths of this religion were made known, the people accepted them with eagerness. The ever swelling tide of conversion to alien faiths was at once stemmed; excitement and uneasiness soon ceased, and there was all peace and harmony. Guru Datta also was attracted towards the Vedic Dharma, and his inquisitive faculties were totally satiated. His intimate friends at the time were Pandit Remal Das and Lala Chetanananda, and both of them had already been converted to the Vedic faith. Guru Datta often talked to them on God-head and other problems of religious import. He read the Sattyarth Prakash (first edition) at their instance, and joined the church of Arya Samaj on 20th June 1880. That was the happiest day in the annals of the Arya Samaj and marks a new era in its development, since the powerful advocacy of the Vedic Dharma by him has been the means of securing to the Samaj the sympathy and cooperation of many a talented man. Soon after his accepting the membership of the Samaj, he commenced the study of Ashtadhyai, and such a strong fascination had he for it that he called on the office-bearers of the Multan Arya Samaj to send for a Pandit to teach him, failing which, he would consider their dharma to be shallow. The office-bearers gave a prompt attention to this request, and at once sent for a Pandit, Akshanandana by name. Guru Datta read with him for a few weeks. The teacher could not satisfy the pupil as he could not reply to his endless questions. The Vidyyarthi learnt only 1½ adhyas from the Pandit, and then left off rather unceremoniously. He studied the book independently, perhaps by the help of Swami ji's
Vedang Prakash; he had a commendable mastery over it. While at Multan, he came across another book, called “Easy lessons in Sanskrit Grammar” by Dr. Ballantyne. He read through it in a few days. This little book has been written on modern system of instruction, and can be learnt without the help of a Pandit. It contains a goodly number of rules, &c. on Grammar and gives a fair insight into the nature of Sanskrit language. The present writer has had an opportunity of studying it himself, and he can speak from his personal knowledge that the book is admirably well-adapted for beginners. Pandit Guru Datta, after finishing it, began to read the Sanskrit portion of the Veda Bhashya Bhumika and fully understood it. He had a very high opinion of the book and recommended it to those who found it difficult, on account of advanced age, domestic encumbrances &c., to study the Ashtadhyai. Some gentlemen at his suggestion began to learn the book, and found, before they had advanced much, that they could understand tolerably long passages of Sanskrit. Our object in enlarging on the question is to afford to those, who give up the study of Sanskrit on the plea of age and the non-existence of easy lessons in Grammar the suggestion that they can, if they wish, improve their knowledge of that language. All the office-bearers of the Multan Samaj were interested in the progress of Guru Datta and once they examined him in Arya Uddesh Ratan Mala, and Veda Bhashya Bhumika. He used to attend the Samaj regularly and was much liked by the Samajic people.

There is hardly any branch of study that did not receive the attention of Guru Datta while at school. Of English literature, he had read Milton, Cowper, and Shakespeare; of Persian, he had a thorough mastery over Masnavi Maulana Rumi, Hafiz and other works of note; of Arabic, he had read Saraf Nahav and Mara Nahv. Physical science was his favourite subject while he had gone through several books on Logic, Psychology, and Philosophy. This is extraordinary in a boy of fourteen or fifteen years. Ordinarily, the knowledge of the boys studying in the Entrance class is very limited, in some cases the Matriculates cannot write a line or two of correct English. They are required to know a number of books which they cram into their heads, and repeat parrot-like when asked to do so, there being very little of absorption and assimilation. They know nothing of Psychology, Logic, and Philosophy, the very names appear to them something unfamiliar. But Pandit Guru Datta had acquired a fair proficiency in these, before passing the Entrance Examination. He was a brilliant student in his class. Much of
his time being spent in extra study, he did not always occupy the foremost position, the other boys who devoted themselves exclusively to the study of the text-books, having advantage over him in this respect, sometimes outstripped him in class lessons, but none of them could boast of learning so vast and varied in range and extent. Guru Datta could, while reading in the High School, compete successfully with F. A. students. Whatever he read, he not only retained in his memory but fully comprehended it. The various shades of meaning that a philosophical question was susceptible of, he could decipher without much exertion, Shakespeare he recited with warmth and passion as though the drama was being really enacted—the tone, gestures and modulations of voice exactly suited the occasion. And his teachers were not unconscious of these capabilities. Once there was a difficult piece from a well-known author ending with "Here it is." The Head Master, in order to test the merits of the students and quicken them to effort, said that he would give Rs. 5, as a reward to the student, who would recite it in the proper manner. All attempted to recite the passage, but without success. At last Guru Datta was summoned to the table. He had seen his fellow students fail, but that did not disturb his mind. He requested the Head Master to let him mount the table, so that all might observe him. The permission was given, and he ascended it with agility reciting the passage with a beauty truly admirable. Just as he came to the phrase "Here it is," his look and gestures wore a corresponding appearance. He handed out the book that he had in his pocket for the purpose, pronouncing with befitting accent: "Here it is." There was at once a loud outburst of cheers, the Head Master patted him on the back and awarded him Rs. 5. This wonderful feat by an Entrance Class student is certainly something very uncommon and extraordinary.

Not only was Guru Datta loved by his teachers for his brilliant capacities, but was also looked with much favour from another consideration, viz., for his veracity. His name had become a by-word in the School for truth. Under no circumstances would he tell a lie. His own moral character being spotless, he was afraid of none. He was far above the ordinary run of students in this respect. This is not the time for enlarging on the vices that prevail among the students in our Schools and Colleges. We have the authority of one of the leading medical men—Dr. Kellogg—to state that some of the serious vices are prevalent to an alarming extent among boys in educational and other institutions in England. The evil is, in fact, in-
separable from the Western civilization and occidental methods of instruction. In India, there is little doubt that it is the modern system that has been instrumental in fostering the evil. We do not mean to insinuate that all the students in our seminaries are corrupt. Far from that. All that we contend for is that there are various influences in the modern schools which do tell on the moral well-being of the students, and all those who have been schoolboys can testify to this fact. There are students who assiduously keep away from such influences, and Pandit Guru Datta was one of them. He was wholly uninfluenced by evil desires. This indicates that he was fitted by nature to rise superior to sensuality. She evidently intended him for a higher and nobler purpose. Guru Datta was, at times, mystical while at Multan and stuck to some of his old habits with great pertinacity. Why he did so, it cannot be rationally explained. We can only say that it was not on account of an irresistible influence arising out of a fixed mode of action, since his will-power, even when he was young, was strong enough to shake off inveterate habits. He was very fond of visiting Sadhus and Sannyasis and derived much pleasure by conversing with them. Once he visited an old Sannyasi who came to Multan with his uncle, and had the following dialogue with him.

G. D. Vidyarthi.—Maharaj what is the best mode of learning Yoga—that written in Patanjali's book or any other?

Sannyasi.—Patanjali's is the correct method; almost everything else a fable.

G. D. Vidyarthi.—Do you know anything of Swami Dyananda?

Sannyasi.—Yes, we have been companions in the Jungles; once at a place we used to go to a Pandit who recited Bhagwat Puran, upon the contents of which Swami Dyananda used to get enraged, but I used to appease his anger by saying that a Sannyasi should avoid wrath.

G. D. Vidyarthi.—Are the germs of all sorts of knowledge to be found in the Vedas?

Sannyasi.—Yes.

G. D. Vidyarthi.—Even the art of regulating the army and rules of drill, &c.

Sannyasi.—Yes; I know all this and can train any six men, who choose to go with me into the jungle, in the system of the Mahabharata and Ramayna.
G. D. Vidyarthi.—Swamiji to what places have you been, and what places have you seen?

Sannyasi.—Almost all the world, Allaska, Baring &c. Allaska, is called Allawartadesha in Sanskrit.

G. D. Vidyarthi.—Are you acquainted with the different languages of these parts? If so, let me see how you speak the Russian language.

Sannyasi.—Yes. But what will be the use of my talking in Russian when you can't understand it. Let it suffice to tell you that this language contains too many consonants.*

There is another story of a very curious character which reaches us from one of Panditji's trusted friends and to whom he himself related it. Panditji's parents loved him very much. While he was at Multan, they had a servant exclusively devoted to his service. He used to keep behind him like a shadow as it were, and seldom, if ever, parted his company. In play, in school and in study he was always by his side. One day Guru Datta was playing what is called chachingal. A boy struck him on the back, and ran away. Guru Datta gave chase, but the boy being nimble, ran very swift. He, however, kept up the pursuit. Soon they were out of the city gates. One or two miles had been traversed in this way. The boy at last disappeared in a crowd of trees. Guru Datta was confronted in his flight by a raised wall. He stopped near it for a while, thinking to himself whether he should climb it or not. In the meantime his servant came up. The resolution of Guru Datta was, however, made. He told the servant to wait outside and himself jumped over the wall. He had run only for a few yards inside the fence when a shuddering sensation ran through his frame. The atmosphere around appeared to him to be of a different nature. He thought he was in a dangerous place. But his mind did not fail him and he went on, when all of a sudden he heard a rustling noise from amongst the surrounding trees, and no sooner had his attention been rivetted on them, he saw a tall giant Fakir advance towards him—his eyes were blazing as torch light and there was an expression on his face that could not but inspire awe. Guru Datta was struck at his appearance and experienced a sensation of fear. The Sadhu came up to him, enquired his name and the cause of his arrival there, and then took him among the trees. There he spoke to him some words, comforted him and told him not to be afraid of any one. Guru Datta at this felt easy. Immediately he

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* From the life of Pandit Guru Datta by Lala Lajpat Rai.
took him to his hut. It was a rude building but extremely clean from inside. There the Sadhu enquired about his studies, after a few minutes caught hold of his body and in a manner at once peaceful and conciliatory gave it a jerk. Guru Datta felt at the moment that he was sitting in a well-furnished room with a large mirror just before his eyes, in which was reflected the image of a boy bent over his book in study. In a minute or two the grip on the hair was let off, and the whole scene disappeared. The Sadhu then spoke some words of benediction and bade him depart. Guru Datta leaped over the wall and returned home in company with his servant. The whole affair was kept a secret.

This story might appear incredible to many of our readers, but it is, nevertheless, true. No rational explanation can at present be given of the scene that appeared to the Vidyarthi under the magnetic touch of the Sanyasi. It may, after all, be an optical illusion, or a sort of reverie in which he beheld his own image. The situation of the mirror, the position of the boy, and his attitude were exactly as in his own case, and this fact dawned on his mind while one night he resumed his studies after supper as usual. How this came about, is again a mystery; we are unable to trace the raison d'être or the sequences that led up to it. There are moments in individual existence when old and forgotten incidents, which could not be recalled notwithstanding the exertion of one's whole might, rise all of a sudden prominently before the mind as if they had taken place but a few days back. Sometimes it so happens that a man, who has spent some hours in the solution of a problem without success, finds the enigma wholly explained while his attention is occupied with another thing. This unexpected solution by a process almost unobtrusive cannot be easily accounted for. But it is a psychological phenomenon which cannot be gainsaid, and those of us who have had occasion to think over problems of deep import can corroborate, by their testimony, the position herein maintained. The final appeal in the matter is to experience; and a thing which had the support and sanction of experience cannot evidently be improbable. But this is not the only thing that requires explanation in this connection. One night Pandit Guru Datta, when about to retire, felt as if he were summoned by the Sadhu. He experienced distinct vibrations conveying him an order from the Sadhu to call at his hut. Next day Guru Datta presented himself to the sannyasi, who was very glad to see him. He told Guru Datta that he had done well to obey his call. Then he enquired about his health and
dismissed him from his presence with orders to call again the next day. The Vidyarthi did as he was desired. The Sadhu first put him several questions as regards his Sanskrit studies and then spoke words of encouragement, urging him to pay more attention to Sanskrit, as he was destined to do a great service to the cause of humanity in that direction. Next, he took him to his hut and gave him a lesson on *Yamas & Niyams*, expounding the details in an able and learned manner. Certain instructions were given him which we are not in a position to state. He was told to be strict in their observance on the pain of a serious punishment, three mistakes only being forgiven. Guru Datta came away regulating his conduct according to the methods explained and expounded by the sannyasi. He, however, committed a mistake unconsciously but was made aware of it by the Sadhu who warned him for the future. Guru Datta became more careful at this but, notwithstanding all his exertion, he was led into another mistake. There was again a warning from the Sadhu, who said that it was the last time that he had been apprised of his mistake, the next infringement would not be heeded to. Now what explanation can there be of the communication of the Sadhu with Vidyarthi. Some men would be apt to regard the whole story to be a mere tissue of fabrication, others might think the latter details as a mere superstition. But we think both these allegations cannot be made with any degree of force. The accuracy of the story is vouched for by the friend of Pandit Guru Datta already referred to, and he has no motive to fabricate it. The communion of the Sadhu is also susceptible of an explanation. That he was a man of great psychical powers is proved beyond doubt. He possessed that divine halo which fascinated those who came in his contact and the strong magnetic currents of his will-power could not be resisted by Guru Datta. Communion can be established by mesmerism. A man can, in mesmeric condition, describe things situated thousands of miles away with exactness. The present writer has had occasion to see a girl under the influence of mesmerism giving faithful description of a house situated several thousands of miles away from the place, and a house of which she knew nothing at all. The owner of the house testified to everything that the girl said. In her ordinary condition, she did not know what was asked from her while in the mesmeric trance. The powers and capabilities of the human mind are by no means small and insignificant. To those who doubt the possibility of thought-transmission, we recommend the perusal of works on "mental suggestion." The contact of the Yogi with Guru Datta, though it was incidental, proved of
much advantage to the latter. It strengthened his faith and conviction in the principles of individual purity. The lesson on *yamas* and *niyamas* and the threats of the Yogi that he would be punished in the event of his deviation from those principles exercised a very salutary influence over him. He became very cautious in all his movements, and his mental and moral tone, which was already above that of the average run of students, became still more high. It had subsequently much to do with the development of his genius, since the purer a man in heart, the higher and more lofty will be his ambition and less chance will there be of the vitiation of his judgment, because the causes that give rise to such things are conspicuous by their absence. He grew pure in thought and deed day by day, and in his college career he was one of the few young men who commanded respect from fellow students for their nobility of life and conduct.

Guru Datta passed his "Entrance" in November 1880, and left for Lahore in January 1881 to prosecute his studies at the local Government College. Education was at the time in its incipient stages in the Punjab. There was but one College in the whole Province, and students from all parts of the Punjab, after finishing their education in high schools, came to Lahore for further study. The Government College was then the nucleus of learning. The entire staff consisted of experienced, learned, and talented professors. Dr. Leitner, who enjoyed a world-wide celebrity as an oriental scholar and whose memory is still held in grateful rememberance in the Punjab, was in charge of the institution. Under his sympathetic and enlightened guidance, the College had attained much popularity. The professors had a happy regard for the students, and were, in return, loved and respected by the students. The spirit of indifference towards the pupils and utter disregard for their moral well-being, which is now the leading characteristic of those entrusted with the noble duty of imparting education, were unknown at the time, nor did there exist the spirit of irreverence with which the students at present behave towards their Professors. Consequently, the College turned out men of worth. Guru Datta, being a genius, drank deep at the fountain of knowledge, and all the aforesaid advantages had an elevating effect on his intellectual and moral life. He rose into prominence only a few months after his joining the College. The loftiness of his tone, high regard for truth, profundity of thought, nobility of character, vastness of information in almost all departments of study, the stern and unbending will which he brought to bear
upon all his acts, attracted the attention of the Professors as well as of the students who admired him for these high virtues. Just as magnet attracts the iron, so did he, by virtue of his amiable qualities, attract students towards him. His study of the western authors produced great unrest in his mind during the first two or three years of his college career. His intellect would not believe in the existence of God, though his spiritual nature and his moral qualities that were high and sublime, bore strong and unequivocal testimony to the existence of the Divine Father. His heart had firm faith in God, and His beneficence and mercy, while his intellect would not assent to the dictates of the heart. There was a phase of skepticism in his intellectual speculation that could not be mistaken. His favourite authors at the time were Mill and Bain, and some of his ideas in the Department of moral science derived their nutriment from the works of these philosophers, and he was strongly opposed to the inadequate tests that Christianity supplied in regard to the judgment of the rightness or wrongness of our actions. The Christian theory of morals had risen to much prominence owing to the great impulse having been communicated to it by the Brahmo Samaj, then in a very prosperous and flourishing condition. The idea of the authority of conscience in the decision of the legality or otherwise of an action was gaining wide acceptance and Guru Datta, with a view to enlighten the public mind on the question, wrote a vigorous article in the Regenerator of Arya Varta which was virtually under his editorial charge. The article deserves a careful perusal, and we reproduce it for the edification of our readers:

"The position of the Brahmo Samaj with regard to conscience has been that of Intuitionists. This School asserts that there is a moral faculty or moral instinct in us which gives us the perception of right and wrong, of good and bad, as the eye gives us the perception of colour. Those that are opposed to this doctrine hold that conscience is not an innate faculty, but that it is really an acquired faculty, a faculty, which is in no way different and distinct from other senses, the acquisition being mainly from experience and association. Before we attempt an exposition of the nature of conscience, we would ask leave of our readers to show what practical differences result from these two views. "Now, the difference between the two schools of philosophy—that of intuition and that of experience and association, is not a mere matter of abstract speculation; it is full of practical consequences, and lies at the foundation of all the greatest differences of practical opinion in an age of progress. The practical reformer has continually to demand that changes be made in things which are supported by
powerful and widely-spread feelings, or to question the apparent necessity or indefeasibility of established facts; and it is often an indispensable part of his argument to show how those powerful feelings had their origin, and how those facts came to seem necessary and indefeasible. There is, therefore, a natural hostility between him and a philosophy which discourages the explanation of feeling and moral facts by circumstances and association, and prefers to treat them as ultimate elements of human nature, a philosophy which is addicted to holding of favourable doctrines as intuitive truths, and deems intuition to be the voice of Nature and of God, speaking with authority higher than that of our reason." The above words from the pen of one of the greatest philosophers that the nineteenth century has yet produced, clearly show the unfitness of this doctrine to reformation, and the inadaptability of this view to progress and improvement in general. Although this mode of thought might not yet have indolence and the conservativism indicated in the above words, it is certain to produce these in future, and we sincerely believe that this tendency has been a chief hindrance to the rational treatment of great social questions, and one of the great stumbling blocks to human improvement. This radical defect in the tendencies of the Brahmo Samaj should not escape the attention of a Brahmo reformer.

"Had it been impossible in any case to teach against the dictates of conscience, or were it so that this capacity lay uncorrupted in the general decay and habitual change of our other faculties, our treatment of the question would have been otherwise. But unfortunately, however, such is the refragibility with which this faculty yields under external influences and other motives, that the question has very often been put, "should I obey my conscience?" and there have been men who have answered it in the negative.

"We cannot be more certain of anything than that it is with perfect sincerity and feeling of reverence and godliness, that an humble Hindu kneels down before his idol, and prays that he should succeed in his efforts; nor are we less confident of the truth of the fact that when the iconoclast Mahmud broke the precious statue of Somanath, it was with no less an air of solemnity and calmness of conscience than when a Brahmo prays his God for good conscience and upright heart. If these facts are true, there can be little doubt that this faculty, if innate at all, is not one of perception, but is only a strengthening element in our feelings, the direction, which is given to them, being solely established by association or by education.
"What is this strengthening element? When a child is reluctant to tell a lie, what is it but the fear of displeasing or the hope of pleasing his parents or his fellow-creatures, that operates in his mind? What is this binding force, then, if it be not the fear of displeasing or the hope of pleasing our fellow-creatures, or if it be not the fear of hell or the hope of heaven, the fear of acting against, or the hope of acting according to, the Will of God?

"In proportion, then, as these external fears or hopes, these antipathies and sympathies act on the mind, in the same proportion is conscience more or less delicate or callous. Its binding force then consists in this, that there is a mass of feelings previously present in the mind, which gives direction to all our actions, and it is the resistance which this mass of feelings offers, while we do anything or act contrary to those previously present feelings, which probably comes afterwards in the form of remorse. When these feelings are of sufficient strength and are regarded with sanctity, man shrinks from acting against those feelings as an impossibility. This is what is termed the scrupulosity of conscience. If this view of the moral faculty be true, then conscience is not only not an innate faculty, but, clogged as it is with many associations, both false and true, and bent as it can be by education and the operation of external influences, it cannot be a rational ground for the foundation of a sound morality."

The article on "conscience" was written in 1882. Guru Datta was then reading in the first year class. The sobriety of tone, soundness of judgment, and mastery over the intricate problems of philosophy which this interesting piece of criticism reflects are certainly remarkable. The existence of such profound merits in a boy of sixteen or seventeen years, who had just entered the threshold of his college career, is astonishing. At this period, the reader would be surprised to learn, he had read through many voluminous works on Philosophy available in this country. There was hardly any philosopher of note whose works could be had in the English language, that he had not studied with deep and close attention. His memory being tenacious, the leading ideas and views of the various philosophers were indelibly impressed on his mind and he was seldom put to the necessity of referring to a philosophical work for ascertaining the views of its author. While so great was the range of his learning in the realm of Philosophy he was no less erudite in other departments of knowledge. Mathematics he knew as much as was required for the B.A. examination. Science was his special subject of study and he had a vast information in his branch of learning. The rules of Arabic Grammar were on the tip of
his tongue, ready for application at any time and he had read several works in that language. According to a gentleman who had an intimate connection with him at the time and who at present holds a high office under Government "he was as good in Mathematics as in Science, as good in Philosophy as in languages." Almost the whole of his leisure time was spent in the study of books that did not fall within the College curriculum, he seldom opened his class-books outside the College precincts, yet he never failed in any one examination. The secret of his success was the close and undivided attention that he gave to his lessons while sitting in the class. He heard the lectures of the professors very attentively, and all the salient points in them were noted and carefully grasped. He went up for the Intermediate Examination in Arts of the Punjab University in May 1883 and his Class-fellow Mr. Lajpat Rai assures us that at home he never saw him reading a College lesson or a Class-book. Still he came out at the head of the successful candidates.

Pandit Guru Datta exercised a profound influence on the life and thought of his class-fellows, and especially those who were his friends. It was he who moved for the establishment of a Club for the discussion of questions on religion and philosophy. The Club was formally organised in 1882. Guru Datta was appointed its Secretary by the unanimous consent of all interested in the Club. His views, at the time, as we have already said, were agnostic and at times his speculations partook of atheism. All sorts of subjects were discussed at the Club. The members professed various shades of beliefs, some were Hindus, some Mohammedans, some Brahmos and some Aryas. They approached the problems under discussion from the points of view of their respective faiths. The Club served to create a spirit of research among the members, each trying to know more of the beliefs of others. The permanent Hindu members of the Club were Lala Sheo Nath, Lajpat Rai, Hans Raj, Sada Nanda, Chetana Nanda, Ruchi Ram, Dewan Narendra Nath, Pandits Hari Kishen, Rameshwar Nath Kaul, &c., &c. Pandit Guru Datta, being a man of genius, his views were much esteemed by the other members, and not a few of them were influenced by the predominating tone of his mind.

In 1883, Pandit Guru Datta's religious ideas approximated almost to atheism. He delivered a lecture probably in the middle of that year on "Religion." We owe it to the industry of our venerable brother, Lala Jiwan Das, late President of the Lahore Arya Samaj, that a part of that lecture is now accessible to the Aryan public. Pandit Guru Datta discusses
in the pages that are preserved to us, the origin of Religion. It is a strong onslaught against religion. At the outset, he observes: "The real object of my sketching out these appalling and yet perfectly true reflections on the general theory of religion is to point out how the feelings of mankind and especially of individuals, have been swayed by Religion. This points us to a moral which it is most essential for our purposes to have constantly in our view; and, were it not for the elucidation of this moral, I would not have taken the trouble of sketching out these sad reflections. The moral is that in discussing all questions concerning religion, we must not allow ourselves being influenced by our feelings but must strictly abide by our reason. There are regions wherein one's favourite ideas may be indulged. But we are here concerned with only truth so far as our reason can discover it. Of all tasks, the most odious certainly is that of unwittingly shocking the feelings and opinions of others. For this reason, I will not unnecessarily touch upon the ground of that higher question of the truth of religion from which my present subject stands quite aloof. I propose to deal with my subject in a thoroughly scientific way; a way which should not be prejudicial to the interests either of a philosopher or of a metaphysican. I will refer to well-established laws of human nature and to other empirical generalistions as forming the basis of deduction for my purposes and will verify my results from the facts of universal history.

Honesty of conviction was the leading trait of Guru Datta's character. He had an unbounded abhorrence for a life which was not consistent in thought and deed. His nature was utterly foreign to cant and dissimulation, which figure so largely in the so-called civilized world of to-day. He was never an atheist in his life for any considerable length of time. Days there were in which the tone of his mind was decidedly atheistic, but they were few. The lecture on "Religion" was delivered in that period in which his mind got the better of his spiritual faculty. He made no secret of his beliefs but plainly declared his convictions when he was not a theist and the aforesaid lecture affords a strong testimony to his honesty. But as his mental condition was seldom uniform in the period of which we are writing, he could not adopt a fixed course of action. When theistic tendency became pre-dominant, he openly avowed his belief in the existence of the Divine Being. There was a strange conflict going on between his intellectual and spiritual faculties in 1883. As he was a man of great force of character and logical powers, there were several of his friends whose ideas about God had been shaken by his conversation and one of them wrote to
him in the same year proposing to disavow their belief in God in public. Accordingly we find a note in his diary to this effect: "Lala——— writes that we should have to declare that we are atheists." The letter in which this idea was suggested was probably received at a time when the speculative tone of the Vidyarthi had changed, otherwise he might have determined on some definite course of conduct in regard to this affair.

Pandit Guru Datta was much occupied during the year 1883. In January he delivered the aforesaid lecture, and in March he founded a Science Class in connection with the Arya Samaj. The class was launched under the auspices of Dr. Oman, the Professor of Science in the Government College.

The activities of the Pandit were many-sided. While on the one hand, he was working in the interests of the Science Class, on the other, he had to write articles for the Regenerator of Arya Varta, a paper started by Lala Salig Ram, Proprietor of the Arya Press.

At this time occurred an event which changed the whole course of his life. Swami Dayananda, lay dying at Ajmere. This intelligence was received at Lahore, on the 9th of October. The office-bearers of the Lahore, Arya Samaj, at once deputed L. Jiwan Dás and Pt. Guru Datta, to Ajmere. His going there proved highly beneficial both to himself and to the Arya Samaj. It marks a turning point in his life and a great epoch in the history of the Arya Samaj. When he reached Ajmere, Swamiji's condition had become very critical. Eruptions had appeared all over his body, and he moved about with much difficulty. An ordinary man would have succumbed under such an ordeal in no time. But Swamiji heaved not a sigh, his expression was as calm and serene as ever, there being not even the slightest trace of anguish on his countenance. This was really an astonishing sight to a man so sensitive and keen-witted as Pandit Guru Datta and he looked at the Maharishi for hours together in dumb surprise. This was the first time that he had seen the Great Reformer in his life-time and Swamiji had also not seen him before and was wholly unaware of his capabilities. At this meeting the quick eye of the Maharishi at once singled him out from the whole host of Aryas as a man who was fitted to render a lasting service to his people. Guru Datta too, on the other hand, felt the charm of his character and the magnetic influence of his life. A close relationship, as it were, was established between the two souls. Atheism began to melt away at the sight of the Maharishi, but it was utterly swept off at his death-scene. One or two hours before the last moments the Maharishi distributed shawls, &c., among his servants and scribes and when a few minutes were left in his death, he ordered all men to retire excepting.
Pandit Guru Datta. There lay on his death-bed the mighty Reformer and his face, calm and placid, radiated with a heavenly brilliance. He thought not of the world and world's sorrow. He sang the glory of his Lord. He felt no horror of death, nay he felt joy as he was going to join his Divine Father. With the words 'God, Thy will be done,' on his dying lips, Swami closed his eyes. Pandit Guru Datta saw all this. He gazed and gazed and then came a change over him. The last relic of atheism perished in his mind. His whole nature was transformed into something higher and sublimer. All his doubts were solved and he became quite a new man. He saw that death had no terror for those who live for Truth, that there was an endless life behind and beyond, that the spirit being immortal, no earthly considerations should ever over-ride the interests of dharma—that death was after all a change from one place to another and was not feared in the least by those who led a life of devotion and righteousness. This grand scene worked a wonderful effect on the mind of Guru Datta and ever afterwards we find him fighting the cause of theism and dharma with all his might and main. The services he has rendered to the Arya Samaj are already well-known to the Aryas, and his name shines like a brilliant star in the firmament of the Arya Samaj. After the memorable event we have just chronicled, Pandit Guru Datta gave himself up to a deep study of Aryan literature. The more he studied Swami Dyananda, the intenser grew his admiration for the Great Reformer and the deeper became his faith in Vedic dharma. He read Sattyarth Prakash no less than eighteen times and declared that every time he read it, he found something new and fresh in the way of mental and spiritual food. The book, he said, was full of recondite truths.

The intelligence of Swami Dayananda's death was at once wired from Ajmere to the various centres of Samajic activity. It cast a deep gloom over the country, and, for a time, the leaders of thought in the Samaj were completely stupefied and stunned. The Samajists brooded in dark despair over the fate of their movement. With the sailor removed from the helm, the ship of the Arya Samaj might run into shoals of rocks and be wrecked into pieces. Sorrow and disappointment were visible in all Samajic circles, every Aryan heart was prostrated with grief. Men like Lala Sain Dass, who possessed a calm temperament and whose minds remained unhinged even in the severest of crises, wept bitterly at this loss. In the sombre moments when every thing appeared gloomy in the Arya Samaj, a thought, however, suggested itself to a keen-witted gentleman in the Lahore Arya Samaj, and he broached it to his fellow-believers in a pensive mood. There was little hope of its meeting with approval at that period, but the actua
experience proved to be quite the contrary. The idea of perpetuating the memory of the illustrious reformer received a sympathetic response in every mind that was apprised of the thought. Consequently the Lahore Arya Samaj conceived a plan of action to give it a practical shape within a week after the death of Swamiji. It was, however, not made public till the return of Pandit Guru Datta from Ajmere. When it was made known to him, he readily gave his assent and promised to work in the interests of the proposed institution as much as his avocations would permit. He delivered a lecture soon after his arrival in Lahore, in which the closing scene of Maharishi Dayananda’s career which he had witnessed was depicted in such a vivid manner that every man in the vast audience was touched to the innermost core of his heart. The proposal of founding a College in memory of Dayananda was formally put forward before the public on the 8th November 1883. It was received with favour by all classes of people. Pandit Guru Datta’s speech on the occasion was highly pathetic, passionate and impressive. Rs. 7,000 were subscribed on the spot.

Though the Samajists had set on foot a stupendous movement, which was calculated to inspire faltering hearts with hopes and diffuse activity in the Arya Samajes, yet to those, who, amidst the strifes and turmoils of the world, sought for dharma, it afforded little consolation. In the sphere of religion, as in all others, precept accomplishes far more than mere speculative thought. However grand and magnificent a faith, it can have no influence over the people unless there are men who exemplify its truths in their person. Maharishi Dayananda, who embodied, with unparalleled exactness the sublime ideals of the Vedic dharma in his life, had disappeared from the scene; and there was none who could take his place. Consequently there was a lull in activity and several men had been, more or less, dissipated. But little did they know that in the metropolis of the Punjab, there was a mind in the process of incubation, that would, in a year or two, shed forth its lustre on the Arya Samaj and illumine the surrounding darkness with its radiant lustre. The soul of Guru Datta was gradually ascending higher flights, notwithstanding the din and bustle in the Samaj consequent on the inauguration of the D. A.-V. College Movement. He was assimilating the profound truths of the Vedic religion, had commenced the practice of pranayam and other sadhans and all his attempts were mainly concentrated on self-improvement. He did not care at all for his College lessons; the greater portion of his time was spent in meditation on deep problems of spiritual import. And the result of all this pursharath and struggle for a higher existence was fully manifested two or three years later.
Now the Dayananda Anglo Vedic College Movement began to absorb his whole attention. After passing the B.A. Examination in 1885, he set himself actively to the advocacy of the cause of the College; a number of speeches were delivered in the different Samajes in the Province on the subject, with the result that a healthy and intelligent interest was created in the movement among the educated people at large. His learning, his noble bearing, his spotless character, his child-like simplicity, drew large audiences every where and his pathetic and vigorous appeals so charming and eloquent had a marvellous effect in moving the people to open their purses in the interest of the College. Money poured in from all sides, so much so that those who had no cash with them at the time, gave away ear-rings, chands, anants and similar other ornaments on their persons. The following cutting from the Arya Patrika will show how the lectures of Pandit Guru Datta were appreciated. "Pandit Guru Datta, Vidyarthi, B.A., an able member of the Lahore Arya Samaj, then followed. He delivered a very impressive and learned speech and proved by quoting and explaining a mantra of the Rig Veda that the assertion of the late Maharishi Swami Dyananda Saraswati that the Vedas contained the germs of all knowledge was quite true. In one single Mantra quoted by him he showed that all the properties of air were forcibly described. He also stated that the study of Vedas was very necessary from many points of view. He said that even those who considered the Vedas as worthless books should feel interest in spreading their knowledge, because that alone was the way of shaking the faith of the people in them, if they were really books containing childish things. In the end he said that the first duty of every well-wisher of the country was to contribute to the funds of the Anglo-Vedic College." Rs. 10,000 were collected at this speech. Shortly after, another was delivered at Pindi which fetched Rs. 1,600. In April next the exigencies of the work took him to Peshawar where no less than Rs. 2,600 were subscribed. Some months later Amritsar was revisited and a most impressive lecture on the D.A. V. College delivered there which, to quote the Patrika again "moved the hearts of all the people present and produced a wonderful effect, He proved to demonstration that it was one of the chief duties of all the Arya Samajists to help in the foundation of this grand seminary of Sanskrit and western Sciences and technical instruction in memory of Swami Dayananda. His appeal to the public was very impressive. On his speech being brought to a close, Rs. 908-4 in cash were collected.
The major portion of the year following that in which Pandit Guru Datta passed the B. A. Examination was spent in lecturing on the aims and objects of the D. A.-V. College. Though he had made up his mind to go up for the M. A. Examination, he paid very little attention to his studies. Much of his time was spent in chess-playing—a game for which he, in those days, had a passionate fondness, in religious discussions and in conversation on topics of Samajic interest with his friends and with gentle- men who gathered round him in numbers for counsel, advice and enlighten-ment. There are men, some of whom were his constant companions and lived in the same house with him, who state that they seldom found him with a book in his hand, studying for the approaching examination. And yet he headed the list of the successful candidates, taking his degree in Physics. The year 1886 when he passed his M. A. brings to a close his College career.

After passing his M. A. he was appointed Assistant Professor of Science in the Government College, Lahore, in 1886. And now Arya Samaj that he was settled in life he began to work heart and soul for Dayananda Anglo Vedic College. He attended almost all the anniversaries. His lectures grew so popular that every Samaj was anxious to avail itself of his eloquence in this connection. The Arya Patrika designated him as "our famous anniversary lecturer on the D. A. V. College movement." It is not possible to form anything like an adequate conception of the hopes that he himself entertained with regard to the College; the ordinary members of the Samaj considered it as the would-be centre of Vedic learning and enlightenment in the country, as a home and nursery of the Aryan civilization which would impregnate the entire atmosphere with wholesome and salutary elements, favourable to the growth of spirituality and high ideals of dharma among the Indians. Guru Datta was a man of great intellectual insight; his expectations, therefore must be far higher and this idea receives wonderful corroboration from the fact that he pleaded the cause of the College with an unbounded zeal and enthusiasm. All that he said about it seemed to arise from the innermost depth of the soul. He could not, however, work the whole year (1886) without intermission. His father, who at that time was much advanced in age, fell ill and much of his time was spent beside the invalid’s bed. The idea of sending a deputation with the object of collecting subscriptions for the College to N.-W. Provinces and Oudh was conceived in 1886. Pandit Guru Datta had no hope of accompanying it, for his
father's condition grew worse; the disease, far from showing any sign of abatement, assumed serious proportions. He must serve the father and stay at home, but the inability to accompany the Deputation was keenly felt and sincerely regretted. In a letter addressed to Lala Lajpat Rai about the time, he observes: "My father is very weak and ill at Muzaffargarh. He likes that I should live with him. Now I am officiating in Lahore. His coming here will unnecessarily produce undue expenditure. Besides, his being here will not allow me to stir from Lahore, my promise to go on a mission, Samajic or other, will go for nothing. Duty to father and duty to country are at conflict, mind is set in abeyance; every holiday I go to Multan and come back." This was followed by another letter after a short interval in which he writes: 'Guru Datta, Vidyarthi, is sad enough to find that he cannot leave Muzaffargarh, at which place he will sojourn during the whole term of vacation. He is but powerless to wander about preaching. Father is very ill and he most urgently demands my presence with him every moment. I know what sacrifices shall I have to undergo to please my father—say what you will advise.'

The Summer Vacation of 1886 was spent at Muzaffargarh beside the father's sick-bed. There was not only no improvement in his condition for some time, but the disease grew virulent and Panditji lost all hope of his recovery. He, however, nursed him with the devotion of a dutiful son, personally administering medicines and supervising all arrangements made in connection with his illness. The disease at last spent its fury and there were signs of relief. The gentleman fully recovered. In the meantime the vacation was over and Panditji Guru Datta returned to Lahore. He was officiating in those days as the Assistant Professor of Science in the Government College, Lahore. The year rolled on; he was sorry that he had not served his community as much as he desired.

Next year (1887) he was appointed Officiating Professor of Science in place of Mr. Oman who went on leave.

But whether working as assistant professor or as professor, his heart was in the D. A. V. College. And we find him again prepared to go out on a lecturing tour for the same institution in the summer vacation.

A deputation for collecting subscriptions for the College was organised like the one in the last year during summer vacation but unfortunately a few days before starting on the eleemosynary tour, Panditji's father again fell ill. He must stay at home. But at the same time he was very anxious
to serve the College. The father being a very intelligent and patriotic man
and at the same time a sincere well-wisher of the movement, read the mind
of the son and allowed him, without any formal request on his part, to join
the Deputation.

The Deputation left Lahore in July 1887. It consisted of Lala Lall Chand, M. A., Lala Madan Singh, B. A., Lala Dwarka Dass, M. A., Lala
Lajpat Rai, Lala Jwala Sahay, the well-known contractor and reis of Miani
and our Vidyanthi. There was no particular destination. Halts were made
at almost all important towns. During all this time the mind of Panditji
was by no means at rest, he was very anxious to know the condition of his
father and kept sending telegrams to Muzaffargarh, inquiring about it.
When the vacation was over, the party returned to Lahore and immediately
after his arrival Panditji attended the anniversary of the Rawalpindi Arya
Samaj. The lecture on the D. A. V. College movement delivered by him on
the occasion was simply grand. The last sentences have been preserved in
record, and they are very pathetic and touching. 'If you are convinced,' said he, "you have a soul within you, if you are convinced your life will not
end with the dissolution of your outer selves, but that there is something
within you, which will live after your bodies have perished, and if you desire
that this soul of yours should go on progressing and are aware that learning
will effect this object, you must join in helping the establishment of the
D. A.-V. College. The cause of the progress of the soul is the cause of the
progress of all humanity and Hindus and Mohammedans and Christians
should all join in this noble cause." In response to this appeal Rs.
1,253-4-6 were collected on the spot. A few hours after his return from
Pindi he received the sad intelligence of the death of his father. The inci-
dent must have much affected his mind. He at once telegraphed to his rela-
tives at Multan to preserve the body till his arrival. His eldest son coming
to know of his intention of cremating the remains of his father according to
the Vedic rites asked his mother to give up the body to them, but she would
not do anything against the wishes of her son. A strong resistance was
offered by the Bradari but PanditGuru Datta braved it very manfully.

Shortly after the death of his father the public demand on Pt. Guru
Datta’s energies became very great. The death of his father had thrown
him into various domestic afflictions. The loss of a parent, especially one
who is very gentle, noble and affectionate is, in itself, a great calamity that
can befall a person. The disappearance of the venerable figure, whose loving
hands have protected one through life’s most prickly thoroughfares, whose
courageous and inspiring words in moments of difficulty and depression
have infused a new strength in the mind, is not an ordinary catastrophe.
It is most keenly felt by sensitive individuals and hardly had Pandit Guru
Datta a sigh of relief from the overwhelming grief that had seized on him
when he was asked to deliver lectures on the D. A.-V. College Movement at
the anniversaries of the Samajes. The gentleman, having a great regard for
the Movement, did not attach any importance to his private affairs, in view
of the matters of public interest and he at once responded to the call. The
10th anniversary of the Lahore Arya Samaj came off on the 26th and 27th,
November, a few days after his father's demise and he delivered a very
splendid address on the D. A.-V. College on the occasion. To attempt even
to give a distant idea of the earnestness, the depth of feeling with which he
spoke on the occasion would be to attempt an impossibility. A death-like
silence reigned in the hall when he spoke, and a gathering of men number-
ing little less than 3 thousand, sat the very embodiment of muteness. Every-
thing, he said, had a ring of sincerity and earnestness about it. His utter-
ings of a feeling heart, his tone, his language gave the most unmistakable
evidence of the fact that he felt what he said. We have seldom heard a more elec-
trifying speech. Verily the language of the heart, in spite of all its sim-
plicity, excels the most exquisite pieces of eloquence without sincerity and
innermost earnestness to back them. He exemplified his remarks by
drawing illustrations from the life of Swami Dayananda; and we are faith-
fully chronicling the fact when we say that we saw the tears coursing down
the faces of many."

The closing months of the year 1887 were spent, for the most part, in
delivering lectures upon important religious subjects. Three of these are
worthy of special mention. The subjects dealt with in them, viz., 'The
Object of Life,' 'Truth,' and the 'Arya Samaj' are of vital interest to the
religious world. But perhaps the most interesting and instructive lecture
delivered during the period just named is that of the 'Realities of Inner
Life.' It was printed in a pamphlet form in 1890.

With the commencement of the new year, Pandit Guru Datta's activity
was redoubled. He grew very enthusiastic and the major portion of his
spare-time was spent in the diffusion of healthy ideas on religion and morali-
ty among the people. One lecture after another was delivered; the edu-
cated men, especially those who were members of the Arya Samaj, frequented
his house and gathered round him in numbers in the mornings and evenings
and held conversations on deep and recondite questions of Vedic Philosophy.
These conversations were generally cheerful and animated and continued for hours together. Panditji never sent any man back without satisfying him on every point connected with his inquiry. The questions were varied and embraced various departments of learning and it is a wonder indeed how Panditji had managed to master difficult and abstruse subjects. He was, as it were, an embodiment of learning; Sanskrit, Arabic, Physical Sciences, Geology, Chemistry, Botany, Physiology, Astronomy, Mathematics, Philosophy, Philology—in all these and in many more—he appeared to be quite at home and those who approached him for the removal of their doubts were simply struck at his profound scholarship. He died while yet he was hardly 27 years of age and how in this short time he contrived to gather such a vast store of knowledge will ever remain an object of wonder and admiration. His very presence was quieting. There are men who say that after they had once heard him talk at his residence not a doubt arose in their minds on any subject. This might seem somewhat paradoxical and some men would be inclined to think that there is a vein of exaggeration in all that we have said about Panditji, but if any testimony from those that have been in personal contact with the illustrious scholar can be valid, we can assure the reader that we are giving an exact and faithful description of facts. There are things that appear quite inexplicable at first sight but if sufficient attention were bestowed upon them and mind were left to cogitate on the complex and intricate aspects that they present, undisturbed for some time, they become perfectly clear and transparent.

The year 1888 was the most eventful in the life of Pt. Guru Datta. It was during this year that he delivered lectures by way of criticism on Monier Williams' 'Indian Wisdom,' studied the science of Swars and introduced the right mode of the recitation of the Vedic texts. This was a task of which the magnitude cannot be easily conceived. If he had done no other work, this alone was enough to entitle him to a high position among the greatmen of the age. But by far the most valuable work which he did and which is worthy of being cherished with gratitude by us all, is his staunch and uncompromising advocacy of the Vedic religion. The Vedic religion was in those days much traduced by the Brahmans. The educated men, imbued with western ideas, raised a host of objections on the principles of the Arya Samaj. To meet these persons on their own ground a very powerful exponent of dharma was needed. A man of learning was in requisition who should not only refute the objections of the opponents in a
rational manner and reply to the half-hearted questionings of the skeptics in a courteous and sympathetic spirit but vindicate its superiority over all other forms of faith. And such a man Providence had vouchsafed to the Samaj in the person of Pandit Guru Datta. He did an excellent work. His fearless and undaunted expression of truth extorted admiration even from his opponents. The lecture which he delivered at the anniversary of the Lahore Arya Samaj in December 1888 is worth preserving in a permanent form. He said "that modern science, whatever its merits, did not throw the least light on the problem of life. It did not afford the slightest clue towards the solution of the grandest and the most difficult question which can agitate the human mind—the origin and the ultimate destiny of mankind. The modern scientist might dissect every nerve and bone, subject every drop to a most searching examination under the most powerful microscope he could possibly have, but he was as hopelessly lost over his question as ever. He could not undo the mystery of life. He might go on for ages dissecting and experimenting, but he would be none the wiser for it on the question of life. That question could not be solved but by the aid of the Vedas. They alone could unravel that grand mystery, and to them the scientist must ultimately turn. Already there were indications of such a tendency. The Vedas were, and, rightly too, regarded as the source, the fountain-head of all science by the ancient Rishis. They entirely gave themselves up to their study, reflected and pondered over the truths inculcated therein, and Arya Varta enjoyed a state of prosperity and an amount of happiness, of which we might in vain seek for a parallel in these days. Happiness in this world as well as in the next was the fruit of the study of the Vedas. It was most deplorable that Arya Varta had fallen off from the Vedic faith. It could not but descend to the depths of degradation to which it had descended. It had itself courted its ruin and richly deserved it. But though gloomy the retrospect, the prospect, was all cheering. The same eternal luminary of truth, the Vedas, had reappeared. It had shattered and dispersed the clouds of superstition entirely. The darkness, which so ominously hung over the globe, had been dispelled and the luminary was shining with greater effulgence than ever. This most happy state of things had been brought about by the efforts of Swami Daya Nanda. It was he who had led us to the light in which the ancient Rishis basked. But though, many had seen it and duly appreciated the blessing, the majority, long used to
live in darkness, had either doubted it or obstinately refused to be led to it. It was the duty, the imperative duty of all whose souls were no longer enveloped in the gloom of superstition, to cure the sceptic of his scepticism and the obstinate and the bigoted of their obstinacy and bigotry. This could only be done by assisting the institution where the coming generations were gradually and imperceptibly being prepared to be ultimately led to it. The lecturer did not name any particular institution, the people knew which institution they ought to assist. The lecturer sat down amidst vociferous cheering.”

From the beginning of 1883, the year during which Pandit Guru Datta was ceaselessly active, dates the growth of disease which, under a modified form, ultimately carried him off. What with the revision, and swarising of the Sam Veda, what with the botheration at the Ashtadyayi class, and what with constant and prolonged travels in the mufaisil in the interests of the D.-A.V. College, his constitution, though unusually strong had broken down. It could not bear a heavy strain. The Pandit was advised to take a little of rest and recruit his health. At first he took kindly to the advice, but the prospect of a brilliant success in the proselytising mission of the Arya Samaj took possession of his entire soul and encompassed all other considerations. He would not withdraw himself from the field of activity, come what might. Fortunately or unfortunately at that early stage of Samajic propagandism, four Samyasis, Achutananda, Prakashananda, Swatananda, and Mahananda—strolling monks—fell in with him. They were an intelligent lot and evinced a sincere desire to learn and know about the Vedic religion, its principles and dispensation in the world. Pandit Guru Datta was all kindness and courtesy to them. His superior learning, unrivalled wisdom, and great resources of information simply bewitched the Swamis. They would not part company with him. Day and night they were seen at his house. They belonged to the Vedantic persuasion but their Vedantism evaporated before Panditji as water does before the sun. Restless in mind, without any settled conviction to guide and console them, these people yearned with the intense longing of one parched with spiritual thirst for nectar and that was ungrudgingly dispensed by the learned Pandit. Having been perfectly satiated, they expressed a desire to work for the propagation of the Vedic religion and volunteered their services to the Pratinidhi Sabha. For some time they worked with unfaltering zeal. Latterly two of them, viz., Achutananda and Prakashananda, fell off. The conversion of these Samyasis had not a little affected the health of Pandit Guru
Datta, but they were not the only frequenters of his house at the time. A large body of Aryas and non-Aryas visited him daily, some to learn, some to amuse themselves and some to fathom his learning. Being a man of obliging habits, he never asked them to retire, but kept up with them till late in the night. An idea of these gatherings may be gained from the following observations of Lala Lajpat Rai: "For several days of the year, I am told by a reliable witness, all the four revered Swamis remained with him and conversed upon different topics of religion, so the people might well consider his house to be an Ashram in the truest sense of the term and that many did consider it to be such is a fact. Many souls did go to that house in search of truth and came back with their minds treasured with the love of the Vedic religion. All sorts of people, whether Grihasthis (laymen) or Sannyasis (ascetics), flocked to him to solve the deep problems of human life and to receive light from the resplendent luminary of knowledge. With brilliant record of valuable services in the cause of the Arya Samaj, he did not neglect his own intellectual and spiritual advancement. Among others too numerous to be named, he went through the ten principal Upanishats, Gopath and Aitraya Brahmans, portions of Nirukta, Charak (a medical book), Surya Siddhant. Patanjali’s Mahabhashya he studied himself with the aid of Swami Dayananda’s Vedang Parkash and Swami Dayananda’s works were, of course, his special favourites. Swami’s Satyarth Parkash, and especially the chapter on Muki, he is said to have read many times and the more and oftener he read them, the more and deeper he believed in their celebrated author. Every day his reverence and respect for Swamiji’s genius was on an increase, and towards the middle of the year 1889 it reached its climax. Though ever so busy he never refused to teach those who wanted him to do so.” This hard strain brought on suffering and disease and we find the following painful notes in his diary:

12th January.—Several discharges of blood, very sorry.

14th January.—Suffering from the discharge of blood from the bowels.

22nd January.—Got very much sick.

1st February.—Begins my period of sickness.

12th.—Very sick, blood and weakness.

1st March.—Indigestion visits still.

16th March.—Suffering from severe nausea and two or three drops flowed ‘from the nostrils.’
1st October.—Copious discharge of blood from bowels.

2nd October.—Nausea.

These meagre and desultory notes give but a faint idea of the trouble which was raging within his constitution. He had a great power of endurance and never breathed IIai, or any other such expression under the severest pain. His constitution was almost completely wrecked by the end of the year. Yet he worked on with persistence. The people could not judge of his condition by his external appearance. It was ever calm and placid.

Throughout the year 1889, Pandit Guru Datta was again unusually active. Immediately after organising a movement for the establishment of 'Upadeshak class' he opened a Mahabhashya class. Under the purifying influences which Pandit Guru Datta exercised on the Arya Samajists, a strong desire arose in the minds of a body of earnest men to devote themselves to the cultivation of Vedic literature. Some provision must be made to satisfy this desire. There was no body at Lahore who could teach Aryan Shastras to educated people in a thoroughly efficient and competent manner, except Pandit Guru Datta, and he undertook this grave duty upon himself. The class was held at his house, there was a pretty large number of students at first, but it gradually fell, for the majority of the students were clerks, and they could not return from their offices in time to join the class. The class was otherwise a complete success. Every Arya felt its utility and a number of gentlemen from outstations expressed a wish to join it. Lala Narayan Dass M. A., Extra Assistant Commissioner, who at that time had a sincere and genuine respect for Panditji, highly appreciated the service that he was doing to the community at large through the Mahabhashya class and determined to enroll himself as a student for three months. This is significant in itself. That a distinguished graduate holding the respectable post of an Extra Assistant should feel inclined to take three months' leave simply for Sanskrit study under Pandit Guru Datta is no small testimony in favour of the excellence of the class and abilities of the Pandit. Now, that Pandit Guru Datta is no more in the land of the living, people might say whatever they like in regard to his attainments in Sanskrit, but there is no doubt that during his life-time even the most fastidious critics respected him as a profound Sanskrit scholar. Pandit Guru Datta's knowledge of Sanskrit was not only deep, but extensive. It ranged over a very wide area. He could speak
in that language with fluency and felicity of expression and men were simply struck when they saw him lecturing in Sanskrit at the Arya Mandir at Lahore against Mahamandalists, without any pause whatever. The Mahabhashya class did not enjoy a long lease of life, but during the short span of its existence, it did solid good to the students and had it continued to exist for some time more, it would certainly have turned out men of sound knowledge, well-versed in Ashtadhyai.

The study of Swami Dayananda's works had produced a wonderful effect on the mind of Panditji. He became very calm and sober in views and his mental activity was directed towards the subtle, rather than towards the gross, affairs. Atmik Unnati, or what is known as spiritual advancement, became the chief aim of his endeavours; he would do nothing that did not directly or indirectly conduce to that end. He was, as it were, a grihasthi recluse. He retired not from the busy haunts of the work-a-day world, yet the world could not influence him. Once or twice he is said to have expressed a desire to enter into Banaprastaha, so that he might be able to pursue his object without interruption from any quarter, but the thought of his family restrained him from taking such a step. Several persons were dependent upon him, and without his support they might starve or be reduced to a miserable plight. And he was keenly sensible of this fact, and, therefore, he did not retire into jungle.

In April 1889 he was relieved of Professorship in the Government College by Dr. Oman who had returned from his leave. Pandit Guru Datta, though he drew a handsome pay, had nothing to his credit in the banks, as he gave away to the poor what was left after meeting his family expenses. He must do some work, otherwise it was not possible for him to maintain his dependents. Several gentlemen advised him to go to the Director of Public Instruction and request him to give him some post. This he did not like to do, his object being to hold aloof, as much as possible, from a profession that did not help him in spiritual advancement. And what could help him in that direction except a profession which, while securing for him a good monthly income, would enlarge the range of his knowledge in the realm of Spirit? This rare combination could only be met with in the field of religious journalism and Pandit Guru Datta determined to start a Magazine devoted to the discussion of philosophical, metaphysical and theological questions. This determination took a practical turn in the middle of 1889. A periodical under the name of 'Vedic Magazine' was launched into existence. The first number appeared in July. The appearance of this high-class periodical produced a great stir in the
literary and religious world, the July number being luminous with the most brilliant articles. A liberal patronage was extended by the Aryan world and Aryas felt that in the Vedic Magazine they had a strong and powerful exponent of the various features of the Vedic dharma. In India the public gave a cordial reception to the journal and abroad it was reviewed in highly eulogistic terms by the Press.

The 'Vedic Magazine' was a stupendous effort in the direction of religious reform and revival. It was intended to meet "the needs of the ever-increasing interest in the Vedas, by presenting translations, abstracts, reviews, and criticisms on different portions of Vedic literature, to picture the interior truths of the Vedic philosophy, so needed in this age of externalism; to present the philanthropic and benevolent religion of the Vedas, in contrast with the sectarian or communitarian, but not humanitarian, religions of the world; to attack time-honoured and ignorance-begotten superstitions; to teach the principles of true reform as distinguished from time-serving and popular policies; to keep alive the pure and simple truths of the Vedas, by presenting controversial articles and reviews; to remove wilful misrepresentations, or sincere misunderstandings of selfish priestcraft, pedantic philologists and shallow materialists." The magnitude of this task can be easily imagined. It could not be performed with any degree of success unless one were thoroughly at home in the Vedic literature and in close and intimate touch with contemporary thought. He must be thoroughly familiar with religions of the world, especially those of India. His knowledge in the realm of Philosophy must range over a wide horizon, and he must possess a deep acquaintance with science. This is a killing business, in as much as it taxes the energies of an individual to the utmost. Pandit Guru Datta had chosen this vocation for himself. He alone could satisfactorily perform the various duties connected with it, there being no other man in the Samaj who could lend him any substantial help in it. Besides, even if there were, learned contributions could not be secured without monetary payments and that Pandit Guru Datta was not in a position to do, the whole burden lay upon the Pandit himself. His 'magazine' must be full of learned articles, worthy of his name and fame. And he must work for it as hard as he could. Lala Lajpat Rai tells us that "he went through all the works of Professor Max Muller, Nayai, Mimansa, Vaisheshaka, and Yoga out of Aryan philosophies, Nirukta and Swami Dayananda's Bhashya on Vedas, Mahabhashya by Patanjali, Mana Smriti, and a host of other books, too numerous to be mentioned here."
The study of so many works threw a strain upon his constitution that it could not bear, and in the latter end of July (1889) he began to complain of "something like electricity going out of him" and in the beginning of August he caught cold. This cold was soon followed by cough and fever which continued to increase in intensity till September, notwithstanding the strong efforts made to check them. At last he was obliged to remove to hills; Murree was selected as fit place for him to recruit his health. He was received there by Sardar Umrão Singh, a sincere and ardent admirer of his and although the best medical advice was procured and every comfort was provided under the hospitable roof of the Sardar Sahib, the disease showed no sign of abatement. His constitution, which was exceptionally strong, was undermined during a short stay there. The anniversary of the Peshawar Samaj coming off in those days, he made up his mind to join it. He could not bear the trouble and inconvenience of such a long journey but, when once his resolution was formed, it was very difficult to prevent him from carrying it into effect. He left for Peshawar in spite of the protests of his friends and he did not observe the anniversary as a mere passive spectator, but took an active part in it. His speech upon the Vedas was the most brilliant of addresses delivered on the occasion, and he spoke with all the might that he could command. The result of this heavy strain was that the disease redoubled its force and immediately after his arrival at Lahore he was thoroughly prostrated, with all energy for work having departed from his body. Throughout October the disease kept increasing in virulence but towards the end of October there were apparent signs of relief. And the Pandit himself began to entertain hopes of his recovery. That was a time when he ought to have allowed himself perfect rest, but no, he would not sit still. He took an active part in the meetings of the Managing Committee, of the D. A. V. College. Imagine a man reduced to a mere skeleton through constant suffering and disease, precipitating without any discrimination into discussions over public affairs. This was the besetting fault of Pandit Guru Datta. He did such things not because he was short-sighted and unaware of consequences of such action but because there was a very strong and powerful impulse from within.

This mental strain brought on extreme lassitude and exhaustion, and he lay for several days on his bed, unable to move out even a small distance. His strength began to decrease and he grew more and more lean every day. At such a critical juncture he was removed to Gujranwala and put under the treatment of Dr. Fateh Chand. Pandit Guru Datta remained
at Gujranwala for a good period; the Doctor bestowed special attention upon him but to no avail. The disease had passed that stage in which cure could be effected. There was no improvement in the condition of Panditji; on the contrary alarming symptoms developed and in consequence he was brought back to Lahore and accommodated in a Bungalow, specially hired for the purpose.

At Lahore he was treated by Pandit Narayan Dass, a Vaid of repute in the province. Pandit Narayan Dass had cured many cases of chronic consumption and his treatment effected improvement in the condition of Pandit Guru Datta, and hopes began to be entertained of his recovery in some quarters but there was an unexpected relapse. Subsequently "a Hakim, named Sher Ali, was called from Jllandhar. 'His treatment,' says Mr. Lajpat Rai, "worked wonders and in almost a week Panditji's complete recovery became a matter of days." But this was likely the flicker of the dying flames. There was a relapse "from the effects of which Panditji never recovered."

The morning of the 18th March dawned bright and clear. The sun shone in its full splendour. There was not a speck of cloud to be seen in the sky. The birds sang joyfully. Men went to their daily tasks with light hearts. There was joy all around. But there was no joy in the hearts of the Aryas. Sorrow was depicted in every face. 'No hope no hope;' these words seemed to escape from many lips.

Pandit Guru Datta lay prostate on his sick-bed. Though he was as calm as ever, yet life was slowly ebbing away. There was no help. No one could interfere with God's ways. He must go, his Father is waiting him. He is already beckoning him to come to Him. He must obey his Heavenly Father's summons. And our Pandit is not sorry. Why should he be sorry. Is he not going to join his Divine Father. While all around are shedding bitter tears of grief, while the heart-rending cries of the mother are rending the air, while the children's eyes are bedimmed with tears, Pandit Guru Datta is smiling, thinking not of the cares and anxieties of the world.

He is not of this world and so he does not regret leaving it. Rather he is glad, for who does not rejoice to go back to his home. He has been absent so long. He must hasten now. The day wore on, the pain became almost unbearable, but our hero did not utter any complaint. The shadows of the night began to fall. The anxiety of his friends is increasing
Will he be spared to us, they seem to question each other. Is our dear Pandit passing away. Yes, he is passing away and there is no power that now can give him back to us. The midnight hour struck twelve. Now life began to fast ebb away. Pulse was felt every five minutes. Every hope was lost now. Suddenly the Pandit turned round on his bed and began to recite Vedic Mantras and then asked his friend Bhagat Kemal Das to recite the Ishopnishad to him. Amidst the chanting of the mantras and the singing of Bhajans, time passed on.

One, two, three, four, five, six. It was morning again. The morning of the 19th of March. It was the last day of Pandit Guru Datta's sojourn on this earth. At 7 A.M. he breathed his last. He died almost in seconds. With his death, a star of the first magnitude disappeared from the horizon of the Arya Samaj, leaving an impenetrable gloom behind.

The Arya Patrika had a long and touching obituary notice under the heading "Our Loss:"

"A man, an uncommon man, a man extraordinary, a true, deep and profound Sanskrit scholar,—a true descendant of the ancient Rishis,—has passed away. Pandit Guru Datta Vidyarthi, the pride and ornament of the Arya Samaj, the pride and ornament of his country, the pride of all who value truth and knowledge for their sake, is no more among us. Yes, that noble soul is no more in the flesh. We miss him—all, young and old, aye, we cannot yet believe the stern fact that he has left us. The very magnitude and the uncommon character of our loss helps to keep up the impression that he is yet with us. Oh, when shall we see the like of him again! When shall we see again a man who is pervaded and permeated to most remotest fibre of his soul with a desire to disseminate the light of truth,—the eternal principles of the Vedic religion,—with a desire to usher the world once more into the presence of the most High, through His Word and through those who have known and understood His Word! Oh, Guru Datta Vidyarthi, thine loss at this hour is irreparable. In thine own particular sphere thou leavest behind not one man who can take up and do the work that thou would'st have done.

Thine, O young man, was soul truly noble, and thine short career was dazzlingly brilliant, though thou wert unconscious of it. And truly and justly so, because thine aims were high and lofty; thou looked to Gautama, Patanjali, Vyas, Yajnavalkya and Swami Dayananda as thy models, and thou wast ever pleased in their company and in their guidance of thee! So noble and so promising, and yet to be cut off so early! What
hopes had we of thee, and what wouldst thou not have achieved in the cause of truth, if it had pleased the Great Disposer of all things to let thee live longer! But His Will be done! That thine soul is happier infinitely by far now, that it is free from the bonds of flesh, may be true, but for all that we can not but wish that thou hadst lived longer among us! And yet we may not repine, for if it is thine to be born once more before the soul reposes in the bosom of the Most High for years countless, thou shalt surely come to us, with thine powers hundred-fold magnified to advance the cause of truth!

Pandit Guru Datta Vidyarthi took leave of us on the morning of the 19th instant at about half-past seven. He died of consumption, that terrible disease, which is becoming so common in this country. But if the Pandit's career as long as he was blessed with strength environed by a halo of moral grandeur and religious fervor, and was worth our study and imitation, its closing scene was well becoming so noble a soul. During the entire period of some six months, during which he was confined to his bed, he was ever calm, serene and unmoved in the midst of his sufferings. Not all his tortures could wring from his heroic soul the slightest expression of inward pain—during the fiercest onslaught of the raging fever which had, as it were, become a part and parcel of his body, he was as dignified and resigned, as in the hours and intervals of temporary relief. Yes, he knew how to suffer like a true Aryan that he was. He knew how to be resigned to the Will of his great Master and Maker, the more so as he had seen the rishily conduct of Dayananda in his last moments, over which he was wont to so rapturously and reverentially dwell whenever he found an opportunity. Who would not covet to be in death and suffering as thou wast, Guru Datta Vidyarthi!

The moment the noble soul had quitted the mortal coil, the sad news, that our dear brother was gone to his Great Father, was known in every quarter and street of the town, where an Aryan lived, and in a couple of hours it had travelled like wild-fire all over the city. Notwithstanding that it was not a Sunday, or any other holiday, some five or six hundred men had gathered before the house of our departed brother before it was nine, all sad and gloomy—some dumbfounded and lost in thought at the greatness of the loss, some weeping the tears of bitterness in silence, while others, talking on the accomplishments, many and great, of the noble young man. Oh! who could hear unmoved the heart-rending cries of his aged mother? Of all her sons, Guru Datta Vidyarthi alone had been spared to her, and he was
her last child, the child that she had obtained in her declining years! The depth of a mother's love is unfathomable, but her love for a child she has obtained in her advanced years, especially when he is honored of the honored, is still deeper and diviner! Oh! mother—yes, thou art to us more than that, thou, who gavest birth to a noble child like Guru Dutta Vidyarthi,—thine has indeed been a loss whose value no one can realize and feel but a mother! But rest assured that thy son is not lost, he is happy in the bosom of his Creator, or if it is for him to return to the world once again to be entitled to his bliss interminable, he will be a veritable Rishi, who will be the saviour of millions.

At about ten preparations began to be made for conveying the body to the burning ground. A good many men in the gathering started the proposal that the deceased might be photographed in his death-slumber, urging that a photograph taken at this time would be pregnant with an invaluable lesson to all, as showing that all human greatness has an ending and that God and His greatness alone are for ever and ever! This proposal was objected to on many important considerations. The proposers again urged that the entire gathering, and the body, while wrapped in flame, might at least be photographed. This, though not objected to, was declared as fruitless, for a photo of the deceased already existed, and those who were really anxious to derive a lesson from the fate of the young man could do so by a contemplation of the facts of his life. The procession started at about half past ten. The crowd had now swelled up to about seven hundred men. It passed through the Shah Almi Bazar and kept increasing with its progress. The shops on both sides of the Bazar were lined with men, who, while admiring the appropriateness of the bhajans and Veda Mantras sung and recited by the Samaj bhajanmandli and the boys of the D. A. V. Boarding House, expressed sincere and genuine regret that so able a man, so great a Sanskrit scholar, should have been cut off at the age of twenty-five! Flowers were profusely rained on the bier from the house tops throughout the Bazar. When after full two hours, after necessary halts, the bier emerged into the open plain, the procession numbered at least one thousand men. It was far past twelve, very nearly it was one, when the body was desposited in the cremation-ground. After the Vedi had been prepared according to stated rules and pyre made, the body was cremated in strict accordance with letter of the law. The samagri—ghee and all burnt with the body—was worth about sixty rupees. After the body had been fairly consumed, a short prayer, suited to the occasion, was offered up by Lala Hans Raj, and then the people left the burning-ground with the view to bathe and to return to their homes."
THE TERMINOLOGY OF THE VEDAS.
DEDICATED

to

the memory

of

the only Vedic scholar

of his time,

Swami Dayananda Saraswati,

by

his sincere and devoted

Admirer, the Author,

Lahore: 1st June 1888.

Guru Datta, Vidyarth,
THE TERMINOLOGY OF THE VEDAS.

The question of the origin, nature and eternity of Shabda—human articulate and inspired speech—has been a very important question in Sanskrit literature. The highly philosophical character of this question cannot be doubted, but the peculiar characteristic, which attracts the attention of every Sanskrit scholar, is the all-pervading nature of the influence it exerts on other departments of human knowledge. It is not only the Nairuktkas and the Vaiyakaranis, the grammarians, etymologists and philologists of ancient Sanskrit times, that take up this question; but even the acute and subtle philosopher—the last and the best Sanskrit metaphysician—the disciple of the learned Vyasa—the founder of one of the six schools of philosophy—the religious aphorist Jaimini cannot isolate the treatment of his subject from the influence of this question. He runs in the very beginning of his Mimansa (dissertation) into this question and assigns a very considerable part (proportionately) of his treatise to the elucidation of this question. It is not difficult for a reader of modern philology, well-versed in discussions on onomatopoeian and other artificial theories of human speech, to perceive the amount of wrangling which such questions give rise to. We have mentioned the position assigned to this question in Sanskrit literature not so much with a view to put an end to all this wrangling, which, perhaps, is unavoidable, but with a view to take up, in a brief way, another and a more practical question involved therein, i.e., the question of the interpretation of Vedic terminology.

Up to this time all the plans that have been adopted for the interpretation of Vedic terminology have been based on some pre-conceived notions. The philosophy of the subject requires that these pre-conceived notions should be carefully examined, studied and pruned of the extraneous matter liable to introduce error, whereas new and more rational methods should be sought after and interposed—methods such as may throw further light upon the subject.

To examine, then, the various methods that have up to this time been pursued. Briefly speaking, they are three in number, and may, for want of better denomination, be called the Mythological, Antiquarian and Contemporary methods.
Firstly, the Mythological method. This method interprets the Vedas as myths, as an embodiment of simple natural truths in the imaginative language of religious fiction, as a symbolic representation of the actual in the ideal, as an imbedding of primitive truth in the superincumbent strata of non-essential show and ceremony. Now, in so far as this concretion of thought in mythological network goes, it assumes a comparatively rude and simple stage of human life and experience. From this basis of a primitive savage state it gradually evolves the ideas of God and religion, which no sooner done than mythic period ends. It further argues thus:—In the ruder stages of civilisation, when laws of nature are little known and but very little understood, analogy plays a most important part in the performance of intellectual functions of man. The slightest semblance, or visage of semblance, is enough to justify the exercise of analogy. The most palpable of the forces of nature impress the human mind, in such a period of rude beginnings of human experience, by motions mainly. The wind blowing, the fire burning, a stone falling, or a fruit dropping, affects the senses essentially as moving. Now, throughout the range of conscious exertion of muscular power, will precedes motion, and, since even the most grotesque experience of a savage in this world assumes this knowledge, it is no great stretch of intellectual power to argue that these natural forces also, to which the sensible motions are due, are endowed with the faculty of will. The personification of the forces of nature being thus effected, their deification soon follows. The overwhelming potency, the unobstructible might, and, often the violence, with which, in the sight of a savage, the forces operate, strike him with terror, awe and reverence. A sense of his own weakness, humility and inferiority creeps over the savage mind, and, what was intellectually personified, becomes emotionally deified. According to this view, the Vedas, undoubtedly books of primitive times, consist of prayers from such an emotional character addressed to the forces of nature including wind and rain—prayers breathing passions of the savage for vengeance or for propitiation—or, in moments of poetic exaltation, hymns simply portraying the simple phenomena of nature in the personified language of mythology.

Whilst deductive psychology affords these data, right or wrong as they may be, comparative philology and comparative mythology considerably support these views. A comparison of the mythologies of various countries shows that the working of human intellect is analogous, that this process of mythification is not only everywhere universal, but coincident. The Scandinavian, Greek and Indian mythologies have no clear line of demarcation, save the accidental one of differentiation due to climatic effects. Comparative philology not only admits the universality and coincidence of these phenomena, but traces even phonetic identity in the linguistic garb with which these phenomena are clothed.
The evidence from these three sources—comparative philology, deductive psychology and comparative mythology—is indeed very great; and we have stated the nature of this method and the evidence upon which its validity depends at much greater length than the short space at our disposal could allow us, so that, for fairness' sake at least, the value and merits of this method may not be under-rated.

The results of comparative philology and comparative mythology need not be denied. They are the starting-points in our discussion, the assumed axioms in the present subject. The causus belli, the debatable land lies beyond them, in fact, below them. They are the facts—recognized matters of truth. How are they to be explained? And like explanations of all other things, here too, there may be alternative explanations, rival hypotheses, parallel theories to confront the same facts and phenomena. That mythologies of various countries are similar, may be explained as much on the hypothesis that laws of psychological development are everywhere the same, as on the hypothesis that they are all derived from a common parental system of mythology or religion. Phonetic similarities, apart from their doubtful and frequently whimsical character, may analogously be traced to the operation of analogous organs and phonetic laws, or to a common parent language from which all the others are derived. Nor can these methods have any further claims to settle the dispute between these rival theories. As methods, they can only discover mythic or phonetic similarities or affinities, but cannot explain them. Even if we leave out of consideration the alternative character of the conclusions arrived at, the explanations possess, considered from the standpoint of inductive validity, a very low specific value. We seek the explanation not from a fact already known to exist—we only inferentially assume a fact to have existed, whilst we are at the same time assuming the validity of our inference. The assumed fact, from which the desired explanation is sought, is not inferred from any independent evidence, but is itself a link in the self-returning series of concatenated facts. Further, the growth of mythology is deductively inferred from some psychological data. It might as easily have been inferred as a degenerate, crippled, and then stitched and glossed remnant of a purer and truer religion. An author has well spoken of the degeneracy of things including doctrines pre-eminently, if left alone. Nor is this fact in any way an obscure one to the student of the history of church dogmas and opinions. Who does not know of religious practices primarily designed to meet certain real wants, degenerating, after a lapse of time on the cessation of those wants, into mere ceremonies and customs which are regarded, not as accidents, but as essentials? Mythologies, as well as mythic practices, then, may arise either as products of human imagination working under subdued intellect and petrified reason, or, as an out-growth of a distorted remnant of a purer and truer form of religion.

There is not one hypothesis in connection with this subject that has not a counter-hypothesis, not one theory whose claims are not met
with by a rival theory. Independently of the vague character of these hypotheses—the philological and mythological ones—the uncertainty of the conclusions deduced from them cannot be lost sight of. Like the conclusions arrived at by Mr. Pocock in his 'India in Greece,' wherein he traces the origin of all Greek geographical names to Sanskrit Indian names, and whereby he infers the colonization of Greece by the Indians, the conclusions arrived at according to the aforesaid hypothesis constitute one full chain of circular reasonings continually returning into themselves. Admitting the cognate relation that exists between the Greek and Sanskrit languages it must follow that Greek names of localities must bear a remote and far-fetched, as contrasted with a direct and palpable, identity to Indian names of localities. The colonization of Greece by the Indians is not the just conclusion to be drawn from the specific topographical relations, which Mr. Pocock has traced, independently of the common origin of Greek and Sanskrit languages. The identity of Greek and Sanskrit stock is a general formula which cannot be any further proved by such specific connections. The fact of the identity of several systems of mythologies and languages also leads to a distinct general proposition—the uniformity of human nature. Beyond the value of this general proposition, the specific mythological and philological facts have no independent value. Their value is subsumed in the general proposition. These particular propositions; when right, cannot add to the value of the general proposition which they go to form, but, when wrong, they can materially vitiate the truth of the general proposition. A conclusion based upon the legitimacy of a general order of nature, or a universal law, can derive no real independent logical strength from the enumeration of particular instances of such order or law, all similar in kind. All the remarks that have been made above may in one sense be considered to bear upon the question of comparative mythology in general, as having no distinct individualized influence on the terminology of the Vedas. There is one other point, however, which comes directly into contact with the mythological theory as concerned with the terminology of the Vedas. Mythology, as already remarked, is the symbolization of human thought in the concrete. The contrast, therefore, of mythology with the abstract is the widest and the most thorough-going.

Philosophy, as analysed by Herbert Spencer, has for its object the elucidation of ultimate truths or laws. These truths, in so far as ultimate, must be the most general. The wider the group of individual facts that a law covers, or the greater the distance of the ultimate law from the minute sub-laws covering a very limited and primary area, the more abstract and the less concrete does its expression become. Philosophy and mythology, therefore, stand contrasted—completely contrasted to one another in this respect. Philosophy is abstract, expressed in general terms and ultimate formula; mythology is concrete, expressed in gross material terms representing primary objects and phases of
objects. Nothing, therefore, is so completely subversive of the value of
the mythological method as the existence of philosophy and philosop-
hic ideas in the Vedas. That the Vedas are books of philosophy and
not of mythology must not be admitted merely because a well-known
professor and scholar of Sanskrit acknowledges that the germ of hu-
man thought and reason lies in the Vedas, whereas, according to him,
its culmination lies in the philosophy of Kant, but on other and more
trustworthy bases and authorities. The growth of philosophy in
Sanskrit literature is earlier than the growth of mythology. The
Upanishads and the Darshanas, which are professedly books of philo-
sophy and confessedly nearer to the Vedas, chronologically preceded,
and not followed, the Puranas, the embodiment of mythological litera-
ture of India. It was philosophy that was evolved from the Vedas,
and not mythology. In the history of Indian literature, at least, it
is not mythology that gives birth to philosophy, but philosophy that
precedes mythology. How far mythology may rise as an out-growth
and a distorted remnant of a purer and truer form of religion or
philosophy, might perhaps now have been rendered more evident.
Now the six schools of philosophy are, all of them, based on the Vedas,
and support themselves by direct quotations from the Vedas. Not only,
then, has philosophy been evolved from the Vedas, but substantially
drawn out and evolved or developed subsequently. There is one,
and only one objection that can be raised against the above
views. It is that the different portions of the Vedas belong to
different epochs, for, whilst some portions are mythological, others
are decidedly philosophical. We would not here say what is
already well-known, that, however it may be, not one line of the
Vedas is later than the Darshanas or the Upanishads, not to speak
of the Puranas. Howsoever greatly wide apart may be the
epochs assigned to the various portions of the Vedas, no stretch
of artificial reasoning can make them coincide with the Puranic
period. Independently of these considerations, which are important
however, the very assignment of different epochs to the Vedas proves
the insufficiency and partial character of the mythological system.
The truth of the mythological system lies in the isolations of the
portions of the Vedas. It is not the Vedas as a whole that furnish
an illustration of this method, but in part. But what reason have we
to isolate these portions or to split up the homogeneous mass into
two? Simply this, that they belong to two distinct epochs. Now
the assertion that the portions belong to two distinct epochs, is itself
grounded upon the insufficiency of the mythological method. If
they could interpret the whole of the Vedas by the one mythological
method, there could be no need of separating them. This they
could not, and therefore the isolation. The justification of the
partial character of the mythological method depending upon the
correctness of the assignment of the various epochs, such assign-
ment has no authority save the insufficiency of the mythological
method. Thus, then, is the partial character of the mythological
method unconsciously regarded as self-sufficient. The first method, then, out of the three enumerated in the beginning of this subject, considered independently, proves insufficient; considered in conjunction with philology, fares no better; and lastly, fails in contrast with the philosophic character of the Vedas. We will now consider the second method.

One of the most successful methods of unravelling ancient literary records is the antiquarian or the historical method. It consists in approximating, in so far as possible for the interpretation and explanation of the records in hand, to the books and general literature of the period to which it belongs. For the obvious reason that direct evidence is always to be preferred to second-hand information, this method is next in value to none, but to the direct evidence of the senses. Now, in so far as in historical research, where the study of the past epoch is concerned, one has inevitably to fall for information on the literature and historical record of the period with which he is concerned; an examination of the conditions, which render such evidence valid and a labour on it no unfruitful task, is essential to establish the canons of historical research. The veracity of our knowledge of past events depends upon two factors on this method; firstly, on the faithfulness of the records we obtain of the event or events of the period; and secondly, on the faithfulness of our interpretation of the records. We would forego an analysis of the first factor as, this factor is amenable, for the estimation of its evidence, to laws which do not come within the compass of our subject. The interpretation of the records is what directly concerns us.

The excellence of the historical or the antiquarian method lies in the fact that it renders our interpretation of past records less liable to error. And the reason may be thus explained. Language, like all other things that live or are of organised growth, is subject to constant variations, to variations, depending partly on the laws of development of phonetic organs, partly on external circumstances of fusion and introduction of foreign languages, and partly on the laws of the evolution of human thought itself. Owing to this and many other causes, all living languages are daily undergoing changes, which accumulate and appear after a sufficiently long interval to have created very different, though cognate, languages. Any thing, thought or philosophic system that is invested with linguistic garb, therefore, requires for its correct interpretation that the laws which govern those linguistic variations and the variations of the sense of words should be carefully studied. Otherwise, our interpretation would suffer for misconception and anachronism. To take a concrete example, let us consider the case of the Roman Republic. In the time of the Roman Republic, when public press was unknown, news
unheard of, locomotive engines undreamt, and other means that engender or facilitate the communication of indelible impression of human thought or reason, unthought of, and when Forum was the only place of resort for all audience, and oratory had a totally different meaning from that of modern times, the Senate signified a different institution from what it now is; Republic or democracy of the people—the people then existing—was what would be to us something like oligarchy, though very different from it in many essential features. Now a reader studying the literature of the period corresponding to the Roman Republic would find his information of the period incommensurate with facts, if, on account of his being unguided in his studies, the words Democracy, Republic, and the like, were to call forth before his mind what they now signify. Such a knowledge would be inconsistent with itself, a medley of two epochs, and would be such as, on critical examination, would be termed sheer nonsense.

Thirdly, the Contemporarian method. The applications of this method in the domain of history are, beyond doubt, various and mo-t important. But not the less important are its applications in the fixing of the dates, or the succession of periods, of the Puranas, the Darshanas, the Upanishads, Manu, the Ramayana, the Mahabharata, and so on. Various professors have fruitlessly tried to fix dates of these writings by searching in them, in most cases in vain, for any well-established consistent historical facts. But far more important in the fixing of these dates is the knowledge of historical evolution of Sanskrit literature. The Sanskrit of the Puranas is so different from the Sanskrit of the Mahabharata, and that of the Darshanas, which again is so different from that of the Upanishads, that a clear line of demarcation in each case is easily laid down. The one cannot be confounded with the other.

It is a matter of great surprise and wonder that in the case of the Vedas the method, whose merits are so evident and obvious, and which is so well recognised in the domain of history, should not have been applied, or, so loosely and carelessly applied as to render modern interpretations of the Vedas by some very well-known professors of Sanskrit simply unintelligible and absurd.

In the case of the Vedas the learned professors of Sanskrit, whose versions of the Vedas are so extant, have all derived their inspirations from the commentaries on the Vedas by Mahidhara, Ravana and Sayana, writers of a period decidedly very much later than that of the Vedas, and only well coinciding with our own time. These writers themselves were as much ignorant of the terminology of the Vedas, as we are. Their interpretations of Vedic terms, according to their meanings extant in their own times, were as wrong as would be those of words like democracy in our studies concerning ancient Rome. Mahidhara and Sayana fare in no way better than ourselves. It seems astonishing that in adopting the interpretation of the Vedas by Sayana and Ravana, our modern professors of Sanskrit
should have forgotten the invaluable maxim that the nearer we approximate to the literature of the period to which the Vedas belong for their interpretation, the greater would be our chances of the interpretation being more probable and more correct. According to the date assigned by these professors to the Vedas, their interpretation of the Vedas would be based on the literature of a period so heterogeneous to the time and spirit of the Vedas as to give rise to nothing but confusion and error.

To the view of any impartial reader, who has studied the investigations of Goldstucker on this point, the whole fabric of dates crumbles to dust, and the whole system of modern recognized chronology is easily upset. According to the best [and they are, as a matter of fact, the worst] authorities on the subject, no writings of date anterior to five or six thousand years before Christ seem to have existed. The whole world seems to have been circumscribed within 8,000 years. The whole region of the intellectual activity of man seems to have been focussed in the 6,000 years before Christ.

Irrespective of these views let us come directly to the subject of the Vedas. The Shatapatha and the Nirukta are confessedly books of much anterior date to the commentaries of Sāyana, Rāvana and Mahidhara. We should rather resort to them and the Upanishads than to the times of Puranas, of Rāvana and of Mahidhara, for the interpretation of the Vedas.

The Upanishads inculcate monotheism. Where, in the Upanishads or the Shatapatha, do Indra, Mitra, and Varuna signify the deities and not the Deity? The Nirukta even lays down explicit rules on the terminology of the Vedas which are, as yet, quite unheeded by the modern professors.

The Niruktakāra, in the very beginning of his book, forcibly inculcates that the terms used in the Vedas are Yaukika (possessing derived meaning) as contrasted with Rukhiś (terms having conventional, arbitrary or concrete meaning). We will, on some future occasion, quote at full length from the Nirukta, and render a better exposition of this doctrine. Here, however, we have simply said what the main assertion of the Nirukta is. This assertion is supported by the Mahabhāshya and other older books on the subject, including Sangraha.

If the main line pursued in discussing the question of the Terminology of the Vedas be correct, the conclusion we have arrived at leads to the following inquiry:

What is the opinion of ancient Vedic scholars on the subject? Are the authors of the Nirukta, the Nighantu, the Mahabhāshya, and the Sangraha, and other old commentators, at one with the modern commentators, i.e., Rāvana, Sāyana, Mahidhara and others, who have, of
late, followed the same line; or, are they at variance with the modern writers? That, if they differ, reliance must be placed upon old commentators, the preceding remarks would have made clear. Let us then examine the views of ancient writers on this subject.

Speaking broadly, then, three classes of words are used in the Sanskrit language; the *yaugika*, the *rurhi* and the *yoga-rurhi* words. A *yaugika* word is one that has a derivative meaning, that is, one that only signifies the meaning of its root together with the modifications effected by the affixes. In fact, the structural elements, out of which the word is compounded, afford the whole and the only clue to the true signification of the word. These being known, no other element is needed to complete its sense. Speaking in the language of modern logic, the word is all connotation, and by virtue of its connotation determines also its denotation. A *rurhi* word is the name of a definite concrete object, or answers to a definite concrete technical sense, not by virtue of any of its connotations but by virtue merely of an arbitrary principle. In the case of a *yaugika* word, we arrive at the name of an object by what may be called the process of generalisation. We see, taste, touch, smell, and operate upon the object by the multifarious means man possesses of investigating properties of sensible objects; we compare the sensible impressions it yields with sensible impressions already retained in our minds and constituting our past knowledge; we detect similarities between the two, and thus get a general or a generic conception. To this generic conception we give an appropriate name by synthetically arriving at it from a root, a primitive idea or ideas. The word, therefore, thus ultimately formed, embodies the whole history of the intellectual activity of man. In the case of a *rurhi* word, the process is far different. We do not generalise. Nor is, therefore, any synthesis required there. We only roughly discriminate one object or class of objects from other objects, and arbitrarily place a phonetic postmark, as it were, upon it. An individual, to roughly discriminate him from others, is arbitrarily called John, another, Jones; so an object is arbitrarily denominated *Khatua*, another *Mala*, and so on. Here, we only discriminatively specify the object we are naming, without coming into general contact with it.

A third class of words, *yoga-rurhi*, is one in which two words are synthetically combined into a compound, denoting a third object by virtue of the combination of these two words. Such words express any relation, or interaction of phenomena. The *Kamala* stands, for instance, in the relation of the born to mud, the bearer; hence *kamala* is denominated as *pankuja*, (*panku*, the mud, and *ja* signifying to bear).

Now the author of the Mahabhashya maintains that the Vedic terminology is all *yaugika*. 
"Nama cha dhatujamah Nirukte Vyakarane Shakatasya cha
tokam. "Naigama rurhi bhavam hi susadhu."—Mahabhashya, Chap. iii., Sect. iii., Aph. i.

Which means:

Etymologically speaking, there are three classes of words, the yaugika, the rurhi and the yoga-rurhi. But the authors of the Niruktas, Yaska and others; and Shākatāyana, among the grammarians, believe all the words to be derived from dhātus, that is, believe them to be yaugikas and yoga-rurhis, and Pānini and others believe them to be rurhis also. But all the Rishis and Munis, ancient authors and commentators, without exception, regard Vedic terms to be yaugikas and yoga-rurhis only; and the laukika terms to be rurhis also.

The above is a clear and definite statement of the Mahabhashya to the effect that the Vedic terms are all yaugikas. It is not difficult to prove by numerous and long quotations from Nirukta, Sangrahā and other older writings, that all of them agree as to the nature of the Vedic terms.

Without going, then, into the details of this subject, it may be assumed that the Vedic writers of older epochs do not agree with those of modern times.

It is a strange thing to find our modern professors of Sanskrit, well-versed Philologists, and professed antiquarians so forcibly asserting the value of the "Antiquarian Method," and yet blundering at the very outset of this momentous question.

After the remarks we have made, it is not surprising to find that our modern scholars should think of finding mythological data in the Vedas, or, of having come across the facts of ruder bronze age, or golden age, in that "book of barbaric hymns."
THE TERMINOLOGY OF THE VEDAS.

OF EUROPEAN SCHOLARS.
THE TERMINOLOGY OF THE VEDAS

AND

European Scholars.

With us, the question of the terminology of the Vedas is of the highest importance, for, upon its decision will depend the verdict to be passed by the future world respecting the great controversy to rage between the East and the West concerning the supremacy of the Vedic Philosophy. And even now, the determination of this question involves issues of great value. For, if the Vedic philosophy be true, the interpretations of the Vedas, as given at present by Professor Max Müller and other European scholars, must not only be regarded as imperfect, defective and incomplete, but as altogether false. Nay, in the light of true reason and sound scholarship, we are forced to admit their entire ignorance of the very rudiments of Vedic language and philosophy. We are not alone in the opinion we hold. Says Schopenhauer—

"I add to this the impression which the translations of Sanskrit works by European scholars, with very few exceptions, produce on my mind. I cannot resist a certain suspicion that our Sanskrit scholars do not understand their text much better than the higher class of school boys their Greek or Latin."

It will be well to note here the opinion of Swami Dayananda Saraswati, the most profound scholar of Sanskrit of his age, on the subject. He says:—"The impression that the Germans are the best Sanskrit scholars, and that no one has read so much of Sanskrit, as Professor Max Müller, is altogether unfounded. Yes, in a land where lofty trees never grow, even ricinus communis or the castor-oil plant may be called an oak. The study of Sanskrit being altogether out of question in Europe, the Germans and Professor Max Müller may there have come to be regarded as highest authorities.

I came to learn from a letter of a principal of some German University, that even men learned enough to interpret a Sanskrit letter

* A paper of this name was submitted to the public by the writer early in 1888 but it was necessarily brief and incomplete. It has now been thought advisable to give to the same thoughts and principles a new garb, more suited to the requirements of the reading public of the present day, to amplify the same truths by interesting illustrations, and to supplement them by others that are necessary to complete the treatment of the subject.
are rare in Germany. I have also learnt from the study of Max Müller's 'History of Sanskrit Literature' and his comments on some mantras of the Veda, that Professor Max Muller has been able only to scribble out something by the help of the so-called tīkās, or paraphrases of the Vedas, current in India.*

It is this want of Vedic scholarship among European scholars, this utter ignorance of Vedic language and philosophy that is the cause of so much misimpression and prejudice even in our own country. We are, indeed, so often authoritatively told by our fellow-brethren who have received the highest English education but are themselves entirely ignorant of Sanskrit, that the Vedas are books that teach idol-worship or element worship, they contain no philosophical, moral or scientific truths of any great consequence, unless they be the commonest truisms of the kitchen. It is, therefore, a matter of greatest concern to learn to attach proper value to the interpretations of these European scholars. We propose, therefore, to present a rough outline of those general principles according to which Vedic terms should be interpreted, but which European scholars entirely ignore; and hence much of the misinterpretation that has grown up.

In the discussion of philosophical subjects, pre-conceived notions are the worst enemies to encounter. They not only prejudicially bias the mind, but also take away that truthfulness and honest integrity from the soul, which alone are compatible with the righteous pursuit and discernment of TRUTH. In the treatment of a question, such as the estimation of the value of a system of philosophy or religion, extreme sobriety and impartiality of the mind are required. Nor is it to be supposed that a religious or philosophical system can be at once mastered by a mere acquaintance with grammar and language. It is necessary that the mind should, by an adequate previous discipline, be raised to an exalted mental condition, before the recondite and invisible truths of Man and Nature can be comprehended by man. So is it with Vedic philosophy. One must be a complete master of the science of morals, the science of poetry, and the sciences of geology and astronomy†; he must be well-versed in the philosophy of dharma, the philosophy of characteristics, the doctrines of logic or the science of evidence, the philosophy of essential existences, the philosophy of yoga, and the philosophy of vedanta ‡; he must be a master of all these and much more before he can lay claims to a rational interpretation of the Vedas.

Such, then, should be our Vedic scholars—thorough adepts in science and philosophy, unprejudiced and impartial judges and seekers after truth. But if impartiality be supplanted by prejudice, science and philosophy by quasi-knowledge and superstition, and integrity by motive, whereas predetermination takes the place of honest inquiry, truth is either disguised or altogether suppressed.

Speaking of the religion of the Upanishads and the Bible, says Schopenhauer, who has 'washed himself clean of all early-engrained Jewish superstitions, and of all philosophy that cringes before these superstitions':

"In India, our religion (Bible) will now and never strike root; the primitive wisdom of the human race will never be pushed aside by the events of Galilee. On the contrary, Indian wisdom will flow back upon Europe, and produce a thorough change in our knowing and thinking."

Let us now see what Professor Max Müller has to say against the remarks of this unprejudiced, impartial philosopher. He says:

"Here again, the great philosopher seems to me to have allowed himself to be carried away too far by his enthusiasm for the less known. He is blind to the dark side of the Upanishats; and he wilfully shuts his eyes against the bright rays of eternal truths in the Gospel, which even Ram Mohan Roy was quick enough to perceive, behind the mist and clouds of tradition that gather so quickly round the sunrise of every religion."

With the view that the Christianity of Max Müller may be set forth more clearly before the reader, we quote the following from the "History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature", p. 31, 32:

"But if India has no place in the political history of the world, it certainly has a right to claim its place in the intellectual history of mankind. The less the Indian nation has taken part in the political struggles of the world and expended its energies in the exploits of war and the formation of empire, the more it has fitted itself and concentrated all its powers for the fulfilment of the important mission reserved to it in the history of the East. History seems to teach that the whole human race required a gradual education, before in the fulness of time, it could be admitted to the truths of Christianity. All the fallacies of human reason had to be exhausted, before the light of a higher truth could meet with ready acceptance. The ancient religions of the world were but the milk of nature, which was in due time to be succeeded by the bread of life. After the primeval physiologit which was common to all members of the Aryan family, had, in the hands of a wily priesthood, been changed into an empty idolatry, the Indians alone, of all the Aryan nations, produced a new
form of religion, which has well been called subjective, as opposed to the more objective worship of Nature. That religion, the religion of Buddha, has spread far beyond the limits of the Aryan world, and, to our limited vision, it may seem to have retarded the advent of Christianity among a large portion of the human race. But, in the sight of Him with whom a thousand years are but as one day, that religion, like all the ancient religions of the world, may have but served to prepare the way of Christ by helping through its very errors, to strengthen and to deepen the ineradicable yearning of the human heart after the truths of God.

Is not this Christian prejudice? Nor is this with Max Müller alone. Even more strongly does this remark hold good of Monier Williams, whose very object in writing the book known as "Indian Wisdom" is to caricature the Vedic religion, which he calls by the name of "Brahmanism," and to hoist up Christianity by the meritorious process of deliberate contrasts. Writes Monier Williams:—

"It is one of the aims, then, of the following pages to indicate the points of contrast between Christianity and the three chief false religions of the world, as they are thus represented in India." (Monier Williams' Indian Wisdom, Introduction, p. XXXVI.

Speaking of Christianity and its claims 'as supernaturally communicated by the common Father of mankind for the good of all His creatures,' he says:—

"Christianity asserts that it effects its aim through nothing short of an entire change of the whole man, and a complete renovation of his nature. The means by which this renovation is effected may be described as a kind of mutual transfer or substitution, leading to a reciprocal interchange and co-operation between God and man's nature acting upon each other. Man—the Bible affirms—was created in the image of God, but his nature became corrupt through a taint, derived from the fall of the first representative man and parent of the human race, which taint could only be removed by a vicarious death."

"Hence, the second representative man—Christ—whose nature was divine and taintless, voluntarily underwent a sinner's death, that the taint of the old corrupted nature transferred to him might die also. But this is not all. The great central truth of our religion lies not so much in the fact of Christ's death as in the fact of His continued life. (Rom. viii. 34), The first fact is that He of His own free-will died; but the second and more important fact is that He rose again and lives eternally, that He may bestow life for death and a participation in His own divine nature in place of the taint which He has removed."
"This, then, is the reciprocal exchange which marks Christianity and distinguishes it from all other religions—an exchange between the personal man descended from a corrupt parent, and the personal God-made man and becoming our second parent. We are separated from a rotten root, and are grafted into a living one. We part with the corrupt will, depraved moral sense, and perverted judgment inherited from the first Adam, and draw re-creative force—renovated wills, fresh springs of wisdom, righteousness, and knowledge—from the ever-living divine stem of the second Adam, to which, by a simple act of faith, we are united. In this manner is the grand object of Christianity effected. Other religions have their doctrines and precepts of morality, which, if carefully detached from much that is bad and worthless, may even vie with those of Christianity. But Christianity has, besides all these, what other religions have not—a personal God, ever living to supply the free grace or regenerating spirit by which human nature is re-created and again made God-like, and through which man, becoming once again 'pure in heart,' and still preserving his own will, self-consciousness and personality, is fitted to have access to God the Father, and dwell in His presence for ever." (Monier Williams' Indian Wisdom, Introduction, P. XL—XLI.)

Again, speaking of "Brahmanism," he says:—

"3. As to Brahmanism, we must in fairness allow that, according to its more fully developed system, the aim of union with God is held to be effected by faith in an apparently personal God, as well as by works and by knowledge. And here some of the lines of Brahmanical thought seem to intersect those of Christianity. But the apparent personality of the various Hindu gods melts away, on closer scrutiny, into a vague spiritual essence. It is true that God becomes man and interposes for the good of men, causing a seeming combination of the human and divine—and an apparent interchange of action and even loving sympathy between the Creator and His creatures. But can there be any real interaction or co-operation between divine and human personalities when all personal manifestations of the Supreme Being—gods as well as men—ultimately merge in the Oneness of the Infinite, and nothing remains permanently distinct from Him? It must be admitted that most remarkable language is used of Krishna (Vishnu), a supposed form of the Supreme, as the source of all life and energy (see pp. 144—148 and see also pp. 456, 457); but, if identified with the One God, he can only, according to the Hindu theory, be the source of life in the sense of giving out life to re-absorb it into himself. If, on the other hand, he is held to be only an incarnation or manifestation of the Supreme Being in human form, then, by a cardinal dogma of Brahmanism, so far from being a channel of life, his own life must be derived from a higher source into which it must finally be merged, while his claim to divinity
can only be due to his possessing less of individuality, as distinct from God, than inferior creatures.” (Monier Williams’ Indian Wisdom, Introduction, P. XLIV—XLV.)

And lastly, in conclusion, he says:—

“It is refreshing to turn from such unsatisfying systems, however interspersed with wise and even sublime sentiments, to the living energizing Christianity of European nations, however lamentably fallen from its true standard, or however disgraced by the inconsistencies and shortcomings of nominal adherents—possessors of its name and form without its power.”

“In conclusion, let me note one other point which of itself stamps our religion as the only system adapted to the requirements of the whole human race—the only message of salvation intended by God to be gradually pressed upon the acceptance of all His intelligent creatures.” (Monier Williams’ Indian Wisdom, Introduction, p. XLV.)

It is clear, then, that Professor Monier Williams is labouring under hard Christian prejudices, and cannot be viewed in any way as an unprejudiced, impartial student of the Vedas. No wonder, then, if modern sophisticated philology, propped by the entire ignorance of the laws of interpretations of Vedic terms, and fed by the prejudices of Christian superstitions, should raise its head against Vedic philosophy, and gain audience among European Christian nations or deluded educated natives of India who possess the high merit of being innocent of any knowledge of Sanskrit language or literature.

But now to the subject. The first canon for the interpretation of Vedic terms, which is laid down by Yaska, the author of Nirukta, is that the Vedic terms are all yaugika.* The fourth section of the first chapter of Nirukta opens with a discussion of this very subject, in which Yaska, Gargya, Shakatayana and all other Grammarians and Etymologists unanimously maintain that Vedic terms are all yaugika. But Yaska and Shakatayana also maintain that rurhi† terms are also yaugika inasmuch as they were originally framed from the roots: whereas Gargya maintains that only the rurhi terms are not yaugika. The section concludes with a refutation of the opinion of Gargya, establishing it as true that all terms, whether Vedic

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* A *yaugika* term is one that has a derivative meaning, that is, one that only signifies the meaning of its root together with the modifications effected by the affixes. In fact, the structural elements, out of which the word is compounded, afford the whole and the only clue to the true signification of the word. The word is purely connotative.

† A *rurhi* term is the name of a definite concrete object, where the connotation of the word (as structurally determined) gives no clue to the object denoted by the word. Hence, it means a word of arbitrary significance.
or *rurhi*, are *yaugika*. It is on this authority of Nirukta that Patanjali expresses, in his Mahabhāshya, the same opinion, and distinguishes the Vedic terms from *rurhi* terms by the designation of *naigama*. Says Patanjali,—"नारं च धार्मिक निनवः व्याकरणेशकत्स्य प्राक्तकालम्," and a line before this,—नैगम सूचिमवं हि सुराधु." Chap. III. Sect. iii. Aph. 1.

The sense of all this is, that all the *Rishis* and *Munis*, ancient authors and commentators without exception, regard all Vedic terms to be *yaugika*, whereas some *laukika* terms are regarded by some as *rurhi* also.

This principle, the European scholars have entirely ignored; and hence have flooded their interpretations of the Vedas with forged or borrowed tales of mythology, with stories and anecdotes of historic or pre-historic personages. Thus, according to Dr. Muir,* the following historical personages are mentioned in the Rig Veda, *viz.*—the *Rishis* Kanvas, in l. 47. 2; Gotamas, in i. 71. 16.; Gritsamadas, in ii. 39. 8; Bhrigavas, in iv. 16. 23; and Vrihaduktha, in x. 54. 6. But what is the truth! The words Kanvas and Gritsa only signify learned men in general (see Nighantu iii. 13); the word Bhrigavah only signifies men of intellect (see Nighantu, v. 5). The word Gotama signifies one who praises; and Vrihaduktha is simply one whose *ukthas*, or knowledge of natural properties of objects, is *vrihat* or complete. It is clear, then, that if this principle is once ignored, one is easily landed into anecdotes of historical or pre-historic personages. The same might be said of Max Muller discovering the story of *Shunah-shepa* in the Rig Veda.

Shepa, which means "contact," (Nirukta iii. 2.—शेपः श्यास्युक्तिकरणेऽर्मणो), being suffixed to युनः or शाबनः, which means knowledge, (शब श्वसते: शवतेव गतिकरणेः स्यात्), means one who has come into contact with knowledge, i. e., a learned person. It shall appear, in the progress of this article, how *mantra* after *mantra* is misinterpreted by simply falsifying this law of *Nirukta*.

To an unprejudiced mind, the correctness of this law will never be doubtful. For, independently of the authority of *Nirukta*, the very antiquity of the Vedas is a clear proof of its words being *yaugika*. And even Professor Max Muller, in his mythological moods, is compelled to confess, at least concerning certain portions of the Vedas, that their words are *yaugika*. Says he:—

"But there is a charm in these primitive strains discoverable in no other class of poetry. Every word retains something of its radical meaning; every epithet tells; every thought, in spite of the most

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intricate and abrupt expressions, is, if we once disentangle it, true, correct, and complete." (Max Muller’s History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature, Page 553.)

Further again, says Max Müller:

"Names... are to be found in the Vedas, as it were, in a still fluid state. They never appear as appellatives, nor yet as proper names; they are organic, not yet broken or smoothed down." (Ibid p. 755.)

Can there be any thing clearer than this? The terms occurring in the Vedas are yaugika, because "they never appear as appellatives, nor yet as proper names," and because "every word retains something of its radical meaning." It is strange to find that the selfsame Max Muller, who has perceived the yaugika character of words in some mantras of the Vedas, should deny the same characteristic in other portions of the Vedas. Having said that words are yaugika in these "primitive strains" the Vedas, he proceeds to say:

"But this is not the case with all the poems of the Vedas. It would be tedious to translate many specimens of what I consider the poetry of the secondary age, the Mantra period. These songs are generally intended for sacrificial purposes, they are loaded with technicalities, their imagery is sometimes more brilliant, but always less perspicuous, and many thoughts and expressions are clearly borrowed from earlier hymns." (Ibid, p. 558.)

This he calls the Mantra period. The "primitive strains" belong to what is called the Chhandas period. He describes the characteristics of the Chhandas period, as distinguished from the Mantra period that has been above described, thus: "There is no very deep wisdom in their teaching, their laws are simple, their poetry shows no very high flights of fancy, and their religion might be told in a few words. But whatever there is of their language, poetry and religion, has a charm which no other period of Indian literature possesses; it is spontaneous, original and truthful." (Ibid, p. 526.)

Professor Max Muller quotes Rig Veda, VII. 77, as a specimen hymn of the Chhandas period. Says he:

"This hymn, addressed to Dawn, is a fair specimen of the original simple poetry of the Veda. It has no reference to any special sacrifice, it contains no technical expressions, it can hardly be called a hymn, in our sense of the word. It is simply a poem, expressing without any effort, without any display of far-fetched thought or brilliant imagery, the feelings of a man who has watched the approach of the dawn with mingled delight and awe, and who was moved to give utterance to what he felt in measured language." (Ibid, p. 552.)

From these quotation it will be clear that Professor Max Muller regards different portions of the Vedas belonging to different periods. There are some earlier portions, (according to Max Muller’s highly accurate calculations, the very exactness and infallibility of which Gold-
stucker bears ample testimony to) which he calls as belonging to the Chhandas period. The word Chhandas, in laukika Sanskrit, means spontaneity. Hence he regards Chhandas period to be the one the hymns of which period only teach common things, are free from the flight of fancy and are the spontaneous utterances of a simple (foolish) mind. The Mantra period (2,900 years older) is full of technicalities and descriptions of elaborate ceremonies. Now we ask what proof has Max Muller given to show that the different portions of the Vedas belong to different periods. His proofs are only two. Firstly, the ill-conceived, confused idea of the difference between Chhandas and Mantra; and secondly, the different phases of thought represented by the two portions.

We will consider each of these reasons in detail.

Says Yàska—

The mantras are called Chhandas, for a knowledge of all human conduct is bound up with them. It is through them that we learn all righteous conduct.” The yaugika sense of the words will also lead to the same conclusion. Mantra may be derived from the root man, to think, or matri, to reveal the secret knowledge. Panini thus derives the word chhandas: चन्देराद्रेष्ठक. * Chhandas is derived from the root chadi to delight or illumine. Chhandas is that, the knowledge of which produces all delight, or which illumines every thing, i.e., reveals its true nature.

The second reason of Max Muller, for assigning different periods to different portions of the Vedas, is that there are two different phases of thought discoverable in the Vedas. The one is the truthful and simple phase of thought which corresponds to his chhandas period. The other is the elaborate and technical phase of thought that corresponds to his mantra period. But what proof has Max Muller to show that the hymns of his secondary period are full of elaborate and technical thought? Evidently this, that he interprets them thus. If his interpretations were proved to be wrong, his distinction of the two periods will also fall to the ground. Now, why does he interpret the hymns of the mantra period thus? Evidently

* Unadi Kosha, iv. 219.
because, on the authority of Sayana and Mahidhara, he takes the words of those hymns to signify technicalities, sacrifices, and artificial objects and ceremonies, or, in other words, he takes these words not in their *yaugika*, but in their *ruvhi* sense. It is clear, then, that if Max Müller had kept in view the canon of interpretation given in Nirukta, that all Vedic words are *yaugika*, he would not have fallen into the fallacious anachronism of assigning different periods to different parts of the Vedas.

But there is another prejudice which is cherished by many scholars evidently under the impression of its being a well-recognized scientific doctrine. It is, that in the ruder stages of civilization, when laws of nature are little known and but very little understood, when mankind has not enough of the experience of the world, strict methods of correct reasoning are very seldom observed. On the other hand, analogy plays a most important part in the performance of intellectual functions of man. The slightest semblance or visage of semblance is enough to justify the exercise of analogy. The most palpable of the forces of nature impress the human mind in such a period of rude beginnings of human experience, by motions mainly. The wind blowing, the fire burning, a stone falling, or a fruit dropping, affects the senses essentially as moving. Now, throughout the range of conscious exertion of muscular power, will precedes motion, and since even the most grotesque experience of a savage in this world assumes this knowledge, it is no great stretch of intellectual power to argue that these natural forces also, to which the sensible motions are due, are endowed with the faculty of will. The personification of the forces of nature being thus effected, their deification soon follows. The overwhelming potency, the unobstructible might, and often the violence, with which, in the sight of a savage, these forces operate, strike him with terror, awe and reverence. A sense of his own weakness, humility and inferiority creeps over the savage mind, and, what was intellectually personified, becomes emotionally deified. According to this view, the Vedas, undoubtedly books of primitive times, consist of prayers from such an emotional character addressed to the forces of nature including wind and rain—prayers breathing passions of the savage for vengeance or for propitiation, or, in moments of poetic exaltation, hymns simply portraying the simple phenomena of nature in the personified language of mythology.

It is, therefore, more agreeable for these scholars to believe that the Vedas, no doubt books of primitive times, are records of the mythological lore of the ancient Aryans.

And since, even according to the confessions of Max Muller, higher truths of philosophy and monotheism are to be found here and there in the Vedas, it has become difficult to reconcile the mythological interpretations of the main part of the Vedas with the philosophical portions. Says Max Muller:
"I add only one more hymn [Rig. x. 121] in which the idea of one God is expressed with such power and decision that it will make us hesitate before we deny to the Aryan nations an instinctive monotheism." (Max Muller’s History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature, p. 568).

It is, therefore, argued by some that the mythological portions are earlier than philosophical ones; for, the primitive faith, as already indicated, is always mythology.

The fundamental error of this supposition lies in regarding a contingent conclusion as a necessary one; for, although mythology may be the result of barbarous intellect and analogical reasoning, it is not necessarily always so. It may even grow up as a degenerate, deformed and petrified remnant of a purer and truer religion. The history of religious practices, primarily designed to meet certain real wants, degenerating, after a lapse of time, on the cessation of those wants, into mere ceremonies and customs, is an ample testimony of the truth of the above remarks. Had the European scholars never come across the mythological commentaries of Sāyana and Mahidhara, or the puranic literature of post-Vedic (nay anti-Vedic) period, it would have been impossible for them, from the mere grounds of comparative mythology or Sanskrit philology, to alight on such interpretations of the Vedas as are at present current among them. May it not be, that the whole mythological fabric of the puranas, later as they are, was raised long after the vitality of true Vedic philosophy had departed from their words in the sight of the ignorant pedants? Indeed, when one considers that the Upanishads inculcate that philosophical monotheism, the parallel of which does not exist in the world—a monotheism that can only be conceived after a full conviction in the uniformity of nature,—and that they, together with the philosophical darshanas, all preceded the puranas; when one considers all this, he can hardly resist the conclusion that, at least in India, mythology rose as a rotten remnant of the old philosophical living religion of the Vedas. When, through the ignorance of men, the yaugika meanings of the Vedic words were forgotten, and proper names interpreted instead, there grew up a morbid mythology, the curse of modern idolatrous India. That mythology may thus arise on account of the decay of the primitive meaning of old words, even Professor Max Müller admits, when speaking of the degeneration of truth into mythology by a process, he styles ‘dialectic growth and decay,’ or dialectic life of religion. He says:—

"It is well known that ancient languages are particularly rich in synonyms, or, to speak more correctly, that in them the same object is called by many names—is, in fact, polynymous. While in modern languages most objects have one name only, we find in ancient Sanskrit, in ancient Greek and Arabic, a large choice of words for the same object. This is perfectly natural. Each name could express one side only of whatever had to be named, and not satisfied with one partial name, the early framers of language pro-
duced one name after the other, and after a time retained those which seemed most useful for special purposes. Thus the sky might be called not only the brilliant, but the dark, the covering, the thundering, the rain-giving. This is the polynomy in language, and it is what we are accustomed to call polytheism in religion. (pp. 276, 277, Max Muller's History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature.)

Even, in the face of these facts, European scholars are so very reluctant to leave their pre-conceived notions that, as an example of the same influence, Fredrick Pincott writes to me from England:

"You are right in saying that the commentators, now so much admired, had very little, if any, better means of knowledge on Vedic Terminology than we have at present. And you are certainly right in treating the Puranas as very modern productions; but you are wrong in deducing India's mythological notions from such recent works. The Rig Veda itself, undoubtedly the oldest book which India possesses, abounds in mythological matter."

Does "you are certainly right," and "you are wrong" amount to any proof of the Vedas abounding in mythology? But further he says:

"After the great shock which the spread of Buddhism gave to the old Indian form of faith, the Brahmans began to make their faith seriously philosophical in the Darshanas. Of course, many bold philosophical speculations are found in the Upanishads, and even in the Sanhitas; but it was at the time of the Darshanas that the religion was placed on a really philosophical basis."

Nothing shows so great a disrespect towards the history of another nation as the above. One is, indeed, wonder-struck at the way in which European scholars mistrust Indian chronology, and force their hypothetical guess-work and conjecture before the world as a sound historical statement of facts. Who, that has impartially studied the Darshana literature, does not know that the darshanas existed centuries before even the first word of Buddhism was uttered in India? Jaimini, Vyasa and Patanjali had gone by, Gautama, Kanáda and Kapila were buried in the folds of oblivion when Buddhism sprang up in the darkness of ignorance. Even the great Shankara, who waged a manly war against Buddhism or Jainism, preached nearly 2,200 years ago. Now this Shankara is a commentator on Vyasa Sútras, and was preceded by Gaudapáda and other Acháryas in his work. Generations upon generations had passed away after the time of Vyása when Shankara was born. Further, there is no event so certain in Indian History as Mahabhárata, which took place about 4,900 years ago. The darshanas, therefore, existed at least 4,900 years ago. There is a strong objection against the admission of these facts by European scholars, and that objection is the Bible. For, if these dates be true, what will be
come of the account of creation as given in the Bible? It seems, besides, that European scholars, on the whole, are unfit to comprehend that there could be any disinterested literature in the past. It is easier for them to comprehend that political or religious revolutions or controversies should give rise to new literature through necessity. Hence the explanation of Mr. Pincott:

"The old Brahmans were superstitious, dogmatic believers in the revelation of the Vedas. When Buddhism spread like wild fire, they thought of shielding their religion by mighty arguments and hence produced the darshana literature."

This assumption so charmingly connects heterogenous events together that, although historically false, it is worth being believed in for the sake of its ingenious explanatory power.

To return to the subject. Yáska lays down a canon for the interpretation of Vedic terms. It is that the Vedic terms are yaugika. Mahabháshya repeats the same. We have seen how this law is set aside and ignored by the European scholars in the interpretations of the Vedas, whence have arisen serious mistakes in their translations of the Vedas. We have also seen how Dr. Muir, falling in the same mistake, interprets general terms as proper nouns; and how Max Muller also, led by the same error, wrongly divides the Vedas into two parts, the Chhandas and Mantras. We have also seen how, due to the ignorance of the same law, Mantras upon Mantras have been interpreted as mythological in meaning, whereas some few Mantras could only be interpreted philosophically, thus giving rise to the question of reconciling philosophy with mythology. To further illustrate the importance of the proposition, that all Vedic terms are yaugika, I herewith subjoin the true translation of the 4th Mantra of the 50th Sukta of Rig Veda with my comments thereon, and the translation of the same by Monier Williams for comparison. Śūrya, as a yaugika word, means both the sun and the Divinity. Monier Williams takes it to represent the sun only. Other terms will become explicit in the course of exposition. The Mantra runs as follows:

\[
\text{तरणिविश्वविद्योऽन्योत्पितमे} \quad \text{विभवाभासिं} \quad \text{रोचनं।}
\]

The subject is the gorgeous wonders of the solar and the electric worlds. A grand problem is here propounded in this Mantra. Who is there that is not struck with the multiplicity of objects and appearances? Who that has not lost thought itself in contemplation of the infinite varieties that inhabit even our own planet? Even the varieties of animal and plant life have not yet been counted. The number of animal and plant species together with the vast number of mineral compounds may truly be called infinite. But why confine ourselves to this earth alone. Who has counted the host of heavens and the infinity of stars, the innumerable number of worlds yet
made and still remaining to be made? What mortal eye can measure and scan the depths of space? Light travels at the rate of 18,000 miles per second. There are stars from which rays of light have started on their journey ever since the day of creation, hundreds of millions of years ago, the rays have sped on and on with the unearthly velocity of 180,000 miles per second through space, and have only now penetrated into the atmosphere of our earth. Imagine the infinite depth of space with which we are on all sides surrounded. Are we not struck with variety and diversity in every direction? Is not differentiation the universal formula? Whence have these manifold and different objects of the universe proceeded? How is it that the same Universal-Father-Spirit, permeating in all and acting on all, produced these heterogenous items of the universe? Where lies the cause of difference? A difference so striking and at once so beautiful! How can the same God acting upon the universe produce an earth here and a sun there, a planet here and a satellite there, an ocean here and a dry land there, nay, a Swami here and an idiot there? The answer to this question is impressed in the very solar constitution. Scientific philosophers assure us that colour is not an intrinsic property of matter as popular belief would have it. But it is an accident of matter. A red object appears red, not because it is essentially so, but because of an extraneous cause. Red and violet would appear equally black when placed in the dark. It is the magic of sunbeams which imparts to them this special influence, this chromatic beauty, this congenial coloration. In a lonely forest, mid gloom and wilderness, a weary traveller, who had betaken himself to the alluring shadow of a pompous tree, lay down to rest and there sank in deep slumber. He awoke and found himself enveloped in gloom and dismal darkness on all sides. No earthly object was visible on either side. A thick black firmament on high, so beclouded as to inspire with the conviction that the sun had never shone there, a heavy gloom on the right, a gloom on the left, a gloom before and a gloom behind. Thus laboured the traveller under the ghastly, frightful windspell of frozen darkness. Immediately the heat-carrying rays of the sun struck upon the massive cloud, and, as if by a magic touch, the frozen gloom began to melt, a heavy shower of rain fell down. It cleared the atmosphere of suspended dust particles; and, in a twinkling of the eye, fled the moisture-laden sheet of darkness, resigning its realm to awakened vision entire. The traveller turned his eyes in ecstatic wonder from one direction to the other, and beheld a dirty gutter flowing there, a crystalline pond reposing here, a green grass meadow more beautiful than velvet plain on one side, and a cluster of variegated fragrant flowers on the other. The feathery creation with peacock’s train, and deer with slender legs, and chirping birds with plumage lent from Heaven, all, in fact all, darted into vision. Was there naught before the sun had shone? Had verdant forests, rich with luxuriant vegetation, and filled with the music of birds, all grown in a
moment? Where lay the crystalline waters? Where the blue canopy, where the fragrant flower? Had they been transported there by some magical power in a twinkling of the eye from dark dim distant region of chaos? No! they did not spring up in a moment. They were already there. But the sunbeams had not shed their lusture on them. It required the magic of the lustrous sun to shine, before scenes of exquisite beauty could dart into vision. It required the luminous rays of the resplendent orb to shed their influence, before the eyes could roll in the beautiful, charming, harmonious, reposeful and refreshing scenes of fragrant green.

Yes, thus, even thus, is this sublimely attractive Universe, रोचन बिस्रव, illuminated by a sun सूर्याभास, the Sun that knows no setting, the Sun that caused our planets and the solar orb to appear ब्योतिष्ठकुछ, the Sun that evolves the panorama of this grand creation, विस्रवद्वृत्त, the eternal Sun ever existing through eternity in perpetual action for the good of all. He sheds the rays of His Wisdom all around; the deeply thirsty, parching and blast dried atoms of matter drink, to satiation, from the ever-flowing, ever-gushing, ever-illuminating rays of Divine wisdom, their appropriate elements and essences of phenomenal existence and panoramic display. Thus is this Universe sustained. One central Sun producing infinity of colours. One central Divinity, producing infinity of worlds and objects. Compare with this Monier Williams’ translation:

"With speed beyond the ken of mortals, thou, O sun,
Dost ever travel on, conspicuous to all.
Thou dost create the light, and with it illumine
The entire universe."

We have shown why we regard Chhandas and Mantra as synonymous. We have also seen how Max Muller distinguishes between Chhandas and Mantra, regarding the latter as belonging to the secondary age, as loaded with technicalities, and as being less perspicuous than the former. He points out its chief character to be that “these songs are generally intended for sacrificial purposes.” Concerning this Mantra period, he says, “One specimen may suffice, a hymn describing the sacrifice of the horse with the full detail of a superstitious ceremonial. (Rig Veda, i. 162).”

We shall, therefore, quote the 162nd Sukta of Rig Veda, as it is the specimen hymn of Mux Muller, with his translation, and show how, due to a defective knowledge of Vedic literature and to the rejection of the principle that Vedic terms are all yaugika, Professor Max Muller translates a purely scientific hymn, distinguishable in no characteristics from the chhandas of the Vedas, as representative of an artificial and cumbrous and highly superstitious ritual or ceremonial.
To our thinking, Max Muller's interpretation is so very incongruous, unintelligible and superficial, that were the interpretation even regarded as possible, it could never be conceived as the description of an actual ceremonial. And now to the hymn. The first mantra runs thus:

**मानो मित्रो वरुणः भर्तीमयूरिन्द्र च चशुचा महतः परिस्थिन्**

**वहाजिनो देव जानस्य सत्यः प्रवेद्यायो विद्ये वीद्यायिनः**

Max Muller translates it, "May Mitra, Varuna, Ayaman, Ayu, Indra, the Lord the Ribhus, and the Maruts not rebuke us, because we shall proclaim at the sacrifice the virtues of the swift horse sprung from the gods." (Max Muller's History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature, p. 553.)

That the above interpretation may be regarded as real or as true, let Professor Max Muller prove that Aryans of the Vedic times entertained the superstition that at least one swift horse had sprung from the gods, also that the gods Mitra, Varuna, Ayaman, Ayu, Indra, the Lord of Ribhus, and the Maruts did not like to hear the virtues of the swift horse proclaimed at the sacrifice, for, if otherwise they would have no reason to rebuke the poet. Not one of these positions it is ever possible to entertain with validity. Even the most diseased conception of a savage shrinks from such a superstition as the "swift horse sprung from the gods." It is also in vain to refer for the verification of this position to the *ashvamedha* of the so-called *Puranas*. The whole truth is that this mythology of *ashvamedha* arose in the same way in which originates Max Muller's translation. It originates from an ignorance of the dialectic laws of the Vedas, when words having a *yaugika* sense are taken for proper nouns, and an imaginary mythology started.

To take, for instance, the mantra quoted above. Max Muller is evidently under the impression that Mitra is the 'god of the day,' Varuna is the 'god of the investing sky,' Ayama the 'god of death,' Ayu the 'god of the wind,' Indra the 'god of the watery atmosphere,' Ribhus the 'celestial artists,' and Maruts are the 'storm-gods.' But why these gods. Because he ignores the *yaugika* sense of these words and takes them as proper nouns. Literally speaking, *mitra* means a friend; *varuna*, a man of noble qualities; *aryama*, a judge or an administrator of justice; *ayu*, a learned man; *indra*, a governor; *ribhuksha*, a wise man; *marutahs*, those who practically observe the laws of seasons. The word *ashvau*, which occurs in the mantra, does not mean horse only, but it also means the group of three forces—heat, electricity and magnetism. It, in fact, means anything that can carry soon through a distance. Hence writes Swami Dayananda in the beginning of this Sukta:—

(Rv. Bhashyam Vol : 11. p. 553.)

**अधारवस्य बिन्दुप्रेण व्यापत्सर्याण्गेष्च विद्यामाइ॥**
"This Sukta is an exposition of *ashwa vidya* which means the science of training horses and the science of heat which pervades everywhere in the shape of electricity."

That ‘*ashwa*’ means heat will be clear from the following quotations:

> शरवन नात्वा वारवन्तास विद्या च रिजिं न नागिभि: || Rig Veda.

The words *ashvam agnim* show that *ashwa* means *agni* or Heat. And further:—(Rv. i. 27, I.)

> दशो रिजिः समिहते म यो न देववाहन: || तं हिरव्यम्बं इंद्रन: ||

which means: "*Agni*, the *ashwa*, carries, like an animal of conveyance, the learned who thus recognize its distance-carrying properties." Or, further:—(Shatapatha Br. 1. iii. 3. 29-30)

> दशो रिजिः। दशवी ह वा एवं सूत्वा देवेभ्यो यथा वद्वति ||

The above quotations are deemed sufficient to show both the meanings of *ashwa* as above indicated.

Professor Max Muller translates the "*devajata*" of the mantra as "sprung from the gods." This is again wrong, for he again takes *deva* in its popular (laukika) sense, god; whereas *devajata* means "with brilliant qualities manifested, or evoked to work by learned men," the word *deva* meaning both brilliant qualities and learned men. Again, Max Muller translates "*viryu*" merely into virtues, instead of "power-generating virtues." The true meaning of the mantra, therefore, is:—

> "We will describe the power-generating virtues of the energetic horses endowed with brilliant properties, or the virtues of the vigorous force of heat which learned or scientific men can evoke to work for purposes of appliances (not sacrifice). Let not philanthropists, noble men, judges, learned men, rulers, wise men and practical mechanics ever disregard these properties."

With this compare Max Muller’s translation:—

> "May Mitra, Varuna, Aryaman, Ayu, Indra, the Lord of Ribhus, and the Maruts not rebuke us, because we shall proclaim at the sacrifice the virtues of the swift horse sprung from the gods."

We come now to the second mantra which runs thus:—

> यनिनमिश्यारेक्ष्यश्च प्राहस्य राति गुर्वोत्तां सृष्टिनि नयन्ति।

> स्मारादजो नमयिस्यारेक्ष्य इन्द्राएभृयोऽपियमप्यवित प्रायः। || ॥

Max Muller translates it thus:—

> "When they lead before the horse, which is decked with pure gold ornaments, the offering, firmly grasped, the spotted goat bleats while walking onwards; it goes the path beloved by Indra and Pushan."

Here again there is no sense in the passage. The bleating of the goat has no connection with the leading of the offering before the horse,
nor any with its walking onward. Nor is the path of Indra and Pushan in any way defined. In fact, it is very clear that there is no definite specific relation between the first mantra and this, according to Müller’s translation, unless a far-fetched connection be forced by the imagination bent to discover or invent some curious, inconceivable mythology. And now to the application of the principle that all Vedic terms are *yaugika*. Max Muller translates *reknasas* into ‘gold ornaments’, whereas it only means ‘wealth’ (see Nighantu, ii. 10). *Rati*, which signifies the mere act of ‘giving,’ is converted into an ‘offering’; *vishvarupa* which only means ‘one having an idea of all forms’ is converted into ‘spotted’; *aja*, which means ‘a man once born in wisdom, being never born again,’ is converted into a ‘goat’; *memyai*, from root *mi* to injure, is given to mean ‘bleating’; *suprangi*, which means, from root *prachh*, to question, ‘one who is able enough to put questions elegantly,’ is translated as ‘walking onward’; *pathah*, which only means drink or food, is translated into ‘path’; and, lastly, the words *indra* and *pushan*, instead of meaning the governing people and the strong, are again made to signify two deities with their proper names ‘Indra’ and ‘Pushan.’ Concerning the word *patha*, writes Yaska, vi. 7:—

पाथोऽन्तरिच्छः उद्वकसमपि पाथ उच्च्यते पानात्।
बन्नमपि पाथ उच्च्यते पानाद्रेव॥

Mukhato nayanti, which means, ‘they bring out of the organ of speech’, or ‘they explain or preach,’ is translated by Max Müller into ‘they lead before.’

It is thus clear that, in the one mantra alone, there are nine words that have been wrongly translated by Max Müller, and all is due to this that the *yaugika* sense of the words has been ignored, the *rurhi* or the *laukika* sense being everywhere forced in the translation. The translation of the mantra, according to the sense of the words we have given, will be:

“They who preach that only wealth earned by righteous means should be appropriated and spent, and those born in wisdom, who are well-versed in questioning others elegantly, in the science of forms and in correcting the unwise, these and such alone drink the potion of strength and of power to govern.”

The connection of this mantra with the foregoing is that the *ashwa vidya*, spoken of in the first mantra, should be practised only by those who are possessed of righteous means, are wise, and have the capacity to govern and control.

We come now to the 3rd mantra of 162nd Sukta.

एष छागः पुरो ब्रह्वेन न वाजिना पूण्यो भगी नीयते विशव्वेदः।
भविष्यत्र यत्पुरोलासमर्वतं तवहेतु देनं सीथवसाय जनिविति॥ २ ॥

Max Müller translates it thus:
“This goat, destined for all the gods, is led first with the quick horse, as Pushan’s share; for Tvashtri himself raises to glory this pleasant offering which is brought with the horse.”

Here, again, we find the same artificial stretch of imagination which is the characteristic of this translation. How can the goat be ‘destined for all gods,’ and at the same time be ‘Pushan’s share’ alone? Here Max Müller gives a reason for the goat being led first as Pushan’s share; the reason is that ‘Tvashtri himself raises to glory this pleasant offering.’ Now, who is this Tvashtri, and how is he related to Pushan? How does Tvashtri himself raise to glory this pleasant offering? All these are questions left to be answered by the blank imagination of the reader. Such a translation can only do one service. It is that of making fools of the Vedic rishis whom Max Müller supposes to be the authors of the Vedas.

The word vishwadevyas, which Max Müller translates as ‘destined for all the gods,’ can never grammatically mean so. The utmost that one can make for Max Müller on this word is that vishwadevyas should mean ‘for all the devas,’ but ‘destined’ is a pure addition unwarranted by grammar. Vishwadevya is formed from vishwadeva by the addition of the suffix yat in the sense of tatra sadhu. (See Ashtadhyayi, IV. 4, 98). The meaning is:—

विश्वादेव्यस विश्वादेव्याः साधुविश्वादेव्यः

or vishwadevyas is whatsoever is par excellence fit to produce useful properties. We have spoken of Max Müller translating pushan, which means strength, into a proper noun. Tvashtri, which simply means one who befits things, or a skilful hand, is again converted into a proper noun. Purodasha, which means food well-cooked, is translated into ‘offering.’ The words ‘which is brought with’ are, of course, Max Müller’s addition to put sense into what would otherwise be without any sense. Arvat which, no doubt, sometimes means a horse, here means ‘knowledge.’ For, if horse were intended, some adjective of significance would have so changed the meaning. Saushravasaya Jinvati, which means “obtains for purpose of a good food,” Shravas (in Vedic Sanskrit, meaning food or anna,) is translated by Max Müller into ‘raises to glory.’ The true meaning would be:—

“The goat possessed of useful properties yields milk as a strengthening food for horses. The best cereal is useful when made into pleasant food well-prepared by an apt cook according to the modes dictated by specific knowledge of the properties of foods.”

We have criticised Max Müller’s translation of the first three mantras of the sukta in detail, to show how he errs at every step, in every case the error consisting in taking the runhi meaning instead of the yaugika one of the word. It will not be difficult to pass from mantra to mantra till the hymn is finished, and show that the true origin of all errors lies in not recognising the yaugika sense of Vedic terms. But we deem the above three mantras as sufficient. We
however, subjoin herewith Max Müller’s translation of the remaining *mantras* of this hymn, with our occasional remarks in the foot-notes.

Max Müller’s translation:—

4. “When thrice at the proper seasons, men lead around the sacrificial horse which goes to the gods, Pushan’s share comes first, the goat, which announces the sacrifice* to the gods.

5. Hotri, Adhvaryu, Avaya (Pratiprasthatri), Agnimindha (Agni dhra), Gravagrabha (Gravastut), and the wise Sanstri (Pras-astri), may you fill the streams (round the altar) with a sacrifice which is well-prepared and well-accomplished.†

6. They who cut the sacrificial post, and they who carry it, they who make the ring for the post of the horse, and even they who bring together what is cooked for the horse, may their work be with us.

7. He came on—(my prayer has been well performed), the bright backed horse goes to the region of the gods. Wise poets celebrate him, and we have won a good friend for the love of the gods.

8. The halter of the swift one, the heel-ropes of the horse, the head-ropes, the girths, the bridle, and even the grass that has been put into his mouth may all these which belong to thee be with the gods.

9. What the fly eats of the flesh, what adheres to the stick, or to the axe, or to the hands of the immolator and his nails, may all these which belong to thee be with the gods.‡

10. The ordure that runs from the belly, and the smaller particles of raw flesh, may the immolators well prepare all this, and dress the sacrifice till it is well-cooked.§

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* The word *yajna* which originally indicates any action requiring association of men or objects, and productive of beneficial results, is always translated by European scholars as ‘sacrifice.’ The notion of sacrifice is a purely Christian notion, and has no place in Vedic philosophy. It is foreign to the genuine religion of India. Hence all translations in which the word ‘sacrifice’ occurs are to be rejected, as fallacious.

† Max Müller herein puts five words as proper nouns, and thus does not accept their *yauyika* sense. The words ‘round the altar’ are supplied by Müller’s imagination on the ground that sacrifices are conducted at the altar. Both ideas are foreign to Vedic philosophy.

‡ Here Max Müller does not understand the structure of the sentence. The original words are *ashrasya kravisho* which he takes to mean ‘the flesh of the horse,’ but *kravisho* is an adjective qualifying *ashrasya*, the whole really means, ‘of the pacing horse.’ *Kravisho* does not mean ‘of the flesh’ but ‘pacing’ from the root *kram*, to pace. The meaning would be, ‘What the fly eats of whatever dirty adheres to the horse,’ &c. Again the words *svcarau* and *svadhittu* are translated into stick and axe which is never their meaning.

§ *Amasya* *kravisho*, which means ‘raw food yet undigested and disposed to come out’ is similarly translated by Müller into ‘raw flesh’ here. *Ama* is the state of the undigested food in the belly. Here again, Müller does not follow the structure of the *mantra*. 
11. The juice that flows from thy roasted limbs on the spit after thou hast been killed, may it not run on the earth or the grass; may it be given to the gods who desire it.*

12. They who examine the horse when it is roasted, they who say "it smells well, take it away," they who serve the distribution of the meat, may their work also be with us.†

13. The ladle of the pot where the meat is cooked, and the vessels for sprinkling the juice, the vessels to keep off the heat, the covers of the vessels, the skewers, and the knives, they adorn the horse.

14. Where he walks, where he sits, where he stirs, the foot-fastening of the horse, what he drinks, and what food he eats, may all these which belong to thee, be with the god!

15. May not the fire with smoky smell make thee hiss, may not the glowing cauldron swell and burst. The gods accept the horse if it is offered to them in due form.

16. The cover which they stretch over the horse, and the golden ornaments, the head-ropes of the horse, and the foot-ropes, all these which are dear to the gods, they offer to them.

17. If some one strike these with the heel or the whip that thou mayst lie down, and thou art snorting with all thy might, then I purify all this with my prayer, as with a spoon of clarified butter at the sacrifice.

18. The axe approaches the 34 ribs of the quick horse, beloved, of the gods. Do you wisely keep the limbs whole, find out each joint and strike.‡

19. One strikes the brilliant horse, two hold it, thus, is the custom. Those of thy limbs which I have seasonably prepared, I sacrifice in the fire as balls offered to the gods.§

20. May not thy dear soul burn thee while thou art coming near, may the axe not stick to thy body. May no greedy and unskilful immolator, missing with the sword, throw thy mangled limbs together.

* Ayain pachyamanavad, which means 'forced by the heat of anger,' is translated by Muller as 'roasted,' and hatasya, which means 'propelled,' is here translated by Müller as "killed."

† The translation of this mantra is especially noteworthy. The word wajinam, from waja, cereals, is here taken as meaning 'horse,' and Professor Max Müller is so anxious to bring forth the sense of the sacrifice of the horse that, not content with this, he interprets mansa bhiksham upaste, which means 'he serves the absence of meat into 'serves the meat.' Can there be anything more questionable?

‡ The number of ribs mentioned by Muller is worth being counted and verified. Vankri which means 'a zigzag motion' is here translated as 'rib.' This requires proof.

§ Twashtu rashvasya is here translated as 'brilliant horse,' as if asheva were the noun and twashta its qualifying adjective. The reverse is the truth. Twashta is the noun signifying electricity, and asheva is the qualifying adjective signifying all-pervading. The words, "offered to the gods," in the end of the translation are pure addition of Max Muller, to give the whole a mythological coloring.
21. Indeed thou diest not thus, thou sufferest not; thou goest to
the gods on easy paths. The two horses of Indra, the two deer of the
Maruts have been yoked, and the horse come to the shaft of the ass (of
the aswins). *

22. May this horse give us cattle and horses, men, progeny and
all-sustaining wealth. May Aditi keep us from sin, may the horse of
this sacrifice give us strength!"—pp. 553—554.

We leave now Max Müller and his interpretations, and come to
another commentator of the Vedas, Sáyana. Sáyana may truly be
called the father of European Vedic scholarship. Sáyana is the author
from whose voluminous commentaries the Europeans have drunk in
the deep wells of mythology. It is upon the interpretation of Mádhava
Sáyana that the translations of Wilson, Benfey and Langlois are based.
It is Sáyana whose commentaries are appealed to in all doubtful cases.
"If a dwarf on the shoulders of a giant can see further than the giant,
he is no less a dwarf in comparison with the giant." If modern exegetes
and lexicographers standing at the top of Sáyana, i.e., with their main
knowledge of the Vedas borrowed from Sáyana should now exclaim,
"Sáyana intimates only that sense of the Vedas which was current in
India some centuries ago, but comparative philology gives us that
meaning which the poets themselves gave to their songs and phrases";
or, if they should exclaim that they have the great advantage of put-
ting together ten or twenty passages for examining the sense of a word
which occurs in them, which Sáyana had not: nothing is to be wondered
at. MÁd hva Sáyana, the voluminous commentator of all the Vedas,
of the most important Brahmanas and a Kalpa work, the renowned Mí-
mansist,—he, the great grammarian, who wrote the learned commentary
on Sanskrit radicals: yes, he is still a model of learning and a
colossal giant of memory, in comparison to our modern philologists and
scholars. Let modern scholars, therefore, always bear in mind, that
Sáyana is the life of their scholarship, their comparative philology, and
their so much boasted interpretation of the Vedas. And if Sáyana was
himself diseased—whatsoever the value of the efforts of modern
scholars—their comparative philology, their new interpretations, and
their so-called marvellous achievements cannot but be diseased. Doubt
not that the vitality of modern comparative philology and Vedic
scholarship is wholly derived from the diseased and defective victuals
of Sáyana's learning. Sooner or later, the disease will develop its
final symptoms and sap the foundation of the very vitality it seemed
to produce. No branch of a tree can live or flourish when separated
from the living stock. No interpretations of the Vedas will, in the
end, ever succeed unless they are in accord with the living sense of
the Vedas in the Nirukta and the Brahmanas.

* Hari is again as a nurhi word translated into "two horses of Indra" and prishati
into "two deer of maruta." The 'shaft of the ass' is, perhaps, the greatest curiosity
Max Muller could present as a sign of mythology.
I quote here a *mantra* from Rigveda, and will show how Sāyana's interpretation radically differs from the exposition of Nirukta. The *mantra* is from Rigveda, ix. 96. It runs thus:—

> ब्रह्माद्वारा पद्वीः कवीनामुनिविप्राण महिषो गुगणामाः।
> स्यवनो गृङ्खानां स्वधितितवनानां सोमः पविचस्तम्यित रेक्मन्।

Says Sāyana:—

"God himself appears as Brahma among the gods, Indra, Agni, &c: He appears as a poet among the dramatists and writers of lyrics; He appears as Vashishtha, &c. among the Brahmanas; He appears as a buffalo among quadrupeds; He appears as an eagle among birds; He appears as an axe in the forest; He appears as the *soma-juice* purified by *mantras* excelling in its power of purification the sacred waters of the Ganges, &c., &c."

The translation bears the stamp of the time when it was produced. It is the effort of a Pandit to establish his name by appealing to popular prejudice and feeling. Evidently when Sāyana wrote, the religion of India was "pantheism," or, everything is God; evidently superstition had so far increased that the waters of the Ganges were regarded as sacred; incarnations were believed in; the worship of Brahma, Vashishtha and other *rishis* was at its acme. It was probably the age of the dramatists and poets. Sāyana was himself a resident of some city or town. He was not a villager. He was familiar with the axe as an instrument of the destruction of forests, &c., but not with the lightning or fire as a similar but more powerful agent. His translation does not mirror the sense of the Vedas but that of his own age. His interpretation of brahma, kavi, deve, rishi, vipra, mahisha, mriga, shyena, gridhra, vana, soma, pavitra—of all these words, without one exception, is purely rūri or laukika.

Now follows the exposition of Yāska in his Nirukta, xiv. 13. There is not a single word that is not taken in its *yautika* sense. Says Yāska:—

> प्राचार्यात्मं ब्रह्माद्वारानामसित्यमसिप्र ब्रह्म भवति देवानां देवनककम्भणः
> मिन्हर्याः पद्वीः कवीनाममिशिप्र गद्यः कवीमानानामनिद्रायाः
> याणामुनिविप्राणसित्यमसिप्रश्यवनो महान्म्यिति विद्यायां याणां महिषो स्यवज्ञामानिम्यितसपमि सहान्भवति भार्यानककम्भणम्यिद्वाणां महिषो गुगणामानिम्यितसपमि सहान्म्यि भार्यानककम्भणम्यिद्वाणां महिषो गुगणामानिमिश्चेत्र भार्य भवति भार्याभत्थानां कर्मणो गुगणानिमिश्चेत्राणी गृङ्खानां कर्मणो यत् एतर्मितश्चति स्वधितितवनानामसित्यमसिप्र सहान्म्यि कर्माणात्मात्मि पद्वीः कवीमानानामनिद्रायाः सोमः पविचस्तम्यितः
> मुद्दानात्मात्मि सर्वमन्भवत्यात्मङ्गतिः।
We will now speak of the spiritual sense of the mantra as Yaska gives it. It is his object to explain that the human spirit is the central conscious being that enjoys all experience. "The external world as revealed by the senses finds its purpose and object, and, therefore, absorption, in this central being. The indriyas or the senses are called the devas, because they have their play in the external phenomenal world, and because it is by them that the external world is revealed to us. Hence Atma, the human spirit, is the brahma devanam, the conscious entity that presents to its consciousness all that the senses reveal. Similarly, the senses are called the kavyas, because one learns by their means. The Atma, then, is padavi kavinam or the true sentient being that understands the working of the senses. Further, the Atma is rishir vipranam, the cognizor of sensations; vipra meaning the senses as the feelings excited by them pervade the whole body. The senses are also called the mrigas, for they hunt about their proper aliment in the external world. Atma is mahisho mriganam, i.e., the great of all the hunters. The meaning is that it is really through the power of Atma that the senses are enabled to find out their proper objects. The Atma is called shyena, as to it belongs the power of realization; and gridhuras are the indriyas, for they provide the material for such realization. The Atma, then, pervades these senses. Further, this Atma, is swadhitir vananam, or the master whom all indriyas serve. Swadhitii means Atma, for the activity of Atma is all for itself, man being an end unto himself. The senses are called vana, for they serve their master, the human spirit. It is this Atma that, being pure in its nature, enjoys all." Such, then, is the yaugika sense which Yaska attaches to the mantra. Not only is it all consistent and intelligible unlike Sáyana's which conveys no actual sense; not only is each word clearly defined in its yaugika meaning, in contradistinction with Sáyana who knows no other sense of the word than the popular one, but there is also to be found that simplicity, naturalness and truthfulness of meaning, rendering it independent of all time and space, which contrasted with the artificiality, burdensomeness and localisation of Sáyana's sense, can only proclaim Sáyana's complete ignorance of the principles of Vedic interpretation.

This is Sáyana, upon whose commentaries of the Vedas are based the translations of European scholars.

We leave now Max Muller and Sáyana with their rurhi translations, and come to another question, which, though remotely connected with the one just mentioned, is yet important enough to be separately treated. It is the question concerning the Religion of the Vedas. European scholars and idolatrous superstitious Hindus are of opinion that the Vedas inculcate the worship of innumerable gods and goddesses, Devatas. The word devata is a most fruitful source of error, and it is very necessary that its exact meaning and application should be determined. Not understanding the Vedic sense of the word devata, and easily admitting the popular superstitious in-
terpretation of a belief in mythological gods and goddesses, crumbling into wretched idolatry, European scholars have imagined the Vedas to be full of the worship of such materials, and have gone so far in their reverence for the Vedas as to degrade its religion even below polytheism and perhaps at par with atheism. In their fit of benevolence, the European scholars have been gracious enough to endow this religion with a title, a name, and that is Henotheism.

After classifying religions into polytheistic, dualistic, monotheistic, remarks Max Muller:—

"It would certainly be necessary to add two other classes—the henotheistic and the atheistic. Henotheistic religions differ from polytheistic, because, although they recognize the existence of various deities or names of deities, they represent each deity as independent of all the rest, as the only deity present in the mind of the worshipper at the time of his worship and prayer. This character is very prominent in the religion of the Vedic poets. Although many gods are invoked in different hymns, sometimes also in the same hymn, yet there is no rule of precedence established among them; and, according to the varying aspects of nature, and the varying cravings of human heart, it is sometimes Indra, the god of the blue sky, sometimes Agni, the god of fire, sometimes Varuna, the ancient god of the firmament, who are praised as supreme without any suspicion of rivalry, or any idea of subordination. This peculiar phase of religion, this worship of single gods forms probably everywhere the first stage in the growth of polytheism, and, deserves, therefore, a separate name." *

To further illustrate the principles of this new religion, henotheism, says Max Muller:—

"When these individual gods are invoked, they are not conceived as limited by the power of others as superior or inferior in rank. Each god is to the mind of the supplicant as good as all the gods. He is felt, at the time, as a real divinity, as supreme and absolute, in spite of the necessary limitations which, to our mind, a plurality of gods must entail on every single god. All the rest disappear for a moment from the vision of the poet, and he only who is to fulfill their desires stands in full light before the eyes of the worshippers. 'Among you, O gods, there is none that is small, none that is young; you are all great indeed,' is a sentiment which, though perhaps not so distinctly expressed as by Manu Vaivasvata, nevertheless, underlies all the poetry of the Veda. Although the gods are sometimes distinctly invoked as the great and the small, the young and the old (Rv. i. 27-13), this is only an attempt to find out the most comprehensive expression for the divine powers, and nowhere is any of the gods represented as the slave of others." †

As an illustration:—

"When Agni, the lord of fire, is addressed by the poet, he is spoken of as the first god, not inferior even to Indra. While Agni is invoked, Indra is forgotten; there is no competition between the two, nor any rivalry between them and other gods. This is a most important feature in the religion of the Veda, and has never been taken into consideration by those who have written on the history of ancient polytheism."

We have seen what Max Müller's view of the Religion of the Vedas is. We may be sure that the review of other European scholars also cannot be otherwise. Is henotheism really, then, the religion of the Vedas? Is the worship of devatas an essential feature of Vedic worship? Are we to believe Max Müller and assert that the nation to which he hesitates to deny instinctive monotheism, has so far uprooted its instincts as to fall down to an acquired belief in henotheism? * No, not so. Vedas, the sacred books of the primitive Aryans, are the purest record of the highest form of monotheism possible to conceive. Scholars cannot long continue to misconstrue the Vedas, and ignore the laws of their interpretation. Says Yaska:—

\[\text{Nirukta, vii, 1.}\]

Devata is a general term applied to those substances whose attributes are explained in a mantra. The sense of the above is that when it is known which substance it is that forms the subject of exposition in the mantra the term signifying that substance is called the devata of the mantra. Take, for instance, the mantra:

\[\text{Nirukta, i. 2.}\]

*I present to your consideration agni which is the fruitful source of worldly enjoyments, which is capable of working as though it were a messenger, and is endowed with the property of preparing all our foods. Hear ye, and do the same."

Since it is agni that forms the subject-matter of this mantra, agni would be called the devata of this mantra. Hence, says Yaska, a mantra is of that devata, with the object of expressing whose properties, God, the Omniscient, revealed the mantra.

We find an analogous sense of the word devata in another part of Nirukta. Says Yaska:—

\[\text{Nirukta, i. 2.}\]

* Max Muller; History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature, p. 546.
'Whenever the process of an art is described, the mantra that completely describes that process is called the devata (or the index) of that process.'

It is in this sense that the devata of a mantra is the index, the essential key-note of the meaning of the mantra. There is in this analysis of the word no reference to any gods or goddesses, no mythology, no element worship, no henotheism. If this plain and simple meaning of devata were understood, no more will the mantras having marut or agni for their devatas be regarded as hymns addressed to "the storm-god" or "the god of fire;" but it will be perceived that these mantras treat respectively of the properties of marut and of the properties of agni. It will, then, be regarded, as said elsewhere in Nirukta:—

देव दानवा दीपनादा बोतनादा युद्धानो भवतीति वा || Nirukta vii. 15

that whatsoever or whosoever is capable of conferring some advantage upon us, capable of illuminating things, or capable of explaining them to us, and lastly, the Light of all lights, these are the fit objects to be called devatas. This is not in any way inconsistent with what has gone before. For, the devata of a mantra, being the key-note of the sense of the mantra, is a word capable of rendering an explanation of the mantra, and hence is called the devata of that mantra. Speaking of these devatas, Yáska writes something which even goes to show that people of his time had not even the slightest notion of the gods and goddesses of Max Müller and superstitious Hindus—gods, and goddesses that are now forced upon us under the Vedic designation, devata. Says Yáska:—

परित्य द्वाराविवृत्तलुम्बोलः देवदेवतायामतिथिदेवतयः पितृदेवतयः || Nirukta vii. 4.

'Ve often find in common practice of the world at large, that learned men, parents, and atithis, (those guest-missionaries who have no fixed residence, but wander about from place to place benefitting the world by their religious instructions), are regarded as devatas or called by the names of devatas.' It is clear from the above quotation, that religious teachers, parents and learned men, these alone, or the like, were called devatas and no others, in Yáska's time. Had Yáska known of any such idolatry or henotheism or devata worship, which superstitious Hindus are so fond of, and which Professor Max Müller is so intent to find in the Vedas, or had any such worship prevailed in his time, even though he himself did not share in this worship, it is impossible that he should not have made any mention of it at all, especially when speaking of the common practice among men in general. There can be no doubt that element worship, or nature worship, is not only foreign to the Vedas and the ages of Yáska and Pánini and Vedic rishis and munis, but that idolatry and its parent mythology, at least in so far as Aryavarta is concerned, are the products of recent times.
To return to the subject. We have seen that Yaska regards the names of those substances whose properties are treated of in the mantra as the devatas. What substances, then, are the devatas? They are all that can form the subject of human knowledge. All human knowledge is limited by two conditions, i.e., time and space. Our knowledge of causation is mainly that of succession of events. And succession is nothing but an order in time. Again, our knowledge must be a knowledge of something and that something must be somewhere. It must have a locality for its existence and occurrence. Thus far, the circumstances of our knowledge—time and locality. Now to the essentials of knowledge. The most exhaustive division of human knowledge is between objective and subjective. Objective knowledge is the knowledge of all that passes without the human body. It is the knowledge of the phenomena of the external universe. Scientific men have arrived at the conclusion that natural philosophy, i.e., philosophy of the material universe, reveals the presence of two things, matter and force. Matter as matter is not known to us. It is only the play of forces in matter producing effects, sensible, that is known to us. Hence the knowledge of external world is resolved into the knowledge of force with its modifications. We come next to subjective knowledge. In speaking of subjective knowledge, there is firstly, the ego, the human spirit, the conscious entity; secondly the internal phenomena of which the human spirit is conscious. The internal phenomena are of two kinds. They are either the voluntary, intelligent, self-conscious activities of the mind, which may hence be designated deliberate activities: or the passive modifications effected in the functions of the body by the presence of the human spirit. These may, therefore, be called the vital activities.

An apriori analysis, therefore, of the knowable leads us to six things, time, locality, force, human spirit, deliberate activities and vital activities. These things, then, are fit to be called devatas. The conclusion to be derived from the above enumeration is, that if the account of Nirukta concerning Vedic devatas, as we have given, be really true, we should find Vedas inculcating these six things—time, locality, force, human spirit, deliberate activities and vital activities as devatas, and no others. Let us apply the crucial test.

We find, however, the mention of 33 devatus in such mantras as these:—

चयसिंचश्यतस्त्वत्यतमुतन्यशास्म्यन् प्रजापति: परमेष्ठघाडिपिटिरास्ती ति
Yajur, xiv. 31.

यस्य चयसिमच्छेवा ऋषि गान्ति विभेदिरे ।
तान्वै चयसिंचछेवानेको व्रज्ञविद्वो विदु: || ऋचर्य X.xxii. 4-27.

"The Lord of all, the Ruler of the universe, the Sustainer of all, holds all things by 33 devatas."

THE TERMINOLOGY OF THE VEDAS.
The knowers of true theology recognize the 33 devatas performing their proper organic functions, as existing in and by Him, the One and Only.

Let us, therefore, see what these 33 devatas are, so that we may be able to compare them with our a priori deductions and settle the question.

We read in Shatapatha Brahmana:

The meaning is:—Says Yajnavalkya to Shakalya, "there are 33 devatas which manifest the glory of God; 8 vasus, 11 rudras, 12 īdityas, 1 īndra and 1 prajāpati; 33 on the whole. The eight vasus are 1. heated cosmic bodies, 2. planets, 3. atmospheres, 4. superterrestrial spaces, 5. suns, 6. rays of ethereal space, 7. satellites, 8. tars. These are called vasus (abodes), for, the whole group of existences resides in them, viz., they are the abode of all that lives, moves, or exists. The eleven rudras are the ten prānas (nervauric forces) enlivening the human frame, and the eleventh is dtma (the human spirit). These are called the rudras (from root rud to weep), because when they desert the body it becomes dead, and the relations of the dead, in consequence of this desertion, begin to weep. The
The twelve adityas are the twelve solar months, marking the course of
time. They are called adityas as, by their cyclic motion, they produce
twelve adityas are the twelve solar months, marking the course of
changes in all, objects, and hence the lapse of the term of existence for
each object. Aditya means that which causes such a lapse. Indra is
the all-pervading electricity or force. Prajâpati is yajna (an active
voluntary association of objects on the part of man, for the purposes
of art, or association with other men for purposes of teaching or
learning). It also means Pashûs (the useful animals). Yajna and
useful animals are called prajâpati, as it is by such actions and by
such animals that the world at large derives its materials of suste-
ance. What, then, are the three devus?" asks Shâkalya. "They
are," replies Yâjnavalkya, "the 3 lokas ; (viz., locality, name and
birth)." What are the two devas? asked he. Yâjnavalkya re-
plied, "pranas (the positive substances) and anna (the negative sub-
stance). What is the Adhyardha? He asks." Yajnavalkya replies,
"Adhyardha is the universal electricity, the sustainer of the universe,
known as surâtmâ." Lastly, he inquired, "Who is the one Devata?" Yâjnavalkya replied, "God, the admirable."

These, then, are the thirty-three devas mentioned in the Vedas.
Let us see how far this analysis agrees with our a priori deduction.
The eight vasus enumerated in Shatapatha Brahmana are clearly the
localities; the eleven rudras include, firstly, the ego, the human spirit,
and secondly, the ten nervauric forces, which may be approximately
taken for the vital activities of the mind; the twelve adityas comprise
time; electricity is the all-pervading force; whereas prajâpati, (yajna
or pashus,) may be roughly regarded as comprising the objects of
intelligent deliberate activities of the mind.

When thus understood, the 33 devas will correspond with the
six elements of our rough analysis. Since the object here is not so
much as to show exactness of detail as general coincidence, partial
differences may be left out of account.

It is clear, then, that the interpretation of devas which Yaska
gives is the only interpretation that is consistent with the Vedas and
the Brahmanas. That no doubt may be left concerning the pure
monotheistic worship of the ancient Aryas, we quote from Nirukta
again:—

महाभारतविषया एक ऐतरं व्यासो स्त्रोत्तते एकस्यात्मकोन्ये देव यथं धारणीं
भवन्निः। कर्मोजन्मान ऐतरं जन्मान ऐतरं विश्वं रथो भवति ऐतरं प्राप्ता
युधमातंस्य ऐतरं सवं देवस्य देवस्य || Nirukta, vii. 4. This means:—

"Leaving off all other devas it is only the Supreme Soul that is
worshipped on account of His omnipotence. Other devas are but
the pratyyangas of this Supernal Soul, i. e., they but partially mani-
fest the glory of God. All these devas owe their birth and power to Him. In Him they have their play. Through Him they exercise their beneficial influences by attracting properties, useful, and repelling properties, injurious. He alone is the All-in-All of all the devas."

From the above it will be clear that, in so far as worship is concerned, the ancient Aryas adored the Supreme Soul only, regarding Him as the life, the sustenance and dormitory of the world. And yet pious Christian missionaries and more pious Christian philologists are never tired of propagating the lie before the world, that the Vedas inculcate the worship of many gods and goddesses. Writes a Christian missionary in India:—

"Monotheism is a belief in the existence of one God only, polytheism is a belief in the plurality of gods. Max Muller says, 'If we must employ technical terms, the religion of the Veda is polytheism, not monotheism.' The 27th hymn of the 1st Ashtaka of the Rigveda concludes as follows: 'Veneration to the great gods, veneration to the lesser, veneration to the young, veneration to the old; we worship the gods as well as we are able: may I not omit the praise of the older deities.'*

The pious Christian thus ends his remarks on the religion of the Vedas. "Pantheism and polytheism are often combined, but monotheism, in the strict sense of the word, is not found in Hinduism." Again says the pious missionary:—

"Ram Mohan Roy, as already mentioned, despised the hymns of the Vedas, he spoke of the Upanishads as the Vedas, and thought that they taught monotheism. The Chhandogya formula, eka meva dvitiyam brahma,' was also adopted by Keshub Chander Sen. But it does not mean that there is no second God, but that there is no second anything—a totally different doctrine."

Thus it is obvious that Christians, well saturated with the truth of God, are not only anxious to see monotheism off the Vedas, but even off the Upanishads. Well might they regard their position as safe, and beyond assail on the strength of such translations as these:—

"In the beginning there arose the Hiranyagarbha (the golden germ)—He was the one born lord of all this. He established the earth and the sky:—Who is the God to whom we shall offer our sacrifice?" Max Müller.

"He who gives breath. He who gives strength, whose command all the bright gods revere, whose shadow is immortality, whose shadow is death:—Who is the God to whom we shall offer our sacrifice?" Ibid.

Hiranyagarbha, which means 'God in whom the whole luminous universe resides in a potential state' is translated into the *golden germ*. The word *jñātaḥ* is detached from its proper construction and placed in apposition with *patir*, thus giving the sense of "the one born lord of all this." Perhaps, there is a deeper meaning in this Christian translation. Some day, not in the very remote future, these Christians will discover that the *golden germ* means 'conceived by the Holy Ghost,' whereas 'the one born lord of all' alludes to Jesus Christ. In one of those future happy days, this *mantra* of the Veda will be quoted as an emblematic of a prophecy in the dark distant past, of the advent of a Christ whom the ancients knew not. How could they, then, adore him, but in the language of mystic interrogation? Hence the translation, "Who is the God to whom we shall offer our sacrifice?" Even the second *mantra*, Max Müller's translation of which we have subjoined above, has been differently translated by an audacious Christian. What Max Müller translates as "He who gives breath," was translated by this believer in the word of God, as "He who sacrificed Himself, *i.e.*, Jesus Christ." The original words in Sanskrit are य चार्मावदः.

Let us pass from these *mantras* and the misinterpretations of Christians to clear proofs of monotheism in the Vedas. We find in Rigveda the very *mantra*, which yields the *golden germ* to European interpreters. It runs this:

**हिरण्यगर्भः समवर्त्तीश्च भूतस्य जातः पतिरेक आसीत्।**

**सद्दाराह प्रक्षिप्या ब्राह्मणं कर्मेण देवाय द्विविषा विग्रेम॥** Which means—

'God existed in the beginning of creation, the only Lord of the unborn universe. He is the Eternal Bliss whom we should praise and adore.'

In Yajur Veda, xvii, 19, we find:

**विश्वतरचुहुः विश्वतः मुखो विश्वतो वाहुकः विश्वतस्यात्॥**

**संवाह्याधस्मति संपत्तेद्विवर्गता च जनश्चेद्व एकः॥** Which means:—

"Being all-vision, all-power, all-motion in Himself, He sustains with His power the whole universe, Himself being One alone."

And in Atharva Veda, XIII. iv 16—21, we find:

**न द्वितीयी न तृतीयशचुर्वती नापुष्य स्यति। सर्व एक एक द्वितिक एव। सर्वं चन्द्रमं देवं। एकत्री भविनि॥** Which means:—

"There are neither two gods, nor three, nor four,........nor ten. He is one and only one and pervades the whole universe. All other things live, move and have their being in Him."
CRITICISM
ON
MONIER WILLIAMS' "INDIAN WISDOM."
CRITICISM ON MONIER WILLIAMS’ “INDIAN WISDOM.”

INTRODUCTION.

We have mentioned the Preface, the Introduction and the review of the Vedas. We now come to the Brahmans and the Upanishads. The very ancient theological and religious records also find a place here. They occupy 21 pages. Then come the Six Schools of Philosophy,—the Niyaya, the Sankhya, the Vaisheshaka, the Yoga, the Purva Mimansa and the Vedanta schools. This chapter runs through 78 pages. Then we come to Jainism and Bhagwat Gita. Bhagwat Gita has been, with great truth, styled the eclectic school of philosophy, and why not so, the Sankhya Marga, the Yoga Marga and the Bhakti Marga, the three royal roads to salvation, are equally recognised. This occupies 28 pages. We come now to the Vedangas,—Siksha, Vyakarana, Nirukta, Chhanda and Jyotish,—alphabet, grammar, etymology, prosody and astronomy. This occupies 46 pages. Then come the Smritis; they occupy 114 pages. Manu Smriti and Yajnavalkya are thoroughly reviewed. The author is at home here. He is well pleased to find matters of condemnation in Manu and Yajnavalkya. We come, then, to Ramayana and Mahabharata. Bulky as these books are, a bulk of 140 pages of the book is devoted to these epic poems. The later dramas, Puranas, &c., only deserve a passing notice. They occupy 70 pages. The following is the summary:

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* The Manuscript, about 3 pages, is missing except these last few words:—"consisting of the author’s emarks aptly interspersed by long quotations and translations from other authors."
It is evident, then, that the author is obviously a man of vast study, of wide information, and possessed of encyclopedic knowledge, at least in so far as Sanskrit goes. It is well for us to avail of the information that can be derived from such a source, as such chances are not often to be found, they are exceptional and very rare. The more we proceed with the review of the book, the more impatient we become to learn the scope and the contents of the book. This information I shall now no longer withhold from you. I proceed directly to the scope, the aims and objects of the book.

Says Professor Monier Williams at page 3 of his Preface:—

"The present volume attempts to supply a want, the existence of which has been impressed upon my mind by an inquiry often addressed to me as a Baden Professor:—Is it possible to obtain from any one book a good general idea of the character and contents of Sanskrit literature?"

Further on, he says:—

"Its pages are also intended to subserve a further object. They aim at imparting to educated Englishmen, by means of translations and explanations of portions of the sacred and philosophical literature of India, an insight into the mind, habits of thought, and customs of the Hindus, as well as a correct knowledge or a system of belief and practice which has constantly prevailed for at least 3,000 years, and still continues to exist as one of the principal religions of the non-Christian world."

Then, on page 36 of the Introduction, we have:—

"It is one of the aims, then, of the following pages to indicate the points of contrast between Christianity and the three chief false religions of the world, as they are represented in India."—(Please mark the word false.)

Then, on page 38 of the Introduction, we have:—

"It seems to me, then, that in comparing together these four systems—Christianity, Islam, Brahminism and Buddhism—the crucial test of the possession of that absolute Divine truth which can belong to only one of the four, and which—if supernaturally communicated by the common Father of mankind for the good of all His creatures—must be intended to prevail everywhere, ought to lie in the answer to two questions: 1st.—What is the ultimate object at which each aims? 2ndly.—By what means and by what agency is this aim to be accomplished?"

It is clear, then, the objects of the book are:—

I.—In one book to give a general idea of the character and contents of Sanskrit literature.

II.—To draw for Englishmen a picture of our manners, habits, customs, institutions and beliefs, not a distorted picture, a misrepresent...
sentation, but a true one, for the picture is to be drawn by means of translations and explanations of portions of our sacred literature!!

III.—To indicate the points of community between Christian and other non-Christian religions.

IV.—That Islam, Buddhism and Brahminism (mark the last) are the three false religions of the world—or that Christianity is the only true religion.

V.—That taking Christianity, Brahminism, Islam and Buddhism, the possession of absolute divine truth can only belong to one of the four.

VI.—That the absolute divine truth as supernaturally communicated by the common Father of mankind (remember this truth is Christianity) is one that is intended to prevail everywhere.

VII.—That firstly this absolute truth is the only religion, that gives a correct answer to the question, what is the ultimate object or aim? And secondly that this absolute truth or Christianity alone gives the true scheme by which the common end or object of all is to be accomplished.

How far the last four articles of Professor Monier Williams’ claims are right will just appear in the sequel.

A brief sketch of the answer to the first article has already been given in an enumeration of the book. Let me only point out that the four books, esteemed only next to the Vedas, and generally called the Upa-Vedas, find no mention anywhere throughout the list. It is especially upon the subject-matter of these books that a true estimate of Indian and occidental civilization can be formed by comparison. These four books are the Artha Veda, the Dhanur Veda, the Ayur Veda and the Gandharva Veda. The Artha Veda is the Upa-Veda that deals with applied Mechanics, Engineering, Perception, Practical Arts (Chemical and Physical), and Geology. The Ayur Veda is the Upa-Veda that deals with Surgery, Botany, Physiological Chemistry, Anatomy, Physiology, Materia Medica and Chemistry and cure of poison. The Gandharva Veda is the Upa-Veda of Music or fine arts, whereas the Dhanur Veda is the science of Martial appliances, instruments and tactics.

The second article, important as it is, will only be estimated at its due worth, in the progress of these reviews. In the course of these lectures it will be shown how far Professor Williams’ misrepresents or otherwise, or rightly translates or mistranslates, gives genuine explanations or forged ones of portions of our sacred literature.

The third article shall be reviewed full at the end of the whole course of these reviews.

We come now to the subject-matter of the Introduction.
It deals with four points. Firstly, it gives a sketch of the past and present condition. The main portion consists of a geographical political and historical sketch of the past condition of India as imagined by the so-called historians and philologists to be true. All this is foreign to the purpose of my review. One point, however, is worth pointing out. It is where he gives his own remarks on caste system.

This is what he says at p. 24 of his Introduction:—

"Even in districts where the Hindus are called by one name and speak one dialect they are broken into separate classes divided from each other by barriers of caste far more difficult to pass than social distinctions of Europe," &c., &c. "This separation constitutes, in point of fact, an essential doctrine of their religion. The growth of the Indian caste system is, perhaps, the most remarkable feature in the history of this extraordinary people. Caste, as a social institution, meaning thereby conventional rules which separate the grades of society, exists, of course, in all countries. In England, caste in this sense exerts no slight authority. But with us caste is not a religious institution.

"On the contrary, our religion, though it permits differences of rank, teaches us that such differences are to be laid aside in the worship of God, and that in His sight all men are equal. Very different is the caste of the Hindus. The Hindu believes that the Deity regards men as unequal, that he created distinct kinds of men as he created varieties of birds or beasts; that Brahmanas, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas and Shudras are born and must remain distinct from each other; and that to force any Hindu to break the rules of caste is to force him to sin against God and against nature."

Professor Monier Williams, then, points out that caste rules in India hinge upon:— 1, Preparation of food; 2, Inter-marriage; 3, Professional pursuits. Had the Baden Professor professed to base these remarks upon personal observations or accounts of India as given by various writers on the subject, we would have nothing to add, but the Baden Professor regards the sacred Sanskrit literature to be the only key to "the satisfactory knowledge of the people committed to our (he means his or his nation's) rule," He says:—

"Happily India, though it has at least twenty distinct dialects, has but one sacred and learned language and one literature, accepted and revered by all adherents of Hinduism alike, however diverse in race, dialect, rank and creed."

And it is upon the sacred Sanskrit literature of India that he bases his remarks. Let us see how far they are correct. The Professor asserts:—

I. That caste system in India is a religious institution, whereas it is only a social institution in England. It is good for our brothers. To note down the confession that there is caste system in England.
II.—That, according to Christianity, all people are alike to God, but in Brahminism, the Deity regards men as unequal, or

III.—That Brahmanas, Kshatriyas and Vaishyas are born, and

IV.—That only people of the same caste eat together, intermarry and pursue the same professional pursuits; these three being the tests of caste.

With regard to the second point, that according to the doctrines of Brahminism God regards men as unequal, I quote the 2nd Mantra of 26th Adhyaya of Yajur Veda:

यथैत वाच कल्यणीमाध्यानि जनेभ्य ब्राह्मणान्यायाय गृद्धाय चायी च स्वाय चारणायच। प्रियो देवानां दविषायदातुत्रिः भूयासद्वृत्ते मे कामः समध्यतामपभावे नमतू॥ Which means, “I (God) have given word (Revelation) which is the word of salvation for all people, Brahmanas, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas, Shudras, and even Ati Shudras. Therefore, regard no one as unequal among yourselves, but try to be loved by all wise people, to distribute gifts among all, and always desire the well-being of all.”

The Mantra is very clear, and I have quoted it to show that the first position assumed by the Baden Professor is groundless. We come now to his assertion that caste is a religious institution and not a social one in India. Now an institution is called a religious one when distinctions of the institution are maintained on the ground that they are obligatory by religion, but all distinctions maintained on the ground of differences of wealth, learning and industry are social distinctions.

Let us read Manu:—विप्राणां ज्ञानं कृपां चतविषायान्यानु तीर्थति। वैरायानं धन्यपायत्वेऽबृहान्यमेव जन्मतः॥ This means that the ground of distinction among Brahmanas is from the point of learning, that among Kshatriyas is on account of physical powers, and that among Vaishyas is on the ground of wealth and possessions, that among Shudras alone does birth distinction exist. Lest Monier Williams may mistake my sense and the sense of Manu and assert on the face of these quotations that Brahmanas, Kshatriyas and Vaishyas are born, let me again quote Manu:—

गृद्धो ब्राह्मणसत्तामिति ब्राह्मणां चैति गृद्धाय च विविधात्मितिमेव विवाहीस्वत्वाच। Which means that Shudras can become Brahmanas and Brahmans Shudras and so with Kshatriyas and Vaishyas.

Again says Manu, जन्मम् जायते गृद्ध् संस्कारार्थवेदुद्यिज।॥ All people are born Shudras, but by संस्कार or by virtue of गृद्धमर्ममेवभाव, their acquisitions and accomplishments, become Brahmanas, Kshatriyas ब्राह्मण चरिया, &c.
The fourth position taken up by Monier Williams is that eating together, inter-marriage and similarity of pursuits define a caste. Among these three, the second only deserves consideration. For, if similarity of pursuits be any element, it might be as reasonable for Monier Williams to regard all Professors of Schools and Colleges in England to belong to one caste. The same remark applies to food and drink. Eating and drinking together is absolutely prohibited in Manu not only for people of different castes, but for all individuals alike.

Says Manu: नौचिक्षण्: कस्यचिन्द्रायात नावचाच्यै तथान्तराः।
न चैवालयः कुच्याव्योनिचिक्षण: कविचिच्छेत्॥ १॥

Let no one eat from the same dish with any one else, let none overfeed himself and walk out after dinner without a hand-wash.

This point, therefore, is entirely out of question. What now remains is the question of inter-marriages. We will here again quote from Manu:—

सवर्णाचे हिजातीनां प्रशस्ता दारकम्मिषृण। कामतस्तु प्रक्ततानासिमा: स्य:।
क्रमशो वरा: गृह्वेत भायी गृहस्य सा च स्वाच्चविष: सम्भू। ते च स्वा चैव राज्यरूच
ताच च स्वा च चायजन्मन:॥ १३॥

This means that the best form of first marriage is that in which the male and female are of the same वर्ण or what is wrongly called caste, but a Shudra woman should only marry a Shudra, a Vaishya woman a Vaishya. The Kshatriya should marry a शूद्रा वैश्या चचिया only, and the Brahmana any.

This shows that a वैश्या woman marrying a Brahmana is allowable and so for others. Professor Monier Williams asserted that caste system in India is a religious institution, but it is a social one in England. We have proved that caste system is not a religious institution but a social one as it is everywhere. He asserted that in Brahminic religion Deity regards all men as unequal, but we have proved that He does not. He asserted that Brahmans, Kshatriyas and Vaishyas are born. We have proved that they are not, but Shudras are. And lastly he asserted that similarity of professions, inter-marriage and eating together are the characteristics of a caste. We have shown that they are not. We now leave this point which is peculiarly illustrative of the unrivaled learning of the Professor, and come to the second part of his Introduction on the religion of the Hindus.

He says that there are 3 points of view from which any religion may be looked at—1, faith; 2, work or ritual; 3, doctrines or dogmatic knowledge. He calls the 1st two, faith and work or ritual, the exoteric side of religion; and doctrines, or dogmatic knowledge, the esoteric
side of religion. After laying down this distinction, he says that, viewed from an esoteric point of view, the Hindu religion is Pantheism. He says:

"It (Hindu religion) teaches that nothing really exists but the Universal Spirit, that the soul of each individual is identical with that Spirit, and that every man's highest aim should be to get rid, for ever, of doing, having and being, and devote himself to profound contemplation with a view to obtain such spiritual knowledge as should deliver him from the mere illusion of separate existence and force upon him the conviction that he is himself part of the one being constituting the universe."

We shall see how far our Baden Professor of Sanskrit is right in these assertions. He says that Hindu religion teaches:

I. That nothing but the Universal Spirit exists.
II. That each individual is identical with this Spirit.
III. That every man's aim should be to get rid of doing, having and being.
IV. That each soul should free himself from being in his separate existence.
V. That each soul is part of the one being constituting the universe.

Let us now examine these five propositions.

His first proposition is that nothing but the Universal Spirit exists.

I quote here from an Upanishat:

ॐ जात्मां लोकितगुणकरणः वशी: प्रजा: सृज्यमाना स्वरूपः ।
भजो छो को जुष्मानाः नुष्टेन जहात्येनां मुख्भोगमांजिह न्यः ॥

The meaning is that "God, matter and human souls, these are the three eternal substances, ever uncreated. The eternal human souls enjoy the eternal matter while involved in material existence. Whereas the third eternal substance, God, exists for ever, but is neither involved in material existence, nor enjoys the material world." Here it is said that not universal spirit alone exists, but matter and human souls also exist co-eternally. If more evidence were required on this head, it would be easy to quote many other very clear passages, but I believe the above is clear enough.

Williams' second proposition is that each individual is identical with the Universal Spirit. Here, let me quote from Brihadaranyaka Upanishat:—

य ज्ञात्मानि तिष्ठन्नात्मानोन्नतिरोऽयमात्मा न वेद यस्यात्मा यरीरम्।
प्रात्म नोन्नतरौ यस्यति स त्राह्मान्यायमेत्॥
Says Yajnavalkya to Maitreyi in answer to her question, "O Maitreyi, the Universal Spirit who pervades even the human soul but is distinct from the human soul, whom ignorant human soul does not know, who resides in the innermost of the human soul, who is distinct from human soul but witnesses the actions of human soul and awards or punishes him, yes, He, even He, the Universal Spirit, is immortal and also pervades thee."

Williams' third proposition respecting Brahmanical religion is that it teaches every man the duty of getting rid of all doing, being and having. I quote here from the 40th Chapter of the Yajur Veda:—

कृन्तनवेशं कर्मसंपन्त्य जिज्ञाविविधं चक्तस्य समाय एव तत्वाय नान्यथानि सरितन कम् सिष्यते

नरे॥ This means that each soul should desire to live for 100 years or more, spending his life in doing actions, always performing good deeds. Thus alone, and not otherwise, is freedom from sin and pain possible. The purport is that the doing of action or good deeds is the first essential.

Williams' fourth proposition is that each should free himself from the delusion of separate existence. I need not answer this, as it is clear that, believing God to be distinct from the soul, the idea of separate existence is not delusion, and if this be not a delusion, it is not a proper object to get rid of.

The fifth assertion is that each soul is a part of the being constituting the universe. If anything need be said upon this head, it will suffice to say that not in one Mantra but in innumerable Mantras of Upanishads, the Universal Spirit is regarded as one whole without form, body or parts, चबृंड or indivisible. Since God has no parts, it is mere by absurd to believe that human souls can be parts of the Universal Spirit that is incapable of being divided into parts.

Then, in order to reconcile this pantheistic view, which does not admit of any necessity of faith, work or ritual, with the existence of faiths, innumerable works or rituals in India, Williams forges a fallacious reasoning which is called in Sanskrit logic by the technical name chhal. He says that believing God to be identical with human souls the Hindus were led to believe that human souls had only emanated from God. English language and English brain may, perhaps, be capable of confounding identity with emanation, but, unless a clear proof of it is given, I am not in a position to say anything respecting the justification of Williams' position.

I now come to the 3rd part of the Introduction, i.e., the one respecting the Languages of India.
Says Monier Williams:

"The name Sanskrit, as applied to the ancient language of the Hindus, is an artificial designation for a highly elaborated form of the language originally brought by the Indian branch of the great Aryan race into India. This original tongue soon became modified by contact with the dialects of the aboriginal races who preceded the Aryans, and in this way converted into the peculiar language (bhasha) of the Aryan immigrants who settled in the neighbourhood of the seven rivers of the Punjab and its outlying districts (Sapta Sindharas = in Zend Hapta Hendu). The most suitable name for the original language thus moulded into the speech of the Hindus is Hindu-i (=Sindu-i, its principal later development being called Hindi,* just as the Low German dialect of the Angles and Saxons, when modified in Britain was called Anglo-Saxon. But very soon that happened in India which has come to pass in all civilized countries. The spoken language, when once its general form and character had been settled, separated into two lines, the one elaborated by the learned, the other popularized and variously provincialized by the unlearned. In India, however, from the greater exclusiveness of the educated few, the greater ignorance of the masses, and the desire of a proud priesthood to keep the key of knowledge in their own possession, this separation became more marked, more diversified, and progressively intensified. Hence, the very grammar which with other nations was regarded only as a means to an end, came to be treated by Indian Pandits as the end itself, and was subtilized into an intricate science, fenced around by a bristling barrier of technicalities. The language, too, elaborated pari passu with the grammar, rejected the natural name of Hindu-i or 'the speech of the Hindus,' and adopted an artificial designation, viz. Sanskrita, the perfectly constructed 'speech' (sam = con, krita = factus, 'formed'), to denote its complete severance from vulgar purposes, and its exclusive dedication to religion and literature; while the name Prakrita—which may mean 'the original' as well as 'the derived' speech—was assigned to the common dialect. This itself is a remarkable circumstance; for, although a similar kind of separation has happened in Europe, we do not find that Latin and Greek ceased to be called Latin and Greek when they became the language of the learned, any more than we have at present distinct names for the common dialect and literary language of modern nation."

Herein Monier Williams asserts 6 distinct propositions:

1.—That Sanskrit (well-formed) is an artificial designation.

* It may be thought by some that this dialect was nearly identical with the language of the Vedic hymns, and the latter often gives genuine Prakrita forms (as Kuta for krita); but even Vedic Sanskrit presents great elaboration scarcely compatible with the notion of its being a simple original dialect (for example, in the use of complicated grammatical forms like Intensive), and Panini, in distinguishing between the common language and the Vedic, uses the term Bhasha in contradistinction to Chhundas (the Veda).
ii.—That it is highly elaborate.

iii.—That it was modified by the tongue of aboriginal tribes and gave rise to Bhasha.

iv.—That Grammar is so elaborate that it was regarded as an end and not as a means.

v.—That Sanskrit Grammar is an intricate science fenced by a bristling barrier of technicalities.

vi.—That Prākrit means the original tongue.

We will take each of his propositions turn by turn.

A designation is artificial when it is arbitrarily chosen not on the ground of the sense expressed by it. For an individual being called John, or Monier Williams, John or Monier Williams is an artificial designation, because it does not signify any attribute or attributes of the individual which the word Monier Williams denotes. Well, then, is Sanskrit an artificial designation? He himself admits that Sanskrit means well-formed. Let us see if Sanskrit is well formed. * * * * *
CRITICISM
ON
Monier Williams' "Indian Wisdom."

LECTURE I.
THE HYMNS OF THE VEDAS, (1.)

I come now to Monier Williams' Lecture on "The Hymns of the Vedas." He proposes in this lecture to offer examples of the most remarkable religious, philosophical and ethical teachings of ancient Hindu authors. He can hardly convey 'an adequate idea of the luxuriance of Sanskrit literature.' He complains of 'the richness of the materials' at his command, for, he confesses his inability to do justice to it. But let us not think that a man of Monier Williams' temper can ever be too warm in his panegyrics on such bosh as Hindu writings. They are 'too often marked by tedious repetitions, redundant epithets and far-fetched conceits. In Sanskrit there is not to be found that coldness and severe simplicity which characterizes an Englishman's writings. He lives in a climate too cold to admit of oriental warmth of style. He is surrounded by too severe and simple a civilisation in England to admit of the gentle but complex civilisation of India. The standard of judgment set upon India differs very much from that set upon England. 'With Hindu authors excellence is apt to be measured by magnitude,' and 'quality by quantity.' But he can not close his eyes against 'the art of condensation so successfully cultivated as in some departments of Sanskrit Literature' (he means the Sutras). And in reconciling his view with the existence of the Sutras, Professor Williams offers an explanation. It is this, "Probably the very prolixity natural to Indian writers led to the opposite extreme of brevity, not merely by a law of reaction, but by the necessity for providing the memory with "aids and restoratives" when oppressed and debilitated by too great a burden." Professor Williams would have been perfectly right in passing the above remarks, were it not that the Sanskrit writings that abound in prolixity have followed and not preceded the condensed literature in point of time. Leaving out of account the Vedas which are the starting point of Indian literature, the Upanishats, the Upavedas and especially the six Drashanas may be called the condensed literature of India; whereas the later novels, dramas, puranas and vriritis and tikas may, with perfect truth, be styled the prolix literature of India. Now, not a single line of the Upanishats or the Upavedas or the Darshanas was written posterior to the puranas, the dramas, &c.; and Professor Williams also admits this. What meaning arc we to attach, then,
to Williams' assertion that the condensed literature was due to a law of reaction? Does Monier Williams mean that long before there had occurred an action, i.e. long before the prolix literature came to be written, there had set in a reaction, i.e. that of condensed writings? Monier Williams is much to be credited for his logic, for, according to him, a reaction precedes the action of which it is a reaction. Supernatural Christianity, which is the religion of Monier Williams, finds a very true advocate in him. A son without a father is what Christianity would have us believe. But Monier Williams would rather that the son existed long before the birth of his father. We shall find, as we proceed further on, that this is not in any way a startling proposition as compared with others that Monier Williams has yet to assert. His second reason is that the ancients had recourse to the condensed methods of writing as aids and restoratives to an oppressed and debilitated memory. Now, gentlemen, be fair and judge yourselves. What was there to oppress and debilitate the memory? Was it the Upanishats, the Upavedas or the Brahmanas? Professor Williams must be bluntly ignorant of Sanskrit literature, if he thinks that the Upanishats, the Brahmanas or the Upavedas could oppress or debilitate the memory. It is one of the blessings of modern civilisation to deteriorate the intellect and enslave memory. I here quote from a number of a well-known scientific paper, "Nature," dated 25th January, 1883:

"Few students of science can fail to feel, at times, appalled by the ever-increasing flood of literature devoted to science and the difficulty of keeping abreast of it even in one special and comparatively limited branch of inquiry. Were merely the old societies and long-established journals to continue to supply their contributions, these, as they arrive from all parts of the country and from all quarters of the globe, would be more than enough to tax the energy of even the most ardent enthusiast. But new societies, new journals, new independent works start up at every turn, till one feels inclined to abandon in despair the attempt to keep pace with the advance of science in more than one limited department."

"One of the most striking and dispiriting features of this rapidly growing literature is the poverty or worthlessness of a very large part of it. The really earnest student who honestly tries to keep himself acquainted with what is being done, in at least his own branch of science, acquires by degrees a knack of distinguishing, as it were, by instinct, the papers that he ought to read from those which have no claim on his attention. But how often may he be heard asking if no means can be devised for preventing the current of scientific literature from becoming swollen and turbid by the constant impouring of what he can call by no better name than rubbish."

If more evidence were required on this head, I would refer the reader to the prevalent systems of education for a verification of the
criticism. Who is here that does not acknowledge the all-importance of cramming in passing the examination? Who is here that would not evince to the fact of mathematics and even philosophy being nowadays learnt on the cram system? It is not India alone that is teeming with these deformities. Much more so is this the case with England. There the cry of memory complaints has risen so high that many professors have set up entirely new schools of memory training with the express object of saving poor English memories from utter destruction and ruin. Is it not clear, then, that the prolixity of literature, the “exuberant verbosity” and the worthlessness and rubbish character, of which Monier Williams so much complains, are more to be found in his own camp of modern civilisation than in the natural, simple, and invigorating writings of the authors of the Upanishats, the Upavedas and the Darshanas. To prove this, let me quote here from the well-known Upaveda, Sushruta, on medical science.

"सूचमाहि द्वायरस गुण वीयिय विपाक दीप धातु मलाखय सममंसिरा स्नाय तन्य शस्थगम्बधसम्मवद्यस्मृतविभागास्तथा प्रज्ञद्वयविषेररश्चर्भष विनिशचय भगन विकलयां साध्यायप्रत्याख्ययता च विकाराशभासमवद्यश्चान्ये विग्रेषा। सहक्रये वे विचित्यमाना विसम विपुल दुबेदिकु वुदिसाकुली कुर्युः किमिपुनरस्वहुः तस्मादश्चान्यमनुवपाद्वारलोकाध्यात्लोकमनुवर्णितव्यमनुष्मात्रहृच अभ्याय ॥"

The meaning of which is that “the various physiological subjects called द्वाय, रस, गुण, वीयि, &c., &c., are subjects, which sometimes even puzzle the most clear-headed intellect. Let every student of medical science, then, apply his बुद्धि (intellect) in comprehending or understanding these principles and let him reflect.” There is no need of multiplying quotations, for, it cannot be doubted that the Upanishats, the Niruktas, the Upavedas and the Darshanas are all addressed to the intellect, and the complaint is that they often puzzle the most clear-headed intellects and not that they cannot be remembered. It is clear, then, that the condensed literature of Sanskrit, the Sutras, are not due to reaction, and that they are not aids or restoratives to memory, but rather appeal to the intellect or the faculties of understanding.

Professor Williams now passes from this, which is a pure digression from the subject, to the proper subject. Only once before the treatment of the subject, like an impartial writer, he inculcates the duty of studying fairly and without prejudice the other religions of
the world. That his fairness and freedom from prejudice may not be ill judged, I again quote from the fair and unprejudiced Christian, Professor Monier Williams:—

"For, may it not be maintained, that the traces of the original truth imparted to mankind should be diligently sought for in every religious system, however corrupt, so that when any fragment of the living rock is discovered, it may at once be converted into a fulcrum for the upheaving of the whole mass of surrounding error? At all events, it may reasonably be conceded that if nothing true or sound can be shown to underlie the rotten tissue of decaying religious systems, the truth of Christianity may at least in this manner be more clearly exhibited and its value by contrast made more conspicuous."

Leaving Monier Williams with his hopes regarding the not-decaying but living Christianity aside, for the moment, we come now to the proper subject. Professor Williams confesses that "the idea of a revelation, though apparently never entertained in a definite manner by the Greeks and Romans, is perfectly familiar to the Hindus." But the Vedas are not a revelation in the sense in which the Bible is to the Christian or the Quran to the Mohamadan.

The Quran is "a single volume manifestly the work of one author, descended entire from heaven in the night called al qadr, in the month of Ramazan." "The Old Testament was furnished with its accompaniments of Chaldee translations and paraphrases called Targums." But "the word Veda" says Professor Williams, "means knowledge; and is a term applied to Divine unwritten knowledge, imagined to have issued like breath from the Self-existent, and communicated to no single person, but to a whole class of men called Rishis or inspired sages. By them the divine knowledge thus apprehended was transmitted, not in writing, but through the ear, by constant oral repetition, through a succession of teachers, who claimed as Brahmins to be its rightful recipients. . . . Moreover, when at last, by its continued growth, it became too complex for mere oral transmission, then this Veda resolved itself, not into one single volume, like the Quran, but into a whole series of compositions, which had in reality been composed by a number of different poets and writers at different times during several centuries."

Monier Williams herein asserts:—

I.—That the Vedas are really unwritten knowledge issuing like breath from the Self-existent.

II.—That they were communicated to a whole class of men called Rishis or inspired sages.

III.—That they continued to grow, hence their present written book form.
IV.—That the Vedas are a series of compositions by a number of different poets and writers at different times during several centuries.

We will take Professor Williams' propositions one by one. His first proposition is that the Vedas are really *unwritten* knowledge issuing like breath from the Self-existent. Now, does Professor Williams imagine that there can ever be anything like a written knowledge? But it is here clearly to be understood that I am not here speaking of the knowledge being written down, but of written knowledge. Professor Williams seems to imagine that the Vedas are laboring under a very serious defect. The Christians, he seems to think, have a definite revelation, as it is put down in black and white; and so have the Mohamedans, for, their book descended from heaven in its present form. He, therefore imagines that the Christians have a settled revelation, a something definite to lay their hands upon as their sacred books, but the Veda being *unwritten* knowledge is not tangible, is not a reality or a something definite. In this he is entirely wrong, and, if not wrong, he very sadly betrays a want of philosophical culture. For, Vedas being *unwritten* knowledge, let me ask.—Can there be anything which can with philosophical precision be called written knowledge? Let us be clear on the subject. A revelation is a revelation in so far as it is revealed to some body. The Bible is alleged to be a revelation, it was therefore revealed to some body. A revelation is only a revelation in so far as it is revealed to the intellect, i.e., in so far as the person to whom it is revealed, becomes directly conscious of the facts revealed. Admitting, then, that the Bible is a revelation, and that there was some body to whom it was revealed, that some body must have been conscious of the contents of this revelation. Is this, his consciousness of the facts revealed, in any way distinct from the knowledge of the facts revealed? If not, then the Bible is a knowledge, and, in so far as it lay in the consciousness of the person to whom it was revealed, which is the true signification of the word revelation, it was *unwritten* knowledge. Thus, then, the Bible revelation is also an *unwritten* knowledge, and Professor Williams cannot in any way free himself from the dilemma that either Bible revelation itself is an *unwritten* knowledge and in that case does not differ in any way from the Revelation of the Vedas which is also *unwritten* knowledge, or that the Bible is a mere record not felt in consciousness, but made to descend just as Qoran descended to Mahomed, Mahomed himself being illiterate, not understanding it, but only being specially directed and empowered by God to circulate it for the spread of faith. In this case, the Bible is no more a revelation. It is a mere dead-letter book sent miraculously through some people who themselves did not understand it. Can Professor Williams get rid of this difficulty? The fact is that he wants to sing praises of popular dogmatic Christianity, and being afraid lest he should be called a heretic, con-
descends to let the Bible rot into a mere dead-letter book, rather than accept a position which should make him to be considered a heretic. Whether it is more philosophical to believe that God sent a sealed book which descended entire, or that God only reveals to the understanding of some who thus illuminated record down what they are revealed to, is for you to judge. So far with respect to the first part of the 1st proposition asserted by Professor Williams.

We now come to the 2nd part. This refers to the mode of revelation of the Veda or the origin of the Veda. He says:

"There are numerous inconsistencies in the accounts of the production of the Veda. . . . . 1. One account makes it issue from the Self-existent like breath, by the power of adrishta, without any deliberation or thought on His part; 2. another makes the four Vedas issue from Brahman like smoke from burning fuel; 3. another educes them from the elements; 4. another from Gayatri; 5. a hymn in the Atharva Veda educes them from kala or Time (XIX. 54); 6. The Shatspatha Brahman asserts that the Creator brooded over the three worlds and thence produced three lights, the fire, the air and the sun, from which respectively were extracted the Rig, Yajur and Sam-Vedas. Manu (1. 23) affirms the same. 7. In the Purusha Sukta, the three Vedas are derived from the mystical victim Purusha. 8. Lastly, by the Minansakas the Veda is declared to be itself an eternal sound and to have existed absolutely from all eternity, quite independently of any utterer, or revealer of its text. Hence it is often called Shruta, "what is heard." 9. In opposition to all this, we have the rishis themselves frequently intimating that the mantras were composed by themselves."

In this little paragraph Professor Williams points out that there are nine different conflicting theories maintained with respect to the production of the Vedas, and enumerates the nine theories and thinks that he has done enough to demolish the ground of Vedic revelation. But he is sadly mistaken. He simply betrays the woeful depth of his ignorance of even the ordinary Sanskrit words, not to speak of the higher Sanskrit literature. The fact is that not only are there no nine conflicting hypotheses, but that these are one and the same hypothesis invariably maintained by each and all of the ancient Vedic writers. The one unitary conception concerning the production of the Vedas is that the Vedas are a spontaneous emanation from the Deity, an involuntary natural and original procession of God’s innate wisdom and knowledge principles into this world. It is this one uniform idea which is maintained throughout. Let us take each one of the theories enumerated by Professor Williams.

The Vedas issued from the Self-existent like breath. Says Shatapatha, Kanda 14, Adhyaya 5—एव वा चरितस् महति भूतस्य निःश-वित्तमतनवहं यजुवद् साम वेदोऽथ्यागिरस इत्यादि। The meaning
is that Yajnavalkya replies to Maitreyi in answer to her question, "O Maitreyi, the Vedas have proceeded from God, who is even more omnipresent than ether and more extensive than space, as naturally and spontaneously as the breath proceeds spontaneously and involuntarily from the human organism," and not deliberately and with thought as Professor Williams will have his own revelation, for the God of Truth and the God of the Universe, who is also the God of the Aryas need not trouble the cerebral substance of his brain with violent vibrations to produce the thought of imparting a revelation to man-kind. Wisdom and knowledge flow from God as naturally and spontaneously as the breath flows in and out from the human organism. The power of adrihta to which Professor Williams refers in his note, is nothing different from the invisible, spiritual potency of the recipients of the revelation to receive the revelation of the Vedas. This, then, is the first account.

We come now to the second. According to this, the Vedas issue from Brahman like smoke from burning fuel. The meaning is very clear. It is that the Vedas proceed from Brahman, God, as spontaneously as the smoke proceeds from burning fuel silently, noiselessly, naturally and without any exertion. The central idea is yet the same, but to the jaundiced eye of Monier Williams this is a second account inconsistent with the first.

The third hypothesis accounts for the origin of the Vedas from the elements. Here Professor Williams is wrong in his translation. The original word in Sanskrit for what he calls the elements is **भूत. Now भूत does not mean elements but Godhead. भूतानि पदार्थानि विभन्ते विरिमिन्नति भूत:-** God is called Bhuta, as all things that have ever existed exist in Him. To convey the idea that the Vedas have existed for ever in the womb of the Divine Wisdom, the Vedas are spoken of as issuing from Bhuta, i.e., God who is the Universal Intelligent repository of all things past or old, i.e., all eternal essences and principles. This account does not in the least conflict with the first two, but the poetical use of the word bhuta for God rather more sublimely expresses the same sentiment.

The fourth account is that of the Vedas proceeding from Gayatri. There also Professor Williams betrays his entire ignorance of Vedic literature by saying that this fourth account is a different one, inconsistent with the three foregoing ones. In 3rd Chapter, 14th Section Nighantu, which is the lexicon of Vedic terms, we have गायति अचँति कर्म्मि तस्माद गायति, the meaning of which is that the root गायति signifies अचँति to worship. Hence, the Being who deserves to be adored and worshipped by all, is called
So also says Nirukta in its 7th Adhyaya, III Pad, and 6th Section, गायत्री गायत्री; स्तुति कम्यंशिर्म गमना वा विपरीता
गायत्री मुखारुपंततिः च वाद्यः। The Vedas, then, have proceeded from Gayatri, i.e., God who is worshipped and adored
by all.

Now comes the 5th account of the same in the 3rd Mantra of 5th Kanda of 19th Chapter. कालेन् सम्भवन् यजुः कालादात्जायत
which Monier Williams translates as if meaning that Rig and Yajur Vedas have been produced by time (काल). Here again,
our learned Boden Professor of Sanskrit and world-renowned Oriental Scholar does not understand the meaning of the word काल.
Says Nighantu, Chap. II, Kanda 14, कालयति गति
कम्यं तस्मात् कालः which means that the Spirit that is
intelligent and pervades all is called kala or कालयति संस्कार
स्म्रण् पदार्थान् स कालः that Infinite Being in whose comparison
all that exists is measurable, is called kala. Kāla, therefore, is the
name of the same Infinite Being, the same God Gayatri or Brahma
or Swayambhu from whom the Vedas have been described to proceed
in the first four accounts given above.

We come now to the sixth. No mistake can be more serious on
the part of Monier Williams than the one he has committed in rendering Shatpatha Brahmana’s account of the origin of the Vedas. According to this account, the Creator brooded over the three worlds and thence produced three lights, fire, the air, and the sun, from which respectively were extracted the Rig, Yajur and Sama Vedas. Here also Williams’ mistake lies in substituting English worlds for Sanskrit ones. William’s own translation only with the modification of putting the original Sanskrit words for which he has put the English ones will be: God, the Creator, brooded over the three worlds
and thence produced the three jyotis, ग्रहिन वायुः and रथि and
thence extracted the three Vedas. Now jyoti does not mean light
but illuminated being; man in the spiritual state, i.e., in the superior
condition, and ग्रहिन बायुः and रथि are no names for fire, air
and sun, but are names of three men. The meaning of the passage
then, is that God in the beginning, created the organizations which
received the spirits of three men known by the names of Agni, Vayn
and Ravi. To these three rishis, चरित्र: वायु और रवि, men in the superior condition, God revealed the knowledge of Rig, Yajur and Sama respectively. Now, in what way does it contradict the other explanations? Nor does Manu prove what Williams says. Says Manu:—चरित्रवायुध्वस्तु चर्चा ब्रह्म सनातनम्। दुर्दश यन्त्र सिद्धार्थ्यम्।

This means that the three Vedas, Rig, Yajur and Sama were revealed to the three rishis, Agni, Vayu and Ravi, to give a knowledge of how to accomplish the purpose of life in this world.

We come now to the 7th account in Purusha Sukta, where according to Monier Williams, the Vedas are derived from the mystical victim, Purusha. I here quote the Mantra of the Purusha Sukta:

तत्सरायायात्मर्दं क्रक्षा: सामानि जिव्वे।

The plain meaning of which is that God is called Purusha, because he pervades the universe and even lives in the interior of the human soul. It is in this sense that the mantra of the Veda is revealed, saying there is nothing superior to God, nothing separate from him, nothing more refined, nothing more extended. He holds all but is himself unmoved. He is the only one. Yes, He, even He, is the spirit that pervades all. It is clear then that Purusha means the universal spirit of God. We come now to the second word Yajna. Says Nirukta, III, 4, 2:

यज्ञ: कर्मात् प्रश्नात् यज्ञितकम्पिति नैस्की याच्यो भवते।

The meaning is this. Why is Yajana the name of God; Because He is prime mover of all the forces of nature; because He is the only being to be worshipped; and because to Him the Yajur mantras point out. The meaning, then, of the passage of Purusha Sukta quoted by Williams is this: From that God who is called Purusha, i. e., the
Universal Spirit, and who is also called Yajna for reasons given above have proceeded the Rig, Yajur, Sama and Atharvan.

Eighthly, the Mimansakas declare the Vedas to be eternal and independently existent, a view which does not at all conflict with the former ones.

And lastly, says Williams, "We have the rishis themselves frequently intimating that mantras were composed by themselves." In these days of spiritualism, no wonder if the spirits of the rishis appeared before Monier Williams and mystically whispered into his ears the composition of the Vedas by themselves. But in so far as the writings of the rishis themselves go, not only is the assertion of Williams merely false and baseless but positively injurious and very perverted. For the rishis themselves declare themselves to be not at all the authors of the Vedas. The Vedas are regarded by all of them as apaurusheya, i.e., not the production of human beings. I will quote here Nirukta I, 6, 5:

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\text{साधानात्वरस्मांश कर्णो वरस्ते वरस्ते साधानात्वरस्मांश उप्रेण मन्त्राम मन्त्रां सम्पादिते।}
\]

Also, Nirukta II, 3, 2, as follows:---

\[
\text{चापियाणान् स्तूमान्न द्रविग्न्वन्यवस्तवैद्यानं पयास ध्वम्भ वर्तमान्स तद्या पेयाश्रितविर्तमिति विश्वायते।}
\]

The meaning of these is that rishis were those people who had realised the truths in the mantras and having done so began to enlighten those of their fellow-brethren who were ignorant of the truths in the same. Further on, says Aupamanyava, the rishis are only the seers of the mantras, but not the composers.

We have now shortly dismissed with the first proposition of Williams and partly with the second. The assertion of Williams that the mantras of the Vedas were composed by a whole class of men called rishis is entirely baseless. Not only were they not composed by the whole class, but not even by one individual of that class. The reason why Williams regards this to be so, is that every mantra of the Vedas gives four things, its Chhanda, Swara, Devata and Rishi. The name of the rishi only indicates the man who, for the first time, taught the meanings of that mantra to the world at large.

The third proposition of Williams is that Vedas continued to grow till they became so bulky that their division into the present four volumes became necessary. Here, again, Monier Williams betrays his ignorance of Sanskrit. For, the four-fold classification of the Vedas, which according to Williams is due to the accretion of compositional matter, and not to any systematic and logical principle, I refer the reader to what I once published in the Arya Patrika dated 13th July 1886:---

"The word "Rig" signifies the expression of the nature and properties of, and the actions and reactions produced by, substances,
Hence, the name has been applied to Rig Veda as its function is to describe the physical, chemical and active properties of all material substances as well as the psychological properties of all mental substances. Next to a knowledge of things, comes the practice, application of that knowledge, for all knowledge has some end, that end being usefulness to man. Hence, Yajur Veda comes next to Rig Veda, the meaning of Yajur being application. It is upon this double principle of liberal and professional or technical education that the well-known division of the course of study of Aryans, the Vedas, into Rig and Yajur is based."

After a knowledge of the universe and the practice of that knowledge, comes the elevation and exaltation of human faculties, which alone is compatible with the true Upásna of Brahma. The Sáma Veda has, for its function, the expression of those mantras which lead to this exaltation of mind, in which one enters in the superior condition and becomes illuminated.

Let us not mock at the position taken by the Aryas with respect to the nature of the Vedas, for there are reasons enough to justify this position. Not being a novel position at all, it is the position that is maintained even according to the Hindu systems of mythology, which are but gross and corrupt distortions of the Vedic sense and meaning. The broad and universal distinction of all training into professional and liberal, has been altogether lost sight of in the Puranic mythology, and like everything else has been contracted into a narrow superstitious sphere of shallow thought. The Vedas; instead of being regarded as universal text books of liberal and professional sciences, are now regarded as simply codes of religious thought. Religion, instead of being grasped as the guiding principle of all active propensities of human nature, is regarded as an equivalent of certain creeds and dogmas. So with the Rig and Yajur Vedas. Yet, even in this distorted remnant of Aryan thought and wisdom—the Puranic mythology—the division of the Vedas into Rig and Yajur, the liberal and the professional, is faithfully preserved. The Rig, now implies a collection of hymns and songs in praise and description of various gods and goddesses; whereas Yajur, now, stands for the mantras recited in the ritual, the active part of religious ceremonies. This is the view taken by the so-called Scholars of the day.

We come now to Williams' account of the Vedas. He says that the Vedas consist of 3 parts.—I. Mantra; II. Brahmana; and III. Upanishad. We will not dwell here upon the fact that the mantras only are the Vedas and not the Brahmanas and the Upanishads, for the Brahmanas and the Upanishads are mere commentaries of the Vedas. He says:

"They (the mantra portion of the Vedas according to Williams) are comprised in 5 principal Sanhitas or collections of Mantras, called respectively Rig, Atharvan, Saman, Taitreya and Vajasaneyya."
In one fullstop we have two assertions of Williams:—

I.—That Sanhita means a collection of Mantras.

II.—That there are five such collections, Rig, Atharva, Sama, Taitreya and Vajasaney.

That Sanhita should mean a collection is another indication of Williams’ ignorance of Sanskrit Grammar. Says Panini 1, 4, 107. याज्ञवल्क्यसंहिता, which means that the sanānikarshṇa of one pad with another is called Sanhita. To make the distinction clear, I will refer the reader not to Panini but to Oriental Scholars themselves. Recently there have been published two editions of Rig Veda—I, Sanhita Pātha, and 2, Pad Pātha. Both are collections of Mantras, but not Sanhitas. Now, had Sanhita meant collection of Mantras, Max Muller would not have unconsciously refuted himself and his brother scholar Monier Williams. His second assertion is with respect to the number of the Vedas. Vajasaneyā संहिता is just what is known by the name of यजुवेद, whereas Taitreya संहिता is no Mantra संहिता but ब्राह्मण संहिता. Could Williams, unless he had a willingness to distort Sanskrit words and literature and a conscious desire to misrepresent and maliciously interpret every Vedic truth, have ever committed a greater blunder than this? We are ever reading of वेदान्त and वेदांततुष्टयि, but no one not even Williams himself, has even heard or read of वेदांततुष्टयि. The fact is that the reticence or abettment of other scholars has made Williams too bold, and there is not one lie regarding Sanskrit literature that his omnipotent sacred pen cannot convert into an authoritative truth for the blind followers of the blind. Having defined the Vedas as prayers, invocations and hymns, Williams then proceeds to the discussion of another question. I shall state it in his own words.

“To what deities, it will be asked, were the prayers and hymns of these collections addressed? This is an interesting inquiry, for these were probably the very deities worshipped under simila names by our Aryan progenitors in their primeval home, somewherer on the tableland of Central Asia, perhaps in the region of Bokhara, not far from the sources of the Oxus, The answer is:—They worshipped those physical forces before which all nations, if guided solely by the light of nature, have in the early period of their life instinctively bowed down, and before which even the more civilized and enlightened have always been compelled to bend in awe and reverence, if not in adoration.

* Manuscript missing.—Ed.
LECTURE II.

THE HYMNS OF THE VEDAS. (2):

I come now to Monier Williams' criticism on the Vedas proper. Here is what Monier Williams has to say on the subject:

"In the Veda this unity soon diverged into various ramifications. Only a few of the hymns appear to contain the simple conception of one Divine Self-existent, Omnipresent Being, and even in these the idea of one God present in all nature is somewhat nebulous and undefined. Perhaps, the most ancient and beautiful deification was that of Dyaus, 'the sky,' as Dayauth-pitar, 'Heavenly Father' (the Zeus or Jupiter of the Greeks and Romans). Then, closely connected with Dyaus, was a goddess Aditi, 'the Infinite Expanse,' conceived of subsequently as the mother of all the gods. Next came a development of the same conception called Varuna, 'the Investing Sky,' said to answer to Ahura Mazda, the Ormazd of the ancient Persian (Zand) mythology, and to the Greek Oropatos — but a more spiritual conception, leading to a worship which rose to the nature of a belief in the great . . . This Varuna, again, was soon thought of in connection with another somewhat vague personification called Mitra, 'god of day.' After a time these impersonations of the sky and celestial sphere were felt to be too vague. Soon after, therefore, the great investing firmament resolved itself into separate cosmical entities with separate powers and attributes. First, the watery atmosphere — personified under the name of Indra, ever seeking to dispense his dewy treasures (indu), though ever restrained, secondly, the wind — thought of either as a single personality named Vayu, or as a whole assemblage of moving powers coming from every quarter of the compass, and personated as Maruts or 'Storm-gods.' At the same time in this process of decentralization — if I may use the term — the once purely celestial Varuna became relegated to a position among seven secondary deities of the heavenly sphere called Adityas (afterwards increased to twelve, and regarded as diversified forms of the sun in the several months of the year), and subsequently to a dominion over the waters when they had left the air and rested on the earth."

"Of these separately deified physical forces by far the most favourite object of adoration was the deity supposed to yield the dew and rain, longed for by Eastern cultivators of the soil with even greater cravings than by Northern agriculturists. Indra, therefore — the Jupiter Pluvius of early Indian mythology — is undoubtedly the principal divinity of Vedic worshippers, in so far at least as the greater number of their prayers and hymns are addressed to him."
"What, however, could rain effect without the aid of heat? A force the intensity of which must have impressed an Indian mind with awe, led him to invest the possessor of it with divine attributes. Hence the other great god of Vedic worshippers and in some respects the most important in his connection with sacrificial rites, is Agni (Latin Ignis), 'the god of fire.' Even Surya, 'the sun' (Greek hlios), who was probably at first adored as the original source of heat, came to be regarded as only another form of fire. He was merely a manifestation of the same divine energy removed to the heavens, and consequently less accessible. Another deity, Ushas, 'goddess of the dawn,'—the.....of the Greeks,—was naturally connected with the sun, and regarded as daughter of the sky. Two other deities, the Ashvins, were fabled as connected with Ushas, as ever young and handsome, travelling in a golden car and precursors of the dawn. They are sometimes called Daxas, as divine physicians, 'destroyers of diseases; sometimes Nasatyas, as 'never untrue.' They appear to have been personifications of two luminous points or rays imagined to precede the break of day. These, with Yama, 'the god of departed spirits,' are the principal deities of the Mantra portion of the Veda."

Herein there are 13 points that Monier Williams brings in and also exactly 13 points that can be disputed. Williams points out that the Vedas sanction the worship of:—

1. Dyauh-pitar, as the father of the sky Dyauh-pitar, which among Greeks or Romans becomes Zeus or Jupiter.

2. Aditi, the goddess of infinite expanse mother of all gods.

3. Varuna, the God of investing sky, corresponding to Ahurmuzda of Persians and Ozr and Gos of the Greeks.

4. Mitra, the God of day, associate of Varuna.

5. Indra, the god of the watery atmosphere.

6. Vritta, the spirit of evil that opposed Indra.

7. Vayu, the god of wind.

8. Maruts, the storm-gods.

9. Adityas, who were first regarded as seven in number. The number was finally increased to 12. The worship of the sun and 12 solar months being thus established.

10. Agni, god of fire.

11. Ushan, goddess of dawn.

12. Ashwins, twin precursors of dawn, called also Daxas or doctors and nasatyas or never untrue.

13. Yama, the god of departed spirits.
Each one of these positions can be disputed, but I have neither time nor William's provocation to do so. It would take us a long time to run over the list of these 13 gods and show that Williams has not understood any one of these. But it would be useless, as Williams only quotes the Vedas on the subject of only seven out of these thirteen, i.e., Varuna, Mitra, Indra, Aditya, Agni, Ashwin and Yama, and two more, kola or Time and ratri or Night, and leaves the remaining undiscussed.

In a future lecture we shall take up each of these assertions in turns and show the strength of the proof on which Williams bases the truth of his assertions. But at present I have neither time enough nor the disposition to perform this task, as another and more important question is pressing. Suffice it to say then that in the opinion of Monier Williams the Vedas are records of a rude and barbarous age when fetish worship prevailed. When the various objects and forces of nature, like the sky, the firmament, the vast expanse, the day, the watery atmosphere, the cloud, the wind, the storm, the rain, the sun with its 12-months, the fire, the dawn, the day break and the spirits of the dead were worshipped. Of course, Monier Williams asserts that the deified forces addressed in the mantras, were probably not represented by images or idols in the Vedic period; but he says that doubtless the early worshippers clothed their gods with human form in their imaginations. Williams' panegyric, then, on the non-idolatrous character of the Vedas, is a mere panegyric and no more. His object is, however, to show that, notwithstanding all allowances that can be made, the Vedas are, at the best, books that contain fetish worship and low, uncivilized theology. For, let me remind you of the quotation that I read in the beginning. He says:

"In the Veda, this unity soon diverged into various ramifications. Only a few of the hymns appear to contain the simple conception of one Divine Self-existent Omnipresent Being and in these the idea of one God present in all nature is somewhat nebulous and undefined."

My object to-day is simply to point out that nowhere can these remarks of Williams be so well applicable as in the case of the Bible, the Bible which Monier Williams holds in such esteem, the Bible which he calls the sacred word of God, teaching the only true religion, as opposed to three false religions of the world,—Brahmanism, Islam and Buddhism, where as the Vedas do, not only in a few passages, contain the simple conception of a Divine Self-existent Omnipresent Being, but throughout the Vedas we find God described as a Divine Self-existent and Omnipresent Being, and not only is this idea not cloudy, nebulous or undefined even in these passages, but there can possibly be no clearer statement on the subject than those contained in the Vedas.
I shall show that the Vedas only sanction pure undefiled monotheism, whereas the Bible is the book wherein the idea of one Divine, Self-existent, Omnipresent God is most nebulous and extremely undefined.

To come to the Vedas:

To come to the Vedas:

\[ \text{the meaning of which is:} \]

We worship Him, the Lord of the universe of the inanimate and animate creation, for, He is the blesser of our intellect and our protector. He dispenses life and good among all. Him do we worship, for as He is our preserver and benefactor, so is He our way to bliss and happiness also.

Again—

Again—

The wise people always desire to

obtain communion with Him who pervades everywhere, for, He is everywhere. Neither time nor space, nor substance can divide Him. He is not limited to one time or one place or one thing, but is everywhere just as the light of the sun pervades everywhere in unobstructed space.

Again—

God pervades through all matter and space, even the distant suns, the far-off directions and is consciously present everywhere. He is conscious of His own powers. He made the elemental atoms with which to begin the creation of the Universe. He is all-bliss and eternal happiness. Any human soul that perceives and realises the existence of this Divine Being within himself and lives in the presence of this God, is saved.

Brahma, who is the greatest of all and worthy of being revered by all, who is present in all the worlds, and fit to be worshipped, whose wisdom and knowledge are boundless, who is even the support of the infinite space, in whom all reside and are supported, as a tree resides in the seed and is supported by it, so is the world supported by Him.
He is only one, there is no second, no third, no fourth God. There is no fifth, no sixth, no seventh God. Yes, there is no eighth, no ninth, no tenth God. In him, the Unitary Being, all live, move and have their being.

You have seen, then, what the religion of the Vedas is. Can there be any better, clearer, more distinct expression of monotheism than this? Can we better assert the divinity and omnipresence of God?

We come now to the Bible, the pet darling of Monier Williams, the Christian’s rock of ages, to prove the excellence of which Monier Williams so misinterprets, distorts and vilifies the Vedas.

Bishop Watson in his letters to Thomas Paine said, “An honest man, sincere in his endeavours to search out truth in reading the Bible, would examine first whether the Bible attributed to the Supreme Being any attribute repugnant to holiness, truth, justice and goodness, whether it represented Him as subject to human infirmities.”—B. Watson, p. 114.

I would follow the same course. We find that the Bible does represent God as subject to human infirmities and that it does attribute to him attributes repugnant to holiness, truth, justice and goodness.

It represents God as subject to human infirmities. It represents him as having a body, subject to wants and weaknesses like those of ourselves. When he appears to Abraham, he appears, according to the Bible, as three angels. Then they talked to Abraham &c. The Bible runs thus:

“2. And he (Abraham) lifted up his eyes and looked, and, lo, three men stood by him: and when he saw them, he ran to meet them from the tent door, and bowed himself toward the ground.

3. And said, my Lord, if now I have found favour in thy sight pass not away, I pray thee, from thy servant:

4. Let a little water, I pray you, be fetched, and wash your feet, and rest yourselves under the tree.

5. And I will fetch a morsel of bread, and comfort ye, your hearts: after that ye shall pass on: for, therefore, are ye come to your servant. And they said “so do, as thou hast said.”

6. And Abraham hastened into the tent unto Sarah, (his wife) and said, “Make ready quickly three measures of fine meal, knead it, and make cakes upon the hearth.”
7. And Abraham ran into the herd, and fetched a calf tender and good, and gave it unto a young man; and he hasted to dress it.

8. And he took butter, and milk, and the calf which he had dressed, and set it before them; and he stood by them under the tree, and they did eat.

9. And they said unto him, Where is Sarah thy wife? And he said, Behold, in the tent.

10. And he said, I will certainly return unto thee according to the time of life; and lo, Sarah, thy wife, shall have a son.”—(Vide Genesis, Chap. XVIII.*

* The rest of the criticism is missing.—Ed.
LECTURE IV.


In this lecture, I propose to deal with the 50th Sukta of the first Ashtaka of the Rig-veda, whose translation as well as remarks thereupon by Monier Williams, I subjoin herewith. Says Monier Williams:—

"The next deity is Surya, the sun,* who, with reference to the variety of his functions, has various names—such as Savitri, Aryaman, Mitra, Varuna, Pushan, sometimes ranking as distinct deities of the celestial sphere. As already explained, he is associated in the minds of Vedic worshippers with fire, and is frequently described as sitting in a chariot drawn by seven ruddy horses (representing the seven days of the week), preceded by the Dawn. Here is an example of a hymn (Rig-veda 1, 50) addressed to this deity, translated almost literally:—

"Behold the rays of dawn like heralds, lead on high The Sun, that men may see the great all-knowing god. The stars slink off like thieves in company with Night, Before the all-seeing eye, whose beams reveal his presence, Gleaming like brilliant flames, to nation after nation. With speed, beyond the ken of mortals, thou, O Sun, Dost ever travel on, conspicuous to all, Thou dost create the light, and with it dost illumine The universe entire; thou risest in the sight Of all the race of men, and all the host of heaven. Light-giving Varuna! thy piercing glance doth scan, In quick succession all this stirring, active world, And penetrateth too the broad ethereal space, Measuring our days and nights and spying out all creatures, Surya, with flaming locks, clear-sighted god of day. Thy seven ruddy mares bear on thy rushing car, With these thy self-yoked steeds, seven daughters of thy chariot, Onward thou dost advance. To thy refugent orb, Beyond this lower gloom and upward to the light Would we ascend, O Sun, thou god among the gods,"

* Yaska makes Indra, Agni and Surya, the Vedic Triad of gods,
In this paragraph Monier Williams asserts:

(i) That Surya, the sun, was worshipped as a deity under different names, Savitri, Aryaman, Mitra, Varuna and Pushan.

(ii) That in the minds of Vedic worshippers Surya was associated with Fire.

(iii) That Surya is described as sitting in a chariot drawn by seven ruddy horses preceded by the dawn.

(iv) That these ruddy horses represent the seven days of the week.

Monier Williams subjoins an almost literal translation of the 50th Sukta of the 1st Ashtaka of the Rig-veda, which has been mentioned before.

I need not say that Pushan, Varuna, Mitra, Aryaman and Savitri are only other names of the same Surya, and that Agni is also another name for it, but, unlike Williams, they are not the different names under which Surya, the sun, was worshipped. Surya is rather the God of the Universe मूर्त्य चात्मा जगत्स्तत्तत्थुष: He is the Universal Spirit that pervades the whole animate and inanimate creation.

The Sapta harita are not the seven ruddy horses of the sun that pull his chariot, nor has the sun any chariot. The Sapta harita are the seven rays as shall appear further on. The ratha means this sublime universe. The seven days of the week are not the seven haritas. But the value of Williams' translation will appear better after the true translation is given.

I shall now proceed with my explanation of each one of the Mantras giving Monir Williams' translation of the same, so that both might appear side by side in a position fit to be compared.

* the Divine essentials within the very interior of ever-living soul.

Compare with the above the Monier Williams' translation of the same (3rd) mantra. Says he:—

"(The Sun), whose beams reveal his presence.

Gleaming like brilliant flames, to nation after nation."

In vain do we seek for that purity of meaning, that sublimity of thought, that absorbing importance of the subject-matter, in Williams' translation of the Mantra. जनां यन, to William's scholarly mind, means nation after "nation." The Ketavah and Agna-

* Manuscript missing.
yah become beams and brilliant flames. In vain do the philologists of the West try to distort the sense of Vedic Mantras, and to make it correspond with the records of a primitive, comparatively savage and mythological age. I say, in vain, do these so-called scholars of oriental languages try to interpret the Vedic records according to the light of their brain-bred, I mean, fancy-bred, science, philology. For, all philologies, scholarships and learnings melt away like ice before the concentrated, penetrative, heat-pouring potent beams of truth.†

We come now to the 5th Mantra of this Sukta, with Monier Williams' characteristic translation. . . . "Thou (the sun) risest in the sight of all the race of men, and all the host of heaven." Can Williams ever be said to understand the meanings of Vedic Mantras, or say specifically of this Mantra? Where is his conception of Vedic mythologies? Where is his keen Christian sense which smells of element-worship in the Vedas! Has it gone so wrong as to incapacitate him even from understanding the simplest things. The sun never rises at once in the sight of all the race of men; but poor ignorant superstitious Vedic worshippers might have imagined so, but can even an idiot, a Zulu savage, that has not even the millionth part of the experience that Williams has—can he, even he imagine the sun to rise in the sight of all the host of Heaven—he means the starry firmament. No! Expressed in the language of a savage, the sun simply blinds the glittering sights of the starry host of the Heaven. It simply blows the night-gems, the stars, into a fine powder of nothingness and oblivion. But it never rises in the sight of all the host of Heaven, for, as it rises, the stars get blinded and shrink into nothingness. Whence, then, the mistake into which Monier Williams has stepped. Clearly it is thus. Williams translates देवानाम् into the starry host of Heaven. He has forgotten his translation of deva into gods and deities. But here देवानां means all the host of Heaven. Monier Williams' memory further slips the words of the Mantra प्रत्युपग्रं वर्षणेषु. It seems that the Vedic poet had put this unmeaning phrase here only to keep up the poetical metre! But another explanation is possible. Williams was so much occupied with, all the host of Heaven that as the sun rose, with the host of Heaven, departed his memory of this phrase also. Hence the vacuum in his translation.

We have said that God is the cause of this panorama of the universe. Is He not fit to be worshipped? He who undoubtedly lives

† "For Pandit Guru Datta's translation of the 4th Mantra, see pp. 30-32 of "Termionlogy of the Vedas and European Scholars."
in us, mortal भावनः men, and in the hearts of the wise देवता as well as the material objects of creation. He who lives by, actually residing in the interior of every thing and being प्रच्छः, yes He is the most fit object of our worship. In worshipping Him, we do not worship a mere phantom-picture, we do not worship a distant being or existence, but the ever-present, omniscient living God. It is no worship of Christ, one, who, if Bible-gossip be true, lived and died some 1900 years ago, who is now no more among us, who lived in Judea and Jerusalem, not in India or America, who lived among the Hebrews, not among the Aryas and the American Indians, and in spite of all this, who only lived, but does not live as he did once in human form, in flesh and blood. Christ-days are gone, but God-days are ever alive. Compared with the pure and sublime faith of the Vedas, which is also the faith of the Aryas, compared with the worship of the living divinity in us, Christianity is but a very crude form of Idolatry. Further more, the Vedas enjoin a divinity worship not in solemn words and amid congregation, in sky-piercing churches and "farces of fruitless prayer," but in the living temple of human heart, a worship which consists only in the realisation on earth and hereafter of that Universal bliss, that reigns calmly everywhere, विश्व रक्षदेव.

I talk of no production of my imagination when I speak of the worship of God in the living temple of the human heart. This alone is the true worship. It conducts itself as naturally and silently as the fragrance of flowers. It requires no set formulae of the churches, no Bhajans and Sangit-màlas of his or her composition. True worship is an undisturbed mind, a virtuous life perpetual. Says Krishna:—

इश्वररामस्वमानांतरी ज्ञ ननिहार्ति "The residence of God is in the innermost heart of man." Let me supplement this idea with quotations from the Vedas and the Upanishats.

"Any place where the mind of man can be undisturbed is suitable for the worship of the Supreme Being."

"The vulgar look for their gods in water; the ignorant think they reside in wood, bricks and stones; men of more extended knowledge seek them in celestial orbs; but wise men worship the Universal Soul.

"There is One living and true God, everlasting, without parts or passions; of infinite power, wisdom, and goodness; the Maker and Preserver of all things.

"That Spirit, who is distinct from matter and from all beings contained in matter, is not various. He is One and He is beyond description; whose glory is so great that there can be no image of him. He is the Incomprehensible Spirit, who illuminates all and delights all; from whom all proceed, by whom they live after they
are born; nothing but the Supreme Being should be adored by a wise man."

"Through strict veracity, uniform control of the mind and senses, abstinence from sexual indulgence, and ideas derived from spiritual teachers, men should approach God, who, full of glory and perfection, works in the heart, and to whom only votaries, freed from passion and desire can approximate."

Let me not multiply quotations in proof of my position. But rather, let us, like sincere devotees of the truth, confess that formal congregational worship is quite informal, and that, worship, and true worship, is never offered in words, not at all in pathetic, tear-shedding sermons. The only true worship that Vedas enjoin and which we also should learn to conduct is the practice of strict veracity, of uniform control of mind and senses, of abstinence from sexual indulgence, of learning lessons from spiritual teachers, and of freedom from passion and desire.

This, then, is, in brief, the Vedic Worship. Contrast with it, if you please, the worships of the whole religious world. This worship alone can lead us to the realization of pure Divine wisdom. No other can. For, the light, the intelligent lightचचस्, that shines through the world and through men, that witnesses all our actions जनाप्रयशि, and regulates the phenomena of the material spheres मुरणयन्तं घन, is the light that can lead us to wisdom and purity वहशएवराक || Let it be understood, then, that none who has not learnt to conduct this true worship of the Universal Soul, can ever attain to purity and wisdom. This is the true mode of worship, for, this exactly is the sense of the 6th Mantra of the 50th Sukta of Rig Veda which runs thus:

गृहि पावक चचसा मुरणयं जनां घन। तवं वहशण परयशि || ६ ||
EVIDENCES

OF

THE HUMAN SPIRIT.
EVIDENCES
OF
THE HUMAN SPIRIT.

Yes, the human spirit it is that sees, feels, hears, smells, tastes, wills, knows, does and understands everything. The human spirit is the real conscious man.—Prashna Upanishat. iv, 9.

How painful is ignorance. Pātanjali says that ignorance is the only soil where evils can grow and germinate. * And so it is. All the evil of this world is the result of misdirection of natural forces, ultimately traceable to ignorance. Nowhere is ignorance, however, so baneful as when it appertains to the ignorance of one’s own self. Under the stunning effect of ignorance people imagine themselves to be deprived of their own vital essence. And the so-called theologies of the world, no less than the materialistic objective externalism of the day, are busy in propagating scepticism, and even downright nihilism, on the subject. As a matter of fact, more is due in this direction to the pious teachings of the so-called religious world than to the sincere and logically-arrived-at convictions of philosophers and scientific men. The conclusions arrived at by sincere investigators and unprejudiced, unbiased reasoners, are, at the worst, only doubtful and fluctuating. They terminate in the confession of a mystery, or of some indefinite relation between mind and body. But our wise theologians of all religions go further. Their assertions are positive, dogmatic, and leave no room for doubt. The pious missionary, who believes in the perfected political religion of the western world, i.e., popular Christianity refined, returns this unequivocal answer to the query,—What is human spirit? “And the Lord God formed man (Adam?) of the dust of the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life; and man became a living soul.” † And Mahomet’s doctrine of Najakht Fīh, as given in the Qoran, is but a reiteration of the same, an echo of the biblical account in every sense. Thus is the grand problem of life and death solved by the Mahomedan and Christian worlds alike; and thus is the human spirit declared to be

* Yoga aphorism, ii. 4.
† Genesis, ii. 7.
a mere breath. Faithful to the instincts of his atheistic Christian land, poet-laureate Tennyson thus puts the answer in the mouth of personified Nature:

"Thou makest thine appeal to me:
I bring to life, I bring to death:
The spirit does but mean the breath:
I know no more." *

Not only is the human spirit, then, deprived of its proper functions and powers, but even scared out of existence. Apart from the absurdity of the supposition, for, the Great Eternal Being must have become almost tired—so as to require almost rest on every seventh day—of so constantly blowing out of his exhausting lungs breaths of vital fire to keep alive so many millions of millions of living beings, living upon the innumerable worlds, inhabiting the infinite space, the doctrine is in itself highly pernicious and misleading. For, what can be more pernicious than this, that a human being should be declared to be a void, a phantom, a breath, and no more.

Once admit that the human spirit is not a substance or an identity as real as palpable matter, (nay it is more real); once admit, like Budhas, that human life is but an evanescent spark passing off like a transient meteor in the sky; or, like Christians, that it is a mere breath; or, like modern subjective evolutionists, that 'spirit' is only a conception inherited by the civilized races from their savage progenitors who formed it, misled by the delusive phenomena of dreams wherein a savage is represented to dream a friend coming and talking 'to him, whereas, on awakening, he finds that the friend is nowhere, thus giving to the savage a notion, that every human being must have got a corresponding invisible second self, that appears in dreams, but is not tangible; once admit the airy nothingness of the human spirit, and down goes with it the whole fabric of all religion and morality. Can supernatural Christianity, with its gratis scheme of salvation, be based upon this sand-foundation of spirit-notion? O vain Christian! wipe off your theology and your scheme of salvation, for, there is no human spirit to be saved. That which you would save, is but a phantom, a mere breath. It is no substantiality. And ye Mahomedans! get rid of your doctrine of prophetic interposition, for, interposition will only save a phantom that has already disappeared, or would, perhaps, be destroyed the next moment. And all ye, who believe in the generation† of human spirit, i.e., in its creation out of nothing by

* In Memoriam, 56, 2.
† "Generation, progress and eternal existence are the characteristics of soul," Brahmo Samaj Tract, "Sadharana Sutra," translated by Navina Chandra Rai, Chapter III. Sutra, 35.
the fiat of the Deity, understand that what sprang into existence out of nothing will fall back into the chaos out of which it sprang, and be resolved into nothing!

This superstition, or misimpression of the non-entity of spirit, is not confined to the primary strata of religion alone. It has begun to permeate through the civilized world, till it has reached the margin of 'scientific speculation.'

'The mechanical theory of the universe undertakes not only to account for all physical phenomena by describing them as variances in the structure or configuration of material systems,' but strives even to apprehend all vital and physiological phenomena by reducing them to the elements of mass and motion. Thus, Wundt, speaking of physiology, says, "The view that has now become dominant (in physiology), and is ordinarily designated as the mechanical or physical view, has its origin in the causal conception long prevalent in the kindred departments of natural science, which regards nature as a single chain of causes and effects wherein the ultimate laws of causal actions are the laws of mechanics. Physiology thus appears as a branch of applied physics, its problem being a reduction of vital phenomena to general physical laws, and thus ultimately to the fundamental laws of Mechanics." Again, says Professor Haeckel in clearer terms, "The general theory of evolution...assumes that in nature there is a great, unital, continuous and everlasting process of development, and that all natural phenomena, without exception, from the motion of the celestial bodies and the fall of the rolling stone up to the growth of the plant and the consciousness of man, are subject to the same great law of causation—that they are ultimately to be reduced to atomic mechanicks." Not this alone, but Haeckel further declares that this theory which affords a rational explanation of the universe, and satisfies the craving of the intellect for causal connections, inasmuch as it links all the phenomena of nature as parts of a great unital process of development and as a series of mechanical causes and effects." * Working under the charms of this mechanical theory of the universe, Dr. Büchner, in his "Matter and Force," denies even existence to psychology or subjective philosophy. Many regard matter and its chemical workings as sufficient to account for all force and all mind. The notion of personality, immortality or independence of matter are again discarded by some as superstitious and absurd. Thus it is with philosophers and scientific men, who live from day to night in dread of utter annihilation.

Notwithstanding the fact that such materialism has long prevailed and even now prevails in the strongholds of Science and Religion in Western countries, it is remarkable to note that there have been

from time to time men who have fearlessly explored the regions of nature and made attempts at understanding and stating the bare truth.

Deep researches in physiology have revealed the fact that the human organisation is endowed with a self-conservative energy. And physicians and medical men in different ages have come to the conclusion, on the basis of their medical experience with the sick and the diseased, that there is in the human organisation a self-healing power which goes to restore the sick and throw off disease, and that medicines are only aids to this healing power. Thus, Von Helment was obliged to recognise a principle which he called "Archeus," and regarded it as independent of inert and passive matter—a principle that presided over all diseases and inspired the proper medicines with vitality enough to heal or to restore. The same principle was called by Stahl "anima," and was regarded as supplying losses and repairing injuries, besides overcoming diseases. The same principle was called by Whytt "the sentient principle." It was differently styled by Dr. Cullen, who called it the "vis medicatrix naturae"; by Dr. Brown, who called it the "Caloric"; by Dr. Darwin, who named it "Sensorial energy;" by Rush, who called it "occult cause"; by Brousais, who called it "vital chemistry" and by Hooper, who calls it the "vital principle" Living power, Conservative force, Economy of human nature, and powers of life, these and many such others have been the names by which the same principle has been called.

Whereas physicians and medical men have proceeded on the one side to approach the belief in a vital principle, theoretic speculation on biology has advanced far enough to probe the question of the genesis of life. And honest investigators and sincere writers have been compelled to recognize that, "life, however, may also be considered as a cause, since amongst the phenomena presented by all living beings, there are some which cannot be referred to the action of known physical or chemical laws, and which, therefore, temporarily, at any rate, we must term "vital"*

It has also been maintained that there is a plastic carbon-compound, called protoplasm, composed of four inseparable elements—Carbon, Oxygen, Hydrogen and Nitrogen—which is the physical basis of life, and consequently very often the doctrine of organisation-genesis of life has been urged. But to do justice to this physical basis of life, it must be remarked that, although the presence of these four elements apparently fixes it as a physical basis, that it possesses always a definite composition, is very much doubted. "It has not yet been shown that the living matter, which we designate by the convenient

term of protoplasm, has universally and in all cases a constant and
undeviating chemical composition; and indeed there is reason to
believe that this is not the case.* Furthermore, in consideration of
the vital phenomena presented by the lowest animals, scientific
authorities have been obliged to confess that organisation is not an
intrinsic and indispensable condition of vital phenomena. Speaking
of Amoeba, remarks Professor Nicholson, "This animalcule, which is
structurally little more than a mobile lump of semi-fluid protoplasm,
digests as perfectly—as far as the result itself is concerned—as does
the most highly organized animal with the most complex digestive
apparatus. It takes food into its interior, it digests it without the
presence of a single organ for the purpose; and, still more, it possesses
that inexplicable selective power by which it assimilates out of its food
such constituents as it needs, whilst it rejects the remainder. In the
present state of our knowledge, therefore, we must conclude that even
in the process of digestion, as exhibited in the Amoeba, there is
something that is not merely physical or chemical. Similarly any
organism, when just dead, consists of the same protoplasm as before,
in the same form, and with the same arrangements; but it has most
unquestionably lost a thing by which all its properties and actions
were modified and some of them were produced. What that some-
thing is, we do not know, and perhaps never shall know; and it is pos-
sible, though highly improbable, that future discoveries may demon-
strate that it is merely a subtle modification of some physical force...
It appears, namely, in the highest degree probable, that every vital
action has in it something which is not merely physical and chemical,
but which is conditioned by an unknown force, higher in its nature
and distinct in kind as compared with all other forces. The presence
of this vital "force" may be recognized even in the simplest pheno-
mena of nutrition; and no attempt even has hitherto been made
to explain the phenomena of reproduction by the working of any
known physical or chemical force."†

Speaking of the same, Professor Huxley remarks:—"It seems
difficult to imagine a state of organisation lower than that of Gregari-
nida, and yet many of the Rhizopoda are still simpler. Nor is there
any group of the animal kingdom which more admirably illustrates
a very well-founded doctrine, and one which was often advocated by
John Hunter, that life is the cause and not the consequence of or-
ganisation, for, in these lowest forms of animal life there is absolutely
nothing worthy of the name of organisation to be discovered by the
microscopist, though assisted by the beautiful instruments that are
now constructed. In the substance of many of these creatures, noth-

* Nicholson's Zoology page 9, note.
ing is to be discovered but a mass of jelly, which might be represent-
ed by a little particle of thin glue. Not that it corresponds with
the latter in composition, but it has that texture and sort of aspect;
it is structureless and organless, and without definitely formed parts.
Nevertheless, it possesses all the essential properties and characters
of vitality: it is produced from a body like itself, it is capable of
assimilating nourishment and of exerting movements. Nay, more;
it can produce a shell, a structure, in many cases, of extraordinary
complexity and most singular beauty.

"That this particle of jelly is capable of guiding physical forces,
in such a manner as to give rise to those exquisite and almost
mathematically arranged structures—being itself structureless and
without permanent distinction or separation of parts—is, to my mind,
a fact of the profoundest significance."†

The irresistible conclusion to which the above leads, and which
Haeckel also holds, is that "the forms of their organisms and of their
organs result entirely from their life." It is clear, then, that by
whichever name it may be called, life, vital principle, organising prin-
ciple occult cause, sensorial energy, vis medicatrix nature, anima or so
many other names, modern scientific world has come face to face with
a dynamic physiological reality which they call life. Is is no more
a mere breath, a mere phantom, or a mere product of organisation.
It is rather a subtle, refined, dynamic substance, a reality that builds
up the organisation, causes growth, vitality, and motion, repairs
injuries, makes up losses, feeds, feels, is sentient, originates actions,
resists, overcomes and cures diseases. This is the irresistible con-
clusion to which physiological researches have led sincere investi-
gators and philosophers in western countries. Thus it is that they
have been compelled to admit a reality, (call it material if it will
please you), yet, a reality, which the ancient philosophers of the east
styled Atma (अत्मा).

If we have purposely avoided mentioning ancient eastern authori-
ties on the subject, it is for the plain reason that India of the present
day derives its intellectual activity, faith, belief and conviction
mainly from civilized occidental England. Had we, in the very
beginning, culled evidence from ancient Sanskrit authors just to
prove even these very positions literally, there is no doubt that these
remarks would have been unhesitatingly pronounced as super-
stitious, whimsical, unscientific and old-grown; although, even after
the best evidence from western authors on the subject has been
collected, there is not to be found that systematic, exhaustive enumera-

† An introduction to the classifications of animals, by Thomas Henry Huxley,
tion of evidence which is the characteristic of a settled or decided opinion.

To come, however, to the proper subject, "Evidences of the Human Spirit" from the standpoint of Vaisheshika philosophy. As already pointed out, the ancient philosophers of Aryavarta styled this vital principle Aitma. It is one of the nine dravyas of the Vaisheshika philosophers. A dravya, in Vaisheshika philosophy, is something in which attributes and actions inhere,* or what in English philosophy would be called a substance, or better still, a substratum, or a noumenon. It is clear, then, that Aitma is a reality, one of the nine noumena of the universe, a substance in which attributes and actions inhere.

Let us, therefore, divest ourselves of our previous notions concerning the human spirit, so that we may the better understand its nature, according to this philosophy. English metaphysicians having generally regarded the human spirit as an immaterial nothing something, have been unable to offer any explanation as to how the mind knows the external univesse and acts on it. Regarding the human mind, as, they did, as altogether immaterial, i.e., as divested of all the properties of matter, even of the substantiality and extension or space-occupation of matter, they found their intellects compelled to halt, when the problem of the cognition of the external world was presented to them. In vain, did they attempt to solve the problem by referring cognitions to impressions of external matter or to correspondences produced by the Divine energy; for the problem still remained the same.

A soft, plastic melting bar of wax is taken, spread upon a surface, and a hard, rigid, solid carved wax is imprinted upon it. The wax easily takes the design upon it. This is the impression on the wax. It was similarly urged that external objects which are material, cannot be perceived by the altogether immaterial spirit directly, for we cannot conceive of any action between things that have no properties in common, for instance, such as mind and matter—mind, which is almost altogether ideal, invisible, impalpable, phantom-like airy nothing; and matter, which is independently existing, external, real, visible, tangible and perceptible. It was, therefore, asserted that what takes place in the perception of things is this:—The sensorium first takes the impression of things external, and it is this impression in the sensorium which is ultimately perceived by the spirit. But this does not solve the problem. For, if the sensorium takes the impression of objects external, however soft, plastic and liquidous the sensorium may be, it must be yet material: for, no matter what the substance may be, a material substance can only leave impressions on a material something. The sensorium,
therefore, must be itself material, if it can be impressed by external matter at all. If, then, the sensorium itself be material, as we are compelled to believe it is, the problem has not been solved; for, the difficulty still remains as to how the altogether immaterial mind can perceive the material and, therefore, external impressions on the sensorium.

Some philosophers have maintained that Divine interposition is the only means of getting rid of this difficulty. They, therefore, theorize that the Divine Being the spirit of God, through omnipotence, works out the material phenomena of nature in the physical external world on one hand, and corresponding internal mental changes directly in the world of mind, on the other; that thus, we are every moment conscious, not of matter and material phenomena, but of corresponding mental phenomena, existing independently by the direct working of the Divine Will. It is needless to say that this theory, instead of explaining the cognition of the external world, cuts short the gordian knot by utterly denying the very existence of any such cognition at all. It not only robs us of our cognition, but robs us of the very external world itself, for, if we be not conscious of the external world, but of mental changes only, say, correspondingly worked out by Divine interposition, what proof have we that any such external world exists?

This difficulty of explaining the cognition of the external world becomes augmented still further, when we come to consider the parallel and correlate question of the action of the human spirit upon matter. Here may lie a heavy mass of iron, say, 20 seers in weight. At the command of the spirit, the arm rises, and the weight is lifted up. Here is another mystery to be explained. How can the altogether immaterial spirit lift up the altogether material and external weight of twenty seers? Replies the impatient reader, the weight is moved in consequence of the hand. But, who moved the equally material hand? One may go a step further and say that the feat was accomplished by a regular contraction of the muscles, but the muscles are material still, and the question still remains, who contracted the muscles? Here the vain physiologist may say that there passed a nervous current from the brain and straight contracted the muscles. But the question still flutters before the mind, what stimulated the nervous currents? You answer, the will of the spirit. And here lies the question of questions, how could the immaterial spirit stimulate, by his immaterial will, the solid, white, fibrous, silvery material nerves to yield up their nervous fluid and contract the muscles? It is plain, then, that there can be no escape from the final riddle: and whence this riddle? Clearly enough from the pre-conceived erroneous notion that the spirit is an altogether immaterial airy nothing, phantom-like, or breathly something.
Once admit, as the *Vaisheshika* philosophy teaches, that the *Atmā* (अत्म) human spirit, is at least as good a substance as matter, as good a noumenon or substratum as ordinary external objects are possessed of, and it will be clear how substance can act upon substance or be impressed by substance. This peculiar substance, *Atmā*, is the seat of two grand manifestations, the voluntary and the involuntary. The voluntary or conscious functions of *Atmā* are the functions called cognition, feeling and will: also called *Buddhi* (consciousness), *sukha* (feeling of pleasure), *dukha* (feeling of pain), *ichchhā* (desire), *dwesha* (repulsion), and *prayatna* (conscious exertion). These voluntary functions of the spirit have formed the basis of discussions of all metaphysicians who have ignorantly or wilfully neglected the treatment of the other set of functions—*pranāpana* or respiration, *nimeshonomesha* or nictitation, *jivana* or physiologic building and animation, *manas* or sensation, *gati* or movement, *indriya* or activity of the senses, and *antaravikāra* or organic feelings. The result of the separation of these two sets of the functions of the spirit has been that schools of metaphysicians and scientific men have been set up in conflict with each other, both denying the substantiality of the spirit. The metaphysicians deny the substantiality of the spirit, evidently on the ground that sensations, feelings, wills, desires and ideas, perceptions and cognitions have no independent existence of their own, but seem to be manifested only in organised structure. There is, besides, a tendency, among metaphysicians, to regard whatsoever is internal or mental as imaginary or as phenomenal, but not as real or substantial. Hence, dealing as they do, with the departments of cognition, feeling and will, they regard the mind no more real than its phenomena. Had they also recognised the involuntary functions of the spirit, they would have readily perceived that the *real* something which produces such tangible, real phenomena as the building up of structures or the animation of organism, or which produces motion and the co-ordination of motion, is the reality that sentiently feels, knows and wills.

On the other hand, the scientific world has been prone to deny substantiality to spirit from the opposite ground that their external phenomenal researches into the functions of organisms could only reveal to them, at their best, the involuntary potencies of the spirit, and this could not otherwise happen. For, the whole material world, from the psychological point of view, is merely objective existence. The human spirit is the only substance that is both objective and subjective at the same time. The scientific world, owing to its materialism and the deep-seated tendency of only depending on sense testimony, have only sought the objective side of the human spirit, and have, therefore, landed themselves into a nihilism which denies the subjective side of the human spirit. Not finding the involuntary
tendencies of the spirit anywhere outside of organic matter, for, then, they would not be manifest, they have denied to consciousness an independent substratum. For, it is to them more agreeable and uniform to regard life also as one of the forces, and since consciousness has no place in this list of forces, it must be the apparent, delusive result of the most complicated working of natural forces. To them, matter with its chemical affinity is all-sufficient. Had both sets of functions, voluntary and involuntary, of the human spirit, been simultaneously viewed, no darkness would have enshrouded the realm of mind. It would have been perceived that the human spirit, in performing what are called the involuntary functions of the mind, behaves just in the same way as different elements of matter do. The spirit, too, with its inherent chemical affinities and dynamic activities, attracts and repels blood from the heart, air from the lungs, and nervous currents or electricity from the brain. This double-phased existence of \( \text{Atm} \) (अत्म) is the subject of the following quotation from the \textit{Prashastapada Bhashya} of Gautama.
The following is a rough and almost literal translation of the above passage:

"The next substance is called Atmā, as it is endowed with the property of circulating itself freely in the organism. On account of its being a refined and subtle entity, it is imperceptible by the senses; and, hence, its existence has to be inferred from the harmonious play displayed by such instrumental organs as the eye, the ear, &c., for, it cannot be doubted that the organs are merely the instruments which, like all other machinery, require an agent to work them up. When, besides, the nature of sounds, colours, tastes, &c., is well admitted to be cognizable, the existence of a cognizing being is a natural inference. This cognizing being cannot be the body, the organs,* or the manas†, the soul or spiritual body, for they are not endowed with consciousness. The body is not endowed with consciousness, because it is the product of the composition of dead, inert and altogether unconscious elements and atoms of matter, just as such common objects as the pitcher, &c., are devoid of consciousness. But, further, the body is not the conscious being, because, if consciousness were really due to the body, the body would not be unconscious after death; which is not so. Nor are the organs the conscious entities; because, firstly, they are mere instruments and, secondly, had it been so, their destruction would be always followed

* By the word 'organs' is here meant the 'Indriyas' or the senses. The Indriyas are the invisible organisation of the spirit as distinct from the visible organs wherein these spiritual organs or powers reside.

† Man is viewed in Sanskrit philosophy as a compound of three entities: 1, the gross physical body, called the sthūla sharīra; 2, the spiritual body, here called the manas. It is an organisation of life and sensation principles and is a fine imperceptible intermediate connecting link between the gross material body; and 3, the internal spirit who is the true man, the central reality that acts, feels, enjoys and is conscious. One of the consequences flowing from this organization of the manas is that it is impossible for the spirit to be cognizant of two impressions at the same time.
by the loss of consciousness, and their existence by the manifestation of consciousness, whereas both alternatives are wrong. Even when the eye gets deranged, coloured objects may not be perceived, but they can be remembered, so that consciousness in the state of after-memory still remains even on the derangement or destruction of an organ. Also, when the organs are all sound, consciousness may not exist when the objects of perception are not presented to the organs. Hence, the organs are not the conscious entities. Nor is the manas (the spiritual body) the conscious being, for, it is an instrument still, and were it not an instrument in the hands of the spirit, it would be possible for the spiritual body to be cognizant at one and the same time of more conscious impressions than one, which is not so. Hence is clearly established the existence of a fourth entity other than the gross body, the organs, and the manas the spiritual body.”

"The primary inference with respect to the human spirit is that of a controlling being. When the driver, by the exertion of his muscular power, turns the reins of the horses that pull the carriage, on one side or on the other, the carriage obeys the motion, and forthwith rolls on to that side. Now, a similar turning of the activities of the body, called pravritti and nivritti, i.e., application to what is deemed pleasurable, and voluntary withdrawal from what is deemed painful, is perceived to take place in our bodies. Our body is thus like a carriage; the driver, Atmā, regulating, by the reins he holds, at his will, the pravritti and nivritti of the body. Our second inference with respect to the human spirit is that of a blacksmith given constantly to force wind out of the bellows. The air that enters the lungs gets chemically vitiated, and the Atmā constantly forces it out blowing it through his bellows, the lungs. Our third inference is from the natural nictation of the eye-lashes. Just as a juggler makes the puppets move at every pull of the wires, so the tension of the proper nerves produced by the exertion of Atmā keeps the eye-lashes executing their movements. Our fourth inference is with respect to the spirit as an architect. An architect-master of the house soon builds up an edifice of his house, repairs a gone-down ladder or a worn-up ceiling, and plasters or whitewashes his dirty rooms. So does the architect—Atmā—cause the growth of the yet undeveloped body, repairs its wounds and its fractured or injured parts. Our fifth inference with respect to the Atmā is that of a child moving with a stick the spider from one corner of the room to the other. So does the Atmā move the spiritual body, with the curiosity of a child, from one corner (organ) of the body to the other. Our sixth inference is that of a spectator standing in the centre of a circular hall provided with windows on all sides, who can see undisturbed, from his elevated position, through proper windows, what goes on in each direction. A fruit is presented to the sense of sight. The colour only is seen, but the taste of it is soon remembered and outflows the saliva from
the tongue in the luxuriance of deliciousness. Besides, we infer the existence of a substratum from such attributes as pleasure, pain, desire, hatred, will and knowledge. These attributes do not belong to the body or the organs. For, the ego identifies itself with these attributes but not with the body or the organ. "I feel, I desire," are true interpretations of consciousness, but not that the body or the organs feel, desire or are conscious."

"These attributes refer to a substance wherein they inhere, are not to be found in any and every substance, and are not cognizable by the outer senses. Hence they are the attributes of a third something, Atmá. The attributes of Atmá are knowledge, feeling of pleasure, feeling of pain, desire, hatred, exertion, morality and immorality, impressibility, number, magnitude, separate existence, connectivity and separability. The first six attributes have been already dealt with. Morality and immorality are attributes of Atmá, for, the human spirit is a responsible agent. The spirit is also impressible, for such impressions alone can be the cause of memory. The ego of each individual being conscious of a different set of enjoyments from the others, and being unable to present to his consciousness the states and feelings of another individual, it is clear that each human spirit has a distinct entity and is, therefore, in itself a unit, i. e., possesses the attribute "number." As freely circulating itself in the body, it has magnitude. The feelings of pleasure and pain all rise in the spiritual body, and the spirit is only conscious of them by its contact with the spiritual body and through it with the object of feeling. Hence its attributes of connectivity and separability."

To illustrate the reasonings in the above-mentioned passage:—

Firstly, it should be pointed out that Atmá is there viewed as a refined and subtle entity, imperceptible by the senses. There exists a prejudice against this view, which it will be well to clear out before proceeding further. The prejudice is to disbelieve all that is invisible, imperceptible or uncognizable by the senses. This prejudice arises either from too superficial an experience, or from an exclusive devotion to material or physical pursuits and to purely experimental or empirical sciences, where the faculties of observation are constantly in demand, but the faculties of reflection, imagination or abstraction are seldom, if ever, used. An intimate acquaintance, however, with the phenomena of these very sciences will prove that the true causes of these phenomena, and therefore the true realities, are always hidden, invisible and imperceptible. Take, for instance, the most familiar case of Gravitation. Every particle of matter attracts every other particle of matter in the universe, with a force in proportion to the product of their masses, and in inverse ratio with the square of their distances. And this force the scientific men term Gravitation. Observe the infinity of palpable effects which the operation of this single law or the working of this single force
produces. Every thing, from the smallest atom to the most majestic
sun, is under its control. Gravitation is the parent of all phenomena
of cosmic motions,—of the movement of planets in their orbits, of the
movement of satellites round the planets, of the change of seasons, of
the flight of comets, of the fall of meteors, tides and ebbs, and of
eclipses. And yet, notwithstanding the palpability of its multifarious
effects, is Gravitation itself palpable, or is it a subtle, invisible, yet
real force, existing in nature, and revealing its presence by the visible,
palpable phenomenal effects it produces? Or, to take another
example, electricity. What is this all-pervading substance? No
particle of matter is without it. Exciteable by friction, or induceable
by influence, it dwells within the interior of every material body,
hidden and unperceived. When the electric current passes through
the telegraph wires in the process of the message being transmitted,
it passes unawares all the way long, leaving no palpable, visible
effects on the wires; but the same invisible, hidden element makes
itself felt in the receiving-station by the ringing of the alarum, the
sharp clicking movement of the magnet, the motion of the dial,
or the jolting of the ink or the pencil. More mysterious still is the
working of magnetism. There may lie a huge mass of iron, in the
shape of a horse-shoe, surrounded by a long coil of shellac-covered
copper wire; and in its vicinity may lie huge masses of iron nails,
pins, hammers, &c. As yet, the magic of magnetism is not at work.
In an instant, the current of a strong battery is sent through the
coil, and the inert lifeless piece of horse-shoe becomes alive with a
strange energy. It avariciously attracts the nails and the hammer,
the pins and every other iron around. There is no visible, palpable
change in the iron of the horse-shoe. But, though unperceived, it is
now the playground of magnetism, which, though so potent in its
effects and manifestations, is itself subtle and invisible.

It is clear, then, that the true causes of things are hidden, in-
visible and imperceptible by the senses. Their effects, the pheno-
mena produced by them alone, are visible or perceptible. The chief
fallacy of reasoning in such cases, consists, in regarding the visible
and immediate media of action as causes; whereas, true causes are
hidden, and yet real and eternal. If the vital phenomena manifested
by living organisms, and, above all, by man, have a cause at their
basis, that cause must, of necessity, be hidden, invisible, and imper-
ceptible by the senses and consequently eternal. The subtle, in-
visible nature of Atmâ, therefore, instead of being an objection
against its existence, is, in the true light of things, rather a proof
corroborative, an essential consequence of its existence.

Viewed objectively, therefore, Atmâ can only be the subject of
inference. Now, every inference pre-supposes two things, the some-
thing whose existence is to be inferred, and the certain data from
which such existence is inferred, the ground of inference being some
similarity or resemblance. The great problem of inference really lies in determining which similarity or resemblance is to be deemed as sufficient and which as insufficient for the purposes of such inference. The known datum or data, from which the unknown something is inferred, are called, in Sanskrit logic, the linga, and the something inferred is called the anumeya. With reference to this question of inference, says Kāshyapa, the logician:—

श्रुतेः सम्बन्धं च इतिदं च तद्दर्शिते ।
तदभावे च नास्त्येव तोपनक्षेमस्तु नुभाषकेः ॥

"That alone is a valid datum for inference (linga) which has, firstly, been known to co-exist with the thing to be inferred at some time or place, secondly, is also known to be present wherever the like of the thing to be inferred exists, and, thirdly, to be absent wherever the unlike of the thing to be inferred exists." To take, for instance, a concrete example. From the fall of the barometer is inferred the decrease of the pressure of the air. Let us see if such an inference can be a valid inference. The fall of the barometer is known, the decrease in the pressure is unknown. But we know, from a specific experiment (i.e., an experiment conducted at a particular time and place), that decrease of pressure produces fall of barometer. This fulfils the first condition. Secondy, similar cases of the decrease of pressure, by whatsoever cause, are attended with the fall of barometer, but the third condition is not fulfilled. It is not true that where-ever there is no fall in the barometer, there is no decrease of pressure; for, there may be no fall of barometer, although the pressure may have decreased. The mercury, through rise of temperature, expanded and became lighter. Had the same pressure continued, the column of mercury would have risen higher up, but the fall of pressure compensated for the rise and left the mercury apparently where it was. The three canons of Kāshyapa, therefore, conclusively prove that the fall of the barometer is not the linga of the decrease of pressure. Similar reasoning will show that the decrease in the weight of the superincumbent column of mercury is the linga (inference) of the decrease of pressure.

Having shown, in general, what data are fit to be the ground of inference, it remains to see upon what phenomena can the inference of the existence of Atmā be grounded. These phenomena must bear some definite relation to Atmā, must be known to occur, in some cases where the essential attributes of Atmā are found; and there should be no Atmā where these are not found. These phenomena are of two kinds; firstly, the working and the activity of the bodily organs, and, secondly, the sensations of which one is cognizant. Hence, it is from these two classes of phenomena that the existence of Atmā can be objectively inferred. For, consciousness being the characteristic attribute of Atmā, some activities of bodily organs are
not only known to be produced by the will of the conscious Atmā, but there are other activities that are not produced by will but are invariably observed wherever there is consciousness; and besides, in all cases of living bodies dying, or of inanimate objects, the organism or the object is devoid of the performance of those functions. And so with respect to sensations.

Before proceeding, however, to a detailed enumeration of such phenomena, it will be useful to review a theory that has so often been alleged against the independent existence of Atmā, and, in the minds of some unoriginal students, so constantly thrown its obstructive feelers against the clear comprehension of the subject on the part of an honest inquirer. That theory is the mechanical theory. We shall show how far the mechanical theory can render an explanation of consciousness.

Leaving apart Atmā, man consists of three things, sharīra, indriya, and manas. Sharīra, as Gautama defines it in his Nyāya philosophy, (चतुर्थेऽर्गुणानम सर्ववा: शरीरम् १ १६ II), is the solid framework of the body together with the visible organs that are located in it. It is the ground-work of all activity, the seat of all senses and their sensations. The indriyās are the fine subtle entities, distinct from, located in, the five visible organs of sense respectively, by virtue of each of which the Atmā obtains a distinct and definite consciousness of each of the five sensations, smell, taste, colour, touch and sound. The indriyās are, accordingly, the invisible internal media of sensation for the perception of the spirit. That they are independent of the visible organs is not to be laughed at. For, in many cases, the tympanic membrane, the hammer and the anvil of the ear have been removed, leaving the staples alone, without injuring the sense of hearing. And so with other organs. Indeed, the fact of the senses being independent of the visible organs, instead of, in any awy, contradicting our experience, is so clearly borne out by human experience that unsophisticated reason never doubts it. For, "during the hours of physical repose, while the parts of the system are recruiting and reproducing new strength and energy, and while the organs of sense are closed to all external impressions, the mind, free from all obtrusive and disturbing influences, makes imaginative excursions to different places and contemplates different things in existence. It supposes, it sees or hears; while sometimes it is arrested in its travels by the sound of beautiful music, or by various pleasing scenes which it appears to enjoy. Sometimes it supposes it walks, feels, tastes, or suffers excruciating pain. It also appears to be irresistible in many places where it had no previous desire or intention to be. During all of these peregrinations, the wave of sound, the reflection of light, the susceptibility of feeling, the pleasure of tasting are all supposed
to be enjoyed. . . . This proves that there is an internal medium of sensation by which the mind enjoys its capacity, as if the external were in connection with the world. It proves also that there is a medium existing upon these nerves of sensation, independent both of internal and external exciting causes." This medium of sensation is the indriya. And, lastly, manas, the soul or the mind, is a third entity distinct from Atma. Says Gautama in his Nyaya philosophy,

"The existence of manas (mind) is established from the fact that one is only capable of attending to one thing at a time." It is said of a Greek philosopher that he was engaged in solving a mathematical problem when an army passed by, and he was altogether unconscious of it, till a soldier effaced the circle the philosopher had drawn on earth, a fact which alone disturbed the attention of the philosopher. What followed may be left to history. Was the movement of an army entirely noiseless? Were no sound waves propagated when the philosopher was solving his mathematical problem? Did not the waves enter the cavity of his ear and put to vibration the tympanic membrane, the delicately placed stapes and the grain-filled liquid in the internal labyrinths of the ear, in fact the invisible medium of sensation upon the nerves, the indriya? All this did take place, but the philosopher was not attending to it. There was in the philosopher a something which, when engaged in thinking (i.e., solving the problem), was not in contact with the internal ear; a something whose contact with one indriya or faculty precluded its contact simultaneously with another. Its contact with an indriya and therefore with an organ is what we call attention; its separation from this cuts the cords of connection, and the result is what we call absent-mindedness. Nor is this manas the conscious entity; for, who does not know that all the ideas that our experience has acquired for us lie for the most time in a latent registered state in the brain, or, more correctly, in the manas, but that each and any of them is remembered whenever it is recalled.

We have seen what sharira, indriya and manas are. We shall now examine whether any one of them is endowed with consciousness. For, if, barring Atmā aside, man consists of three substances, sharira, indriya and manas, and each of them be proved to be unconscious or unfit to evolve consciousness, no doubt would remain as to a fourth substance, Atmā, being the conscious entity. Firstly, then, the sharira is not the conscious entity, for, it is the product of the composition of dead, inert and altogether unconscious elements and atoms of matter, and all bodies that are the product of the composition of such particles are themselves dead and inanimate. The whole world of inorganic chemical compounds, including watches, steam engines, &c., is an

* Principles of Nature, by Andrew Jackson Davis.
illustration of the principle. Nor are the organic compounds an exception to this law. So long as organic bodies are associated with a living germ, their manifestations remain very much modified and changed, but, when deserted by the enlivening principle, even organic structure fails to show any signs of vitality and consciousness. To be clearer still, suppose the sharīra to be endowed with consciousness. Let us inquire whether this consciousness be inherent in the sharīra, or mere accidental to it. If inherent, the sharīra should be conscious even after death, which is not so. If accidental, the statement amounts to saying that we must seek for some other substance besides the body for consciousness. Nor are the indriyas the conscious entities, for, they are mere instruments requiring an agent to work them up. Besides, their presence is not necessarily attended with consciousness as in the case of absent-mindedness; nor is their loss accompanied with the loss of consciousness, for, even when the eye is deranged or altogether removed from the socket, coloured objects may be remembered in consciousness. Nor is the manas the conscious being; for, if it were so, it would be directly conscious of every impression, and we should observe no such restriction in practice as the inability to cognize two impressions at one and the same time.

A little reflection and calm, sound reference to one's own consciousness will convince every one of the entire distinctness of the ego, atmā, from the body, its organs, functions, affections, and even sensations. There are two grand general principles which underlie the whole of the above reasoning. The first is the well-known and much-abused principle, ex nihilo nihil fit. It is enunciated thus:

नासीतोविद्यते भावे नाभावी विद्यते सतः।
उष्मयोऽरुपः देस्तौन्तस्तम्भनामसत्यदयशिभः॥ *

"What is not, never becomes something, and whatsoever is, is never reduced to nothing." The wise men have fully measured the entire truth of both these assertions. Prejudiced, sophisticated, vicious, ignorant minds cannot easily comprehend this.† This is the cardinal principle of all sound philosophy. Creation is simply impossible. The principles of Nature only reveal formation. For, let us for one moment suppose creation to be possible, and let something come out of nothing. This very supposition assumes that there is a nothing which can produce something. Hence there are two kinds of nothing, firstly, the ordinary nothing from which nothing comes out; secondly, this peculiar nothing which gives rise to something. Now, whatsoever has many kinds is not nothing but something. Hence, "nothing," which is of two kinds, is not nothing but something. Or, something can only arise out of something. The reverse of it is

* Bhagavat Gita, II. 16.
simply inconceivable. The second principle, which may be regarded as the corollary of this, is thus formulated in Vaisheshika philosophy:

"The effect only reveals whatsoever pre-existed in the cause. No new attribute can spring up." If these two principles were vividly and constantly kept before the mind, one would be quite safe from the attacks of unsound reasoning. But our materialists of modern times, who hold the mechanical theory to be sufficient for explaining the phenomena of the universe, are not only content with forgetting these two principles, but openly and broadly contradict these very innate conception's of the human mind. Says Charles Bradlaugh,—"Religionists seem to think that they avoid the difficulty, or turn it upon us, by propounding riddles. They analyze the body, and, giving a list of what they call elementary substances, they say: Can oxygen think? Can carbon think? Can nitrogen think? and when they have triumphantly gone through the list, they add, that as none of these by itself can think, thought is not a result of matter but a quality of soul. This reasoning at best onlyamounts to declaring:

"We know what body is, but we know nothing of soul; as we cannot understand how body, which we do know, can think, we therefore declare that it is soul which we do not know, that does think." There is a still greater fault in this theological reasoning in favour of the soul, for, it assumes, contrary to experience, that no quality or result can be found in a given combination which is not also discoverable in each or any of the modes, parts, atoms, or elements combined. Yet this is monstrously absurd. Sugar tastes sweet, but neither carbon, nor oxygen, nor hydrogen, separately tasted, exhibits sweetness; yet sugar is the word by which you describe a certain combination of carbon, oxygen and hydrogen. I contend that the word "soul," in relation to human, vital, and mental phenomena, occupies an analogous position to that which used to be occupied by such words as "demon," "genii," "nome," "fairy," "gods," in relation to general physical phenomena."†

Is this sound philosophy? Does Charles Bradlaugh think that, if this soul-hypothesis cannot explain the phenomena of consciousness, his material atoms can? Here is his answer:

"The ability to think is never found except as an ability of animal organisation, and the ability is always found higher or lower as the organisation is higher or lower . . . . The orthodox maintainers of soul . . . . contend that what they call the soul will

† Vaisheshika, Sutras II. i, 24.
‡ Charles Bradlaugh: "Has man a soul?" p. 4–5.
live when the human being has ceased to live, but they do not explain whether it did live, before the human being began to live."* Here Charles Bradlaugh speaks of the Christians, for the Vedic philosophy verily establishes the eternity, and hence the pre-existence of human spirits. Further on, he says, "The orthodox contend that what they call the elementary substances, taken separately, do not think, therefore man without a soul cannot think, and that as man does think he must have a soul. This argument, if valid at all, goes much too far; a trout thinks, a carp thinks, a rat thinks, a dog thinks, a horse thinks, and, by parity of reasoning, all these animals should have immortal souls."† And undoubtedly they have; but timid Christians are afraid of confessing it, and hence the righteous attack of Bradlaugh on orthodox Christians. His arguments, instead of invalidating any of the principles of Vedic philosophy, rather prove it. But to return to the first quotation from Bradlaugh. Evidently we cannot explain how body can think, and so long as the principle, ex nihilo nihil fit remains true, and its reverse utterly inconceivable, no man shall ever understand how body can think. What, then, is the irresistible c.n lusio? Evidently this, that if the existence of consciousness is ever to be explained to the understanding, it should be, not by referring to body or the elements of which it is composed, but to something, to begin with, not body. This something, with respect to which nothing more is predicated than "the cause of thinking that is not body," may be conveniently termed the spirit, or, as the English world puts it, the soul. What harm is there, then, in declaring that "it is the soul (about which we predicate no more than what has gone before) that thinks." And yet Bradlaugh has to find fault with this. And further, he contradicts the very two principles enumerated above, and says that the assertion, that no quality or result can be formed in a combination that is not discoverable in the elements of combination, is monstrously absurd." He adduces the illustration of sugar, and says the elements of sugar do not taste sweet, but that sugar does. Is not this a superficial reasoning? Has no one, in a dream, ever tasted the sensation of sweetness? And yet there is no sugar, no certain combination of carbon, oxygen and hydrogen there. Sweet taste is not in the sugar, for, if it were, no one could ever dream of tasting sweetness, and hence it need not be in the carbon, oxygen and hydrogen of which sugar is composed. It is enveloped in a certain agitation of the proper nerve, and the specific combination of carbon, oxygen and hydrogen, known as sugar, only serves to set free by chemico-electrical energy of dissolution in the saliva of the tongue, a definite quantity of energy, which produces the agitation of the proper nerve, and hence the sensation of sweet taste. In dream, this agitation is produced, not by external means, but by internal ones. The case of

* Charles Bradlaugh: "Has man a soul?" p. 5.
† Ibid, p. 5.
sugar is, therefore, a further illustration of our principle, instead of being a refutation.

But there are materialists wiser than Charles Bradlaugh, who, instead of denying the two grand generalisations of philosophy above-mentioned, rather take their stand upon them, and bring in the word latent to rescue the mechanical theory from its intrinsic inability to explain the fact of consciousness. They fare no better, for, as we shall see, they are the victims of a graver logical fallacy. They reason thus:—It is true that in the act of combination, no new qualities or results are produced, but it very often happens that the process of combination or organisation forces out that which was formerly latent, and makes it manifest. For instance, gunpowder, when heated, possesses the power of exploding. The explosive power is already latent in the gunpowder, and the act of firing only renders manifest what was latent. To explain it further. It is well known that wood or charcoal when heated in the presence of oxygen burns. It is also well known that friction and percussion develope heat. And it is well known as well that if a part of space is filled up with a quantity of a gas, more than it can hold at ordinary pressure, it will expand and will propel any body in the way of its expansion. The propulsion of cork from soda-water bottles is a familiar illustration. And, lastly, it is well known too that heat expands gases, and that gases occupy so many hundred times more space than the same substances in the solid condition do. All these are well known and familiar truths; yet the manufacture of gunpowder is not an obvious invention. Why? Because, we require a definite arrangement of substances and forces to gradually and naturally evolve a desired result. We want explosion. Now explosion means propulsion of shot. Let, therefore, a gas expand against shot. But whence are we to get a pressed or squeezed quantity of gas to expand? Evidently from a solid that by decomposition might evolve a gas and large quantity of heat. This gas is to be the carbonic acid, the gas of the soda-water, and the heat is to come from chemical action. But carbonic acid is the product of carbon and oxygen. Hence the solid mixture must contain charcoal, the source of carbon, and saltpetre or nitre, the source of oxygen. The primeval concussion is to be the source of the fire applied to the charcoal. Hence gunpowder is an ultimate mixture of charcoal, sulphur and nitre. A chemist thus explains its action. "The general decomposition which occurs when gunpowder is fired may be expressed by saying that the oxygen of the nitre combines with the charcoal forming carbonic acid and carbonic oxide, whilst the nitrogen is liberated, and the sulphur combines with the potassium (of the nitre). Hence, gunpowder can burn under water or in a closed space, as it contains the oxygen needed for the combustion in itself; and the great explosive power of the substance is due to the violent evolution of large quantities
of gas, and a rapid rise of temperature causing an increase of bulk, sudden and great enough to produce what is termed an explosion." It is thus clear that in the process of combination only the properties that were latent become manifest. Hence it is argued that the specific combination of matter, which we call the organism of man, develops or renders manifest the latent consciousness of matter. Hence, there is no conscious spirit. Matter with its infinity of properties is enough to explain all consciousness. Let us weigh this doctrine of "latent consciousness" carefully. When a pound of ice is taken and a thermometer inserted in it, and the whole heated, a large quantity of heat is absorbed till the whole of ice becomes water. This heat has no effect upon the thermometer. Or, if the hand were dipped in ice till the whole of ice were converted into water, the hand will not feel any sensasion of warmth. Heat is, in this case, said to become latent in water. This example is enough to show that any quality or property of which there is no consciousness for the time being, but which begins to be felt under proper conditions, is said to be latent. Now, what is meant when it is said that the latent consciousness of matter becomes manifest? Can there be any latent consciousness? Can any one conceive such a jargon? All properties of substances that are external to us, or are objective but not subjective, may be conceived as existing and not exciting consciousness. But can any one conceive a consciousness that is not consciousness? For, what is latent consciousness but a consciousness of which there is no consciousness, or an unconscious consciousness? Latent consciousness is no more a reality than a circular square or a not-white white. It is a contradiction in terms. This entire reasoning is based on a real ignorance of the signification of consciousness. It is simply a hetubhdasa (pseudo-reasoning) arising out of the metaphorical misuse of the word latent when applied to consciousness.

We will also here mention the physiological theory which is in vogue at present with scientific men and philosophers of the experiential school. This theory is another attempt to reduce consciousness to the terms of matter and motion. It establishes that brain is not only the principal organ of mind, but that the nerve currents generated in the brain are the whole source of the mind we know. Says a writer: "The brain is highly retentive of the impressions made upon it, they are embodied in its structure and are a part of its growth. They may be reproduced on after occasions, and then what we find is a series of currents and counter-currents, much the same as what existed when the impression was first made. When the mind is in the exercise of its functions, the physical accompaniment is the passing and repassing of innumerable streams of nervous influence. Whether under a sensation of something actual, or under an emotion or idea, or a train of ideas, the general operation is still the same. It

* Henry E. Roscoe; Lessons in Elementary Chemistry.
seems as if we might say, \textit{no currents, no mind}.* To it might be added what Herbert Spencer gives in one of his volumes on Synthetic philosophy. After stating how water, nitrogen and carbon establish the easily modifiable nature of the brain, he goes on to state that the nature of the current is the dislodgment of energy, and that all cerebral action is simply a case of the dislodgment of energy. The brain centres may be compared to wound-up springs. The nerves by their agitation start the first movement of the spring, and the brain centre begins to unwind itself. To show the merits and demerits, or the explanatory limit, of this hypothesis, let us consider the question, as to how is the consciousness of differences in \textit{degree} and \textit{quality} produced, and how are these two kinds of differences differentiated in pure consciousness. Every one knows what qualitative and quantitative differences (\textit{i.e.}, those belonging to quality and \textit{degree}) are. Two tons of soap differs from five tons of soap in quantity. But glycerine soap differs from carbolic soap in quality. Similarly our sensations, subjective experiences, also present differences of degree and quality as well. The taste of an ounce of sugar dissolved in two tumblers of water differs in \textit{degree} from the taste of the same dissolved in five. But the sensation of taste differs from the sensation of colour in \textit{quality}. The question is, How came man to know that there are any such things as a difference of degree, and a difference of quality? and, \textit{lastly}, How does he distinguish between these two? Here is an account of both on the dislodgment theory, which will render its futility very plain:

Whenever molecular energy is dislodged at the conscious centres of the brain, consciousness is the result. Now on this hypothesis, consciousness of differences in degree results from the disengagement of greater or less quantity of molecular energy from the same centres of the brain. Differences of quality, which objectively arise from sensation being transferred from distinct separate extremities, or, organs, through different channels, will be subjectively consciousness on this hypothesis, by the disengagement of molecular energy from different centres of the brain. Thus far, the explanation may proceed without error. But why should disengagement of molecular energy at one centre of the brain produce a consciousness qualitatively different from the consciousness produced by the disengagement of energy at another centre, still remains a problem.

Perhaps some would suggest that the chemical energy disengaged at different centres is disengaged by disintegration of atoms of different elements, or atoms of different compounds, and hence the different sensations experienced. But even if it be so, the question still remains the same. For, whether it be the energy disengaged by the decomposition of this compound or that, or by the setting free of the elements of this atom or that, the energy disengaged is energy still. And the only difference that we can conceive

* Alexander Bain: Senses and the Intellect.
between the energies disengaged at two different centres of the
brain, is the difference of quantity or degree, and not of quality, for,
energies disengaged are energies still. Hence, we should only be
conscious of difference of degree, even if molecular energy is dislodged
at different centres of the brain, an assertion which is against all
experience. We have shown how differences in quality cannot be
explained by the theory of disengagement of molecular energy. It is
at this stage that the physiological hypothesis remains at a stand-still
in reducing consciousness in terms of energy.

We have thus shown how all materialistic explanations fare. It
remains now to state the true objective inferences regarding Atmâ.
The first inference is from the structure of the nervous system with
which man is endowed and its connection with muscular movement.
The brain consists of collections of a grey matter, called brain-centres
from which proceed fine white silvery threads, called the nerves.
Some of these nerves, called the motor nerves, terminate in muscles,
which are appropriated for definite motions. The function of the
nerves is mainly that of a conducting medium like the telegraph wires.
The brain centres originate the influence that is sent through the
nerves to the muscles that obey the influence. This influence is called
the nervous current. Thus is the apparatus of movement constructed
in the human organism. Suppose, I desire to move my hand. At the
command of will, the proper brain centre yields forth the nervous
current which, travelling through the proper nerves, produces the
contraction of the desired muscle and forthwith moves the hand. This
working of the muscular and nervous system proves the existence of a
willing, controlling agent. A very fit parallel of this is the case of the
driver, turning by the exertion of his muscular power, the reins of the
horses that pull the carriage. The driver is the willing, controlling agent.
The hand of the driver that yields the impetus to the reins is the
proper brain centre that yields the nervous current to the nerves. The
reins are the nerves and the horse is the muscular organ which it is
desired to move. The Atmâ is, therefore, regarded as the rathi, the
driver of the body. This is the first inference.

The second inference is from the action of the lungs. There is in
the act of respiration, an inspiration, (a holding of the breath within),
and an expiration. In the act of inspiration, by the motion of proper
membranes, the air of the atmosphere passes within the lungs to
oxidize blood, convert carbon into carbonic acid and burn off other im-
purities. Says Manu:

द्रववते धमास्तानां धातुरणा हि यथा मलः।
तस्वेन्द्रियाणि द्रववते दोषः प्राणप्रय निर्घातः॥

The goldsmith by blowing strongly against a piece of impure gold
removes its impurities by oxidation. So a proper blowing of the lungs
produces the removal of all impurities of the body and the bodily organs by oxidation.

Hence this vitiated, chemically changed air, now laden with carbonic acid and other impurities, is further expelled by the act of expiration. This process is continually kept up, and thus, by the cyclic movement of expiration and inspiration, the body expels its waste matter, renovates its blood, derives strength and nourishment from the invisible elements of the air, and repairs losses and injuries. This process argues the existence of a blower. To make the inference clearer, let us take the case of a goldsmith or blacksmith blowing with his bellows air into the furnace against a piece of gold or iron; when the air is forced out of the bellows into the furnace, a certain muscular force has to be exerted. But it requires no exertion on the part of the smith to fill the bellows again with air. So with the lungs. The expiratory function is under the control of the will. But inspiration is a purely involuntary act. Hence it is clear that the structure of the lungs displays the activity of an agent that constantly blows the air out.

A similar inference may be drawn from the phenomena of winking. This function, too, like the lungs, is controllable by will, but even in its ordinary performance it is so exact and regular that it has been aptly compared to the movement of puppets at the hand of a skilled master. Winking may be artificially produced by touching the inner surface of the upper eyelid with anything solid, when the spasmodic flutter produced will most vividly bring out the notion of an interiorly residing hidden master, at whose command the flutter is produced, like the dance of the puppet, in the effort to remove any such foreign material.

The physiological phenomena of recuperation and growth are, above all, most suggestive. The spirit, in the process of the growth of the organism, builds up by its interior anatomy all parts of the body proportionately, repairs the injured parts, heals the wounds, and, more remarkable still, puts forth an intrinsic effort to shake off all disease and disturbance. This power of the spirit, as an architect, is well known and has given rise to such terms as the "conservative" powers, or "economy" of the human organism. A true appreciation of this fact has also given rise to a noble school of physicians who regard the human organism as a self-healing institution, the medicines occasionally given under this treatment being meant to assist nature and not to counteract disease. Concerning this physiological power and other allied functions of the human spirit, says a medical authority, "By Materialists it is said that digestion is caused by the action of a certain organic matter called pepsin in conjunction with several free acids called lactic, acetic, hydro-chloric. While the truth is, especially in mankind, the peristaltic movement in the alimentary channel like the
motion of the innumerable glands in the mucous membrane, and there-
fore digestion itself is caused independently of the many wondrous
cerebro-spinal centres, by the soul-principle acting through the fila-
ments of the sympathetic system, which is the residence and fulcrum
of the automatic instincts and especially of those vital self-intelligent
principles which flow from the ethers and essences in the constitution
of nature into similar substances in the spiritual organisation of man.
Hunger, therefore, is a universal voice of the soul in behalf of itself and
the dependent body; and digestion is an appropriation by the soul of
whatsoever is supplied for the upbuilding of both itself and body."

Lastly, the complicated relations into which the passive organs of
sense enter with the active vital organs, offer a most strong ground of
inference for the existence of Atmd. The colour or the smell of an
object soon recalls its taste, and the idea of its taste immediately
stimulates the tongue to secrete large quantities of saliva, as if in
readiness to eat the substance. It is, in fact, by this very process that
large quantities of saliva are obtained for experimental purposes from
the tongues of dogs by presenting to their sight delicious dishes of
the fleshy food, without actually allowing the dogs, at least for the
time being, to partake of it. Such, indeed, is the complicated relation-
ship of the functions of the organs of sense and of the vital organs,
that serious diseases may be started up or caused by the associations
thus started up by a single perception. All these facts lead to the
inference of a central conscious being here called Atmd.
ISHOPANISHAT.

|| चौथम ||

ईश्वरायस्मिदं सर्वं यत्किंच जगत्यं जगत्।
तेन त्यक्तेन भुज्जोधा मा गृहं कर्त्य सिवनम् || 1 ||

1.—By one Supreme Ruler is this universe pervaded, even every world in the whole circle of Nature. Enjoy pure delight, O man, by abandoning all thoughts of this perishable world, and covet not the wealth of any creature existing.

कुवर्णानेवें कर्मलोकी जिज्ञासार्च्छलेव समाः।
एवं त्वय नान्येतोस्यति न कर्म लिप्यते नरे || 2 ||

2.—Aspire, then, O man, to live, by virtuous deeds, for a hundred years, in peace with thy neighbours. Thus alone, and not otherwise, will thy deeds not influence thee.

प्रसवयां नाम ते लोका प्रणिष्ठ तमसाष्टः।
तांस्य प्रेत्यापिगच्छति ये क्षे चात्मसहीवो जनाः || 3 ||

3.—To those regions where Evil Spirits dwell and utter darkness prevails, surely go, after death, all such men as destroy the purity of their own souls.

प्रेमज्ञे कर्मसि जायीयो नैनदेवा भापुवन् पूर्वसर्वं।
तदावायानन्त्व्यति लिप्यद्भरस्मन्यो मातरिवश्वा द्धाति || 4 ||

4.—There is one unchangeable, eternal, intelligent Spirit, even more vigorous than mind. Material senses cannot perceive Him. Therefore the sage withdraws his senses from their natural course and perceives the Supreme Being everywhere present.
5.—He moves all but Himself does not move. To the ignorant He is far, but to the wise He is at hand. He pervades inside and outside of all.

6.—"He who considers all beings as existing in the Supreme Spirit, and the Supreme Spirit as pervading all beings, cannot view with contempt any creature whatsoever."

7.—How can joy and sorrow overtake him who, through wisdom, perceives the Unitary Spirit as dwelling in all beings?

8.—"He overspreads all creatures. He is entirely Spirit without the form either of a minute body, or an extended one, which is liable to impression or organization. He is the ruler of the intellect, self-existent, pure, perfect, omniscient, and omnipresent. He has from all eternity been assigning to all creatures their respective purposes."

9.—"Miserable are they who worship ignorance; but far more miserable are they who arrogantly presume knowledge."
ISHOPANISHAT.

10.—Saints, wise and firm, assure us that ignorance, the life of senses, produces one result; and knowledge, the life of spirit, produces exactly the reverse.

11.—He, who realizes both, passes through physical dissolution by virtue of the life of senses, and enters into immortality by virtue of the life of spirit.

12.—Miserable are they who worship atoms as the efficient cause of the world; but far more miserable are they who worship the visible things made of atoms.

13.—Saints, wise and firm, assure us that the worship of atoms leads to one result, and that of things visible to the reverse.

14.—He, who realizes both, enjoys, after death which is the consequence of the worship of things visible, immortality, the fruit of the realization of divine power displayed in atmos.
Thou who givest sustenance to the world unveil that face of the true sun which is now hidden by a veil of golden light, so that we may see the truth and know our whole duty."

15.—O Sage of sages, Preserver, Ruler, Eternal Light, and Life of the creation! gather up Thy rays, so that I may be able to feel Thy glorious presence full of beatitude. This alone is my earnest prayer.

17.—The air shall sustain the immortal spiritual body, the gross one shall only last till cremation. O thou! who hast sown the seed of deeds, remember that the same thou shall reap.

18.—O All-wise Being! Thou art the source of knowledge. Inspire us with Thy wisdom, lead us to rectitude, and drive off our evil. To this end, we repeatedly praise Thee and adore.
ISHOPANISHAT.

EXPOSITION.

RELIGION, as society at present exists, has been grossly misconceived. Artificial prayers, consisting of set phrases, uttered almost unconsciously, or, at the best, in a state of semi-consciousness, by unfeeling hearts, who, in their lives and conduct, have betrayed inhuman vices, cruelty, uncontrollable passions, strong antipathies and inexcusable weaknesses; forced ceremonials, adopted through imitation, habit, fashion, custom, or fear of society; costly, useless, energy-wasting and time-consuming rituals; bold iniquities, that priests and leaders of sects have practised, establishing inequalities of men in the sight of Heaven; these and similar other absurdities have usurped the title of religion, and have inundated the world with an uncontrollable flood of misery, vice, crime, war and bloodshed. The countenance of religion has become completely disfigured by looks of mutual hatred and diabolical enmity, by freaks of vengeance and ambition, by anxiety-toned glare of selfish eyes, by anger-broken brow of intolerance, and by the dreadful pallour of falsehood-poisoned faculties.

Reason and faithfulness have been divorced from the entire domain of intellect. Religion has become synonymous with a mere profession of creeds or opinions. Mere faith has been substituted for living good lives and doing gracious deeds. Words have dethroned works. Superstition and mythology have dictated explanations of the mystery of the universe—explanations that are not less interesting, nor more true than the tales of Arabian Nights. Metaphysics has been driven to bear witness to the competency of the story-telling, lie-manufacturing machinery of these explanations. Guess and conjecture fill the room of exactness and certainty. Dreams have been entrusted upon society as facts. Imagination has been strained to yield forth supernatural theology, preternatural miracles and unnatural doctrines. Human nature has been vilified, insulted and stigmatized, as wholly depraved. Hope and expectation have been banished from the future. Eternal hell-flames and mighty engines of torture have been forged and imposed upon the people instead.

Many useful and noble faculties have been denied their privilege, others have been completely suppressed; whereas some have been
put to severe persecution and trying ordeal. The whole stock of energy has been consigned to bigotry and dogmatism. Such, in fact, has been the office of religion.

Many gifted intellects, endowed with clear heads, have perceived this ruinous character of religion, and have revolted at it. And such is the sad spectacle still presented that many minds do yet revolt at it, and feel an aversion towards religion which is highly prejudicial to the interests of progress and truth. The noble conceptions which true religion might have engendered, the joys that might have sprung therefrom, fertilizing and gardenizing the soil of life, are entire strangers to the necessarily sceptical honest, truth-seeking minds of present times.

Is not all this deplorable? Is nothing better possible? Are we to be set adrift on the ocean of uncertain, yet honest scepticism? Is the mystery of life really insoluble? Perhaps, it is not given to man to understand the nature of things! If it be so, life would be a sad spectacle indeed; pains and miseries of this world would be simply unbearable.

Fortunately, however, the above is attributable to human ignorance of true religion. True religion is free from all artificiality and fabrication. True religion is not merely an oral profession. It is no mythology. It is a living essence. It is highly practical. It is founded on entire truth. It takes for its basis the harmonious development of all the faculties, the righteous unfolding of all our capabilities of knowing and being.

Religion, true religion, consists in living a life in Divinity; for,

"There's a Divinity that shapes our ends,

"Rough-hew them how we will."

To realize the existence of this Divinity and to feel its presence everywhere and at every time with us, is the first lesson to be learnt in religion. The conception that Nature, with her immutable laws and inexhaustible energies, with her infinity of forms and phenomena—is not an edifice of "chance," but has the positive fact of an Ever-Active and Moving Principle diffused throughout Nature for its basis, is the beginning of religion. When one has realized this, and, in the joyous depths of his consciousness, can exclaim, "BY ONE SUPREME RULER IS THIS UNIVERSE PERVADED, EVEN EVERY WORLD IN THE WHOLE CIRCLE OF NATURE," he is then fit to take a step further, and learn the lesson of individual reformation. But the lesson of individual reformation is never received till man has learnt to penetrate through the fleeting forms and phenomena of Nature to Nature's God.
Nature widely spreads her evanescent charms and fleeting beauties everywhere. Man is easily misled by her alluring attractions and wild enchantments to forget the Everlasting, Eternal God that resides in the interior of, and pervades each of, her ephemeral productions. The human mind, when as yet undeveloped and unrefined is soon held in captivity by the bondage of sensuous phenomena of the world. The gorgeous display of riches and wealth, the pompous show of rank and dignity, the luxuriant abundance of opulence, the licentious sensualisms of ease and affluence, not unoften unbalance the young unsophisticated mind, and merge him into a sea of worldly ambitions, and expose him to the earthly anxieties of Envy, Passion, Jealousy, Hatred and Vice. Not seldom is man thus blinded to the interests of his everlasting life; and the true delight that ever enters the bosom of a devotee, who, while holding himself aloof from the affections of this phenomenal world, contemplates the All-pervading God of the Universe in His bounteous dispensation throughout Nature, is thus a stranger to him. Man, consequently, requires to be reminded that this world is a fleeting show, that the pleasures of senses are never permanent, that an earthly life is an unweedy garden that never grows to seed, and that empty titles, names and honors, reaped in this world, will not last long. It is wrong to hold out our affections for things perishable. The Eternal, the Everlasting should engage our attention, draw our affections, absorb our interest, and excite our aspirations, for, then alone, is true delight possible.

Wouldst thou, O man, flee from the evils of this world, from the glamour of earthly pomp and deception? Wouldst thou get rid of envy, passion, jealousy and hatred? Wouldst thou be released from the restraints, burdens, cares and anxieties of earthly bondage? Dost thou seek for the pure, everlasting enjoyment of peace and happiness? Then, "ENJOY PURE DELIGHT, O MAN, BY ABANDONING ALL THOUGHTS OF THIS PERISHABLE WORLD."

When thus conceived, what a blessing is religion, pure religion! Its lessons are full of wise and useful teachings. Led from Nature to Nature’s God, we learn to contemplate the perishableness of this world and dislodge our affections for it. When thus fitted, we are able to take a step further; and that leads directly to individual reformation, which essentially depends upon the perception of justice, a principle deepest engrained in human nature.

There is a Deific Essence that rules and governs all by a general wise providence, intended for the highest good of all. This universal providence enlivens the minutest atom as well as the largest sun, and fits the one and the other each for its respective mission which is the highest good of all. A realisation of this providence working for the highest good of all, and a sympathetic vibration with the pulsations of this providence constitutes a true perception of the principle.
The highest good of all being the object, the wondrous system of Nature is the Divine Institution fulfilling this mission in a truly wondrous and sublime manner. Its eternal, immutable, unchangeable laws are the Divine code of perfect legislation, breathings from the essence of the Deity, modes in which He eternally lives, rules, and governs all. He keeps no vigilant, watchful, designing, conspiring, and often-times dishonest, corruptible police to keep a record of each one's doings; and to superintend his actions, lest they disturb the general peace of His subjects. The Divine Institution is not susceptible of such weaknesses. Each one's memory is his infallible record-keeper, whereas the sensible organisation that apprises each of pleasure and pain, is the omnipresent police whose mission is not to punish but to teach lessons and to reform. There are no courts where law suits are decided; but social feelings, affections and other emotions are the interior chambers of the mind, where Reason sits on the throne of perpetual judgment. This is the universal machinery employed in the Institution of Nature. And its object being the highest good of all, it is so regulated that the personal good of each, on the whole, consists in the good of all. The eternal and immutable laws of Nature, consequently, recognize no special obligations, no individual isolated rights, and are no respecters of persons. One way the whole current of Nature flows—The Common Weal. No violation of this common course is possible without involving the transgressor in the consequences of his transgression—consequences by virtue of which he is thrown off from the common course, for a moment, to leave the general current undisturbed, to get himself purified, rectified, and resigned, if not willing to be subservient to the interests of the universal whole.

The law of justice, that keeps each being in peaceful relations with his neighbour, and dictates to him the standard of purity of his own soul, also enjoins upon him the self-chosen and pleasing duty of living in peace with his neighbours, and in tune with the external world. The destruction of this equilibrium is what constitutes discord, disease, misery, war and destruction. Should any individual, therefore, attempt to disturb the general peace, the indispensable consequences of this transgression will inevitably devolve themselves upon him. But far different is the case of one who consciously and wilfully adopts the career that Providence has designed and regulated for all. His path, though difficult in the beginning, leads straight to individual happiness and social welfare. His is a path of peace and tranquillity. No envious heart-burn, no exhausting emulation, no feeling of contempt or disgust, no despair or disappointment, no discontentment with his environments ever prompts him to swerve from the righteous course and spoil the temple of his personal health and individual existence. On the contrary, his social and fraternal feelings are saturated to satiation, his disinterested nature uplifts him above ordinary persecution on one hand and selfishness on the other, his reason is unclouded,
and his will pure and undefiled. For, let man once comprehend that there is a wise Providence that regulates the affairs of the boundless universes around us by the ordinance of general laws, let him once to his satisfaction understand, comprehend and know these general laws, and feel the existence of this Providence in the depths of his heart fully enough never to forget it for a single moment in his life, let him once enter this condition, and he will feel the unity of his spirit with that of others. He will find himself in tune with all others. Then will arise a perception of true brotherhood with mankind, for it will be seen that our delight consists in making others delighted, our happiness in making others happy.

It is this perception of universal justice (which regards all mankind as one brotherhood and impels man to seek the harmonization of his interest with duty, lest, in not doing so, he may transgress the motion of natural currents that lead to general good), that can keep one willingly and delightfully from infringing upon the rights and liberties of others. Thus alone, when in accord with the maxims of universal justice, can he truthfully exclaim "COVET NOT THE WEALTH OF ANY CREATURE EXISTING." Only then, and not till then, is true individual reformation possible.

Religious progress, however, does by no means end here. Merely to keep one's self aloof from the tumults of this earthly life, to remain, as it were, unimpressed by the fleeting show and vanity of this world, or, lastly, to abstain from infringing upon the rights and liberties of others, is but the negative or prohibitive side of religion, with which even sinful indolence, coldest indifference, conniving reticence, and an abettor's silence are compatible. Religion is too positive to be restricted to these mere prohibitive duties. The wondrous organization of man endowed with potent energies and vivacious capabilities, has some more imperative demands, points out to the existence of some higher ends, and cannot be silenced by the dicta of mere prohibitive morality. For purposes of mere peaceful enjoyment; never in conflict with the enjoyments of others, a passive organization would have been quite enough. But man possesses active powers, innate energies, and stirring elements: and all these are not in vain. They beckon him towards the constant application and energetic employment of all his bodily and mental powers for the glorious end of achieving peace and happiness for himself and his neighbours. Activity and not sluggishness is the law of Nature. Animate and inanimate Nature, both, is full of lively energy and restless animation. Nothing is idle. The ant is ever busy, the earth we live upon ever whirls round and round, the plants and trees are ever employed in their growth, the air is always circulating and the waters are always bubbling and flowing! Look round and say, what religion does Nature enjoin, what lessons does it widely outspread? Everywhere in the domain of Nature, the inherent forces are ever busy in manifesting their presence.
Nature enjoins but one religion, and that is Action, incessant, untiring, powerful, energetic Action,—for good, for glory, for health and for happiness of Each and All. “ASPIRE, THEN O MAN, TO LIVE IN VIRTUOUS DEEDS, FOR A HUNDRED YEARS, IN PEACE WITH THY NEIGHBOURS. THUS ALONE, AND NOT OTHERWISE, WILL THY DEEDS NOT CONTAMINATE THEE.”

To one who leads a life of incessant useful activity, how beautiful is the universe! It is a rich mine of happiness that only requires digging down and taking possession of. And what are human faculties to him? Speech with its power to soothe and to bless, music with its power to calm and to refresh, affections with their mainsprings to elevate and to support, and thoughts with their wings to take the loftiest flights and to soar; these and other faculties are full of hidden beauties. Each organ is pure and holy, as its mission is noble and sublime. Can one admire this beauty of the human system, appreciate it at its worth, comprehend its holiness, desire its purity and still remain disagreeable, discordant and deformed himself? No, he is too alive to the beauties of internal purity and the lustre of inward holiness, ever to linger in the darkness of filthy sensualism or hell of moral decrepitude. Purity of motives, holiness of deeds and loveliness of lives are the internal beauties that he prizes most, and values above all. He cannot degrade himself by destroying this internal beauty, for, he is alive to the truth that “TO THOSE REGIONS WHERE EVIL SPIRITS DWELL AND UTTER DARKNESS PREVAILS SURELY GO AFTER DEATH ALL SUCH MEN AS DESTROY THE PURITY OF THEIR OWN SOULS.” He is rather filled with joy at the glorious capabilities of his existence and at the priceless gift of life, is inspired with gratefulness for His endowment of reason, and moved to thanksgiving for the possession of his moral nature. His spirit is moved with gratitude towards Him who pervades all immensity, animates the orbs of heaven and the worms of earth, and destinies them for ceaseless action for millenniums to come. Where is there an object in the unfolded universe, that does not inspire the grateful mind to sing praises of Him who reigns supreme everywhere, showering beauties and blessings around? In due acknowledgement of our gratefulness and our dependence upon Him, our souls rise in worshipful attitude towards Him, who is “ONE UNCHANGEABLE, ETERNAL, INTELLIGENT SPIRIT, EVEN MORE VIGOROUS THAN MIND.” It is true that “Material senses cannot perceive Him,” but the heart bends in homage, ever grateful for the beauteous gifts of providence. Flavours, odors, colors, sounds and other external impressions may affect the externally-minded man and render him forgetful of the source from whom all these flow, but one in whose spirit beauty blooms, and gratitude rises with fragrant incense of
And this TELLECT, URES FROM AND OR SPIRIT, moved those BEINGS."

When nor VIEW REME tal jealousies family. lighted breath the one exist, Providence, no discords pervades He the that strife, and the world worldly-minded, strife, and in the quiet of his mind, he perceives the Supreme Being that MOVES ALL BUT HIMSELF DOES NOT MOVE. Yes, to the worldly-minded, passion-stricken, ignorance-ridden individuals, He may be far, But TO THE WISE HE IS AT HAND," for, "He pervades inside and outside of ALL." For a mind thus moved with the spirit of gratefulness, discord, discontent and disturbance exist no more. For, what are jealousy, hatred, envy, contempt and other discords but different forms of antipathy? And how can antipathy exist, when one has realised for all mankind a common destiny, when one perceives each spirit moved by kindred influences of the same Providence, each item of the vast universe animated by the same breath and each individual heart flaming with identical heaven-lighted fires. All differences melt away. Human kind is one family. All are brothers. There are no enmities, no rivalries, no jealousies and no oppositions. Under the patronage of such a mental exaltation, one is delightfully led to consider "ALL BEINGS AS EXISTING IN THE SUPREME SPIRIT AND THE SUPREME SPIRIT AS PERVADING ALL BEINGS," and "CANNOT VIEW WITH CONTEMPT ANY CREATURE WHATSOEVER;" nor can "joy and sorrow overtake him," for, he perceives through His wisdom "the UNITARY SPIRIT THAT DWELLS IN ALL BEINGS."

Reverence, admiration and love are the only feelings that actuate him whose perception extends to the Unitary Spirit of the universe. When one reflects, how one is moved with reverence even towards those surperiorly endowed individuals, who, though superior, are fallible, finite, liable to pain, ignorance, disappointment, weakness and their consequences, it ceases to be a wonder that he should be moved with greater respect, admiration and reverence towards Him who "OVERSPREADS ALL CREATURES, IS ENTIRELY SPIRIT, WITHOUT FORM, EITHER OF A MINUTE BODY OR AN EXTENDED ONE, WHICH IS LIABLE TO IMPRESSION OR ORGANISATION." "WHO IS THE RULER OF THE INTELLECT, SELF-EXISTENT, PURE, PERFECT, OMNISCIENT AND OMNIpresent,"—THE KIND FATHER "WHO HAS FROM ALL ETERNITY BEEN ASSIGNING TO ALL CREATURES THEIR RESPECTIVE PURPOSES."

Blessed are they who enjoy the knowledge of this Divinity, this Omnipresent Providence. Excessive joy dwells in the conscious
depths of those who feel the presence of this Great Reality. Life is a rich luxury, an immanent blessing, an eternity of enjoyment and growth. Death is swallowed up in victory. But miserable are they who are tied within the meshes of ignorance all around. Insensible of this Great Reality of the universe, can ignorance go further? See what a wreck it makes. There is nothing more hideous than ignorance. It has been truly said that when man only once becomes conscious of his ignorance, it is simply unbearable. Wisdom, therefore, begins with the consciousness of ignorance. The wise Socrates was right, assuredly right, when he said, "I only know that I know nothing." All discord springs out of ignorance. See what a hideous picture it presents. Says immortal Pātanjali:

"चन्द्रायुणिः खानालम्बन नित्येशुचिं खातमकष्ट्यातिर्विद्या"

'Fourfold is the fearful power of ignorance. It leads its pitiable victim, in the first place, to conclude that this visible, audible universe, the very elements of which are given to decomposition and decay, shall last for ever, that this gross physical body, this mortal coil, is the only thing that lasts after death. In the second place, it leads him to the horribly erroneous conviction that female beauty,—beauty which has been styled by some philosophers as a silent cheat, practice of falsehood, theft and the like, the very essence of which breathes filth and impurity are enjoyments pure and desirable. In the third place, it plunges him into that ocean of pain and misery, the sea of passions and sensualities, in the gratification of which the blind victim of Ignorance imagines the acquisition of pleasure and of happiness. Fourthly and lastly, the victim of Ignorance has no conception of soul and spirit. To him there is no soul beyond this material, ponderable, visible substance." Such is ignorance, and as such it may truly be called the life of senses, for, what is it but a recognition of no happiness beyond sensual pleasures, of no life beyond that of senses, and of no world beyond the sensible one? Surely "MISERABLE ARE THEY WHO WORSHIP IGNORANCE; BUT FAR MORE MISERABLE ARE THEY WHO ARROGANTLY PRESUME KNOWLEDGE." For, he is not wise who presumes to know more; who claims to carry a pile of books in his brain; or a thick cluster of words and phrases in his memory; or a shower of sarcastic vocabulary in his tongue; or a borrowed magazine of that stuff (which is so useful for purposes of victory in intellectual warfare, commonly known by the name of arguments) in his promiscuous store-house, called the mind. Wise is rather he who feels nobly, thinks nobly, lives nobly and ACTS NOBLY. The difference between wisdom and ignorance is the difference of opposites. Wisdom is life perpetual, happiness eternal, and peace for ever. Ignorance is all the misery, all the crime, all the sickness, all the evil, that exists in this world. The difference between Wisdom and Ignorance is all the difference that is possible in this world. They
were not wrong who proclaimed "THAT IGNORANCE, THE LIFE OF SENSES, PRODUCES ONE RESULT; AND KNOWLEDGE, THE LIFE OF SPIRIT, PRODUCES EXACTLY THE REVERSE."

But blessed is the wise man who gets good out of evil and nectar out of poison. For a wise man the very senses have a sacred function to perform. This is the function of कर्मोपासना (Karmopā-sana),—that well-ordered, righteously regulated religious life which leads to emancipation from bondage, from sins, from misery and from death. Yes, wisdom extracts discipline out of senses, righteousness out of passions, elevation out of affections, emancipation out of ignorance, and yields forth as its fruit everlasting bliss and immortality. Of such, has it been said, "HE WHO REALIZES BOTH, PASSES THROUGH PHYSICAL DISSOLUTION BY VIRTUE OF THE LIFE OF SENSES, AND ENTERS INTO IMMORTALITY BY VIRTUE OF THE LIFE OF SPIRIT."

Many are the victims of Ignorance, and direful are the forms it assumes. One of them is what may, for want of a better name, be called scientific atheism. This is a belief in the omnipotence of atoms. The externally-minded scientific man, whose mind is replete with conceptions of matter and motion, with dynamical and mechanical explanations, ever true to his instinct of never believing any thing except on the testimony of his senses, begins the task of crude analysis. He dissects organised structures, nerves, muscles and tissues, and re-dissects, but throughout all the labyrinths of the brain, all the complicated network of veins and arteries, he finds no trace of an intelligent God, all is motion or matter in motion. He begins his physiological researches and ends in chemical and nervous action everywhere. Again he leaves the organic department of nature, and analyzes and decomposes, and again analyzes and decomposes each solid and liquid and gas, now in a crucible, then in a retort, now by means of heat, and then by means of electricity, here with reagents, and there with reactions, but meets everywhere with atoms, their affinities and their valencies, but nowhere with God. On the positive evidence of direct observation, and from the infallible platform of personal experience, with his head raised in the proud majesty of knowledge, and his spine straightened with the nervous energy of natural forces, he bids farewell, a last farewell to the barbaric dogma of a belief in the existence of an intelligent, all-pervading, all-moving principle. His belief in the potency of atoms is boundless. They are unanalyzable, undecomposable, simple monads, uncreated and eternal in their existence, endowed (not by anything else, but naturally through necessity of existence) with inconceivable motions. In the vast chaotic operation of these atomic forces, specific atoms met through accident and selection, united together, assumed a temporary organi-
zation, exhibiting signs of breathing conscious life. This germ of life, on account of wholly unexpected and incomprehensible circumstances, under favorable conditions, (favorable through chance or selection) propagated itself and multiplied. Great was the struggle for existence then raging. Many fortunately organized beings were, in the course of this struggle, again hurled back into the atomic chaos whence they sprung. This is extinction. But some fortunate organizations (fortunate, not through merit or desert, nor through design, but fortunate somehow) survived this diresome catastrophe, and prospered. Their organization modified and developed new organs, and remodeled and redeveloped, till man appeared on the stage. Now man, this man, the product of fortuitous combination of atoms, with his heated brain, exudes entirely unsupported doctrines of immortality and Providence. Can a sensible man believe such dogmas? Vain are thy efforts, O theologian! to construct an edifice of religion on the foundation of sand. Human race, as a race, may, for long ages to come, survive, but individual man shall only go back to the vile dust from whence he sprung.

Such is scientific atheism. All is uncertain and unreliable. Life is but an accidental spark produced by the friction of mighty wheels, the blind whirling motion of which constitutes the phenomena of the universe. There is no hope of futurity, no consolation for oppressed virtue or disappointed justice, hereafter. A natural result of which is that the worshipper of omnipotent atoms, dashed headlong into a sea of unrighteousness and immorality, tramples all justice without a pang; suppresses all virtue without a sigh, and over the wreck of all that is noble and elevating in human nature builds his philosophy of desperate-ism. He is desperate in his actions, desperate in his feelings. Or perchance his is a philosophy of resignation. Desperate or resigned, there are the signs of brutal violence to human nobility rendered, and as is the case of all violence rendered to human nature, the subject is agitated, disturbed, listless, melancholy, petrified or simply unconscious of himself. Miserable, though, is this extreme form of scientific atheism, there is a softened form of it, however, which is compatible with a certain and a very high degree of morality. For, there is in the scientific atheist, a strong belief at least, in the unchangeable, and immutable nature of laws, or of the order of Nature. He is not superstitious. In the world of effects, at least, he is a master. Miserable and disturbed as his life of the interior may be, his external life is, no doubt, a complete success. But far different is the case of one who, through superstitious ignorance, neither has any conception of the Intelligent Ruler of the universe, nor a definite conception of any law or order in the universe, but substitutes for the ennobling belief of a monotheist or the natural dependence of an atheist, a mean, grovelling or debasing worship of elements like earth, or of objects like stones and trees, or
even of bodies of men. Of such degrading and debasing forms of theism, the world is full. There is the homotheism (man-worship) of the Christians, the Loco—theism of the Mahomedans, the idolatry of the pagans, the pantheism of the Vedantis, and the polytheism of the Hindus; and all bigotry, dogmatism, sectarianism, intolerance and fanaticism of which the world’s history is so full, is wholly attributable to, and is a standing evidence of, the miserably degenerated condition of the people at large. Incalculable are the evils that flow from the worship of things visible. Truly has it been said, "MISERABLE ARE THEY WHO WORSHIP ATOMS AS THE EFFICIENT CAUSE OF THE WORLD, BUT FAR MORE MISERABLE ARE THEY WHO WORSHIP THE VISIBLE THINGS MADE OF ATOMS.

Leading, as they do, to widely differing results, scientific atheism and various forms of worship of things visible are capable of a use to which wisdom puts them, when they are no more those disgusting things that they were. The mighty hand of wisdom extracts out of things visible that sense-education and useful application which is the primary basis or the granite-foundation of all interior development. Man’s life-term is thus converted into a pleasant, instructive, invigorating, power-awakening journey that leads through the invisible portals of death to calm eternal. Not alone is the visible material of the universe thus converted into a rich, useful store for future, but the invisible undecomposable atoms also are, by the touch of wisdom’s hand, seen to be the seat of the power of the Almighty Maker. Atoms are but the vehicle through which the Lord Divine sends forth everlasting energy and life into the visible. Thus "HE WHO REALISES BOTH, ENJOYS, AFTER DEATH WHICH IS THE CONSEQUENCE OF THE WORSHIP OF THINGS VISIBLE, IMMORTALITY, THE FRUIT OF THE REALIZATION OF THE DIVINE POWER DISPLAYED IN ATOMS."

Here let us pause, and take a survey of the great eminence to which we have ascended. There is God, the Supreme Ruler of the universe, pervading in all, distributing justice for all, and assigning for each and all, their respective mission. Here is man endowed with potent, active faculties, energetic capabilities, and all-achieving powers, adequate to fulfill the mission to him assigned; and here is a glorious, beauteous universe, so attractive, so useful, so beautiful, so harmonious that the heart rises in utter gratitude to the Great Dispenser of all gifts, "O THOU WHO GIVEST SUSTENANCE TO THE WORLD, UNVEIL THAT FACE OF THE TRUE SUN WHICH IS NOW HIDDEN, BY A VEIL OF GOLDEN LIGHT, SO THAT WE MAY SEE THE TRUTH AND KNOW OUR WHOLE DUTY." O PRESERVER, SAGE OF SAGES, RULER, ETERNAL LIGHT, LIFE OF THE CREATION! GATHER UP THY RAYS, SO THAT I MAY BE ABLE TO FEEL THY
GLORIOUS PRESENCE FULL OF BEATITUDE. THIS ALONE IS MY EARNEST PRAYER. Wonderful is the immortal life Thou bestowest, and wonderful the justice Thou dealest. Sublime is the process by which the immortal spiritual body (मूकम शरीर) is raised out of the gross physical one and supported. For, even after death, Thou peoplest us in a world, the enjoyments of which are the fruits of the very seeds that here with our deeds we have sown.

"O ALL-WISE BEING! THOU ART THE SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE, inspire US WITH THY wisdom, LEAD US TO RECTITUDE, AND DRIVE OFF OUR EVIL. To this end, WE repeatedly PRAISE THEE AND ADORE.

षोभ्यम्
MANDUKYOPANISHAT.

"OM" is the name of the Eternal and Omnipresent Spirit. The Vedas and Shastras, and even the whole universe, when understood, declare the nature and attributes of the same Being. He, Om, encompasses the past, the present and the future, and is perfect. He encompasses even what the past, the present and the future do not comprise.

Notes—I. Akshara has been translated into 'eternal and omnipresent.' See Mahabhāṣya, Pāṇini’s Commentary, 2nd A’hniika, on the Seventh Shiva Sutra. Says Pāṇini:—

- or, akshara is that which does not decay, decompose, move or change; also, akshara (from the root ash and unadi suffix saran) means that which is all-pervading. Hence 'eternal and omnipresent.'

Swāmī Dayānanda translates the passage thus in his Introduction to the Vedas, (Rigveddī Bhāṣya Bhāmika), p. 44, lines 21—25.

Our rendering of Bhūtam, Bha wat and Bhavishyat is that of substantives, meaning 'God encompassing the past, God encompassing the present and God encompassing the future, unlike the ordinary meaning of mere adjectives, meaning past, present and future, qualifying the word Sarvam. Also, we have translated Sarvam as perfect. For reasons, see Nirukta, Parishūṣha, 14th Chapter, 13th and 14th Kāndas, where bhūta, bha wat, bhavishyat and sarvam are given as names of God or Atma.
2. He is the Great God, perfect in all. He who pervades my soul is the Supernal Soul of Nature. The phases of His existence are four in number.

3. The first phase is the wakeful phase. In this phase, God is manifest as diffused in external nature; causing incessant interaction among the seven parts that constitute the organisation of the Universe; determining the disposition of the nineteen organs of thought and correlation, that enable organisms to seek their enjoyments in gross palpable matter; and regulating, with precision and order, the physical motions of the Universe.

II.—Atma—"the Supernal Soul that pervades."

Swami Dayananda translates the passage, "च्यमात्मा ब्रह्म" (one of the well-known mahavakyas of Neo-vedantins) in the SATTYARTHA PRAKASHA, 3rd Edition, p. 195, line 26, thus:—

"च्यमात्मा ब्रह्म" अथात् समाधिः दशा में जव योगी को परमेश्वर प्रत्येक होता है तव वह वह जी कि यह जी मेरे में व्यापक है वही ब्रह्म सर्व व्यापक है।

Pad—phase of existence (from the root pad, which, means gati).

III.—Saptanga—seven parts of the organisation, (1) Head, (2) Eyes, (3) Ears, (4) Organ of Speech, (5) Organ of Respiration, (6) Heart, (7) Feet. They are also sometimes slightly differently enumerated. Explanation to follow.

एकोनविशेषति मुखः—Nineteen internal organs of thought and correlation. They are the 5 organs of senses, i.e., of hearing, touching, tasting, smelling and seeing; 5 organs of motion, i.e., hands,
4. The second phase is the contemplative phase. In this phase, God is viewed as living in the interior design that fixes the relation of the seven parts to each other, or adapts the nineteen functions of correlation to the purposes in view, thus interlinking the several ideas that constitute the design, and giving to the Universe an invisible but interior organisation.

feet, reproductive organ, organ of excretion and organ of speech; 5 prānas, or vital nervauric energies, i.e., prāna that, in the act of respiration, forces the air into the lungs; apāna that produces motion from inside outwards; samāna that circulates the blood from the heart throughout the system; uḍāna that stimulates the glossopharyngeal nerves and moves the muscles near the throat to draw in food and drink, and vyāna that produces motion in all parts of the body, (See Satyarthapraṇakha, p. 242, lines 15—18); Manas, or organ of will and desire; Buddhi, or organ of thought; Chitta, or organ of memory; Ahankāra, or organ of individuality.

Vaishvānara has been here translated into God ‘manifest as diffused,’ or ‘causing incessant interaction,’ or ‘determining the disposition’ of organs; or ‘regulating the motions’ of the Universe. Yāska thus says of Vaishvānara, वैश्वानरः कस्मात्खिलवान नरानु नयति बिश्व एवं नरा नयन्तिति बापिः व विश्वानर एव स्यात्प्रयृतः सुवीर्ष्य भूतानि || Nir. VII, 21.

Which means:—Vaishvānara is He who controls and directs all beings, towards whom all beings are led, or who is himself Vaishvānara, i.e., One residing in all things and moving them.

IV.—स्वप्नं स्यानः has been translated into ‘contemplative phase,’ for, in dream, ordinarily called swapna, it is only the mind that is active, not discriminating between things and their thought. Hence, the only realities then present before the mind are its own thoughts. It is in this respect that swapnasthāna has been translated into the “contemplative phase.”

Concerning the words taijasa and prajna, occurring in the next passage, Yāska remarks, Nirukta, XII. 37—प्राचार्यचात्मालेजस-चेष्त्यात्ममतिमांच्छेदः” The words prajna and taijasa signify two modes of existence of Atma.
5. When the human soul reposes in sound slumber, suspending all voluntary functions, neither willing, nor desiring, nor dreaming, he is said to be sushupta, or in the slumbering condition. The third phase is the slumbering phase, where, like the human soul that is folded within itself, God is viewed as himself, an Embodiment of all ideas and principles, Himself all delight, enjoying but delight, only manifest in His consciousness, and endowed with the highest wisdom.

एव सर्वेऽवर एव सर्वं एवो न्यत्तथावस्यः
योऽनि: सर्वं ययथाययश्च न्यस्तानाम्

6. Such is the Ruler of all, the Omniscient Principle, even the Controller of life interior, from whom has proceeded all, the Source and Resort of all beings.

नान्तः प्रज्ञः न विङ्खः प्रज्ञः न नोयतः प्रज्ञः न प्रज्ञासाहनं न प्रज्ञः नप्रज्ञः
प्रज्ञः मूर्तत्वम् भवः प्रज्ञः मूर्त्तिः प्रज्ञः न नोयतः प्रज्ञः न प्रज्ञासाहनं
प्रज्ञः मूर्तः सत्तः सत्त्वसुतः च चतुः सत्त्वते स श्रायतः स विन्द्यः

7. View Him neither as designing interiorly, nor as diffused throughout external nature, nor in the tansitional

V.—The meaning of the word sushupta is very clear. It means sound sleep. The correspondence between the ordinary state, called sound sleep and what is here called slumbering condition, is the spontaneity and regularity of motion without the direct and wilful action of consciousness. Consider the state of a man in sound sleep. Although all volition is suspended, yet the involuntary functions are performed most regularly. The powers of volition seem to have become materialized or metamorphosed; hence Prajñāna ghanā, which literally means ‘intelligence solidified or embodied’; hence the translation “embodiment of ideas and principles.” (See Panini’s Ashtadhyayi, III. iii. 77, mūrtv ghanah. The root han assumes the form ghanā, when the meaning to be expressed is murti, or solidification or condensation).

VII.—Prapancha, the relative or the conditioned world, i. e., the phenomenal world from the root—पचि व्यक्तिकरण्य or, पचि विस्तार-वचने—pachi, to render sensible, or to develop in detail.

Ubhayatah prajnam refers to the state midway between waking and dreaming. The word नोयतः प्रज्ञः, or, as Shankara says, चन्तरालावश्य विद्यवाच्यः, is put to indicate that here we exclude also the state midway between both.
mood between both; neither emodiment of intelligence, nor fraught with volitional consciousness, nor devoid of consciousness; but as the Invisible, Unimpressible, Incomprehensible, Indefinable, Unthinkable, Unknowable Being, only Conscious of Self in Self, i.e., the Absolute, and the Unconditioned, with no trace of the relative or the conditioned world about Him, All calm, All-bliss, One and Only. This is the fourth or the essential mode of existence. This is the Atma, आत्मा, the Universal Spirit. He should be known.

8. Om is the most estimable name of the Eternal, Omnipresent, Universal Spirit, the modes of existence of this Spirit being truly represented by मृत्रas or the single letters, A, U, M, (च, अ, म) of which the monosyllable Om is made up.

9. A (च), the first मृत्रa, means the wakeful phase, or God diffused in external nature; for, च means that which is diffused throughout and is known in the first step. He, who realizes this mode of Divine existence, becomes gratified to the full measure of his desire and has taken the first step.

10. U (उ), the second मृत्रa, means the contemplative phase, or God living in interior design; for, उ means that which

VIII.—The word मृत्रa has been here given as meaning something that represents or estimates the value of another. See Uṇnādi Kosh, IV. 168 — हूँ मा भविष्यन्ति। or मातिति मात्रा मात्र वा, मृत्रa is that which measures, estimates or gives the value of, hence ‘represents.’

IX.—Here the मृत्रa A is shown as derivable from the root ap (apri vyaptau) to pervade, or as an abbreviated form of आदि, which literally means the very first step, hence the one who has taken the very first step, or only a zealous beginner.

X.—Here U is shown to be derivable from utkarsha or ubhaya; the former from kriṣha, to draw out an outline or mark, hence to design, and the latter meaning both.
designs, or does both, i. e., designs and executes. He, who realizes this mode of Divine existence, attracts wisdom towards himself and becomes harmonized. Never is in his family born an individual who can ignore the knowledge of the Divinity.

11. M (म), the third मात्र, means the slumbering phase, or God viewed in Himself; for, म means that which measures all, or is the resort of all. He, who realizes this mode of Divine existence, measures out (a) the whole knowledge of the Universe and retires unto Him.

12. The fourth is no मात्र, for, it represents the Unknowable, the Absolute, and the Unconditioned, without a trace of the relative or the conditioned world about Him. He, who realizes this, the true Atma, Omkàra passes from self into the Ruler of self, the Universal Spirit, i. e., obtains moksha, or salvation.

(a)—"That which measures all" means "that viewed in comparison with whose infinite power, the structure of the Universe is but finite and measurable."
Worship is the first act of pure religion. It is a spontaneous declaration of the inmost affections, as distinguished from the false worship of the churches, where every action is pre-determined instead of being spontaneous, where we have declamation instead of declaration, and pretended show of assumed seriousness instead of free play of inmost affections. Such is not true worship. True worship, on the other hand, is brimful of genuine feeling, profound attraction, and soul-absorbing meditation. True worship, as an outcome of pure religion, is deeply ingrained in human nature.

Folded within the depths of the human soul lies the germ of all religion. Every human being is endowed with a spiritual nature, a nature that lifts him towards all that is pure and holy, superior and attractive. Not only do the holiness of life, purity of motives, sublimity of thought, and nobility of character inspire us with the appropriate feelings of respect, regard, admiration or reverence, but our aspirations rise high towards the just, the true, the infinite and the divine. It is this part of our spiritual nature that is the foundation of all religion, endows us with the sentiment of reverence for all that leads to high and noble aspirations, and with the sentiment of humble gratitude for all that has contributed to our edification and elevation.

Like all other affections of the human mind, the religious affections are also capable of being misused, or of being perverted in their use. The religious sentiment, under the effect of excessive stimulation, may exaggerate or portray in brighter colours a simple truth, may over-estimate or unduly estimate the sanctity of an action, and, where the sovereign faculty of Reason is yet undeveloped, or but very weak, this over-estimation may develop into idolatry or superstitious reverence; or, on the other hand, where, through want of clear perception, or through want of interpenetration, the reasoning faculties are very active, but discerning faculties comparatively torpid, the consequence may be a sceptical, atheistic, or disrespectful temperament. But the elevation felt or pure liberty enjoyed will be exactly in proportion to the normal exercise of this faculty. Man, in his ignorance, often worships a false deity. Instead of the God of Nature, he worships a god of his imagination, a god of fashion, a god of popular sanction, or a god of his own feelings and ungratified desires. And what is the consequence? A life of superstition, unrighteousness, cruelty and injustice. A true mode of worship is, therefore, highly desirable; a mode of worship, not dictated by false religious education, or fashionable popular custom, but by the higher interests of spiritual nature and by the deepest penetration of Reason. This system of worship, it is the subject of Mandukyopanishat to furnish.
It enjoins the worship of the Supreme Deity alone, the Eternal Omnipresent Being, the Supernal Soul of Nature. For, what but a true conception, knowledge and realisation of the Universal Spirit, can be consistent with that overflowing, exultant, blissful attitude of the mind, otherwise designated as worship. The worship of the Eternal Being is the only worship that is inculcated in the Upanishats; and this Eternal Being is everywhere named Omkāra.

In Kathopanishat, II. 15., we read:

Om is the adorable Being, to the study of whom all life of brahmacharya is consecrated, or all practice of meditation devoted, and whose realization it is the object of the four Vedas to accomplish.

Or, in the words of Chhāndogya Upanishat चौमित्रेयस्य दृश्यम् महोऽपि—"Om is the Eternal, Omnipresent Being; He alone should be worshipped." Or, more explicitly still, in Mundakopanishat, II. ii. 5-6:

यस्मिन् दृश्यम् वर्णाचार्याकरणमिति ततः सभ्य प्राप्तेऽवः

He who interiorly and invisibly sustains the sun, the earth and the intervening space in their respective positions; even He, who sustains the life, the brain, the lungs and all the various senses, is the Unitary Interpervading Spirit. Try, O men! to know Him alone, and leave all other talk; for, He is the only principle that leads to immortality. (5). Just in the heart, where all the blood-vessels meet, very much like the spokes of a wheel meeting in the navel or the centre, resides the interiorly-governing Divine Spirit, manifesting His glory in ways multifarious. Contemplate Him, the Om, this interiorly-governing Spirit, for, thus alone can you reach, with safety, the blissful haven, far beyond the ignorance-begotten miseries of this troubled ocean of Life. (6).

What, then, constitutes the contemplation of Om? What is the process to worship Him? An answer to this question is furnished in Yoga Darshana. I. i. 27-28:

तस्य वाचनः प्रख्यः। तत्तजापस्तवं भवनम्॥ "Om is the inestimable name of the Supreme Being who is the Ruler of the Universe,
To recite this, His name, and to constantly recall to our mind its profound signification, this is the twofold process of meditation, called upāsnā." Vyasa, in his commentary on the two Sutras, remarks:—

"Om indicates the Ruler of the Universe. Is it by mere arbitrary convention, or by some natural process, just as light indicates the lamp or the source of light? Surely, the relation between the symbol Om and that of which it is a symbol, is not conventional but actual, and the symbol but expresses the actual relation. To take a parallel example, the relation between the father and the son is real. The relation really exists, even before we can express it in such terms as these. 'He is his father, and he his son.' Even in the cycles of creation to come, since words signify things not arbitrarily but by a fixed natural standard, the same symbol, Om, is made to express the same idea, because it is an established fact, with those who know Revelation, or those yogis who have realized what the relation between the signifying symbol and the thing signified is, that the words, their corresponding ideas, and the relation between them is eternal, or exists in nature, and not by human convention."*

"The recitation of Om, and the constant presentation before the mind of its signification, these are the two means of His upāsnā or worship. The yogi, who constantly does both, develops concentration, or, as has been elsewhere remarked, the aforesaid recitation and realization develop concentration, and concentration facilitates realization, till, by the continual action and re-action of both, the light of the Supreme Divinity begins to fully shine in the heart of the yogi."* Vyasa Bhāṣya, Sutras 27 and 28.

The recitation of Om and the constant presentation of its signification to the mind, being the two essentials of Divine worship, it is of the greatest importance to know what the significance of the Unitary Syllable Om is, for, the recitation is only preparatory to the presentation. We have only said that Om is the Eternal Omnipresent Spirit. This is by the way of indication. But we have not as yet any definite knowledge of the detailed significance of this syllable. It is, however, a very palpable fact that no word is so sacred in Vedic literature as Om. It is regarded as the essence of the Vedas, as the highest, the sublimest and the dearest name of the Supreme Deity, and is especially appropriated in upāsnā. No Vedic mantra is ever read without a previous recitation of the syllable, Om. It is not only

* Perhaps this truth will be more easily brought home to the sceptical reader of the nineteenth century if it were expressed in the words (to us, less acceptable, for, more indefinite), of Max Müller, who says, "They (the roots) are phonetic types, produced by a power inherent in human nature. They exist, as Plato would say, by nature: though with Plato we should add that when we say by nature, we mean by the hand of God."—Lectures on the Science of Language, 4th edition, London, page 402.
because Om is the most soft, melodious, and smoothly-flowing syllable in sound, nor merely because the letters composing Om spontaneously, and without education of any sort, escape the lips of the babe who is just beginning his vocal exercises, but because there is something deeper, dearer and diviner in its significance. It is true that, whereas other names of God are also names of things temporal, (for instance, the Sanskrit ishvara is also the name of a governor, even Brahma is also the name of the universal ether and of the Vedas, agni is, besides, the name of fire, and so on), Om is only the name of the Eternal, Omnipresent, Universal Spirit. That can only be a reason in behalf of its precision and definiteness of meaning, but hardly a reason for the extremely superlative importance that is attached to it. It is also true that Om is more comprehensive in meaning than any other term signifying God in Sanskrit, or, in other words, that it connotes a number of attributes that no other word or syllable singly does, but even that is of secondary importance. The deepest, and in truth, the highest reason is that the signification of Om is the key-note of the realization of the Divine Spirit. The several letters of Om, with unparalleled exactness, mark the successive steps of meditation by which one rises to the realization of the nature of Divinity.

The process of this realization is exactly the reverse of the process by which the mind acts on the external universe. If the latter be called evolution, i.e., folding out of the internal faculties of the mind, till they become externally manifest, the former should be called involution, i.e., folding the mind within itself, till the faculties that were working on the outer plane retire from outside and turn inside for more interior work. To take a familiar illustration, when an archer shoots a mark, he directs his attention from within outwards with his eye pointing towards the mark in the same straight line with the arrow, he stretches the bow and lets the arrow fly. This is how mind acts on things external. To pass within, to contemplate Divinity, he withdraws his senses from their outward course, and, when the outer activity of the mind is stopped, he passes, by gradual steps of reflection, embodied in the constituent letters of the syllable Om, to the more interior and, therefore, more perfect realization of the Divine Spirit.

Before we begin our exposition of the several letters composing Om, it will be useful to present a rough outline of the four planes of manifestation of mind's activity. The Divine Being is a spirit, and to realize this spirit we have to pass through its outer manifestations to the more and more interior ones, till the final cause, the Spirit, is reached. Perhaps, our understanding will be much facilitated by taking the analogous case of the working of the human spirit, although it must be remembered that an analogy is, at the best, an analogy, and not an exact coincidence.
Let us begin with the case of a watch-maker. He has made the watch, and the principles embodied in the watch are doing their actual work. The spring, the balance, the wheels, and other pieces of the machinery, all perform their respective appropriate functions, and the minute and hour hands regularly move on the dial. In fact, the skill, dexterity, and designing capacity of the watch-maker are not only embodied in, and stamped on, the watch, but the very material forces and mechanical principles, that the watch-maker had at his disposal, are actually living in the watch and manifesting themselves by the precision and regularity of motion of appropriate parts. This is the first, the most external and the most palpable manifestation of the watch-maker's skill. Thus the spirit outwardly stamps matter with its impress. This is what has been designated in the translation portion, "the WAKEFUL PHASE" or the externally manifest mode of spirit's existence.

But, secondly, the first watch-maker in the world, before he sat up to manufacture a watch, must have made an ideal watch, i.e., must have designed the watch. He must have previously known the principle or the fact of elasticity, its isochronism, the principle of transmission of motion by wheels and pinions, the principle of escapement, the frictional, elastic and other properties of steel, brass, iron, jewels, &c., and must have patiently and slowly elaborated in his mind a scheme of the application of all these principles, till a definite purpose could be served by them. He must have thought out the pros and cons of one arrangement and the other, and chosen one in preference to the other, till he finally settled upon a mentally perfect scheme of the watch. He must have mentally seen his ideal watch, thus slowly moving, thus ultimately stopping and requiring a winding for possibility of further movement. In short, the watch-maker must have drawn from the promiscuous store-house of his knowledge the necessary items of information, applied them properly, and, for a time, lived in the self-made design, before he was actually able to undertake the manufacture of a watch. This is what has been called "the CONTEMPLATIVE PHASE," or the designing mode of spirit's existence.

And yet, this is not all. There was a time, when no thought, not a trace of this design existed in the watchmaker's mind. His mind was a store-house filled with promiscuous information, not yet arranged or applied. And the principles embodied in the watch were not all he knew. Perhaps he knew much more about astronomy, physics, psychology, mathematics and æsthetics, perhaps about chemistry, medicine and ætiology. A merely fragmental part of his knowledge was brought to light and applied. Compared with the knowledge that was actually rendered useful, his whole information was encyclopedic. And yet, was he, all the while, conscious of the vast amount of massive information that he always carried about
himself? Surely not! In moments of bright recollection, or in moments of practical necessity, only fractional portions of his accumulated experiences were illuminated and called forth in conscious array before his mind; but the vast majority of his cognitions still slumbered as latent ideas, like congealed, solidified, incrusted bits, in the dead, calm, silent chambers of his brain or sensorium. Revocable at pleasure; they were the invisible guests of his mind, living for the most part in the back-ground, shaded from immediate recognition by the exquisite, dark veils of oblivion hanging over the chambers of memory. This condition has been denominated the "SLUMBERING PHASE," or the inactive mode of spirit's existence.

Beyond the wakeful phase, or the active manifestations of the mind as embodied in material things and phenomena, like phantasмагoria, projected from within the magic lantern outward on the specular screen; beyond the contemplative phase, or the energetic display of mental activities, now reconnoitering one group of ideas, then another, now selecting, then arranging, till, as in a dream, woven into a texture, stands before the mind the glowing picture of a marvellous painting, heretofore unconceived; beyond the slumbering phase, or the inactive repose of mental faculties, replete with tactual or sensual mentalities, impelled to remain by the omnipresent law of re-action, at an imperative rest, beyond these and behind these, removed far, far away from these phenomenal activities and passive modifications, resides the true reality, the substance spirit, the watchmaker in essence. This has been styled the "essential mode" of spirit's existence.

Let us, clearly conceive these four modes of spirit's existence, the Wakeful, the Contemplative, the Slumbering and the Essential. Man, in his life, repeats these modes of his spirit-existence every day. When it is broad daylight, and the human mind is fully awake, the eye perceiving colours, the ear hearing sounds, the nose smelling vapors, the tongue tasting fluids, and the body feeling solids, he lives a life in material objects. This is the Wakeful state. When the folds of darkness overtake the day, and 'the ploughman homeward plods his weary way,' when perhaps, the ignorant labourer tries to forget the severity of his toil in a cup of wine—the active world retires, and so does our model-man. Straight he stretches himself upon his bed. The eyelids close as with a superincumbent weight, and gradually the other senses give way, and our model-man has fallen into sleep. Perhaps he is dreaming. Suppose he is a student. The solid walls of his seminary have really dissolved from his view, for he is not waking. Without books, class-fellows, or companions, he is lying on his bed, solitary and alone. And yet he dreams. The examination-hall with its flocking candidates is painted before him, himself seated amidst them. The papers are distributed so to-day, so to-morrow, and so the day after
(all in the dream). Home he returns in anxious wait for the result, and lo! a paragraph in a Gazette, or a telegram from a friend, brings him the cheering news, or, perchance, the news of his failure. Wonderful are the mysteries of dreaming. This corresponds to the contemplative phase. Soon after the dream, or without a dream, he falls into a sound slumber. Where is that living voice, and that active brain? Where are those dreamy paintings? Have they vanished, melted into nothing, or been annihilated? Stored in the organisation, though invisible, lie the possibilities of their manifestations still, though now congealed and materialized, so to speak. This is the Slumbering state. How speedily flows the current of life. Day after day of wakeful activity passes away, night after night of disturbed or sound slumber is counted. And yet, amid these changing scenes, these veering manifestations, man preserves a sort of independence, his personal identity, because he is the Essential existence, to whom the aforesaid states are either accidents or non-involving influences.

Doubt not, gentle reader, but that the spirit exists in these four moods. The wakeful mood is the most exterior, the contemplative the more interior, the slumbering the more interior still, till we reach the innermost reality, the essential spirit. And so God’s spirit, which is diviner, holier, infinite far, essentially exists, as an embodiment of principles, designs and imparts life and vitality to all external nature. And the first glimpse of Divinity that is caught by the dry scientific mind is of the most external kind, in fact, derived from the adaptation of physical motions to one another, their regularity, precision, uniformity, and such other traits that the universe exhibits to a mind well-versed in the study of effects. After the mind has familiarized itself with this, there dawns a philosophical perception of the interior design of nature, with which perceptions the mind soars higher, till the design itself is found to be the outcome of constitutional and spontaneous tendencies of the Deity, called principles. Contemplating from the platform of these principles, the mind rises to the Fountain of all principles, the Essential Divinity, embodying all in One.

These being the successive steps through which the mind rises to the contemplation of the Eternal, Omnipresent Being, the syllable Om, which consists of three letters, A, U & M, or ओ, उ and म, is made the means of this contemplation; for ओ presents the wakeful phase, उ, the contemplative, and म, the slumbering phase, not merely mnemonically but by virtue of their inherent meaning. Hence the true devotee, in the recitation of Om, thinks of the three letters composing Om, dwells on the meaning and signification of each letter which represents one corresponding phase, and thus lives alternately in the order and regularity displayed in nature,
in the design moving nature, and in the principles spontaneously and naturally elaborating design. Since the very lowest phase, thus contemplated, involves but the highest generalization of the order of the universe, its contemplation is pre-eminently calculated to develop concentration, and concentration facilitates contemplation, so that ultimately, by the continued action and reaction of both, the light of the Supreme Divinity begins to fully shine in the heart of the yogi. Hence the words of Vyasa:

"स्वाध्यायायोगमासीत्योगाल्पस्वाध्यायमास्मान्।
स्वाध्यायोगसंपन्न्या परमात्मा प्रकाशते॥"

We come now to the explanation of the three letters च, द & म.

In contemplating the deep signification of च, the yogi holds before his mind the vast expanse of the universe, with its mighty orbs rolling in their magnificent splendour undisturbed through vacant paths, carving ethereal waves of unseen exquisite beauty in the ocean of infinity, and contemplates upon the grand meaning of the universe, for, in the words of the Upanishat, the mighty volume of nature is spread as a commentary on the nature and attributes of the Eternal Omnipresent Being. The universe appears to his illuminated vision as a vast organisation of definite parts. And such is the uniformity of plane in this organisation, that even the most distant orbs—whose light, emitted millions of years ago, carried out the speedy wings of ether at the unearthy rate of 180,000 miles per second, has not as yet been able to penetrate the atmosphere of our earth—yea, even orbs more distant are organized internally on the same plan on which the solar system, of which our earth is a part, is constructed. To contemplate the wise and intelligent structure of the universe, a structure even as perfect as that of the most highly developed being on earth, man, a structure as well endowed with a brain, stomach, the feet and the various other parts justly composing the wondrous organism of the macrocosm, let us turn our attention to the following sublime mantras of Atharva Veda (X-xxiii, 4,3 2—34) on the constitution of the universe as typically represented by our solar system:—

यस्य भूमिः प्रसांततिरिच्छुतमोदरम्। दिवं यशचक्रं मूर्तिः तस्मै भृष्टाय ब्रह्मणे नमः॥ यस्य सूर्यशुचिशुचन्द्रमांहारं पुनर्जयः। भृविनं यशचक्रं ब्रह्मण ॥
तस्मै घोषेत्वाय ब्रह्मणे नमः॥ यस्य वालं प्राणवं चापवो चचुरंगदीर्घीभवन्॥
दिशो यशचक्रं प्रजानीस्यस्मै भृष्टाय ब्रह्मणे नমः॥ चधवमेन काष्ठं १० ग्रों
२४ चन्द्र ० ४ मन्त्र ३२-३३-३४॥
'We approach (in our contemplations), with highest reverence, the Great Adorable Being, who has made this frame of the universe as a living demonstration of His existence, as a highly fitting lesson on His nature and attributes, and who has placed in this wondrous organisation (1) the sun with its luminous atmosphere as the brain, (2) the super-terrestrial space intervening between the sun and the earth as the stomach, and (3) the earth (typical of all planets) as the lower body, the feet. 'We adore the Great Being in whose creation (4) the sun and the moon are the two eyes, and (5) heat, the mouth. We adore the Great Being who has made (6) the atmospheres as the lungs, and (7) the directions of space as the organs of hearing. Let us adore Him, the Infinite Being, the Source of all wisdom.'

Here is displayed to the mind of the devotee the scheme of perfect organisation. For, is not the sun, with its atmosphere, the brain of this system? The brain in the human body, technically called the cerebrum and the cerebellum, is an organisation of sublimated elements, a battery of vital powers, the seat of nervous energy, the controller of all motions and functions of the body. And the sun too, like the brain, is a reservoir of sublimated elements, an infinitely powerful battery of magnetic, electric, optic, actinic, caloric and dynamic forces, the seat of combustible, vegetative energy, and of what has been called in geology by the technical name of sub-aerial denudation; the controller of all planetary and cometary motions. And the superterrestrial space teeming with the atmosphere is truly the stomach, the organ of digestion, refining and elaborating the materials consigned to it. It is in the atmosphere that clouds are formed, vapours attenuated, streams of electricity generated, surface particles of earthly, salts and metals volatilized, and the products of all these processes diffused and mixed up, till all is reduced to a homogeneous fluidity, carried above the lower strata of the atmosphere, there condensed, and then poured out as pure, precious, plant-feeding rainfall very like the stomach that, after refining, sublimating and attenuating the food it receives, extracts from its juicy contents the elements of the crimson vital liquid, and pours it forth, like rainfall, into the heart. Before, however, the materials pass into the stomach, they have to pass through the mouth that by the aid of its maxillary organism divides and re-divides the solid food, till it is powdered down and mixed with saliva and thus converted into a fluid material. In the same way, before the earthly materials are consigned to the stomach, the atmospheric space, they pass through the mouth, the Heat. For, what is the channel that transmits the earthly materials to upper regions? What is it that powders, atomizes, and reduces to vaporous subtility the hard solid materials of earth, or what is it, that dissolves these materials in the saliva of nature, water? It is Heat that does
all the work. Impelled by the restless, vivifying, vibratory oscillations of Heat, solids are dashed into liquids and liquids into gases. It is by Heat that gaseous particles, thus endowed with rarity, are borne on the wings of warmth to upper regions of comparative cold. It is Heat that licks out of the liquid lake the watery elements of the atmosphere. Heat is the mediator between the earthly materials and the atmosphere, just as mouth is the mediator between the food and the stomach. And the foot is the lowest part of the organisation, symbol of obedience to the throned monarch, the brain. It obeys the motor impulse communicated to it from the brain through the nerves. So does the earth obey the influence of the sun communicated to it through the ethereal channels of space. The eyes in the human organism are constructed to enable man to perceive colours and develop taste. Similarly, the light beams of the sun, angirasa (अंगिरस) of the mantra, develop the spectral universe, thus standing in the same relation to the universe as the eye stands to the human body. The human lungs are fitted not only to act as the bellows, drawing in and expelling air, or to oxygenate blood, but to draw in invisible elements that directly strengthen the brain. So the atmosphere is fitted not only to attract particles of vaporous matter or repel the suspended earthly particles, but to draw out from the earth, especially at the two poles, as if at the ventricles, streams of positive and negative electricity that leave the earth for ever and for good.

The analogy,* therefore, is complete in every reasonable aspect. The whole universe, to the contemplation of a devotee, presents a brain, a mouth, a stomach, the eyes, the ears, the lungs and the feet. And it is thus that the human body is organized. Realizing the perfect

* To impress the reader with this part, we will present only the analogy of slightly differing pictures of the same from different parts of Vedic literature, so that he may be able to form a somewhat general and comprehensive conception of the organization of Nature, and not to take the analogy too literally. We quote Yajur Veda, XXXI. 13:—

नामः आसोदन्तरिच्छ बीज्यों भो: समवर्त्तें ।
पद्म्यं खंडिष्ण: आचात्या लोकं अककिप्यन् ॥ ॥ ॥

"God has placed the super-terrestrial space in the place of the stomach, the sun in the place of the head, the earth in the place of the feet, and the open space in the place of the ear cavity." In Mundaka, II. 1. 4, we read—

अविनिमित्ती चतुर्थी चतुर्थं सूर्यो वातविविवावतवचेताः।
वायुः प्राणी चतुर्थं विशेषमयं पद्म्यं गृही छोप सर्वभूतान्तरत्वम् ॥

"The Eternal Spirit that resides in the interior of all things, has disposed the fire instead of the brain, the sun and the moon in lieu of the two eyes, the open directions of space in lieu of ear cavities, the Vedas as His organs of speech, the atmosphere as His lungs, the whole universe as His heart, and the planets as His feet. It is thus that He lives."
adaptation of the mouth to the stomach, of the stomach to the lungs, of the lungs to the brain, and of the brain to the whole body, and also realizing correspondingly the mutual adaptation of the parts of the universe, can he for one moment forsake the Omnipresent 'Eternal Spirit, so glorious in His manifestations? For, even in the human body, let us inquire, are the brain, the lungs, the stomach, and the other parts in vain, merely to carry out the material, physical or physiological functions all unconsciously, like pieces of dead matter? Is this beautiful adaptation of parts merely the result of chance, or of mere 'fortuitous concourse of atoms'? Have the blind forces of matter met unconsulted, and, after unexpected, unknown and unpredictable clashes, embraced each other and linked themselves into the apparently beautiful organisation of man? No, this adaptation of functions is not in vain. The edifice, constructed of the brain, the lungs, the stomach, the feet, the eyes, the ears, and the mouth, is but the building of a theatre. The adaptation of its rooms is the design of an architect. Surely, the architect made it for some one to act in. Who are then, the actors on this arena of the human organisation? The actors, no doubt, there are, but they could not manifest their skill and activity without a proper and well-managed stage. These actors are the five organs of sense, i.e., of hearing, of touching, of seeing, of tasting, and of smelling; the five organs of motion, i.e., the hand, the feet, the throat, the generative and the excretive organs; the five vital nerve forces, i.e., of inspiration, of expiration, of blood-circulation, of glossopharyngeal action, and of muscular contraction, in general; manas, or the internal organ that originating the impulse to communicate with the external world, and displays the power of imagination; buddhi, the faculty of decision; chitta, the faculty of memory; and ahankara, the organ of personality. These are the nineteen invisible actors in the drama of life. The human spirit, through the physical temple, manifests his powers of life, sensation, locomotion, memory, perception, imagination, decision and individuality. For, how can life be manifested, unless the various parts of the body be mutually adapted, the one supplying the demand of the other, and the mechanical, chemical and electrical forces, generated by their mutual action and friction, be equilibrated? It is thus necessary for the body to possess an organisation, before it can evolve mechanical, chemical and electrical forces in equilibrium with each other; and further, it is necessary for these forces to be well organised, before life can manifest itself. And it is only when life has thus vitalized the body, rendered it elastic, impressible and vibrous, that it can manifest any tendency towards sensation or locomotion. Not before the principle of sensation is fully established, can perception and imagination dawn; and it is only after perception has provided with requisite mental apprehensions that the faculties of comparison and discriminance can come into play, and weave the mental impressions into generalized, symbolic ideas. It is these ideas
that memory takes in, and so carefully stores. And, lastly, it is on
the faithful retentivity of memory that the mystery of personal
identity hinges; for, what is personal identity but that each human
spirit feels himself as separate from all others on the ground of
the entirely distinct experiences he has had. It is thus evident that
the physical temple is but a grand stage well-prepared for the
purpose, on which the master-dramatist, the human spirit, sends
his vice-gerents, each in his turn, one after the other, to act and
prepare the stage for the ensuing. On the stage of the physical
temple, appears the first vice-gerent, Life, acts his scene and pre-
pares the ground for the next vice-gerent, Sensation. He, in his
turn, plays his own part, and fits the scene for the advent of Per-
ception, Comparison and Memory in turn, till the human spirit
himself, in the last, appears on the fully-prepared stage to manifest
the potencies of his personal individuality. Not without purpose,
then, is this beautiful adaptation.

As with the human spirit, so is it with the Divine Being. Why
this wonderful disposition of the sun, the moon, the planets, the
atmosphere and the elements in the actual positions they hold in
Nature, but that the Divine Spirit required the organisation of
physical elements into a perfectly vitalized body of the Universe,
like unto man, to manifest His eternal elements of Universal life, sensation
and intelligence, and to give His impersonal personality an expression
on the outer plane. Hence it is that the yogi starts with the letter
A of the syllable Om; repeats in his mind its deep signification;
pictures to himself the seven-organised fabric of the grand universe;
settles himself upon its functional and anatomical organisation;
contemplates its necessity, its purpose, its usefulness, and its reality;
is deeply impressed with the existence of the more interior and
spiritual principles (the nineteen principles enumerated above),
impatiently pressing for manifestation; and thence contemplates the
All-regulating, All-pervading Spirit, Vaishwanara, which is exactly
the sense of the letter A out of the three letters composing Om.

And now to the second phase of contemplation. Out of order,
comes out order; out of chaos, chaos. Organised forces acting upon
matter will produce organised structures; a chaos of forces can
only result in chaos. Mathematical science is full of proofs of this
proposition. Take, for instance, the orderly, uniform, and regular
motion of a body in a circle. Mathematicians tell us that this motion
is the result of two forces, centrifugal and centripetal. If the velocity
of the moving body be \( v \) and the radius of the circle in which it
moves \( r \), the centripetal force will be \( \frac{v^2}{r} \) Thus mathematicians tell
us that when a body is moving in a circle its centrifugal and cen-
tripedal forces are balanced by each other and bear a definite relation
to the velocity of the body and the radius of the path. This definite
relation (or, which is the same thing, organisation of the two forces)
alone can produce circular motion. Let there be another definite relation, and the motion will be elliptical. Thus it is clear that it is the internal organisation that gives form and order to the outer manifestation. Or, to give further illustrations, it is the internal slow motion of particles that determines the solid. It is the internal volubility of the particles that produces the visible liquid. It is also internal extreme mobility of particles, producing what is called the excursion of the molecules along free paths, that produces the gaseous condition. Or, to take more familiar examples still, it is the invisible, internal organisation in the seeds that gives each of them the power to reproduce exactly its own kind and no other; and, finally, the human spermatozoa, endowed as they are with internal though invisible organization, because of being formed by extracting, through the activity of the vital essence, particles from all parts, organs, and faculties of the living body (मन्दुक्योपानिषदः), are, only by virtue of this interior organisation, capable of reproducing exactly the human organism. Thus it is clear that it is always the internal organisation of producing causes that develops form, order, organisation or adaptation in the exterior. Must not, then, the All-regulating, All-pervading Divine Spirit, Vaishwanara, that builds up this grand and highly perfect edifice of His physical temple, the Universe, be also himself organised? Surely the plastic, formative, associative, dissociative principles of the Divine Power, must themselves flow into definite tendencies, and be filled with a law of co-operative sympathy, causing periodicity in their activity, just to give birth to such precision, regularity and periodicity, as the sun, moon and stars, together with the earth and planets, display in the succession of days and nights, of seasons and tides, of light and darkness, of rising and setting, of eclipses and occultations, of perihelion and aphelion, of forward and retrograde motions, and of the alternating phases of the satellites. And yet that is not all. There are millions, nay billions, of organisms of each species—and the number of species, both in the animal and vegetable kingdoms, is innumerable—each not only growing, living and reproducing its own kind, but also manifesting feeling, sensation, perception, judgment, memory and intelligence, according to the degree of its refinement. Whence this display of wonderful powers and activities? Surely the Divine element of life, sensation, and intelligence must have likewise flowed into mutual harmony, fused into unity, and interblended into an interior organisation whereby to develop such well-endowed and adapted organisms of living beings. Before the materials of the Universe were disposed into the seven parts of which the fabric of the Universe is made up, the interiorly organised Being, Taijasa, brooded over the design of creation; and, before the elements of motion were appropriated by life, those of life by sensation, and those of sensation by intelligence, thus, endowing organisms with various faculties, the same Divine Being,
Taijasa, lived in the yet-contemplated design of living creatures. To contemplate God in His everlasting designs, in the interior constitution of the Universe, is to contemplate Him in the 2nd phase, i. e., the Contemplative phase, or, which is more literally the 'Dreaming phase.' For, as in a dream, when man but partially retires from the conscious work and action of the cerebrum, a so-called physical sleep comes on. The activity of the senses, whereby the internal spirit might have acted upon outer matter, is suspended, yet the mind is not at rest. Playful amidst the many chambers of its cerebral mansion, it collects the materials of its recollected sensations and ideas, and, for the time, not discriminating between these ideas and the objects of which they are the ideas, weaves them into a texture, and, whilst dreaming, enjoys the scene just as really as though the texture had been made up of the actual objective materials. So is it with the 'Contemplative phase. For, although we do not view God as acting upon universal matter and disposing it of in various shapes, yet we view Him, as in a dream, associating particles of matter, aggregating and disposing them in their respective places, till an entirely complete design is interiorly contemplated. As if retired from the physical Universe, God is viewed as contemplating the design of creation.

From this view of the Divinity, which is exactly the sense of the 2nd letter U, composing Om, the yogi passes to the contemplation of the 3rd letter M, corresponding to the third phase, the 'Slumbering phase.' We have mentioned that, in the state of dreaming the mind is but partially retired from the conscious work and action of the cerebrum. When, however, sound sleep overtakes the dreamer, the mind wholly retries from the cerebrum, only maintaining the life of the physical frame, restoring the vitality and strength of the body by its recuperative and constructive processes, which take place all of them, so to speak, involuntarily. So let us contemplate the Divine Spirit. Let us consider what determined the flow of the Divine elements of life, sensation and intelligence into mutual harmony. What made the elements of God's intelligence arrange and dispose themselves into a perfect design of the Universe? The human mind is moved to a conception of new thoughts, or to a planning of new designs, either under the influence of education, or under the stimulation of some keenly-felt necessity, or, in a few cases, also through prospective precaution. But the Divine mind is not subject to such laws of education, necessity, and precaution, as frail human beings are controlled by. The law of Divinity is His own constitution. Unimpressed by any external motive, unurged by any want-born necessity, the elements of God's will flowed into an organisation or design, only impelled by inherent Omniscience and constitutional spontaneity. Or, in the words of the Upanishat:—

न तत्रथ कार्यं करणं च विद्यते न तत्समो नाथ्यधिकरं द्रवनात
“The Great Eternal Spirit undergoes no modifications, requires no instruments to work with, has no equal, nor any superior. He is the Supremely Powerful Being, endowed with innate Omniscience, Omnipotence, and Activity.” As in sound slumber the circulation of the blood, the respiratory functions, and the recurrative processes are all carried out with greater regularity, precision, and naturalness, only by virtue of the mere contact of the human soul with the body, requiring neither volition, nor design, but the mere spontaneous activity of the soul; so in the slumbering phase God is viewed as exercising Omnipotence, Omniscience, and Omnificence, with the greatest regularity, precision and perfection, without the exercise of strained will, or brain-elaborated design, but by the spontaneous working of the eternal self-intelligent principles and ideas, whose embodiment He is. From this belief in the spontaneous activity of the Divine Mind, there flows a soul-consolation; for, this belief, instead of generating fatalism or the evils of pre-determination, creates strong faith in the inherent wisdom of the self-intelligent principles embodied and condensed, so to speak, in Godhead.

Or, to approach the subject in another way, let us consider the process whereby the bodily eyes are made to perceive external objects. The organ of the eye has been likened to a camera obscura, its aqueous humour to a crystalline lens, and vitreous humour supplying the place of the refracting lenses, and the retina playing the part of the plate of ground glass in the ordinary camera. Just as focussing is necessary for a clear image of the object being formed, so the appended membranes in the organism are the focussing apparatus whereby the eye is adjusted to any desired distance. The organ of the eye, therefore, considered merely as an organ, possesses the power of seeing no more than the camera obscura of the photographer. At the back of the eye stands the photographer who adjusts the lenses, takes the image and perceives it. So is it with the human eye. At the back of the physical eye resides the principle of visual perception, at the back of the ear, the principle of hearing, and so at the back of each sense, the true principle of corresponding sensation. When man has ‘shuffled off this mortal coil,’ he is no more destitute of these principles of perception and sensation than is the photographer destitute of the power of vision without his camera obscura. The human spirit is the true embodiment of these principles. So is it with the Divine Spirit. He is the true embodiment of all eternal, unchangeable principles, residing at the back of all form or organisation and independent of it, and standing at the foundation of all design. He is, in fact, the Supreme Eternal Omnipresent Spirit, of whom the Upanishat says:—

प्रपाण्यपात्राः जनवी प्रकृतता प्रयत्यचुः स श्रीयतययकशः।
स वेस्ति विश्वं न च तत्स्यार्थः वैता तमाहुरः प्रयदं पुराणम्॥

MANDUKYOPANISHAT.

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“He has no physical hands and feet, but without hands and feet grasps and moulds all matter by virtue of the inherent principles, Omnipotence and Omnipresence. He has no physical eyes, but He sees all; no physical ears, but He hears all; no internal organ of thought, but He knows all, and is Himself unknown. He is the Supreme Spirit that pervades All.” God is, therefore, viewed in this phase as Himself, an Embodiment of all ideas and principles. This is the Slumbering phase, the sense of the 3rd letter M composing the monosyllable Om.

The fourth, a hyatus, which is no mātra or letter, nor is even uttered or spoken, but is the true Ineffable Name, represents the Essential Existence, the true Atma, the Divine Spirit, the Invisible, Unimpressible, Undefined, Unthinkable, Unknowable Being, only conscious of Self in Self, i.e., the Absolute and the Unconditioned, without a trace of the relative or conditioned world about Him, All-calm, All-bliss, One and Only. He should be known.

We cannot better finish this interesting, though imperfect and necessarily brief, exposition, than in the words of Prashnopanishta, 5th Prashana:

...
soon becomes wise, and even, after death, is re-born as man, the lord of creation, and, by virtue of his previous upāsana, leads a life of devotion to study, of control of passions and anger, and of search after truth, and, thus virtuously circumstanced, experiences the pleasures of noble nature. He who contemplates ओ, the 2nd mātra of Om, or God in the 'contemplative' phase, obtains a glimpse of the interior world of causes, and is, by virtue of this upāsana, transported to the spiritual world, and, after experiencing exaltation there, is re-born as man. But he who contemplates म, the 3rd mātra of Om, i. e., views God as Himself, becomes illuminated and obtains Moksha. Just as a serpent, relieved of its oldened skin, becomes new again, so the yogi, who worships the 3rd mātra, relieved of his mortal coil, of his sins and earthly weaknesses, free with his spiritual body to roam about throughout God’s Universe, enjoys the glory of the All-pervading Omniscient Spirit, ever and evermore.

To recapitulate. The three mātras of Om, when duly contemplated and in their respective order, set free the devotee from the troubles of this world. The contemplation of the first mātra confers upon him the most exalted state of existence possible on this earth, that of the second fills him with the joys of the spiritual world, and the contemplation of the last mātra blesses him with moksha or immortality.”
MUNDAKOPANISHAT.
Whatever other scholars may think of the difficulty of translating the Upanishats, I can only repeat what I have said before that I know few Sanscrit texts presenting more formidable problems to the translator than these philosophical treatises. . . . I have again and again had to translate certain passages tentatively only, or following the commentators, though conscious all the time that the meaning which they extract from the text can not be right one."

Max Muller.
Brahma was the first of literati, who was master of the physical laws of nature, and an adept mechanician. He was the protector of mankind. He taught his eldest son, Atharva, Brahma Vidya, or the knowledge of the Deity, which is superior to all other kinds of knowledge.

Atharvāṃśe yāṃ pavādau bṛddhānaḥ tāṁ pūrêvācaṅgirē bṛddhā vidyām.

1. MUNDAK, 1ST KHAND.

2. Atharva taught Angira that spiritual knowledge which Brahma had taught him; Angira taught it to Satyavaha, a descendant of Bharaddwaj; and Satyavaha taught it to Angiras. It has thus come down in succession.

Sownak, a great chief, having respectfully approached Angiras, asked, "Sire, what is it, that being known, all else is known?"

3. He said, "You should know that there are two kinds of knowledge, which the divine sages call Parā (esoteric) and Aparā (exoteric)."

This Upanishat was translated by Lala Durga Prasad and revised by Pandit Guru Datta Vidyarthi, M. A., while confined to sick-bed in an advanced state of the disease which eventually carried him away.—Ed.
5. The *Aparā* or esoteric knowledge is the reading of the Rig, the Yajur, the Sama, and the Atharva Vedas; the Shiksha (phonetics), the Kalpa (ritual law), the Vyakarana (grammar), the Nirukta (philology), the Chhanda (prosody) and the Jyotish (astronomy). The *Parā* or esoteric knowledge is one which leads to the realization of the Immortal Being.

6. That Immortal Being is invisible, incomprehensible, without origin, without symbolical distinction, without eyes and ears, without hands and feet, ever-lasting, omnipresent, subtle, imperishable; whom the sages perceive to be the source of all beings.

7. Just as the spider outbrings and absorbs the cobweb, as the earth throws up the vegetation, and as the living bodies excrete the hairy growth; so does the universe emanate from the Indestructible Being.

8. When that Great Being contemplates creation, the universe springs up into material forms, and thence evolve vegetation, life, intelligence, truth, birth, good deeds and immortality.

9. The Supreme Being is omniscient, all-wise, whose very activity is knowledge itself; from Him has come out the material universe with its diverse forms and names.
1. It is true that the sages divided the *mantras*, which enjoined the performance of religious deeds, into three *sanhitas*. Perform those duties regularly and with rational desires. It is the path that leads to the worlds dispensing the fruits of good deeds.

2. When the fire fed with fuel flickers into flames, the oblations of clarified butter should be thrown into it with faithful convictions.

3. He ruins all the prospects of happy future life, who does not perform the *agnihotra* on the occasion of *darsha* (amūwas), *pūrṇa* mās, *chātur mās* (Choumāśa), *ānaṅgarayanam* (harvest time), who does not entertain learned guests, perform *vaishwadeva yajna* or *agnihotra* at all, or who performs them against the precepts of the Vedas.

4. The seven zones of burning flame are black, brown, heated, red-hot, unburnt, scintillating, and luminous.

5. The oblations that are offered into the burning fire in proper way, are carried by the rays of the sun to those regions of the atmosphere wherein the clouds float.
6. The offerings return to the world of the offerer in fructifying showers, saying, as it were, to him, “Come, come here, enjoy the fruits of your good deeds.”

7. These religious performances, including eighteen forms of ceremonies, are inferior in merit, transient and fleeting. Those who consider them as bliss, are foolish and repeatedly undergo the misery of senility and death.

8. Many ignorance-ridden people arrogantly consider themselves to be wise, and, being puffed up with vain knowledge, go about the world as the blind leaders of the blind, to the great misery of others.

9. Others, again, being ignorant, believe themselves to have attained the object of life by mere deeds. But, since mere acts and deeds do not lead to the knowledge of God, such people, immersed in worldliness, become miserable and go from bad to worse.

10. Those who foolishly consider success in worldly affairs to be the only end of life, and nothing superior to it, after enjoying the highest pleasure possible in this world, again fall into lower states.
11. The learned men of calm mind, living the righteous life in retirement, imbued with the desire of knowing and embracing truth, freed from passions, and subsisting on alms, attain to the unchangeable, immortal, all-pervading Spirit with their spiritual body.

12. Let the learned man, seeing that all the enjoyments of the world depend upon deeds, and that, mere deeds do not lead to the knowledge of God, abandon the love of the world and repair to a preceptor well-versed in the Vedas, and wholly devoted to God, with suitable presents, to acquire the knowledge of God.

13. The preceptor should initiate such a contented, quiescent student into Brahma Vidya, which reveals the presence of the Eternal, All-pervading Being.

II. MUNDAK, 1ST KHAND.

1. Verily, O Dear Inquirer, innumerable principles emanate from the Immortal Being, and lose themselves as well in Him, just as thousands of similar sparks fly from a blazing fire.
2. That Immortal being is glorious, incorporeal, all-pervading, existing in and out, unborn, without organs of life and of mind, holy, subtler than the all-filling ether, and even than the human soul.

3. He is the author of the organs of respiration and mind, all the senses, essence, ethers, vapors, fluids, solids that support all other things.

4. The Eternal Spirit that resides in the interior of all things, has disposed the fire instead of the brain, the sun and the moon in lieu of the two eyes, the open directions of space in lieu of the ear cavaties, the Vedas as His organs of speech, the atmosphere as His lungs, the whole universe as His heart, and the earth as His feet. It is thus that He lives.

5. From Him proceed the great battery of forces, whose fuel is the sun which draws by its rays liquid vapors above. Thus the clouds are formed which shower on the earth, producing rich vegetation. This, in its turn, is consumed by males who refine it into spermatozoic fluid and thereby fructify the females. Thus, the infinity of creatures is brought into this world by the mighty working of His immutable law.

6. The Rig, Sama, Yajur, initiation, *yajnas*, charity, the year, the agent, the surroundings where the sun and the moon perform their respective functions, all have sprung from Him.
7. He is the father of innumerable learned men, skillful experts, ordinary men, animals, birds, vital airs, various kinds of food, austerity, faith, truth, chastity, and the law.

8. He has placed in the heart seven pránas (vital powers), seven archis (their influences or activities), seven samidhás (their respective objects of sensation, perception &c.,) seven homás (their knowledge), and seven lokas (the organs of those powers or senses wherein the pránas work.)*

9. He has made the seas, the mountains, together with all the rivers that flow in their meandering paths, as well as all the herbs, and their juices; and it is He who interiorly pervades and upholds them.

10. This very universe, together with the activities of men, their knowledge of the Vedas, penance, immortality, exists in the Omnipresent Being. O Dear Inquirer! he who knows this Being in the depth of his heart, breaks asunder the ties of ignorance and obtains salvation.


The prāna (vitality) becomes seven-fold, as it works in seven organs of the body, viz., two private parts, the eyes, the ears, the mouth, the nose, and the heart. It extracts vitality from food and distributes among these organs, which thus become capable of the mental acts of sensation, perception, &c.
1. Verily, the Supreme Being is everywhere manifested and is always near at hand, pervading the intellect, the great asylum, the repository of all this moving, living, and throbbing universe. Know Him to be self-existent, invisible, adorable, and subtler than we can comprehend. Indeed, He is the only adorable Being for His creatures.

2. He is glorious, finer than atoms, and holds worlds and the creatures thereof. He is the undecayable Supreme Being, the life of all, the essence of speech and mind, all-truth, and immortal. O Dear Inquirer, know that He alone is to be aimed at.

3. Hold the bow—the Upanishats; fit in it the sharp arrow of concentrated attention; draw it with the whole force of devotion; and bear it in mind that the mark is the Great Immortal Being.

4. Om, the Great Name of God, is the bow, the soul arrow, the mark the Supreme Being Himself. Shoot it with all your force and vigilance; and just as the arrow is pierced into the mark, so is the soul lodged in the Divinity.
5. **He** who interiorly and invisibly sustains the sun, the earth and the intervening space in their respective positions, even **He** who sustains the life, the brain, the lungs and all the various senses, is the Unitary Interpervading Spirit. Try, O men, to know **Him** alone, and leave off all other talk; for, **He** is the only Principle that leads to immortality.

6. Just in the heart, where all the blood vessels meet, very much like the spokes of a wheel meeting in the navel, resides the interiorly-governing Divine Spirit, manifesting His glory in ways multifarious. Contemplate **Him**, the Om, the interiorly-governing Spirit, for, **He** alone can lead you with safety to the blissful haven, far beyond the ignorance begotten miseries of this troubled ocean of life.

7. The All-wise, Omniscient Being, whose greatness is manifested in the heavens and on the earth, is only found in the depth of the heart. **He** is the controller of the mind, the vital airs and the body. **He** has ordained that food should be the nourisher of the heart. By **His** knowledge the sages are able to feel bliss and immortality.

8. The perception of that Omnipresent Being destroys all ignorance of the heart, eradicates all doubts of the mind, and puts a stop to all the wicked actions.
9. The Great God, without impurity and without parts, resides in the most interior. It is He that the seers perceive to be the holiest and the glory of glories.

10. Neither the sun, nor the moon, nor the stars, nor even the lightnings illume Him; much less this terrestrial fire. It is through His lustre that all these shine; it is through His illumination that all this is illumined.

11. The Great God is immortality; He is before and behind, right and left, above and below, pervading all this grand stupendous universe through and through.
3. When the seer perceives the beatific presence of the Self-glorious Being, the Maker and the Ruler of the world, the Omnipresent Being, the origin of all knowledge, he, discarding all good and bad actions, becomes free from all taint of matter and attains to the harmony of the soul.

4. He is life, whose wisdom is stamped on all universe. The sage who knows Him, leaves off useless talk. Rejoicing in the self, absorbed in the self, and endowed with energy, he becomes the foremost spiritual teacher.

5. Through strict veracity, uniform control of the mind and senses, abstinence from sexual indulgence, and ideas derived from spiritual teachers, man should approach God, who, full of glory and perfection, works in the heart, and to whom only votaries, freed from passion and desire, can approximate.

6. Truth always triumphs, and untruth is always vanquished. Truth is the pathway which learned men tread. It is by this path that the sages, satiated in their desires, have obtained salvation in Him, who is the infinite ocean of truth.
7. He is the greatest of all beings, the most wondrous, incomprehensible, and the subtlest of all principles. He is farthest of all and also near at hand, nay He is found in the interior of the self of those who have eyes to see Him here on earth.

8. He is apprehended neither by the eye, nor by speech, nor by the other senses, nor by austerities, nor by deeds. The contemplator, whose intellect has become refined, apprehends Him by the tranquil, unflagging light of knowledge.

9. This subtle Spirit can be known by the intellect only, which is governed by the five vital airs. The minds of all creatures are inter-woven with life. When the mind becomes pure, the spirit begins to feel its powers.

10. Whatever regions the person of pure and calm intellect thinks of in his mind, and whatever desires he entertains, he is sure to reach and obtain. Hence one who longs for great powers, should reverently seek the spiritual teacher.
1. He knows that Supreme God, the asylum of all, wherein the whole universe rests and looks splendid, who adores Him, the Holy Being, disinterestedly. Such a wise man rests beyond the turmoils of the world.

2. Whoever entertains desires, is born midst their objects. But the desires of him, who is satiated in them, and who has obtained the *summum bonum*, disappear even here on earth.

3. The Spirit God is obtained neither by lecturing, nor by much hearing, nor by ingenuity. Whoever heartily seeks Him obtains Him. This Spirit reveals His glory to him who renders himself a body unto Him.

4. This Spirit is obtained neither by the week, nor by the indolent, nor by misplaced austerity. But the person who tries to find Him out by proper means, finally obtains the realization of God.

5. The sages, who are satiated through knowledge, who have obtained divine knowledge, who are freed from all affections and who are calm, firm of mind, and wise of intellect, finally rest in Him, who is present everywhere, and who is accessible from every quarter.
6. Those persons who are convinced of God by the knowledge of Vedanta, whose intellects are pure by virtue of resignation, and who have full control over themselves, will resume the course of life, after having enjoyed immortality for a paranta* cycle.

7. The fifteen kalas disappear, all the senses resolve into their component elements. The soul and its actions are all absorbed in the Supreme, Eternal, All-encompassing Being.

8. Just as the rivers falling into the sea lose their distinction, name and form, so does the learned man, freed from the phenomenal world, obtain the Glorious Being, who pervades all and is higher than the highest.

9. He who knows the Great God, becomes absorbed in Him. No issue ignorant of God is ever born in his family. He rises above sin and sorrow, is freed from the ties of ignorance, and becomes immortal.

10. The Vedas also declare, “Let spiritual knowledge be imparted to those, who properly observe the tonsure ceremony of sannyas, who are practical yogis versed in the Vedas and devoted to God, who invoke the All-wise God in their hearts, and who are actuated by the motives of truth and truth alone.”

* Paranta Kala = 31,10,40,00,00,00,000 years.
11. Angirah has truly said that one who is not qualified in the above manner, never acquires spiritual knowledge. Salutation to the great divine sages! Salutation to the great Divine sages!
VEDIC TEXTS.
There is nothing which so beautifully illustrates the bounteous dispensation of Providence in Nature as the atmosphere, which surrounds our earth to a certain height all around. This gaseous envelope, which is elastic and at the same time so rare, is especially characterised by its lightness, which renders it amenable to the influence of disturbances even the slightest.

Imagine a huge mass of iron lying inert, say, in one position, and suppose a heavy stone or a dense ball dashed against this grotesque ball of iron, and see what follows. You will see how sluggishly the grotesque mass obeys the impulse, how reluctantly, as it were, the idle mass parts with its inert condition to be alive with the activity of the impinging stone! What a wide contrast does the atmosphere present to this inert mass. Each molecule of the air, on account of its lightness and elasticity, so readily succumbs to all forces from without, so mechanically multiplies the impulse, as it were, by its mobility, that even the slightest tremor first communicated to it sends it dashing along the free path of molecules in air, until it meets a fresh encounter with another molecule. This molecule, like a waiting position, immediately stands up and proceeds on its errand. The next molecule obeys the first and the third obeys the 2nd and so on. Only a few moments elapse, (not more than five or six seconds), in the twinkling of an eye, when a vast tract in the expansive ocean of air, —a tract of almost a mile in area, 5 times 1,100 feet long,—is furrowed over with ripples of exquisite beauty. Just imagine how sensitively delicate the molecules of air must be. There is not a faint flutter of wings, not a noiseless breath that ever escapes and does not furrow tracts upon tracts of air with exquisite waves.

Tremors are thus communicated with gigantic velocity by this mobile air. The invisible artistic designs into which the molecules
of air thus cast, are only beautiful beyond description. A genuine transcript of the true state of things are the words of poet Emerson.

"Thou canst not wave thy staff in air,
Or dip thy paddle in the lake.
But it carves the brow of beauty there,
And the ripples in rhymes the ears forsake."

It is on the mobile wings of air that the fragrance of flowers, the odour of essences and the effluvia of substances are wafted to immense distances, creating a diffusiveness that blends motion into uniformity and harmony. Is not, then, a light, mobile, tremor-communicating, effluvia-carrying medium a better and a more exact appellation for this masterly creation of the Architect of Nature than the ugly, unmeaning, inexact and half-articulate word air. It is exactly this sense, italicized in the above lines, which the Vedic word vāyu conveys, the word with which the mantra quoted above begins.*

We have seen what the physical properties of the molecules, which compose the air, are. Let us now consider the phenomena which it gives rise to. The rays of the sun falling upon the earth heat the layers of earth, which in their turn heat the layers of air in contact with them. These layers of air, when heated, become lighter and ascend. Colder layers of air rush in to fill up the vacuum created by the ascending hot layers of air, are heated in their turn, rise and make room for the advent of other similar layers of air. Thus a rapid circulation of heat goes on, which gives rise to currents. Of exactly similar nature are all the winds that blow. From the same cause originate those north-easterly and south-easterly winds known as trade-winds. The portions of earth near the equator always receive a greater quantity of heat from the sun than others do. The layers of air in contact with those portions of earth rise, and colder air from northern and southern quarters rushes in towards the equator, and, coupled with the rotatory motion of earth, gives rise to north-easterly and south-easterly winds. Firstly, then, we find that the air is always circulating and giving rise to currents in perpetual motion. This vāyu, then, (āyāthi) is always moving in the form of currents.

Next, see what effect it has in modifying the phenomena of light. The rays of light, that traverse through solar and interplanetary regions, ultimately strike upon the highly-rarefied layers of air, high above in the skies. In passing from vacuum into air, these rays of light deviate in their course, and pursue a bent direction on account

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* Vāyu, derived by the Niruktakara from the root Va, to move, to carry odorous matter, or from Vah, to communicate tremors, is always moving in the form of currents : is the cause of extension, of vision and of other appearances ; it furnishes the plant with air and food and preserves the equilibrium between the vegetable and the animal kingdoms and it makes our sounds and all others as well heard.
of refraction. Had the lower layers of air, through which these rays have to pass, been of uniform temperature, once having bent in its course in contact with the first layer of air, the ray of light would have then pursued its course undeviated in air. But meeting with layers of air of different temperatures and, therefore, of different densities, it is, at each step that it advances, a little refracted again and again so that these rays, having passed through all curious paths, all zigzag ways that it is possible to imagine, ultimately meet terrestrial objects, including the eyes of man, and there excite vision. How wonderfully it modifies and extends the range of vision, will then be apparent. Even the most delusive appearance known as "the mirage," that is often seen by travellers in the hot sandy deserts, is due to the reflection and refraction of light at innumerable surfaces presented by the heated layers of air. It is through air, then, that we are able to see not only in the direction of the source of light, the sun, but in all other possible directions. It thus extends the range of our vision. It is also due to air that such delusive phenomena or appearances as the mirage start into vision. Our atmosphere, then, besides giving rise to currents, extends the range of our vision and is the cause of the phenomena like that of mirage. Hence it is, that we have, in the Vedic mantra quoted above, the word darshata, i.e., the cause of extension of vision and of other appearances.

Another and a very important part which the air plays in the economy of nature is the purpose it serves of the maintenance of vegetable world. Always there is a certain quantity of carbonic acid present in the air, which however slight, is sufficient to maintain the equilibrium between the animal and the vegetable worlds. The trees and plants, the main body of which essentially consists of carbon, derive all their carbon from the air. The leaves of plants possess a kind of substance called chlorophyl, which in the presence of light decomposes the carbonic acid gas present in the air. The carbon which results from this decomposition, is assimilated by the plants, and the oxygen is set free. This oxygen, freed from carbonic acid, so to say, is what animals inspire. Animal life is maintained by the continuance of animal heat, which is due to the combustion of oxygen with carbon of the animal frame. Thus all animals inhale oxygen and exhale carbonic acid, whereas all plants absorb carbon of the carbonic acid. Air thus stands a common vehicle between the vegetable and the animal kingdoms. Due to these causes, all plant and animal life depends upon the presence of air. Not only is air necessary for the existence of plants and animals, but also necessary for the maintenance of dynamical equilibrium between these two classes of organic nature. The word somâ used in the Vedas, means something that springs out of earth, and especially designates the vegetable kingdom which, as such, is necessarily dependent upon the soil from which it springs. Hence we have somâ arankritâh tesham pahi in the Vedic mantra, meaning
thereby that the atmosphere furnishes the plants with air and food, and preserves the equilibrium between the vegetable and the animal kingdoms.

Another fact worth noticing in discussing the phenomena of air, is that it is the vehicle of all sounds. Man has been often called a speaking animal; and, no doubt, the capacity of speech distinguishes man to a very great extent from other members of the animal kingdom. Now this speech, which, in this sense, is at the root of our advancement and civilization, essentially consists of articulated sounds, the utility of which would have been entirely marred, if there had been no air. Air, then, is also a vehicle of sound, a fact which is mentioned in the mantra in the last two words, shrudhi havam—it makes our sounds and all others, as well, heard.
No. II.

COMPOSITION OF WATER.

The word *rig* signifies the expression of the nature, properties and actions and re-actions produced by substances. Hence, the name has been applied to Rig Veda, as its function is to describe the physical, chemical and active properties of all material substances as well as the psychological properties of all mental substances. Next to a knowledge of things comes the practical application of that knowledge, for all knowledge has some end, that end being usefulness to man. Hence, Yajur Veda comes next to Rig Veda, the meaning of Yajur being application. It is upon this double principle of liberal and professional (or technical) education that the well-known division of the course of study of Aryans, the Vedas, into Rig and Yajur, is based.

Let us not mock at the position taken by the Aryas with respect to the nature of the Vedas, for, there are reasons enough to justify this position. Not being a novel position at all, it is the position that is maintained even according to the Hindu systems of mythology which are but gross and corrupt distortions of Vedic sense and meaning. The broad and universal distinction of all training into professional and liberal has been altogether lost sight of in the Puranic mythology, and like everything else has been contracted into a narrow, superstitious sphere of shallow thought. The Vedas, instead of being regarded as universal text-books of liberal and professional sciences, are now regarded as simply codes of religious thought. Religion, instead of being grasped as the guiding principle of all active propensities of human nature, is regarded as an equivalent of certain creeds and dogmas. So with the Rig and Yajur Vedas. Yet, even in this distorted remnant of Aryan thought and wisdom,—the Puranic mythology,—the division of the Vedas into Rig and Yajur, the liberal and the professional, is faithfully preserved. The *rig*, now, implies a collection of hymns and songs in praise and *description* of various gods and goddesses; whereas Yajur, now, stands for the mantras recited in the ritual, the active part of religious ceremonies. This is the view taken by the so-called scholars of the day.
Let us not, however, altogether forget the original distinction. There is much in it to recommend itself. The mantra at the top, which has been taken from second Sukta of Rig Veda, is cited here as a sample to justify the views entertained by the Aryas with respect to the Rig Veda. This mantra describes the process or steps (dhiyam) whereby the well-known of liquids, water, can be formed by the combination of two other substances (gritachim sadhanta). The word sadhanta is in the dual number indicating that it is two elementary bodies which combine to form water. What those two elementary substances, according to this mantra, are, is not a matter of least importance to determine. The words used to indicate those two substances are mitra and varuna.

The first literal meaning of *mitra* is measureur. The name is given to a substance that stands, as it were, as a measure or as a standard substance. It is the measurer of density, or of value, otherwise known as quantivalence. The other meaning of *mitra* is "associate." Now in this mantra, *mitra* is described as an associate of *varuna.* It will be shown how *varuna* indicates oxygen gas.† Now it is well-known that hydrogen is not only the lightest element known, nor is it only monovalent, but that it has a strong affinity for oxygen; hence it is that it is described as an associate of *varuna.* Many other analogies in the properties of *mitra* and hydrogen go to suggest that what is in Vedic terms styled as *mitra,* is in fact identical with hydrogen. *Mitra,* for instance, occurs as synonymous with *udana* in many parts of the Vedas, and *udana* is well characterized by its lightness or by its power to lift up.

The second element with which we are concerned is *varuna.* *Varuna* is the substance that is acceptable to all. It is the element that every living being needs to live. Its well-known property is *rishadah,* i.e., it eats away or rusts all the base metals, it burns all the bones, &c., and physiologically purifies the blood by oxidizing it, and

* The word *mitra* is formed by adding the *unadi* suffix *ka,* to the root *mi,* according to the sutra चमिचिमिशंभयः कः || उचो 8 || 168 ||
The meaning is मिनोति मान्यं करोति मित्रः or one that measures or stands as a standard of reference.
† Again, we have in Nighantu, the Vedic Dictionary, Chapter V, Section 4 मित्रा इतिपदनामसुग्रहितम् || Hence *mitra* means that which approaches or seeks association with others.
‡ *Varuna* is formed by adding *unadi* suffix *unan* to root *vri* to accept, विद्वृत्तिर्यु उनन || 53 || Hence, it means that which is acceptable to all or seeks all.
thereby keeping the frame alive. It is by these properties that varuna is in general distinguished; but it is especially characterized here as rishadah. No one can fail to perceive that the substance thus distinctly characterized is oxygen gas.

Another word used in the mantra is puta daksham. Puta is pure, free from impurities. Daksha means energy. Puta daksham is a substance, pure, possessed of kinetic energy. Who that is acquainted with the kinetic theory of gases, cannot see in puta daksha the properties of a gas highly heated?

The meaning of the mantra taken as a whole is this:—Let one who is desirous to form water by the combination of two substances take pure hydrogen gas highly heated, and, oxygen gas possessed of the property rishadha, and let him combine them to form water.

It would, no doubt, sound strange that long before Cavendish performed his experiment on the composition of water, or long before oxygen and phlogiston were known to the philosophers of the west, the true philosophy of the composition of water was recorded in the Vedas and perhaps understood by many philosophers of the east.

Let not any of our readers imagine that the interpretation of the Vedic mantra given above is purely an imaginary production of the brain of the writer. The above interpretation is, in fact, based upon some already existing commentaries of the Vedas, and there is enough either in ancient commentaries or in that of Swami Dayananda to suggest this and similar interpretations of all mantras. देव श्रम्॥
BEFORE I begin an exposition of a few mantras of the 50th Sukta of Rig Veda bearing on the subject of Grihastha, let it be remarked in due justice to ancient *rishis* who lived in days when Vedas were better understood and more sincerely, honestly and truthfully revered than the Bible, the Zendavastha and the Qoran are now-a-days—yes, let it be remarked in justice to those *rishis* that to their minds many of the obvious and more recondite forces of nature were the ladders by which they rose from the lower depths of material objects to the celestial heights of divine contemplation. Their thought familiarly climbed upon the ladder of physical forces till a glimpse of the divine was obtained. Invigorated with the light thus received, it as easily retraced its footsteps to share the bounty with their fellow-brethren, the whole race of mankind. Let me observe that, whilst I speak in this strain, I am giving expression to no vague indefinite ideas of my own, to no whisperings of erratic, chaotic imagination. These are no words of flattery, offered as sacrifice at the altar of national conceit, prejudice, or custom. They are rather honest but imperfect expressions of the sublime lives which *rishis*, no doubt, lived. But more sublime and astonishingly charming was the state of those four *rishis*, Agni, Vayu, Aditya and Angirah—living in the beginning of creation, whose faculties were, according to the beliefs of the Aryans, illumined by the light of the Vedas. The dizzy heights to which the thoughts of these *rishis* soared, but with no giddiness; the meandering labyrinths through which their intellects traced the unity of the divine design, quite unperplexed, and not fatigued, but rather cheered and invigorated by the effort; these are facts, which we—innocent darlings of the nineteenth century, the era of civilisation—we darlings, fed in the lap of material science, nourished by the milk of ponderous truths, discovered by elaborate ratiocinative and inductive processes, and supported by the carbonaceous aliment of isolated facts and nitrogenous edibles of constructive theories and hypotheses, cannot easily conceive. The truth-loving, poetical, beauty-admiring temperament
of these rishis is far, far removed from the money-loving, practical
use-admiring callous minds of moderns. No wonder, then, that we
should find so very few expositors of Vedic lore in this era of re-
search and activity. Truth with sectarian ignoramuses and religious-
predjudice spectacle wearsers may be measured by the number of its
adherents or votaries, and well might Christians argue that their
overwhelming number in the world is a proof that Christianity is the
dispensation destined by the divinity to prevail over the world. But
far different is the case with Vedic truth. It is perennial. It is
not the birth of to-day or yesterday just as other religions are.
The measure of Vedic truth is not its power to grow and spread, but its
inherent power to remain the same, ever to-day and to-morrow. "Men
and parties, sects and schools are but the mere ephemera of world's
day. Truth, high-seated upon its rock of adamant, is alone eternal
and supreme."

It was this truth of God and Nature that was given to the
primitive four rishis to comprehend. Justly, may our uninspired
eyes roam about in vain from here to there, from rocks to vegetables
and from vegetables to men to detect unity; but the inspired minds
of the four rishis could only perceive the unity of the Divine mind
in every thing. The minerals, the vegetables and the animals were
to them but one book, in which they read but the power, the justice
and the wisdom of God. Owing to the sublimity of revelation, were
foreshadowed before their mind's eye landscape—paintings of human
institutions, achievements and aspirations in a long distant future,
and in all these, they saw the spirit of the Father brooding, with
paternal care over eternal designs for the happiness and benefit of
His children. Reader, imagine yourself once in this exalted condi-
tion. Then alone are you in a fit position to grasp and understand
the deep meaning of the Vedic mantras. This deep meaning is every-
where spiritual. There is a fine and very sublime link between
mantra and mantra, which can be perceived but in such moments of
exaltation alone.

We must bear in mind that internal is always the more difficult
to grasp. The modern scholar, whose powers of the senses have been
well trained to observe and carefully note the phases and changes
undergone by physical phenomena, may not find any connection or
coherency between mantra and mantra. To him the Vedas may be
mere collections of isolated prayers to deified forces of nature includ-
ing wind and rain; but to an earnest, truthful inquirer, who has enter-
ed the exalted condition I have above described, there is that logical
coherence and philosophical regularity in the sequence of the mantras
which can only be called divine. In this spirit should we study the
Vedas, a sample of which is presented by the 50th Sukta.

I have before said that the universe, as construed by the rishis, is a
ladder along which the inspired mind rises to the contemplation of the
Divine. This exactly is the subject-matter of this mantra of the 50th Sukta of Rig Veda.

In a dark, rainy, stormy night, in an hour of stillness and dead slumber, a thief entered the treasure room of a peaceful family, and stole away all precious metal and property, and in the mad joy of his possession ran aback over twenty miles of wet ground, and betook himself as quite safe from the grasp of the owner. But the light dawned, and the owner awoke in full consciousness of his stolen property. Fearlessly and resolutely but in entire calm of his mind, he began the track and slowly but surely reached the rendezvous and seized the thief with the treasure which he had appropriated. This is but mere analogy. I have nothing to do with the stealth and the property, but with the indelible, unmistakable footprints, not of a thief, but of the Creator on the frame of the universe. The wise man, who has his intellect lumined by universal benevolence, bent upon finding out the First Cause, begins his inquiry, and, slowly but steadily tracing Nature back to its source, halts at God. There, the inquisitive and penetrative faculties of the intellect are cooled to satiation, and lie in peaceful repose in the enjoyment of the treasure thus found. To such a mind, what are the different objects of this universe? They are the footprints of the Deity, the postmarks tracked by the divine rays of wisdom along their path of action. They are just as the Vedic mantra puts it, के तब:, the flag-signs, track-beams, the design types which point with one voice to Him (स्त्यम) from whom all knowledge has proceeded (जातवेदसम). He is the eternal Sun that ever shines. (देवम) He it is who makes us see this grand panorama of the universe (देवम विश्वाय सूर्यम). So also is the case with the sun of the material universe.

Would you see the variegated objects of Nature? Study, then, the sunbeams playing amidst wonders of space, and see what they lead you to. They lead us to the globe of the sun, who is truly the cause of all we see; for, not only has all the matter of the planetary system proceeded from the sun, but the very light which reveals to us the existence of the material objects in their diverse forms and colours, points out to the sun as its source and fountain-head. Would you, then, see the universe? Then observe that the universe points you out to the wonder of the planetary system, the sun. Would you enjoy your term of earthly life in peace of mind and happiness perpetual? Observe, then, that the entire happiness of the world points out to the sacred institution of marriage, of grīhastha, the institution where alone the filial, the paternal, the fraternal and conjugal affections are cooled to satiation; for, from pure, truthful, affectionate and wisely conducted marriages alone can happy progeny flow into the world. This is the three-fold sense of the Vedic mantra. It points out to God as the fountain of all
causation, to the sun as the source of all the planetary world and its chromatic wonders, and to the sacred institution of marriage, founded upon pure, rational and spiritual physiology, as the source of all happiness and bliss on this earth.

\[\text{: 0 :}\]

\[\text{चपत्ये तायये यथा नृचत्रा यन्त्यकुमभः}\]

\[\text{स राय विशवचचसे II २ II}\]

I come now to the second mantra of the same Sukta. I have mentioned that happiness on this earth can only be secured by rightly conducting the sacred and divine institution of marriage. I need not speak here at length on this subject, but it will be well to point out that all attempts to regenerate our society in any other direction are merely fruitless. Do you ever expect a heroic, Swami-like, intellectual progeny from the present marriages contracted in an unnatural age by parties forced by unnatural compulsion of parents into these contracts? To expect this, is to expect an impossibility. Teaching and preaching, education and consociation can mould the superficial or the external character of man, but strike ineffectually at the deeper and more permanent character, the hereditary or the constitutional character, which flows with our blood, which we have drunk in with the very milk from our mothers, which we have inherited with our very bones and nerves, blood and muscles. Believe it, then, that the true cure of the evil that exists in our society is the physiological cure, the cure that strikes at the very root of the disease of our society, the cure that professes to mould the individual and society from their very birth, by enjoining the observance of the Divine injunction of pure, truthful rational marriage, as contrasted with compulsory, impulsive, formal, marriage. What, then, is the law of marriage; what is the observance that can secure health and happiness to society? The answer to this question is imprinted in the indestructible divine laws of nature. Observe the starry host of heaven, नृचत्रा: or the moisture-laden ocean of the atmosphere, ताययः: What law do they obey? Are they not regular in the succession of the phenomena they present? Regularly, after every 24 hours, does the starry host of heaven unite itself with night, यन्त्यकुमभः regularly for 12 hours in 24 does it depart from the society of the sun, सूर्य विशवचचसे. Here are suggestions for the married people. Let them reflect over this and chalk out a path of piety for themselves. Again, study the atmospheric envelope. What law does it obey? Regularly after every year does the monsoon blow, regularly for six months do the winds continue to take the same direction. These proclaim a lesson for the married. The lesson is for the married parties
to separate themselves invariably during sunlight, as the starry heaven disconnects itself from the sunlight for every 12 hours. The second lesson for them is to observe the law of periodicity, just as day and night, trade-winds, and monsoons, obey their periodic laws of succession. If these laws were carefully observed, there would flow into the world that happiness and health which were never realized before. Earth would be a beautiful garden to live in, far more attractive and real than the paradise of the Moslems or the heaven of the Christians, which is all paved with hard gold, with no stuffed cushions to relieve us of its hardness. Compare with this natural, spiritual, physiological marriage, the beastly marriages, a countless number of which are being contracted from day to day in our country without exciting the ridicule or even the thought of the reformers. I count upon no responsibility so serious as that of ushering an individual being organised like our own selves into the world. How many are they who feel this responsibility? How few children are there who are born of a wilful, appreciative, conscientious consociations of their parents? How many of them are the products of lust, blind impulse, and purely fortuitous concourse? These are the things that may well sound obscene to many of our delicately constituted readers, but human nature is sacred in every part. It calls for obedience to its dictates in each direction. It is no respector of creeds or personalities. Let us learn, then, the law of periodicity, and realize the happiness that is in store for us by virtue of the divine ordination mentioned in these mantras.

I do not wish to leave the subject of marriage without impressing upon the minds of my reader another truth which is not the less important, a truth which forms the subject-matter of the 3rd mantra of this Sukta. What language, but the sweet accents of the Vedas, can adequately express this truth? These are the words of the mantra:

उपायमस्य को तत्थि विरमणो जनां चनु ।
भ्राजन्यो च गणयो यथा ॥ ३ ॥

I do not wish to discourse upon an irrelevant topic, but all nature is unique. Truth is all of one type. The digression may be excused. Scientific people believe, and no doubt, upon grounds indubitable that, light and heat are eternal associates of each other. Each possesses in its bosom, the essence, the elements, and the power of developing the other. Both are forms of motion, they are vibrations only differing in the frequency of their occurrence. The vibrations occur in the same medium. Light is capable of being reflected. So is heat. Light is capable of being polarized. So is heat. Heat maintains the life of the animal frame. Light maintains the life of the vegetable kingdom. Heat produces the vapoury atmosphere. Light precipitates the cloudy mass in rain and pours it upon the plains. Light and heat are conjugal associates in nature. Heat
is warm, light is cold and refreshing. Heat and light are the love
and life of the body. They are each other’s companions and comple-
ments in Nature. The gorgeous display of colours, which light makes
us familiar with, are not less striking than the equally important
molecular and chemical changes which heat works out. By heating a
body, you can raise it to incandescence, till it begins to burn; by pro-
per means, you can entrap light and make it heat our articles and even
burn them, if necessary. But see how they proceed from the sun,
their common fountain. They proceed in pairs. The warm-exciting rays
of the sun are the भ्राजन्तो यथान्या: of the Vedic mantras; the
light-emitting, colour-providing variegating rays of the sun
are theरघ्रमोकेतः of the mantra. How beautifully are they
interlocked with each other. Held in each other’s embrace, these
caloric and spectral rays dart from the sun, and journey on together
through millions of miles of gorgeous space to fall on earth, to warm
life and illuminate dormant intellect. The arrogant man of science
may claim to himself the power of sifting these interlocked, interwed-
ded, embosomed conjugal pairs of rays by iodine filters and alum solu-
tions; but there is no absolute separation, no entire dissevering of
bonds. Let us learn a lesson from this. The Vedic mantra enjoins upon
us this lesson. It enjoins upon men the duty of learning the lesson of
conjugal relation from the heat and light rays of the sun जनं घनः.
It inculcates the inviolability of the marriage tie. Let the married
couples preserve their sacred relation inviolable and intact, and not
frustrate their peace and happiness by adopting the opposite course
of free-marriages. The designs of the Divinity can only be wrought
by the inviolability of this tie. One inviolable marriage conducted
according to the periodic law alone is compatible with an acquisition
of the true knowledge of the Divine Being. This is the sacred law of
inviolability that the Vedic mantra enjoins. But there is another and
a deeper meaning of the mantra which should not be lost sight of.
It is that light and heat permeate through every possible material
object of creation जमां प्रविष्टः॥ जन is the class of created
objects. Let us not laugh at this proposition. It has the solid bul-
wark of science to support it. Heat is a motion of the molecules
composing the body. There is no substance, of whatever description,
that is entirely destitute or completely devoid of molecular vibration.
Vibration is the general law. Light is an accident of ether, the lumini-
ferous medium, whose vibration essentially constitutes light. Is there
any substance throughout the range of created objects, wherein motion
and ether do not conjugally and co-eavally dwell? Yes, even in the same
way, the Divine essence lives within the very interior of every living
soul.
THE REALITIES OF INNER LIFE.
THE REALITIES OF INNER LIFE.

The fact that man lives on a double plane of existence, that he leads a two-fold life, is not new in any sense. He lives the life of the flesh and the life of the spirit. Scientific minds term the one objective and the other subjective existence. True poets of nature and religious men agree alike in this. "O man! the brute and the angel are alike in thee." The metaphysicians of older Sanskrit schools styled these two modes of existence, the life of Bahishkarana and the life of Antashkarana, the outer life of the Senses and the inner life of the Intellect. But the law of double existence is not applicable to it alone. It is a universal law. It applies to the universe. Matter is the entity of the Outer life, and, God the reality of the Inner life. And the Trinity of God, Matter and contemplating Spirits exhausts the substances of the Cosmos. Thus the universe lives a two-fold existence, the outer, the phenomenal and the inner, the noumenal.

The outer plane of existence is the one that is familiar to all. But the inner, the internal, is a blank page, a white sheet to many. The inner, in so far as inner, is poetry; the outer, as the external, is prose. And poetry is, to many, nothing but wild fantastic imagination let loose. Hence it is that matter, with the ephemeral host of its countless attributes, is the only reality, the only true God to many.

"Earth's powers and principalities exclude most men from the society of poetry and eternal principles. Matter is a powerful and controlling God; it is the prince of darkness" to millions of our throbbing humanity. Matter clings and clusters heavily about man's interior life; it is the dead-freight of his perilous voyage from the cradle to the crematory. Men are necessitated to worship at the shrine of matter. They make it the chief object both of masterly effort and spiritual contemplation. Thousands reverence matter incessantly. They bow down before its altars. They bring to it many offerings—covering its temples with every thing within the power of man to bestow: with scientific art, and the works of genius, with developments of the noblest talents, with everything, even life itself.

Mammon is but the servant of matter; matter is but the servant of soul; soul is but the servant of spirit; but in this world, it happens that spirit and soul and matter are the servants of mammon. No human soul is independent of its material surroundings. All life is real bondage to matter. Matter is the mind's jailor. Want is the overseer who lashes the prisoner into his daily labour.
“Tis the mandate of matter which the mind obeys nine-tenths of earthly time. The sight of objects, the taste of fruits, the smell of odors, the cognition of sensations, the hearing of sounds—thus the spirit looks out and lives through the grated windows of its prison-castle.”

How, then, can man, thus immersed in the life of the senses, realize the interior realities of inner life? The death of matter is the birth of the soul. Light and darkness cannot co-exist.

This is the tenth mantra of the 40th Adhyaya of Yajur Veda, and it means:

“The life of senses (avidya) produces one result, and the life of spirit (vidya) produces exactly the reverse.”

This is the 15th Mantra of the same Adhyaya, and it means:

“The resplendent face of truth is hid beyond the veil of the glitter of mammon” — “O Preserver of the universe! remove the veil, so that we might see the immortal truth.” Yes, the veil must be removed, the brute in man crushed, before the influx of the Divine Light can be realized.

“The universe with its beauties and laws and harmonies, is nothing to the idiot mind caged in matter. The gorgeous heavens with their unnumbered systems of suns and stars are nothing to a soul bowed down by the daily drag of material necessities. The ponderous globes of spaces, so attractive to the uplifted mind of the philosopher, are nothing to him who makes a God of gain. Matter and money surround him on either side. He drives through his surroundings, and then they drive through him; and so goes his daily life “to the last syllable of recorded time.”

The fair sky of heavenly truth never covers the earthly mind. Faith in such circumstances is impossible. Doubt, yes doubt, is the only paramount functionary that lives and flourishes. And what else is possible under such circumstances? In such a state, the mind
seeks, in vain, for a soul-consoling philosophy. The world of matter, the region of discord alone, is visible. The Omniscient Intelligence of far-off immensities of the universe is nowhere to be found. The whisperings of the regnant functionary, Doubt, are too positive. "Has it not been said that 'by searching none can find out God?' And is it not true that the most strenuous God-believers confess that it is only a belief with them; that they really know nothing on the subject?" These are the whisperings of Doubt. But this prime minister of the life of senses, this sceptical functionary does not end his researches here. He is thorough-going. He enters the material world, asks the sciences whether they can disclose the mystery and this is the result of his investigation:—

"Geology speaks of the earth, the formation of the different strata, of coal, of granite, of the whole mineral kingdom. It reveals the remains and traces of animals long extinct, but gives us no clue whereby we may prove the existence of a God."

"Natural History gives us a knowledge of the animal kingdom in general, the different organisms, structures and powers of the various species. Physiology teaches the nature of man, the laws that govern his being, the functions of the vital organs and the conditions upon which alone health and life depend. Phrenology treats of the laws of the mind, the different portions of the brain, the temperaments, the organs, how to develop some and repress others to produce a well-balanced healthy condition. But in the whole animal economy, though the brain is considered to be a 'microcosm' in which may be traced a resemblance or relationship with everything in nature, not a spot can be found to indicate the existence of a God."

"Mathematics lays the foundation of all the exact sciences. It teaches, the art of combining numbers, of calculating and measuring distances, how to solve the problem to weigh mountains, to fathom the depths of oceans; but gives us no directions how to ascertain the existence of a God."

"Enter Nature's great laboratory—Chemistry, she will speak to you of the various elements, the combinations and uses of the gases constantly evolving and combining in different proportions, producing all the varied objects, the interesting and important phenomena we behold. She proves the indestructibility of matter, and its inherent property—motion; but in all her operations no demonstrable fact can be obtained to indicate the existence of a God."

"Astronomy tells us of the wonders of the solar system—the eternally-revolving planets, the rapidity and certainty of their motions, the distance from planet to planet, from star to star. It predicts with astonishing and marvellous precision, the phenomenon of eclipses, the visibility on our earth of comets, and proves the immutable law of gravitation, but is entirely silent on the existence of a God."
"In fine, descend into the bowels of the earth, and you will learn what it contains; into the depths of the ocean, and you will find the inhabitants of the great deep; but neither in the earth below, nor in the waters above, can you obtain any knowledge of His existence. Ascend into the heavens, and enter the milky way, go from planet to planet to the remotest star, and ask the eternally-revolving systems. Where is God? and echo answers—Where?

"The universe of matter gives no record of His existence. Where next shall we search? The universe of mind! Read the millions of volumes written on the subject, and in all the speculations, the assertions, the assumptions, the theories and creeds, man has only stamped the indelible impress of his mind on every page. Human records are, at the best, delineations of human character, of phases of human mind, picture of human existence, but where is God?

"Look around you and confess that there is no evidence of intelligence, of design, and consequently of a designer? What is intelligence? It is not a thing, a substance, an existence in itself, but simply a property of matter, manifesting itself through organisations."

These, then, are the fond insinuations of doubt, the whisperings of Scepticism, and the legitimate consequences of a life of the senses, an existence in matter, a worship of Mammon, a belief in omnipotent atoms.

For, how can God be thus known: Geology, Natural History, Physiology, Anatomy, Phrenology, Mathematics, Chemistry, Astronomy and all are but grosser developments, the outer kernel. They deal only with the tangible, the tactual, the optical, the audible, the edible, the olfactory and the palatal. But God, the Universal Spirit of nature, सत्यनामप्रसरं, is beyond the sensible, नेनहूँ शाप्तवन तद्वलोकनयान्र्तित is far beyond the transient, mobile, vibratory phenomena of the senses. Do you descend into the earth, and ascend into the heavens, and explore the regions of immensity to discover the locality of the Universal Spirit.

तद्वलोकनान्तरस्य सर्वोत्तम सत्य तद्
सर्वस्त्र्यास्य वाच्यतं। यो तच्छ भो सति॥

He is remoter than remotest, as the physical senses discern Him not. He is nearer than the nearest, for, He is the innermost, but foreign or exotic to all that is external.

The law of God’s revelation into the soul is the inner harmony. The whirlwind of matter obstructs the adjustment of the internal Abstraction, meditation, mental quiet and contemplation alone are compatible with the realization of the Divine.
But when he who makes boast of his high impregnability, is himself most vulnerable; he who prides himself upon his valor, is himself most cowardly; he who preaches truth to others, is himself most untruthful; he who sets himself up as the leader of a legion, is himself misled; he who styles himself an honest citizen is unjustly living upon heavy profits filched from the daily toil of hopeless men; he who claims to belong to an honorable profession, fills pockets upon the bargains of others' forgeries, iniquities and legal niceties; he who calls himself the noble physician, the philanthropic curer of the body, is only interested in the pecuniary health of his patients; he who administers peace to the soul, when preaching on the pulpit, is profane when cursing the enemies of his creed; he who talks of liberty and independence of thought, permits the government, public opinion, or the church to gag the free-born soul: he whoboldly challenges the world to refute his dogmas, his policy, or his charitableness, himself hesitates to broach one particular question in private to defend one particular line of action, or to allow one particular charity, does he or can he maintain any harmony of the Internal? Why then expect that he can be good, holy, and pure, full of the inspirations of divinity.

So long as might is mistaken for right: brute-force is made to do the work of love: folly is substituted for the hints of wisdom: hypocrisy is more fashionable than innocent virtue; wealthy vice is more courted and sustained than poor virtue; how can diseases, crimes and miseries cease to exist, or peace, progression and happiness prevail? That is why in the boundlessness of ignorance man assumes the possession of rare intelligence. The slanting rays of science, a sun that has not yet risen, he applauds as the full blaze of absolute truth.

These maladies of inner life have attracted the notice of thinking minds, these diseases have been pointed out by the religiously earnest, and, as is the custom with bodily discords and corporeal maladies, patent medicines have been invented supposed to cure these evils, reform society and purge off individuals. A sect of such patent medicine-vendors prescribes "prayer" as the best emetic purgative for such diseases, and advises men and individuals to absorb long doses of prayer both by day and night. Thus malformations are being generated, perpetuated and encouraged, and the enervating, swooning effect of decaying spiritual energy is mistaken for the chastening effects of "prayer." First of all, diseases, discords and pains are positive evils. With the progress of "prayer," the praying soul learns to put up with them, he then regards them in his self-abnegation as the dust of travel, he ultimately succumbs to them and swoons, and takes this for the quiet of his mind which he calls the bliss, the salvation, the presence of divinity in the soul. With this the vital energy begins to decay, and this he styles the death of the brute in him. This patent medicine is but the fire of sentiments, the spark of
ungratified desires, the ember of unprovisioned needs, the heat of friction, the broth and boil of conflict. The quiet of the mind, the swoon that follows, is the death of the intellect upon whose ashes simmer and bubble the vapours of passions, of griefs, of pangs, of ecstasies and other abnormalities. But the true influx of divine light comes with expansion of the intellect, the elevation of feelings, and the increase of vitality. Then true intuitions dawn. Let us not mistake the external signs for the internal. All that glitters is not gold. In fact, the external is delusive, the invisible is the real. And the search of the invisible is the true search after God, its discovery and appropriation, the true birth of the spirit and the immortality of the soul. Decidedly, then, I give preference to the invisible over the visible.

"That my meaning may be more distinctly comprehended, let it be observed that the body is a form, is transient, is changeable, the internal is not changeable. The man is the internal, the effect or form is external. The mind is not acted upon, but acts on the body. That which is internal is the reality; that which it acts on is visible and mortal. And all appearances foreign are composed of the same mortal ingredients, mortal in the restricted sense of that term.

Now it being clear that the visible is not the real, but that the invisible is the eternal, it follows that we must make the best of truth to consist in an imperceptible yet unchangeable and eternal principle. Admitting this much, you are able to advance one step further in the cognizance of possible probabilities. Effects are witnessed, they are traced to an immediate cause, which is demonstrated by strict and severe analysis. This cause producing this effect shows you that, the effect is not without a cause. This effect produces another and that also another; and so by analogy you may see that there is an endless and incalculable amount of causes and effects. And tracing causes to effects and effects to causes, is the correct process of reasoning, and this you do in your imagination, until you arrive at a chaos of existence, then stop breathless and return to ask: What was the cause of the first cause? You would not have gone upon these trackless peregrination, if you had but considered all forms and externals as not causes but effects. Let us illustrate this by an example.

Conceive of a germ being hidden beneath the surface of this hard earth. Imagine that you forget its existence. Let a few years of time elapse, and cast your eyes to the spot where it was concealed, and you see a lofty and beautiful tree, standing in all the majesty and dignity of its nature. Would it not be as absurd and impossible to disbelieve the existence as it would be to doubt for one moment, the germ which has produced this existence? The tree stands and is visible as an ultimate man stands and is also an ultimate. The germ of the tree, you knew of its existence, but the germ of the world, you do not know of its existence, But is it not evident that
the latter is at least possible since the first is known and demonstrated? By even assenting to such a possibility, we become prepared to take one more careful step in this investigation.

Let us illustrate the next step to be taken by another example. Suppose a man diseased: physicians examine his case guided both by physiological manifestations of the disease, and by the feelings which the disease produces, which are not perceptible to them by any processes of external observation. The patient communicates his own feelings, the physicians taking them for granted, and from these together with the symptoms manifest, they decide upon the name of the disease. Every one of these physicians, from the evidence which he has received through the senses, differs from the others as to the character of the disease. Have you not here proof that the external and manifest is the effect and cannot be relied on, while the cause is hidden and you do not possess any means by which to investigate its cause?

Again, a man has a carious tooth; he tells you he experiences a severe pain; but you doubt his word and ask for proof. He points you to the tooth which is the object tangible. But does the evidence, of which your senses admit, convince you that he has a pain?

Another example. The whole world of mankind can give in their united testimonies that they positively and absolutely see the sun rising in the east and setting in the west. Is there not internal evidence that the external and manifest of this is positively unreal? Inward searching after truth has established the cause of this phenomenon and proved that the sun does not move. But it is the visible and the external that you are deceived by and not the invisible which is the reality.

Hence, the true student of Nature contemplates the invisible in the visible, silently contemplates the cause at the back of nature which produced this theatre of human existence, and, with highest reverence for truths pertaining there unto, associates with the first Principle of life and activity. His aspirations are purely of an intellectual or moral character. The universe is fully of the Lord, and there is nothing of the universe that is not of the Lord:

\[ \text{ईश्वरस्वरूप सवं यत्तिकान्निर्निचजगत्यांच्छान्ति} \]

To his purified understanding, freed from passion and dislike, devotion and meditation, confidence and dispassion open the way where the beams of wisdom softly enter and shed a mellow, agreeable lustre on his feelings and intellect. He has discovered the true saviour, the invisible master, in whom the universe has its being. To him the interior is the real. His expanded intellect passes through the dross to that which is essential, to the spirit within the body, to the life within the law, to the science within the substance.
The conclusion from the above is that it is the expanded intellect, and not prayer, that can lift the soul to the realisation of the divine reality; that the most earnest prayer we can ever utter, is the righteous exertion to merit the inspirations that flow into the intellect from the Fountain-head of all Wisdom.

It has been my object in the present imperfect hasty sketch of my ideas presented to you to establish and make plain three conclusions:

1.—That there is a true inner life, and that man subjected to the interference of the commotions of the world cannot fully perceive and comprehend the Universal Truth.

3.—That from inability to perceive this Universal Truth by the expanded intellect or purified reason have sprung up the patent theological remedies of prayer-doses and tearful brain-reliefs.

3.—That the Original Organiser of the Universe is the Invisible, the Potent, the Universal, and the All-governing reality of this inner world.
PECUNIOMANIA.
PECUNIOMANIA.

Under this head, we propose to deal with the question "how far the pursuit of wealth is a healthy pursuit."

Says Manu, II. 13:

शर्थ वामेष्टसमानं धर्मं ज्ञानं विधीयते ।
धर्मं जित्रायसमानाः प्रमाणं परमेयति॥

It is only those who stand aloof from the pursuit both of wealth and of carnal pleasures that can ever obtain a knowledge of true religion. It is the duty of every one who aspires after this object, to determine what true religion is by the help of the Vedas, for, a clear and perfect ascertainment of true religion is not attained altogether without the help of the Vedas.

In the verse quoted above, Manu maintains three propositions; first, that the pursuit of artha (wealth), is opposed to the acquisition of the knowledge of true religion; secondly, that the pursuit of káma (carnal pleasures) is opposed to the acquisition of the same; and, lastly, that the study of the Vedas is necessary for those who would make it their business to investigate true religion.

The first and second propositions of Manu may be regarded as one; for the pursuit of carnal pleasures is, in the majority of cases, so interwoven with the pursuit of wealth, that it is generally impossible to command the gratification of the former without a previous inordinate accumulation of the latter. We take, therefore, the first half of the verse of Manu to mean that an inordinate pursuit of wealth is inconsistent with the acquisition of true knowledge of religion, and this will be the subject of the present paper. The second half of Manu's verse, we shall deal with some other time.

Had Manu lived in the present nineteenth century—the cry of which from all quarters is, 'the struggle for existence,' or 'the survival of the fittest,' the demand of which is ever something practical, either in the shape of money, or of goods, or of materials,—it would have been very bold of him to have asserted the proposition conveyed in the first line of his verse quoted above; for, the actual meaning of it will be that men of the present generation, immersed as they are in practical pursuit of wealth are not qualified for an understanding of the truths of pure religion. This assertion of Manu, no doubt, seems to be a very sweeping and insulting one.
It is, nevertheless, nothing but true. For, the light of religion only dawns on the soil of abstraction, meditation, mental quiet, and contemplation. And the headlong pursuit of wealth, in which the present practical world is wholly absorbed, is so very prejudicial to the growth of these mental conditions, that, in the interests of truth, religion and higher human nature, it has become needful for the busy, practical world to reconsider its position, and at least, to bestow a thought before plunging into the active labor entailed by the pre-dominant principles of Jealousy, Competition and Ambition. It is true that, under the stimulation of these powerful incentives for material progress, man has become neglectful of his higher duties to Truth, and so very true is it that even eminent men of science have begun to feel the dangerous and disgraceful efforts of this tendency. Remarks Dr. White, President of Cornell University:—

"We are greatly stirred, at times, as this fraud or that scoundrel is dragged to light, and there rise cries and moans over the corruption of the times; but my friends, these frauds and these scoundrels are not the corruptions of the times. They are the mere pustules which the body politic throws to the surface. Thank God, that there is vitality enough left to throw them to the surface. The disease is below all, infinitely more wide-spread.

"What is that disease? I believe that it is first of all indifferenct-indifference to truth as truth; next, scepticism, by which I do not mean inability to believe this or that dogma, but the scepticism which refuses to believe that there is any power in the universe strong enough, large enough, good enough, to make the thorough search for truth, safe in every line of investigation; thirdly, infidelity, by which I do not mean want of fidelity to this or that dominant creed, but want of fidelity to that which underlies all creeds, the idea that the true and the good are one; and, finally, materialism, by which I do not mean this or that scientific theory of the universe, but that devotion to the mere husks and rinds of good, that struggle for place and pelf, that faith in mere material comfort and wealth which eats out of human hearts all patriotism and which is the very opposite of the spirit that gives energy to scientific achievement." *

Here is an eminent man of science complaining that the society is at present pestered with four fatal diseases, indifference, scepticism, infidelity and, finally, materialism. And the cause of all this is evidently the modish worship of mighty matter and money.

In order that this truth may be more easily brought home to the earnest reader, let us cast a look upon the large number of lawyers, physicians, capitalists, tradesmen, engineers, contractors, clergymen, educationists, clerks, and other life-draggers in the innumerable fashionable professions of the day, that swarm in our own country, and whose main object, in choosing the very professions they hold, is the hoarding of the shining gold, so alluring to the jaundiced eye of the competition-sick practical man. It is in vain that we seek for a rational explanation of the existence of these harassing professions on the grounds of benevolence or of rational usefulness. But for the filthy lucre they bring, these professions would never have sprang into existence. Bees do not hum and buzz so thickly on a lump of sugar,

* President White's Address, appendix to Lectures on 'Light' by J. Tyndal, Third edition, 1882, pp. 238-239.
as do lawyers and traders, physicians and contractors at the shrine of money. It is literally true that money is the God that is more worshipped than the God of Nature.

Nor is that alone, money being the pursuit of almost all. Nay, it in the topic of topics. There is the self-styled reformer bewailing over the extreme poverty of his country, over the consequent misery, sin and crime that prevail. He is awfully pained to see that arts do not flourish in his country. By long and tiresome efforts, he succeeded in establishing an institution that might have richly improved the resources of the material prosperity of his country, but his disappointment is past all description at the fact that the institution is soon doomed to starvation. Thus meditates the reformer in his solitary moods:—our country is poor, because we have no wealth; sin and misery prevail, because we have no wealth; arts cannot flourish, because we have no wealth; institutions cannot live long and succeed, because we have no wealth. From all sides is the ambitious reformer repelled towards the problem of wealth. He employs his gigantic material intellect in the solution of this problem. Individual enterprises alone can render his country wealthy; but how can individual enterprises be undertaken without money? Perhaps, there is another solution. He would introduce machinery into his country, and that would yield rich harvest of wealth and opulence. But machinery is costly, and a poor country cannot buy it. Or, perchance, our reformer is a protectionist. He would not import machinery or foreign improved modes of carrying on industry, but would encourage and foster native manufactures. Unfortunately for our reformer, unwise human nature is made after cheapness, and competition fells, with its direful axe, the structure of protection so carefully raised by the reformer.

There is the materialistic philosopher. What a charming thing is civilisation! In accordance with his superficial modes of philosophizing, he analyzes civilization into its elements, and discovers the whole fabric of civilization to rest upon wealth. Steamers and locomotive engines, telegraphs and post office arrangements, printing presses and labor-economizing machines would vanish into mere coal, iron and sand—fruitless articles—without the mighty, labor-sustaining hand of wealth.

Nor is this the case with the reformer and the philosopher alone. The politician, the statesman, the newspaper-writer, the public lecturer, each in his turn, is hurled back upon the problem of wealth. And thus the world, in its talks and conversations, lectures and public meetings, private meditations and silent reflections, echoes and re-echoes "MONEY," till the whole fabric of Society begins to reverberate, and the atmosphere is filled with phantoms of a like nature.

Reader, carefully observe the ephemeral bustle and transient activity of the so-called civilized society. Do you not note that at
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least seventy-five per cent. of the phenomena that find their way to publicity in the civilized world, owe their origin to the love of power, love of enjoyment (i.e. of pleasures of the senses), love of honor, love of superiority, love of fame, and love of display? Why is it that the master extracts obedience from his servants? Why is it that men always desire to move in circles of society higher than their own? Why is it that so many reises and rajahs would willingly incur or maintain useless regal expenditure, but to win mere empty titles of Rajah or Rai Bahadur, or Sardar Bahadur? Impelled by imperious love of power or love of superiority, love of honor or love of fame, love of display or love of enjoyment! And where is the mighty engine to manufacture means for the gratification of these basely, inordinate, selfish loves? It is MONEY.

Again, go into the lower strata of society, (by lower, I mean lower morally, though not necessarily socially,) and see what part the feelings of jealousy, anger, envy, rivalry and competition play in that blind rush of living forces, called civilized life. The constantly increasing litigation, the strifes and feuds of nobility, the corruptions of courts and police, the life-sucking exhaustion of competitive candidates—all bear testimony that the society is at present deeply agitated by wretched feeling of jealousy, envy, rivalry and competition, so unbecoming of man. Where would you find the man, who, although benevolence of nature, would restrict the operation of vengeance or anger? In the civilized society, hardly any! Perhaps, the poverty-stricken, misery-laden wretch, who has not the means to practice the dictates of his rebellious nature, but has only the misfortune to be subject to disappointment and melancholy, may be found, here or there, dragging his life with impatience and restless nightmare. O, if he had the power to wreak his vengeance upon oppressing civilized society! Does not all this, again, appeal to the potency of mighty MONEY.

Imitation is the grand principle upon which society is at present constructed. Imitation is the fulcrum upon which hinges the mighty lever of society. Not to speak of custom, fashion, dint of beaten groove, fear of idiosyncrasy, all of which spring in one way or other from the parental principles, imitation,—even in matters of religious belief, or in the department of opinions, ninety per cent. of the inhabitants of the world are swayed by the influence of the same all-pervading principle, Imitation. Speaking of the same ape-like faculty of Imitation, J. S. Mill says:

'In our times from the highest class of society down to the lowest, every one lives as under the eye of a hostile and dreaded censorhip. Not only in what concerns others, but in what concerns only themselves, the individual or the family do not ask themselves—What do I prefer? or, what would suit my character or disposition? or what would allow the best and
highest in me to have fair play, and enable it to grow and thrive? They ask themselves, what is suitable to my position? What is usually done by persons of my station and pecuniary circumstances? Or (worse still) what is usually done by persons of a station and circumstances superior to mine? I do not mean that they choose what is customary in preference to what suits their inclination. It does not occur to them to have any inclination, except for what is customary. Thus, the mind itself is bowed to the yoke; even in what people do for pleasure, conformity is the first thing thought of; they live in crowds, they exercise choice only among things commonly done; peculiarity of taste, eccentricity of conduct, are shunned equally with crimes; until by dint of not following their own nature, they have no nature to follow; their human capacities are withered and starved; they become incapable of any strong wishes or native pleasures, and are generally without either opinions or feelings of home-growth, or, properly their own. Now is this, or is it not, the desirable condition of human nature?

Such, then, is the power of imitation. Who can resist its imperative influence? Can one see the busy, practical world,—lawyers, physicians, engineers, contractors and all—running mad after the pursuit of MONEY; can one hear philosophers, politicians and patroits, all with one cry extolling the efficacy of glittering GOLD; can one see the enthusiastic admirer of civilisation confessing the omnipotence of the PECUNIARY deity; can one observe the aristocratic hunters after ease, pleasure and comfort; the ambitious suitors of power, distinction or title, offering libations at the shrine of MAMMON; or, can one mark anger, revenge, envy, rivalry and jealousy, all suplicating PLUTUS, to bestow them means of their gratification; can one see all this, and yet not swear fealty to the sovereign power, GOLD?

By dint of imitation or example, man is pushed from right to left, to seek MONEY. Society is a whirlpool, wherein are caught all swimmers on the current of life, then tossed with violence hither and thither, now hurled this way, and then the other—till man is no better than a ‘money-making machine.’ Is not this state of society deplorable?

See what a wreck of nobler feelings this love of money makes. Duty clashes with interest. Evils are shielded under the suppressing power of Mammon. The dictates of higher human nature are cruelly set aside and trampled under foot? Physicians, instead of disseminating the knowledge of physiology and making the laws of health public, disguise even simple disease and medicines under the garb of foreign names, and the modes of their preparation under the mysterious symbolism of prescriptions. The numerous host of physicians, now
existing in the country, instead of wisely administering to the destruction of disease and blooming of cheerful health, earnestly pray, every day, that men endowed with purse and power to pay should fall sick oftener, and suffer more frequently. Lawyers, instead of breeding feelings of peaceful friendship and encouraging reconciliation, encourage feud and strife, and fan the flames of haughty pride or revengeful animosity. Tradesmen, instead of administering to the wants and needs of the people, and regulating with justice the law of demand and supply, get all they can, and give as little, keep their trade recipes secret or patented, and delude the ignorant consumers with adulterated materials. Even the preacher or the clergyman, whose business it should be to bestow consolation of simple truth and morality, and to shed the sacred blessings of religious piety and spiritual light, revels in the grand money-making scheme of winding up his lengthy, glooming, effected, hipoocrisy-infected sermons with a mysterious nonsense, which he himself does not and cannot understand.

It is not thus alone that urged by the society-born instinct of hoarding money, the physician and the clergyman, all alike, are led to the perversion of their duty and avocation. More serious still are other evils into which the society is plunged, but for the possession of wealth. There is the rich wine-dealer, or the opulent tobacco or opium-seller, suffered to live and flourish by his trade in society, and no one ever casts a look of disgust or disapproval at him, simply because he is rich. There are thousands of poor innocent people charged with crimes they never committed, and are punished; but the 'wealthy culprits,' armed with bribe or corruption, influence or intercession, escape with impunity. Inspite of the inspiration of the poet and the philosopher to the effect that all mankind are kin, in spite of the weak whisperings of pure religion that all are children of one, common father, is the wealthy class fostering inequality by its constant aggressions, oppressions, iniquities and tyrannies inflicted upon the weak and the poor. Under the strong infatuation of money, even the graduating student forsakes his tastes and inclinations, if he has any, and although fully confident of his intrinsic unfitness for the profession he chooses, he rushes into medicine, law, engineering and service, and floods the world with the consequences of his iniquitous calling. And the newspaper writer, who is never ashamed of calling himself the leader of public opinion, without a pang, delivers up his conscience, and feeds the vanity of the party that supports him. Read the degenerate newspaper literature—for newspaper literature is seldom reforming, regenerating or elevating—and you will see, how little is devoted to sound advice, true leadership, or to the cause of justice and truth, and how much to party-feeling, sentimentalism, race-prejudice, selfish bias, and wilful misrepresentation. All benevolence and disinterestedness is affected for mere show and ceremonialism, and in truth and in heart, exchanged for base selfishness and combatant sectarianism. Is this humanity?
The conclusion that irresistibly flows from the above considerations is, that the ‘love of money’ is now-a-days a disease, a form of insanity. Modern science of pathology would be imperfect and incomplete without a record of this discovery of the widest-prevalent disease, that at present infects society and saps the very foundation of morality and religious feeling.

This disease is to be styled “PECUNIOMANIA,” for, like all other forms of insanity, it produces destruction of mental equilibrium and generates incoherency of thought: it communicates an irrevocable bias in one direction, withdrawing the human mind from all other channels of activity, and exercise; and, lastly, it creates an over-excited condition of the whole system, incompatible with moderation, or normal exercise of functions. Like many contagious diseases, cholera and the like, it spreads its germs of destruction most profusely, and most widely, and is easily caught by the susceptible organisation of man. And like hereditary diseases, this is also easily transmitted from father to son, from brother to brother, and from companion to friend. Hence:—

**PECUNIOMANIA is a disease of the type of Insanity, very contagious, transmissible by heredation, incurable or hardly curable, of the most virulent type.**

In order that the appreciating reader may have no difficulty in diagnosing the disease, we give below its most remarkable symptoms. Its symptoms are:—insatiable thirst, or ambition; always hungry stomach; a phlegmatic (filled with indifference) and splenetic (peevish) temperament; extreme sensitiveness and irritability; strong heart-burn of animal and inhuman passions; restlessness, anxiety and sleeplessness; fits of pride, power and feverishness; paralysis of moral and spiritual faculties, insensibility to impressions ultra-sensual or not physical; extreme proneness to over-feeding, over-clothing, indolence, luxury and comfort; an assumed air of superficial independence; personal weakness and infirmity.

And now, we will ask the anxious reader, whether, in the name of truth, justice and goodness, a disease that renders man insane; a disease that sneers at all metaphysics, looks down upon all thoughtful reflection or philosophy, and discards all theology as speculative, un-practical and absurd; a disease that stigmatizes all efforts to ennoble and elevate mankind morally, rationally and spiritually, as theoretical; a disease that pronounces self-knowledge as impossible; a disease that brings morality down to the level of expediency; a disease that, instead of the worship of God of Nature, sets up a worst and most wretched form of idolatry, the worship of copper, silver and gold; a disease that denies to man the possession of any nature other than the one capable of eating, drinking and merry-making: we again ask, whether such a disease should not be at once uprooted, destroyed, and
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burnt never to grow again? For, so long as this disease exists, there shall be no morality, no religion, no truth, no philosophy.

The law of the influx of religious ideas is sound mind, disinterested truthful temperament, composed and tranquil attitude, powerful persevering intellect and concentrated meditation. And it is the foundation of these very conditions that the headlong pursuit of money undermines. The anxiety and pride, which the possession of money invariably brings, rob the mind of its composure; and the complicated relations and interests which the possession of power (wealth is power) always engenders, even take away the iota of disinterestedness or truthfulness that may have been left; till, restless, through anxiety, turbulent through pride, and biased through interest man loses both the power of concentration and of clear thought.

How elevating and dignifying is independence, true real independence, where man is no more a slave of his surroundings and circumstances, but a master. And yet, there is nothing that does more violence to the growth and existence of this blissful condition in man than the possession of wealth. A man proud of wealth is invariably a slave of his wealth. A stout healthy man is always in enjoyment of his health. He feels self-conscious of his power, and is legitimately proud of the independence he feels in the exercise of his power. He exerts his locomotive apparatus, whenever he desires change of place or scenery; he takes to physical exercise whenever he desires restoration of strength and vigour; he goes on a walk to breathe the free air of heaven or to enjoy the scenery of nature, whenever he desires refreshment; he entertains elevated thoughts and plunges into meditations, whenever he desires to feel as a true man, a human spirit; and he rouses the dormant conservative forces of his self-healing nature, whenever diseases or extremes of heat and cold attack him. In short, he is amply provided, in himself, with whatsoever he needs. But the rich man is altogether dependent on the tinsel of matter; conveyance by carriages, instead of locomotion by muscular action; plethoric fulness, borrowed from the activity of drugs, or the ministrations of attending physicians, instead of inborn healthy glow; rich viands but impaired digestion which strongly needs the stimulation of the liquor to perform its functions, instead of simple diet and healthy stomach; dead photographs, and mute portraits hanging by the walls of his rooms, instead of the scenery of nature; entire dependence upon the cooling power of pankhas, and the warming properties of fire, refreshing power of beverages, and stirring influence of wines, instead of natural endurance. Is this the independence which a human being should feel?

It is not to this extent alone that the effects of this tendency have extended. Modern civilisation,—a phenomenon, mainly due to the chameleon-like properties of wealth—is brimful of the illustrious consequences of this tendency. The ancient world produced bar-
barians and savages; because, they were gigantic specimens of human nature, living almost naked in caves or mere huts built just for a temporary protection from wind and rain; because, their wants being few, their arts were simple and not numerous; because, possessed of powerful memories, their knowledge was all they learned by rote, and their reference books or library, the infallible record on the tablet of their memory; because, possessed of a clear head, their illustrations were so simple and common that their reasoning must appear as shallow: because, being penetrative, they reasoned by analogy, and therefore they knew observation only. In short, they were men quite different from what the modern world produces. The modern world produces civilized men who are 'starved specimens of human nature'; their architecture is grand and more permanent; their arts are complex and more numerous; their memories are weak and defective, and more faithless; their libraries are unportable and more cumbersome; their illustrations are heavy and unique because they have been bedaubed as scientific by a process of baptism in unintelligible, classical and technical phraseology. Their reasoning is inductive; their test is experiment; and their logic is the theory of probabilities. Such, then, is the widespread influence of wealth on civilisation, both moral and intellectual.

If, then, the possession of wealth be fraught with so many evil tendencies and dangerous consequences, let it not be imagined that what is commonly regarded as its reverse, i.e. poverty, is less so. For, to quote a Sanskrit line:

दुमुखितः किं न करोति पापम्

'There is no sin or crime that is unknown to poverty.' By poverty we do not mean the absence of that hard heavy metal, otherwise known as gold, (for how can dead substances like copper, silver and gold, affect the physical, mental and moral prosperity of the living soul), but we mean the poverty of mind. Where the absence of metal is the only thing to be complained of, industry of muscle and thoughtful ingenuity of the brain can, with much greater advantage, be substituted for it. But how and whence is to be supplied, that deficiency in the true substance of the mind, in the mental and moral stock, which alone is the foundation of all industry, genius, honesty and enjoyment alike? The error of the world consists in thinking the gross material objects of the world to be of any value, in regarding the abundance of such materials as an emblem of wealth. True wealth is the riches of the soul, repletion of the mind with its fourfold endowments—the endowment of health, of will and muscular power, the endowment of intellectual faculties, and the endowment of moral and emotional stock. Let every one, who is possessed of a due share of these mental gifts, discard, with contempt, the little hard indigestible shining bits of metal, known as coinage, for, there is no liberty, genuine independence and dignity outside the exercise of these
normal faculties of the mind. Mind is everywhere the regnant principle. The furious lion, the gigantic elephant, the ferocious tiger, the howling wolf, the blood-thirsty hound, have been cowed down by the subduing power of the superior mind of man. The wild beasts of the forests have been tamed and rendered docile. The solid rocks have been compelled to part with their quarry, the depths of the earth have been forced to yield up their locked-in treasures, the mighty rivers have been made to change their course, the cataracts to give up their impetuous force to the whirling machinery, the water and fire have been driven to drag thousands of tons of loads every moment, at the tremendous rate of 40 or 50 miles an hour, and even the electricity of the heavens has been imprisoned by pointed conductors; all this, under the guidance and control of the superior mind. Nor has the material universe, or the animal kingdom alone, been thus vanquished by the power of the mind. Even arbitrary royalty, powerful oligarchy, the aristocracy of nobility and the pride of heraldry have been thrown down and surrendered by the democracy of reason, 'the monarchy of mind,' 'the republic of intellect.' And further the pride of aged pedantry, hoary with age, has cast off its self-assumed importance, and learnt lessons at the feet of superior, though young, minds. Even the industrious dexterity and skilful ingenuity have bowed under the swaying omnipotence of new ideas.

It should, then, be clearly borne in mind that the richness of mind, is the true richness. It is the undecayable wealth that deserves the greatest respect and highest reverence. Physical, material wealth, should be the lowest thing in our estimation. Says Manu:

विश बन्धुथं: कम्मिविधा भवित पञ्चमरि
एततिः मानवस्थानां गरीया यथतसरसः

"Wealth, nobility of blood, age, professional skill or honest industry and knowledge (the wealth of mind), these are the five things to be respected, the one following more than the one preceding it." This truth has been amply illustrated in the remarks made above, concerning the superiority of the mind. The conclusion to be cherished is that the possession of mental riches is the best possession, and that the pursuit of these (as contradistinguished from the pursuit of wealth), is the pursuit that is becoming of the nobility of human nature. Mind is the true source of power, and ideas (or knowledge) are the true wealth, before which all else crumbles to dust, to rise no more. Says the Upanishat:

शात्मना विन्द्रते बीरं विबध्या विन्द्रत्तस्यतमः

True power comes from the spirit, and immortality from the possession of ideas.
A REPLY
TO
MR. T. WILLIAMS' LETTER
ON
"IDOLATRY IN THE VEDAS."
A REPLY,
IN THE FORM OF FOOT NOTES,
TO MR. T. WILLIAMS’ LETTER,
ON
"IDOLATRY IN THE VEDAS,"
ADDRESSED TO THE EDITOR, ARYA PATRIKA.

DEAR MR. EDITOR,—It is now some time since I addressed you. The fact is that it is only now that I have the leisure to write to you; and I trust that the courtesy which then actuated you in venturing to insert my communication in your paper, will now too induce you to do so.

My subject is “Idolatry in the Vedas.” Before opening my argument, let me state what ‘idolatry’ is. It is not merely the worship of any thing man has made of wood or stone or metal or any such thing: it is the worship of the creature instead of the Creator, i.e., the worship of any thing whatsoever other than God.(1) I think you will agree to this; I should think, no Arya would demur to it, but rather accept it as a sufficient definition. And now to my argument.

If my definition be true, then the worship of the atmosphere, or of the water, or of the sun, or of the dawn, or of the Soma juice, is idolatry. Now, I assert that, in the Rigveda, we find the worship of all these creatures, i.e., the worship of other than God. In this paper I shall not attempt to substantiate my assertion with regard to all these creatures enumerated, and shall probably find that what I have to say about the worship of the atmosphere will be fully sufficient for this article.

Now, sir, we have Mr. Guru Datta’s authority for saying, that in Rigveda, 1, 2, 1, the word Vayu means the atmosphere, (Vide Vedic Texts, No. 1). In that verse, Vayu is in the vocative case, and must be rendered, in English, “O Vayu”!* The pada form of the verse shows authricitatively that this is so. Indeed, Sanskrit Grammar cannot allow of any other case. Vayu being in the vocative, the verbs depending upon it are in the imperative, as might be expected. There are three verbs, thus dependent, which must be rendered in English, as ‘come,’ ‘drink,’ and ‘hear.’ The person addressed to in each case is Vayu, so that we have “O Vayu, come,—O Vayu, drink,—O

1. We quite concur with this definition. Idolatry is, ‘worship of any thing whatsoever other than God.’ And according to this definition, God of Nature being one, the worship of three Gods of the Trinity is also idolatry, and so is the worship of Man-god or God-man, and so also the worship of the Infallible word. The worship of the cross is no exception to this.
Vayu, hear." With Mr. G. Datta's authority let us put 'atmosphere' for Vayu, and we get. "O atmosphere, come,—O atmosphere, drink, —O atmosphere, hear." Of course, Mr. Guru Datta cannot possibly be wrong. But if he be right, then we have the Veda recording the edifying fact that some simple-minded Arya, ages upon ages ago, thought that the atmosphere was a god that would come at his invitation, drink at his request and listen to his call! This simple Arya was of a sociable turn, for the beverage (2) he had prepared for the atmosphere to drink was the exhilarating Soma so beloved of the gods and of Indra in particular. (3)

The correct rendering of the verse, both etymologically and grammatically is, "Come, O sightly Vayu, these somas are prepared. Drink of them. Hear our invocation."

I have demonstrated then, by the help of Mr Guru Datta, that there is 'Idolatry in the Vedas.' (4)

2. The writer of this article, Mr. Williams, betrays a strange ignorance of Sanskrit Grammar here. Besides the fact, that there is nothing in this mantra to substantiate that the "Soma" is the beverage referred to, there is something to show that the word "Soma" does not mean "beverage" here. The Sanskrit words are "Ime Somah," which mean "these Soma." Now had Soma meant, "beverage," we should have met with the word "Soma" in the Singular number and the qualifying pronoun "asau" or "saym" and not "ime." It will not do to say that there may be many kinds of beverages, for, although it may be true, "Soma" is only one kind of beverage, and hence can not be spoken of in the plural number. To substantiate his view, Mr. Williams should also quote Mantras that deal with the materials of "Somah" and of their mode of preparation.

3. "Soma" so beloved of the gods and of Indra in particular. Mr. Williams is here in his "clerical" moods. Justice would require that he should make the best of this mantra, and reserve his "highly accurate information," or other points till occasion requires, or, if he is so fond of thrusting his well-acquired mythological information, he should substantiate it there and then. What proof has he given in this article of the assertion that Somah is beloved of all the gods and particularly of Indra. But he might say, that although he has not given any proofs in this article yet proofs can be forthcoming. Will he allow the same license to his adversary? No, it will be against Christian Justice. Without waiting for proofs, just as we have to wait for proofs to be given by Mr. Williams, Mr. Williams construes the silence of the author of a Vedic text on certain grammatical forms into a serious charge! He says, "It is because if he did so and did so honestly, (i.e. discussed the grammar) he could not regard the verse as a scientific statement of any sort whatsoever, for, grammar would compel him to represent the verse as the simple prayer of a simple-minded Arya, whose real conceptions of a God rose no higher than that of regarding the atmosphere around as something divine, that might come at his call, drink of the "soma" he had prepared, and listen to his call." Surely it is a "Christian" virtue to attribute motives without the slightest evidence for them. Let us however, give a parody. Why is it that Mr. Williams does not substantiate his meaning of "somah" as juice, the plural number of the word "soma," together with a plural pronoun "ime," and the assertion that "soma" was much beloved of the gods and particularly of Indra. It is because if he did, and did so honestly he would find his meanings falsified, instead of being substantiated, and himself a mere misrepresenter of Vedic mantras, through fear that if the Vedas turn out to be true, what will become of the almost score-centuryd Bible Revelation?

4. In the light of T. Williams' logic and learning, the use of a noun signifying any thing other than God in the vocative case, and the consequent use of the 2nd person in the depending verbs, &c., or of the imperative mood, is a proof

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Now, Mr. Editor, whoever impugns my argument, must do so in one or more of these ways i. e., first, he may impugn Mr. Guru Datta's rendering of Vayu as Atmosphere; or, second, he may deny that Vayu is in the vocative case; or, thirdly, he may deny that Ayahi, pahi, and shrudhi are in the second person, singular, imperative. Whoever cannot do this is bound (5) to accept the conclusion I have stated, that there is "Idolatry in the Vedas."

I will begin with the third case, and ask, are 'Ayahi, 'pahi,' and 'shrudhi' (the spelling is Mr. Guru Datta's) in the second singular, imperative; or are they not? Every sound grammarian would say they are. The mere tyro in grammar would know that 'Ayahi' is as I have said. It is evidently a Vedic as well as a later Sanskrit form. It cannot possibly be any thing else, so Yaska, when he quotes this verse (Nir. 10. 2.), does not give the modern equivalent of Ayahi simply because the ancient and modern forms are identical, or, to use incontestable of Idolatry in a book that so reads. I quote from Shakespeare]

"Frailty, thy name is woman," and apply the canons of T. Williams here. Frailty is in the vocative case, 'thy' is a pronoun in the 2nd person. Hence this verse clearly proves the existence of idolatry in Shakespeare's Hamlet. But T. Williams has to say that it is not only these features in the Vedas but the atmosphere represented as capable of coming, drinking and hearing, which proves idolatry.

Let me quote from 'In Memoriam' (Tennyson).

"So careful of the type! but no"
From scarped cliff and quarried stone
She cries, "Athens and types have gone,
I care for nothing, all shall go.
Thou makest thine appeal to me.
I bring to life, I bring to death:
The spirit doth but mean the breath:
I know no more, &c."

Here Nature is represented as "crying" 'caring for nothing' 'hearing appeals,' 'answering appeals' 'bringing to life' or 'bringing to death "knowing" only something. Are not these clear indications of idolatry. Or again:—

O sorrow, wilt thou live with me,
No casual mistress, but a wife,
My bosom friend and 'half of life'
As I confess it need must be;
O sorrow, wilt thou rule my blood,
Be sometimes lovely like a bride.
And put thy harsher mood aside,
If thou wilt have me wise and good.

Here is sorrow in vocative case, with second person pronoun, "thou," represented as capable of living as a wife, as hearing, as confessing, as ruling, as desiring others to be good and wise; and here is poet-laureate appealing to this god in prayer "wilt thou." Can there be anything clearer than this?

It is, indeed, very strange that these and other passages so often occurring in English poetry will be construed neither by T. Williams, nor any other Christian philologist, into indications of idolatry, but as the result of poetic imagination, and personification; and yet, when even these philologists come across similar passages in the Vedas, they forsake their common sense and at once begin to find idolatry in the sacred books of the "pagans."

5. As much bound to accept, as T. Williams is to accept the conclusion that there is idolatry in the passage of Shakespeare and Tennyson given above.
technical terms, the word Ayahi is both Naigama and Laukika. But for 'pahi' and 'shrudhi,' Yaska does give their modern equivalents and says they mean 'pivahi' and 'shrinu.'

Now, Sir, I find 'Ayahi' occurs 64 times in the Rigveda, and 'yahi' 67 times, and in every case they are to be translated as 2nd sing. impv, so that any man that translates otherwise is to be condemned on every hand as violating the plainest grammar and disregarding venerable authority. Now, I find that Dayananda Saraswati renders 'Ayahi,' not 'Agacchava,' but it is to Agacchati that he clings. So he gives for 'pahi,' 'rakshayati,' and for 'shrudhi,' 'shravayati.' The man who dares to say that 'Ayahi=Agacchati' or 'pahi=rakshayati,' or 'shrudhi'= 'shravayati,' does so in utter defiance of grammar or authoritative precedent. There is absolutely no justification for such rendering in any shape or way: For a man to treat a book that he professes to revere, in this disgraceful way, stamps him as one utterly unscrupulous (6). I have another instance of Dayananda's scant respect for the book that he proclaims as superior to any other, and, Mr. Editor, I shall give it to you in some future paper.

But now one must ask how Mr. G. Datta deals with these verbs. He says nothing about them grammatically. This is extraordinary, for, he sets out with declaring he will show how the Veda teaches us what the atmosphere is. Now, if the Veda asserts a thing, it must employ a verb in order to do so. But of the three verbs employed in the verse Mr. G. Datta says nothing qua verbs, i. e., he does not discuss their grammar in the least; and as with the verbs so with the nouns. The grammar is not discussed in the least. Why is this? It is because if he did and did so honestly, he could not regard the verse as a scientific statement of any sort whatever, for, grammar would compel him to represent the verse, as the simple prayer of a simple-minded Arya, whose rude conceptions of a God were no higher than that of regarding the atmosphere around us something divine, that might come at his call, drink of the soma he had prepared, and listen to his call. Mr. Guru Datta makes the science he asserts the Rigveda contains, depend not upon grammar and authoritative rendering, (such as Yaska), but upon etymology; and the futility of this as regards its securing the Rigveda any extraordinary credit, I have already shown when I demonstrated that 'Vayu,' air and wind, have exactly the same connotation, so that what may be claimed for the one, may, with equal right, be claimed for the three.

6. If in explaining the above lines of Tennyson, a Professor in the Chair of English language, should convert "O Sorrow" into mere "Sorrow," he would be, equally with Dayananda Saraswati, "violating the plainest grammar and disregarding venerable authority." The English Professor, who dares do so in defiance of grammar or authoritative precedent, must be regarded as "utterly unscrupulous."
ON IDOLATRY IN THE VEDAS.

Now, this goes to show that the rendering of the Veda, as put forth by Dayananda and his followers, is not to be trusted, but on the contrary is to be thoroughly mistrusted. If this be the Sanskrit Grammar and exegesis taught in the Dayananda College, it needs no special inspiration to confidently predict that it will be an evil day when any of the alumni of that College go in for a Government Examination in Sanskrit. (7)

Mr. Editor, there is an axiom of Panini, 'Vahulam, echandosi,' which occurs in his grammar some 18 times. Now this axiom or sūtra would seem to be the Magna Charta of Dayananda and his followers, for, it means in the hands of unscrupulous people, that the Veda may mean just what any one may choose to make it mean; and so becomes not merely "Vahulam" but 'bavala.' (8)

7. Such a malicious language is purely Christian, for, to tell the truth, not only is the Dayananda Anglo Vedic College suffering from this mistrustful teaching of idolatry, but all Schools and Colleges where Milton, Tennyson, Shakespeare, Goldsmith and the remaining host of Christian yet idolatrous poets are taught, are suffering from the same disease.

8 The charge is utterly unfounded, and only proves the bavala of the writer of the charge.—Guru Datta Vidyarthi.

The passages quoted by Pundit Guru Datta are after all from the works of poets, who may, (according to Mr. T. Williams' canons, of course,) inculcate the rankest idolatry for what Mr. Williams cares. A man of such deep faith would require something directly from the "inspired writings." To please Mr. Williams we open the word of God and, after a minute's looking over, light on the following edifying passages:

"Lift up your heads, O ye gates; even lift them up, ye everlasting doors; and the king of glory shall come in." David's Psalms, Psalm XXIII. Verse 9. "Make a joyful noise unto God, all ye lands." D. PS. P. LXVI. V. I. "Why leap ye, ye high hills?" David's Psalms, Psalm. LXVII.

We leave it to Mr. Williams to say whether or not the Bible, inculcates idol-worship according to his mode of finding out idolatry in another man's sacred book.—Ed. A.P.
A REPLY

TO

MR. T. WILLIAMS' CRITICISM

ON

NIYOGA.
Says a writer,—"To ascertain what a person's character is, inquire of him concerning the God in which he has faith; and his reply, if legitimately and honestly stated, will be a disclosure of his own disposition and spiritual or intellectual growth."

This proposition is perfectly true. The whole experience of man and nations justifies it, and the Bible of the Christians is also a proof of it. "God made man in His own image," says the Bible (Genesis, I, 26). Therefore, man, as an image, reveals the nature of God, or man is (in his own notion) just what his God is. Or, perhaps, it is more true to say that man makes God after his own image. Even in this case God is a true index of his own character and intellectual worth? Taking this truth as our guide, we wish to examine, in this article, T. Williams' character and worth as a critic of Dayananda. For, as it is invariably true that "it is a giddy head that thinks that the world turns round," may it not be that what Mr. T. Williams stands himself accused of, be exactly what he charges Dayananda with. The fact is, that T. Williams has the good fortune of wearing the spectacles of Christian prejudice, and to him, just as to a jaundiced eye, every thing appears tinged with the colour of his spectacles. T. Williams in his article appended herewith charges Dayananda with:

1. Having scant respect for the Vedas.
2. Preaching the astounding, grossly immoral and monstrous doctrine of Niyoga.
3. Having the unenviable distinction of so fathering the doctrine on the Rig Veda.
4. With telling a lie, gross lie, a deliberate lie, a terrible lie, and with scandalously falsifying the Vedas.
5. With idiocy.
6. With being a dangerous enemy of the Vedas of his times; and, lastly, T. Williams, with a truly Christian spirit absorbed at the pulpits, damns Dayananda and his doctrine.

In this article I shall make no distinction between "Lord," as occurring in the Old Testament, and Christ. For, the "Lord" of the Old Testament is Jehovah, or God, whereas the world-renowned (be-
cause of its pre-eminent intelligibility) doctrine of Trinity will have
that God—the Father (Jehovah), God the Son (Christ) and Holy Ghost
(the Lord) are one and the same. I will, therefore, substitute for the
word “Lord,” in the Old Testament, the word Christ, to give it a
pleasant, modern Christian, garb. And now to proceed with the
subject. I shall show that what T. Williams accuses Dayananda of,
if the Bible be true, is what Christ (Jehovah or Lord) stands accused
of.

T. Williams accuses Swami Dayananda, firstly, of having scant
respect for the Vedas.

Now to quote Paul (1 Cor. 7, 12). “But to the rest speak I, not
the Lord.” Again (2 Cor. 11, 17.) “That which I speak, I speak it
not after the Lord, but as it were foolishly, in this confidence of boast-
ing.” But be it remembered that Paul is an inspired personage and
Paul’s inspiration, which means Christ’s thoughts, led him to say that
what he is inspired of (a portion of the Bible), is not after the Lord
but foolish and uninspired. Therefore, God or Christ stands accused
of having scant respect for the Bible, for he declares that the Bible is
not inspired.

Secondly, T. Williams accuses Swami Dayananda of preaching
the astounding, grossly immoral, and monstrous doctrine of Niyoga.
We quote from Deuteronomy XXV: 5—10:—“If brethren dwell
together, and one of them die and have no child, the wife of the dead
shall not marry without unto a stranger, her husband’s brother shall
go in unto her, and take her to wife, and perform the duty of an
husband’s brother unto her and it shall be that the first born, which
she beareth, shall succeed in the name of his brother, which is dead,
that his name be not put out of Israel. And if the man like not to
take his brother’s wife, then let his brother’s wife go up to the gate
unto the elders, and say ‘my husband’s brother refuseth to raise up
unto his brother a name in Israel. He will not perform the duty of
my husband’s brother.’ Then the elders of the city shall call him,
and speak unto him: and if he stand to it, and say, ‘I like not to
take her; then shall his brother’s wife come unto him, in the presence
of the elders, and loose his shoe from off his foot and spit in his face
and shall answer and say, “so shall it be done unto that man that
will not build up his brother’s house—and his house shall be called in
Israel the house of him that has his shoe loosed.” This is clearly
Niyoga, and so Christ stands accused of preaching “the astounding,
grossly immoral, and monstrous doctrine of Niyoga.”

Thirdly, and consequently, Christ stands accused of having the
unenviable distinction of having fathered this doctrine upon the Bible.

Fourthly, T. Williams accuses Dayananda of telling lie, a deliber-
ate lie, a terrible lie, and a scandalous falsification.
Now, I Kings 22, 23. "And there came forth a spirit, and stood before the Lord, and said, I will persuade him. And the Lord said unto him, wherewith? And he said, I will go forth, and I will be a lying spirit in the mouth of all his prophets. And he said; thou shalt persuade him, and prevail also; go forth, and do so. Now, therefore, behold, the Lord hath put a lying spirit in the mouth of all these, thy prophets, and the Lord hath spoken evil concerning thee." Again, (2 Thes. 2. II) "and for this cause, God shall send them strong delusion, that shall believe a lie."

Does not the Christian God here stand accused of putting lie in the mouth of his prophets, of deluding people by a lie, "a gross lie, a deliberate lie, a terrible lie, and a scandalous falsification"?

Fifthly, T. Williams charges Swami Dayananda with idiocy. "Idiocy," says Webster, "is a defect in understanding." To show that Christ or God suffered from this defect we turn to Gen. 1-30, where it reads: —"And God saw everything that He had made and beheld it was very Good." Here to God's understanding every thing He had made appeared very good. Again, in the 6th Chapter and sixth verse of the same book, we read: "and it repented the Lord that He had made man on the earth and it grieved him at his heart." From the above it is clear that time proved to God's defective understanding that he had cherished fallacious hopes of his creation being very good, as, on the contrary, it turned out a source of repentence and grief to him. Is not this defective understanding, idiocy? God or Christ, therefore, stands accused of idiocy with which T. Williams so anxiously charges Dayananda.

We have shown how Christ declares the Bible to be uninspired, and, therefore, declares himself also a dangerous enemy of his Bible. It is no wonder, then, that T. Williams should charge Swami Dayananda with being a dangerous enemy of the Vedas of his time.

And, lastly, T. Williams, with a truly Christian spirit, throws his missionary weapons against Swami Dayananda, whom he represents as exposed to a damning charge. This is no more unlike T. Williams' God than the former charges were. "The Bible represents God or Christ as cursing and as dooming to pain and agony, to servitude and death, whole races of his creatures, throughout all lands and throughout all ages, for the sin of one individual. It represents him as cursing all serpents, making them cursed above all cattle, dooming them to go on their belly and eat dust, as putting enmity in men's hearts towards them, because one solitary serpent tempted Eve. It represents him as dooming all women, as cursing the earth for the sin of one man, cursing it to bring forth thorns and thistles to annoy all future generations, dooming all mankind throughout all lands and throughout all ages to eat of the ground
in sorrow all the days of their life, to eat the herb of the field, to eat their bread with the sweat of their brow, and, lastly, to return to the dust. The thought is appalling. Countless millions mercilessly doomed to daily and hopeless misery for sins committed before any of them were born, as if one blasphemy were not enough.

One word before we come to the proper subject. Let T. Williams always remember what his Bible teaches. He alone should throw arrows at his brother who is himself innocent. Mr. Williams, you should first clear the Bible of its disgusting absurdities and monstrosities, its evil and pernicious doctrines, thus rendering yourself and your God innocent, before you raise your head to attack the doctrines of the Vedas, which, Biblically circumstanced as you are, notwithstanding your twenty years' patient study of Sanskrit, you are as unable to grasp as the little Grammar Schoolboy his dusty Greek or Hebrew. And now to the subject.

Speaking of Rig, 10.10.10, the authority adduced by Swami, the Rev. Missionary says: "Are you not aware, Sir, that in what Dayananda quotes from Rig Veda 10.10.10, the speaker is a brother and the woman he speaks to is that brother's sister! ! ! The speaker is Yama and the woman he speaks to is Yami, aye, not only his sister but his twin sister." It needed a special revelation in the nineteenth century for the Missionary elite, T. Williams, to know that Yama and Yami were twin brother and sister. The proof of this revealed text of T. Williams' inspiration we will learn by and by, but the sinister motive in his insisting upon this personal revelation is obvious and it is purely Christian. Like a serpent under the rose, he throws his flattering, flowery feelers among the self-deluded Hindus, to exasperate them against the Aryas by joining in a common cause, pretending to show that since the mantra means Yami asking her brother Yama's hand and Yama refusing it, the Vedas do not sanction Niyoga. This is all pretence, the hidden insinuation is that there were ancient Aryans, the revered and sacred forefathers of the Hindus, the great olden Vedic Rishis, among whom even such a depravity prevailed that a sister dared ask her twin brother's sacred rishily hand. In the light of present criticism, such hypocrisy shall no longer last, and no more will T. Williams arrogate the position which belongs to God alone. Here is T. Williams' arrogant blasphemy: — "I say it with all positiveness that Dayananda knew that it was Yama that speaks and that he speaks to her twin sister Yami. How terrible, then, is the lie that he is guilty of." Poor Williams, is not your positiveness the most terrible lie that you are guilty of, terrible because you lie against a person, whose staunch moral character even outdoes your ideal Christ? (Vide Theosophist on the subject.)

As a proof of his assertion, T. Williams quotes Nirukta, 6-5-5 and, forgetting the original, falls upon a spurious commentary, but
rising from his sleep, comes to Nir. 11-11-13, and quotes "Yami Yamam chakame tam pratya chakshu," which means, according to T. Williams, Yami desired sexual intercourse with Yama, he refused her. Where is T. Williams' positive assertion that Yama and Yami, are brother and sister? Poor Williams can only reply, "Yaska's commentator says, "an author is not bound by what his commentator might say," Yaska's commentator shares a remorseless fate. Admitted that the Nirukta of Yaska is a Vedânga, and has full Vedic authority, we trust no one will be so mad as to believe, like Mr. T. Williams, that Nirukta being a Vedânga, its commentary too is a Vedanga. Impotent Christian logic!!

He comes now to Kàtyayana, whose words are, "vaivasvatayor yama yamyoh samvedah." Now, learned T. Williams, the infallible authority on Sanskrit, translates Vaivasvatayor into "son and daughter of Vaivasvata," and thus infallibly proves that the hymn is a conversation between twin brother and sister. But, says Nirukta, 7-26, "Vaivasvata Adityâd prerat vata pragatveda," which means that Vaivasvata is the sun. Again, in Nirukta, 12-10, we read, Adityad Yama mithunam janayâm chakare," and, in 12-11, we read, "râtri râdityasya adityodaye antardhiyate," which means, wherever Yama and Yami, the couple, are mentioned in connection with Vaivasvata, the sun, the meaning of the allegory cleared is, that the night or gloom disappears on the rise of the sun. Has this any thing to do with Yama and Yami, the twin brother and sister, the sons of Vaivasvata? Absolutely nothing. There is in this allegory no trace of Yami asking the hand of Yama, or the reverse. But Kàtyayana, whose authority need not be forced upon us, simply says that Yama means a person desirous of continuing the control of his passions, and Yami a similar woman, and the hymn, in an allegorical conversation, describes the duty of such male and female persons.

T. Williams comes, thirdly, to the mantras themselves. He is very proud of counting Yama and Yami six times and three times each as proper names, and his proofs of these as proper names are curious. His first proof is that in the 13th verse, Yama occurs in the vocative case and Yami in the fourteenth verse in the same case. Is T. Williams ashamed of his logic after he has read our criticism on his last article on the Idolatry in the Vedas? We quote from Solomon's song, 13. 16, "Awake, O north wind and come thou south." Here wind is in the vocative case. Will T. Williams' Biblical logic believe that "wind" is a proper name? Again we quote from the book of the prophet Isaiah, 1-2, "Hear, O heavens, and give ear O earth." Are "heavens" and "earth" proper names? Again, in Isaiah, 21-13, "O ye travelling companies," is "companies" a proper name? T. Williams has, perhaps, learnt his Bible and grammar in a Mission School only, or, he would not have fallen upon such admirable logic which shines out of the Bible.
T. Williams now discovers the relationship of his "vocative case proper names." He says, that Yami calls Yami his kinswoman "salakshma." Does "salakshma" mean kinswoman, or "of similar virtues?"

"Further on," Williams says, "in the fourth verse, Yama says that Gandharva and his watery wife were their source—nābhi, and that their relationship was consanguinous—Jami." "Watery wife," a Biblical imagination only can conceive, and the husband of such a watery wife, Gandharva, must be residing in tracts of waters mid naval people unknown to ancient Aryans, the inhabitants of the land of Aryavarta. T. Williams has not even that grain of human dignity and pride which keeps a man consistent. Are Yama and Yami the son and daughter of Vaivasvata or of Gandharva and his watery wife? T. Williams should have answered this question to himself before rushing into print. Again says he, "in the 8th verse, Yami says that Twashtri formed them as husband and wife, dhamati, in the womb." This, instead of proving Yama and Yami as twins, proves them as husband and wife, (if we are to accept the historical phraseology,) by legal contract or mere ceremony, but they were very much naturally inclined, by disposition and constitution, towards this relation. This alone can be the reasonable meaning of Twashtri forming them as husband and wife in the womb. Otherwise, are we to think that wise T. Williams is piling objections unwittingly against his own position? Or, if T. Williams be right, might we not question which of the three alternatives is true?" Were Yama and Yami born of Vaivasvata, or of Gandharva and his watery wife, or of Twashtri in his womb?

Again, quoting 9th verse, says T. Williams "that in heaven and earth pairs, 'mithuna.' i. e. twins, are closely united." Here again, how does T. Williams conceive that "mithuna," which means pair, means twins? Does the fact of the pairs being 'mated prove that the twins are mated?

T. Williams' criticism on the tenth verse is no better. "Yatra jamayah krinvan ajami," which means, "the childless become with the child by the marriage relation," is translated by our Sanskrit scholar of twenty years' standing, into "hereafter blood relations will do what is unbecoming their blood relationship." At this stage comes the Swami's quotation on Niyoga, where Yama says, "Desire another husband than myself." We may leave verses 11-12, as the relation of brother and sister, which T. Williams wants to establish between Yama and Yami, has already, by his own translations, been proved to be false.

Now, Sir, if, after this, any one cavils as to the correctness of Dayananda's translation, why, that man is an idiot. I have shown that the allegorical dialogue is not between twins and that the Swami's
translation is right. Dayananda's vilifier T. Williams, calls himself a scholar of twenty years' standing! I am quite prepared to subscribe, however, to this, that, having proved T. Williams and his God guilty of deliberately telling lies and of having scant respect for Bible, thus charging the Divinity with grossly immoral attributes, T. Williams is undoubtedly the most dangerous enemy of the Bible of his times. The Vedas, however, are beyond such puerile assail.

T. WILLIAMS' LETTER.

(Replied to above.)

In the Satyartha Prakasha, (of 1884) on page 118, Dayananda puts the question:—"Does Niyoga take place even when the husband is living, as well as when he is dead?" The answer he gives himself is:—"It takes place even when he is living." Now we know what Dayananda means by Niyoga. It is that when a couple (man and wife) has no children then the non-impotent party (man or the wife) may cohabit with certain others of the opposite sex for the sake of obtaining children.

In the preceding part of the Chapter he teaches what a wife should do when her husband dies. Advancing from this he here shews what a wife should do even when the husband is living but impotent. He starts the astounding doctrine that the wife of a childless man, while that man is yet alive, may betake herself to some other married man in order to have a child by him. Support for this monstrous doctrine he pretends to find, not in Manu as before, but strange to say, in the Rig Veda; and quotes part of the 10th hymn of the 10th mandala, as the grand authority, and the only authority for it.

Now, I do not mean to say that there is no indecency in the Rig Veda, for there is, as I can show, but it was left for Dayananda, the founder of the Arya Samaj, to show that the Rig Veda actually enjoins the grossly immoral doctrine that a woman should betake herself to some other married man for cohabitation if her own husband be impotent? I do not mean to say, either, that the Hindus hear this doctrine for the first time from the Dayanandis, for it is notorious that as a matter of practice the thing has been done by the Hindus for centuries. Use is made in this way of the Panday Brahmans at Allahabad, and it is this kind of thing that has brought such ill fame to the Mahajans of the Vallabha charya sect, and attaches such an ill character to the Jaina marriage rites. But what I would say is this that I have reason for thinking that this monstrous doctrine has now, for the first time, in the history of the Hindus, been fathered
upon the Rig Veda, and that the unenviable distinction of so fathering it belongs to Dayananda, the founder of the Arya Samaj.

But, Sir, the unenviable of this distinction becomes a thousand times stronger when it is discovered that it is all a lie. Yes, Sir, to say that the Rig Veda teaches and enjoins this doctrine is a gross lie. What can any man think of Dayananda after such an instance of scandalous falsification of the Rig Veda,—the book he professes to revere as a divine revelation and yet drags so ruthlessly in the mire.

Are you not aware, Sir, that in what Dayananda quotes from Rig Veda, 10, 10, 10, the speaker is a brother, and the woman he speaks to is that brother’s sister!!! The speaker is Yama and the woman he speaks to is Yami, his sister,—aye not only his sister, but his twin sister!

What wonder that up to this time no Hindu was ever so mad as to father such a doctrine upon the Rig Veda, for, every Hindu who knew the Veda at all, knew that it is Yama who speaks and that he speaks to his twin sister Yami. Dayananda translates it, saying that the speaker is a husband and the woman he speaks to, the speaker’s wife. Now, here he deliberately lies. I say it with all positiveness that Dayananda knew that it was Yama that speaks and that he speaks to his twin sister Yami. How terrible, then, is the lie that he is guilty of!!!—terrible, because he deliberately lies against a book he professes to believe in as, and proclaims to be, a divine revelation.

The only way for the Dayanandis to escape from this damning charge is to show that it is not Yama that speaks and that the woman he speaks to is not Yami, his twin sister. But how vain any such contradiction must be I will show conclusively. For :

(1) Apart from the hymn itself, the earliest authority capable of being adduced is Yaska. He, in Nir. 6, 5, 5, quotes the 13th verse of this same hymn and his comment by saying, “Yami speaks to Yama,” &c. &c. But lest any one say that an author is not bound by what his commentator might say, I hasten to give Yaska’s own words. When explaining in Nir. 11, 3, 13, the 14th verse of this evening hymn, Rig 10, 10, he himself says, “Yami Yamam chakam tam prayāchakasha” which means that “Yami desired sexual intercourse with Yama. He refused her.” Now, surely this is plain enough for, it is evident that Yaska and his commentator regard the verses they quote as part of a dialogue between Yama and Yami, in which Yami desires cohabitation with Yama, but that Yama refuses. What has this to do with an impotent husband bidding his wife go to another married man for cohabitation!!! Yaska’s commentator says expressly that Yama was Yami’s brother. It is needless to remind you, Sir, that this Nirukta of Yaska is a Vedānga.
and therefore has full Vedic authority. How dare Dayananda go directly in the teeth of Yaska, whom he professes to, altogether respect, and say that here we have the case of an impotent husband!!

(2) My next authority is one scarcely inferior to Yaska. It is Kātyayana. His Sarvanukramaniya of the Rig Veda, giving the Rishi and Devata &c, of every hymn of that Veda, is the great authority for these matters and is respected by all. He, Kātyayana, too, is the author of the Srauta sutras of the Shatapatha Brahmana of the Yajur Veda, and, as a Grammarian, is second not even to Panini and the author of Mahābhāshya, Pāṇini, who is engaged chiefly in illustrating Kātyayana’s vārtikas on Panini’s Grammar. As to the overwhelming character, therefore, of Kātyayana’s authority in all matters such as we are discussing, there can be no question. Now, in his Sarvanukramaniya, he says that there is no Rishi or Swata of this hymn, Rigveda 10, 10, but he says that the hymn is a dialogue between Yama and Yami, the son and daughter of Vaivasvat. His words are “Vaivasvatayor Yama Yamiyoh samvadāh.” Now, Sir, apart from the hymn itself, it would be impossible to bring anybody whose authority can, in any respect anywhere, approach that of either of these. Bnt, now, I turn to the hymn itself.

(3) (a) The names Yama and Yami occur in the hymn six times, three times each—as proper names. In the 13th verse, Yama occurs in the vocative case, ‘O, Yama,’ and in 14th verse Yama occurs in the same case, “O Yami.” These are the two last verses. The Shatapatha shows that no other construction than that of the vocative case is possible. This, then, shows the names of the interlocutors.

(b) Now as to their relationship. In the 2nd verse Yama calls Yami his kinswoman, “salakshma.” In the 4th verse Yama says that the Ghandharva and his watery wife were their (Yama and Yami) source—‘Nābhīḥ,’ and that their relationship was consanguinous—“jami.” In the 5th verse Yami says that Twashtri formed them as husband and wife—‘dampate,’ in the womb. She hereby shows they were united as twins and she argues from that that they ought to be man and wife. Again, in verse 9, she argues in the same way that in heaven and earth, pairs,—‘mithuna,’—i. e. twins, are closely united—‘Sabandu,’ and in the same verse she says she wishes to treat Yama as not consanguinously connected with him. In the 10th verse Yami says that hereafter blood relation—“jamayah”—will do what is unbecoming their blood relationship—“njami.” In the 11th Yami complains that Yama, though a brother,—‘bhrata’—does not help her, and that, though she is, his sister,—‘svasa’—yet he allows calamity to come upon her. In the 12th verse Yama refuses to cohabit with Yami, because he says they
call him a dimir—"papam"—who sexually approaches—'niyacchhat'
—his sister—'syasaram,' and in the end of the same verse he says
"thy brother, O fair one, deserves not this,"—"na te bhrata, subhaga,
vashiyetat." In the Atharva Veda copy of this hymn this verse is
enlarged and Yama's refusal made more decided and solemn.

Now, sir, if after this any one cavils as to the relationship of
Yama and Yami, why that man is an idiot.

I have then shown that the speakers throughout this dialogue,
are twins, a brother and sister. The sister Yami desires ardently
that her brother Yama should sexually lie with her. The brother
Yama points out the sin of so doing, and steadily refuses her, but tells
her, to desire and embrace some other man. It is just this in the
10th verse that Dayananda quotes, and translates falsely, so as to
show that a woman should, if her husband be impotent, betake herself
to some other married man, for the sake of obtaining off-spring !!!
Dayananda's apt scholar, Guru Datta, calls his master "the only
Vedic Scholar of his time." I am quite prepared to subscribe, how-
ever, to this, that having proved Dayananda guilty of deliberately
falsifying the Veda and of endeavouring to father upon the Rigveda
a grossly immoral doctrine of which that Veda is wholly innocent,
Dayananda is undoubtedly by far the most dangerous enemy of the
Veda of his times.
MR. T. WILLIAMS
ON
VEDIC TEXT NO. 1,
"THE ATMOSPHERE."

Mr. Guru Datta says that the Vedic word "Vayu" conveys the meaning of "a light, mobile, tremor-communicating, effluvia-carrying medium." He has no other authority for this meaning than the verbal root from which the word 'Vayu' is derived.* Now, Sir, whatever meaning the word 'Vayu' may have on account of its derivation, that very same meaning would the English word "wind" have, and also the Greek word, Englished as, "air," for, both these words have the same root as "Vayu," which root is no more or less than that represented by the Sanskrit "Va."† Mr. Guru Datta is wrong in saying that the Niruktakar derives "Vayu" from the root "va" to move, to carry odoriferous matter, or from 'vah' to communicate tremors." Yaska, the prince of Niruktakâras, only gives "va" (Nir. 10, 2) and his commentator adds to "Va," "gatigandhanayos" quoting from Ad. P. It is probable that this "gandhana" suggested Mr. Datta's odoriferous matter," but he ought to know that it is now a settled thing that the word "gandha"—smell—comes from the verbal root "gandh," which never means to smell, but to go, or to hurt, or to ask; and "gandhana" is from this verbal root and not from the noun, "gandha."‡ But this is not his great mistake in his derivation of "Vayu": it is in his saying that "Vah" is given by a Niruktakar as an alternate root! What is his authority for this?

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* No other authority, it must be remembered, is at all required. For, in the Vedic literature the yaugika sense of the word is the only guarantee of its correctness, and in some cases, is the only sense possible to give to a word.—Guru Datta Vidyarthi.

† This is incorrect, for, it is only proper to take that sense of the word only, which is recalled into consciousness of those who employ the word whenever the word is spoken. Now, the word 'wind' does not recall any such meaning in the minds of its speakers. But in the case of Vedic word, (which as Vedic are quite distinct from Laukika), no sense is at all recalled, unless it be the very sense accruing to it from its derivation. This essential difference between Laukika and Vedic words, the critic does not understand, and hence his mistake.—G. D. V.

‡ The critic is wrong when he thinks that the author of the Vedic Text No. I confounds "Gandhana" with the noun "gandha." For, it is "gandhana" which means a form of Suchana producing that form of consciousness which is called smelling.—G. D. V.
He should have given chapter and verse for his statement. The derivation 'from 'va' is clear enough and the only one given by the chief Niruktakar Yaska, or by any other commentator that I have yet seen.* It is from this root that "Wind" and "air" † are derived, so that I repeat, whatever Mr. Datta has to say for "Vayu," that is true, that must also be said for those two words. His vituperate reference to the word "air" is both foolish and ignorant. ‡ Now from what I have said, there is nothing specially to be attributed to the Vedas because this word "Vayu" occurs in it as an appellation of the Atmosphere. Long before Maddhucchandhas composed, or, if Mr. Datta will have it, saw this Rk., the idea of the word "Vayu" as an appellation for the atmosphere was the common property of all the Indo-European peoples.§

* Is it not strange to find that the critic should betray the very same ignorance of Nirukta with which he charges Mr. Guru Datta. For 'va' is not the only root given by Niruktakar, as the critic would suppose, but in one place whose reference is not given in the text, the Niruktakar derives it from at least these, 'vati,' 'vetti' and 'eti,' I quote the passage from memory, "Vayurvater vetter vosyadgati karmanah, eteriti sthaulashtive.—Ed. A. P.

† Mr. Williams must be a great philologist to derive "wind" and "air" from the same root.—Ed. A. P.

‡ Mr. Williams could well have spared such harsh words. They cannot prove his contention.—Ed. A. P.

§ What does vague philology know of human history? Long ages after Maddhucchandhas or earlier rishis saw this Rk. the European nations had not even assumed their existence, what to say of the idea of the word 'vayu' as an appellation for the atmosphere being the common property of all the Indo-European peoples.—G. D. V.
MR. PINCOTT ON THE VEDAS.
MR. PINCOTT ON THE VEDAS.

It will be interesting for our readers to hear what a well-known man in England of Mr. Pincott's ability, has to say on the subject of the Vedas. His letter on the subject is annexed. It is, no doubt, "interesting to the Samaj to come to a clear idea of what constitutes the Vedas." But the Samaj never had any unclear ideas about them, for, whenever we speak of the Vedas, the term is to us "self-explanatory," and, no doubt, the four well-known Sanhitā books are present to our mind whenever we speak of the Vedas. It has been a matter of great difficulty, of course, for European Scholars to distinguish between the Vedic and the non-Vedic, for, arguing upon merely hypothetical grounds, founded not upon any genuine scholarship of Sanskrit literature or language, but upon a Pseudo-philological and evolutionary grounds, mainly deriving their support from the so-called Comparative Psychology, whereas they were at the same time prepossessed with a quite erroneous Biblical chronology, these honest, consistent Scholars had to deal with matters purely conjectural, when the Vedas were presented to them for study. So far removed were the language of the Vedas, their diction and their subject-matter from what they expected to meet with on a priori conception, that their wholescheme of the already well-known methods of interpreting archæological records had to be given up, and, to meet the demands of their pre-conceived notions, all interpretations had to be elaborated, sometimes forged, and at other times distorted from their original sense. Hence their conclusion "that the term Veda applies to only that portion of Sanskrit literature which existed before the historical period commenced;" as if, implying thereby, that there was any portion of Sanskrit literature that was pre-historic or unhistorical. This they could not help, for, although a chronological record of the various periods at which those books of Sanskrit literature, which are now called pre-historic or Vedic, were recorded, existed, yet the epochs assigned according to this system were so immense as to transcend all bounds of European Biblical matter-of-fact imagination. Howsoever exactly or approximately may the epochs assigned by Hindu chronology tally with the conclusions of unsophisticated, geological and scientific research, to assign such an immense antiquity to the Vedas was involuntarily perceived to be a death-blow to the very foundation of Christianity. Under these circumstances of prejudiced European Scholarship, Mr. Pincott does a great service to point out that the term Vedas can only be applied to the Sanhitās. The Brahmanas, the Upanishads, the Aranyakas, the Shrāuta Sutras and the Vedāngas, being only meant to explain the Sanhitās, are decid-
edly *vedic* but not the Vedas; all other books, philosophies, plays, law-books, epochs and Puranas decidedly being non-Vedic. He also does well to point out the various functions of the Vedangas, the Shrauta Sutras, the Aranyakas and the Brahmanas. But to think that at least some of the Vedangas were meant to teach the ceremony of sacrifice and proper astronomical times to offer worship, is not wholly correct. The object of the two Vedangas, *Kalpa* and *Jyotish*, is decidedly sacrificial and astronomical, but neither the sacrifices are meant as ceremonies, nor astronomy as intended to fix times for offering worship. The object of both is to elucidate certain problems concerning the constitution of the moral and physical universe, a proper understanding of which can alone ensure a realization of Vedic truths. And again, to think that the Brahmanas treat of transcendental subjects and were first uttered at "a time when no contradiction or objection was anticipated, for, all questions of probability or possibility are thrown to the winds and the wildest statements are unhesitatingly made in simple faith 'with all the luxuriance of unrestrained growth,' evinces an ignorance of the Brahmanas which is in no way praiseworthy. Discussions on transcendental subjects there are, and the wildest statements are so as the *simple* faith of Christians can not conceive of the truthful *luxuriance* and *unrestrained growth* of theological truths.

Laying aside these differences, we are at one with Mr. Pincott in the functions to be assigned to various Vedic records.

As for the Vedas themselves, there is much to differ. That in the older period only three *Sanhitas* were recognized and the language of the Atharva Veda is so modern that the same antiquity can not be assigned to it, is not necessary for us to refute, for, keeping out of consideration the application of the term *Atharvaveda* to the fourth Veda, it cannot be doubted that the fourth Veda is made mention of in the other *Sanhitas*. To quote, for instance, from the 31st Chapter of Yajur Veda, 7th Mantra, *Tasmad yajnyat Strvahuta Richa Samani Yajnire Chhandansi Yajniretasmad yajus tasmadajayata*. The emanation of the four Vedas from the Divine essence is clearly pointed out under the four respective names of *Ṛg, Sūma, Chhandansi*, and *Yaju*, and to preclude the supposition of *Chhandānsi* as merely meaning metrical compositions and therefore as simply qualifying the other three Vedas, the verb *yajnire* is distinctly coupled with Chhandansi which clearly shows that a fourth Veda is made mention of. It remains now for the historical genius of European scholars to discover that an anterior Veda existed still before the others and to prove beyond doubt that the one referred to is not the Atharva.

The value of the assertion that "no European Scholar would dream of placing it (Atharva) higher than the Brahmana period," is sufficiently plain. As for its being the source of Hindu religion, one has only to refer to the various *Sanskar Padhitis* and to find out how many mantras of this Veda are used in them.
We come now to the other three Vedas, for a correct knowledge of the respective functions of which we would refer the reader to "The Terminology of the Vedas." But we wish to point out in this connection that the mistake of European Scholars in arguing the priority of the Rig Veda from the fact of the Yajur and Sama texts being wholly or partially found in the Rig Sanhita lies in their ignorance of the modifications both in sense and relation effected by what are called the Swaras of the Vedas, a branch of study which Europeans so little know of. That the same mantras appear in different Swaras, and with different devatas in the three Vedas, may be taken as a proof of the priority of any one of them to the other two, but the proof really amounts to the statement of the independence of the texts of the three Vedas.

We come now to the Rig-Veda, whence according to the European scholars, the two other Vedas are derived. We shall not dwell upon "the simple directness of its style" nor upon "the plain matter-of-fact way in which all its statements are made," for, the aphoristic saying, Bhudhi purvika vakya kritir vede, i.e. everywhere in the Vedas we meet with a diction designating the highest intelligence, is too well-known to be disputed. Further, as clearly proved by Jaimini, the Vedas are not "the natural out-pourings of the human heart in times beyond the reach of history," they are rather the Divine influxions of religious injunctions at a time which forms the first link in the chain of History. To a reader well-versed in the Bible, it is easy to conceive that the sacrifice should come to be regarded as a "simple spontaneous act of worship," but to the unsophisticated inquirer, unless he be a believer in the preternatural doctrine of vicarious atonement, the sacrifice, as understood by the Christian world, is neither a "simple nor a spontaneous act of worship." Surely, the above-mentioned doctrine plus the untheological belief that God can be moved or propitiated by flattery or presents made, can afford a ground for such an unqualified assertion as that of the "sacrifice" being a "simple spontaneous act of worship." The yajna, so ignorantly translated by the European world as "sacrifice," really implies an application of natural principles to practice, and, by the consent of the Rishis of India, became necessarily significant of such application for sanitary and charitable purposes.

The assertion further made with respect to the Rig-Veda being a collection of poems "representing various stages of development," also deserves to be considered. The first and natural impressions produced upon seeing a book bearing a definite name is that of its being the production of one author, and this is the impression naturally believed in until further evidence is received to the contrary. We shall deal with the Vedas also in the same light.
It is assumed that there is one author of the Vedas, so long as evidence to the contrary does not overthrow this assumption. Such evidence in the case of the Vedas is mainly two-fold:—Firstly, because various portions of the mantras are assigned, how it matters not, to different Rishis, and, 2ndly, some mantras seem to contain "simple prayers of child-like faith, others are profoundly philosophical," "while others, again, are, distinctly sacerdotal." Since "child-like," and "philosophical" cannot both originate from the same source, nor perhaps in the same age, it is essential to assign not only various epochs, but different authorships also to different portions of the Vedas. Such being the evidence of the various stages of development represented in the mantras, it behaves the truth-seeking inquirer as well as the honest student of the Vedas to note down that the truth of the conclusion entirely depends upon the truth of its premises. Parts of the Vedas proclaim "child-like" faith and others are "profoundly Philosophical?" May not our system of interpretation, which assigns so wide a difference to the contents of different portions of book held equally authoritative and equally ancient by its believers, be wrong? It is more reasonable to believe that our interpretation is wrong than to hypotheticate different epochs as well as different authorships to meet our fancied interpretations.

By some the Vedas have been constructed to yield abundant stock of historical harvest as thus interpreted. The fact of "Gold and silver ornaments, war chariots, costly dresses, handsome buildings, manufactures, trade, sea-voyages, ceremonial observances and several classes of priests being mentioned in a book" which also speaks of the Sapata Sindwua, or the seven rivers, is indeed an infallible evidence of the advanced state of civilization. May not a student of Bacon, meeting in the course of his studies with rich and faithful dissertations on the methods of experimental philosophy and inductive reasoning, as infallibly conclude that when Bacon’s Novum Organum first saw the light, the country of Bacon’s nativity was in a highly advanced state of civilization, for not only are all the methods of scientific investigation known and therefore practised but they are found mentioned INCIDENTALLY,—a fact so significant of the entire familiarity with science in those days?

We come now to the recent discovery that the hymns of the Rig Veda, contrary to the previously prevalent opinion, are arranged in a definite order, according to the family and poet to which they are ascribed, according to the deity addressed and according to the length of each poem,—a discovery which at once throws light on the Rig Veda being a collection of one thousand, seventeen hymns arranged in ten divisions, six out of which, not to speak of the other four which are occupied with the ritual of an ancient sacrifice, with the praises of the sacred liquid offered at the sacrifice, and with the mythological miscellany, have been preserved traditionally in six
ancient families or tribes. The secret of all this is that European scholarship is not as yet aware that vansha or family in ancient India was constructed according to birth or according to learning, the one being called gotra or jatavansha, and the other vidyakul. The different Rishis, the seers of the mantras which are so ignorantly ascribed to them, belonged, by virtue of their being seers of the mantras, to the same vidyakul and not to the same family or tribe.

We have finished briefly our remarks on the Rig Veda and very summarily disposed of the misconceptions that have crept thereon. One thing more and we have done.

It is to be deplored that the six schools of philosophy should have been so much misunderstood and misconceived by European scholars. The Darshanas date at a period when not a trace of Buddhism was at all to be found, but the sceptical, atheistic, and reason-demanding temperaments have never been rare, and the controversial character of the Darshanas, apparent to the European scholar, is due rather to the comprehensive, imaginative, clear, anticipating and fore-casting minds of the Darshanawriters than to the hurricane sweepings of the Budhistic reform, a re-action which is rather embodied in the new-Vedant of Shankracharya, than in the Darshanas.

We shall, at our leisure, take up and dwell upon, at length, the various points herein but briefly touched, at some future date.

MR. PINCOTT'S LETTER,
Replyed to above.

It cannot be other than interesting to the Samaj to come to a clear idea of what constitutes "the Vedas." Many people speak of "the Vedas" as though the term were self-explanatory; or as though some well-known books were always present to the mind whenever the expression was used. This, however, is very far from being the case. The majority of people have no idea whatever as to what constitutes "the Vedas." Hindu scholars apply the term to much which Europeans peremptorily reject as obviously non-Vedic; and even Europeans are far from unanimous as to the precise limits to be ascribed to the Vedas. But upon one point there is no doubt or variation of opinion among both Europeans and Hindus, and that is, that the term "Veda," properly speaking, comprise only that fragment of Hindu literature which is believed to be the revealed Word of God; and the term is
precisely equivalent to the Bible among Christians and the Quran among Musalmans. But when we have arrived at this conclusion the difficulty is not removed; for there are no generally recognized books which can be presented to view as "the Vedas;" there is, instead, of that, a vast literature, unsettled quantities of which are held to be Vedic, and the rest more or less secular.

In the few moments at our disposal I cannot explain the simple, but laborious methods by which scholars have separated Sanskrit literature into its various stages, and have established the truly Vedic portion of the whole. The application of the simplest tests reveals the fact that the Puranas are subsequent to the Darshanas or philosophical works; and that the six schools of philosophy, the law-books, the plays, and the epochs, were all composed after the great grammatical epoch, when the famous works of Panini, Yaska, and the older Pratisakhyas, were put together for the purpose of explaining the still more ancient Vedas. Pandit Guru Datta, to whose learned paper we listened at a recent meeting, states that the very language in which Sanskrit books are written, marks the historical development of the series. His words are, "Sanskrit of the Puranas is so different from the Sanskrit of Mahabharata and that of the Darshanas, which again is so different from the Upanishads, that the clear line of demarcation in each case is easily laid down."

The various processes of investigation have established the conclusions that the books called the Sanhitas are the oldest Hindu books now existing; that next to them come the Brahmanas, and in intimate connection with these last are books known as Aranyakas, and others called Upanishads; and that these were followed by treatises known as Srauta Sutras, and the Vedangas. Most of these books are by well-known historical personages; and, indeed, the names of even the saints who first proclaimed the Vedas, are, generally speaking, recorded; although the saints are not considered to have been the authors of what they taught. They are held to have been highly favoured mortals who received from On. High certain Divine revelations, and then proclaimed to their fellow mortals the secrets they had received. But all the works of which we are now speaking are intimately bound together by one great fact, that, whether ascribed to authors or to divinely inspired saints, they all directly refer to and are based upon, the books called Sanhitas. The object of all the other Vedic works is to explain the meaning and the proper use of the portion called Sanhita; and this of itself is sufficient to show that the Sanhitas are the most ancient relics of the Hindu religion, and form the back ground, so to speak, of all Hindu literature. In short, Sanhitas form, properly speaking, the Vedas; the other works to which I have just alluded are certainly Vedic, because their whole object is to explain and illustrate the Vedas; but no other portion of Hindu literature, save the Sanhitas, Brahmanas, &c., has any right to be included under the terms Veda or Vedic. All the books which
we hear so much about—the Philosophies, the Plays, the Law-books, the Ramayana, the Mahabharata, and the Puranas—are quite outside the pale of Vedic literature.

This matter is of much significance to the Arya Samaj; because one of the rules of that Society is a pledged reverence for the Vedas. It is impossible for me to enumerate the various works which are really Vedic, nor is it necessary that I should do so. Without reckoning abbreviations and commentaries, the India Office Library alone contains about 300 original Vedic works. It happens, however, that all Vedic works may be classed under one or other of the following heads:—

1. The Vedângâs which teach the student how the words of the Veda should be pronounced, grammatical construction, and derivation of the words, the metrical rules for correctly reciting the ceremony of sacrifice, and the proper astronomical times for offering worship.

2. The Srauta-Sutras. These important treatises give the complete ceremonial for the performance of Vedic rites both in public and in private. They comprise special treatises for the different kinds of priests, teaching them how and when they should perform their various functions in conformity with the Veda.

3. The Upanishads. These are short works of a highly philosophical character treating of the hidden meaning of the Brahmanas and the ancient hymns, and reasoning on the nature of God and the soul with much earnestness and logical acumen.

4. The Aranyakas. These form one branch of Upanishad literature; but there is something about them of a more primitive character. They were intended to guide the thoughts of the ancient ascetics, who, after performing the active duties of life, retired to the forest and spent their declining years in reflecting on the spiritual meaning of the Brahmans.

5. The Brahmanas. These are, primarily, ceremonial works for the use of Brahmans; but in addition to the directions they give for the performance of sacrifices, they comprise a great deal of extraneous matter connected with the origin and history of the world, speculations of a more or less philosophical character, mixed with explanations, old stories, &c. These works have preserved for our use the first speculations of the Brahmanas on transcendental subjects, and they were obviously first uttered at a time when no contradiction or objection was anticipated, for all questions of probability or possibility are then thrown to the winds, and the wildest statements are unhesitatingly made, in simple faith, with all the luxuriance of unrestrained growth. These most ancient works, however, were always held in deep reverence, and are reckoned part of the Revealed Word. The primary use of these curious works was,
however, to explain the sacrifices at which the older hymns were sung, and, therefore, they also are only dependent upon and grew out of the Sanhitas.

This brings us to the last and highest point in Hindu literature; but in order to lead the mind back to the starting point of all Hindu religion we must examine the Sanhitas themselves, and see what relation they bear to the one to the other. In more recent times four Sanhitas are reckoned, called the “Rik,” the “Sám,” the “Yajuh,” and the “Atharva.” In the older period, however, only three Sanhitas were recognized; but no one can deny the modern character of the language in which the Atharva Veda is expressed, and allow it the same antiquity as to the other three. Indeed, Indian commentators themselves are very undecided as to its authority, and no European would dream of placing it higher than the Brahmana period, the style and language of which, in some part, it resembles. The Atharva is most certainly not the source of the Hindu religion, and may safely be set aside.

There remains, then, the three primitive Sanhitas; and of these two may be immediately distinguished from the remaining one by purely ritualistic character. The “Yajuh,” as its very name tells us, is “that by which the sacrifice is offered;” and it consists of verses almost entirely taken from the Rik-Sanhita, accompanied by profuse directions as to the actions to be performed while they are being recited. The Sáma consists of hymns and parts of hymns the whole of which is taken from the Rik-sanhita; but in the Sáma Veda, these quotations are arranged in the order in which they are to be chanted at the sacrifice. It is perfectly plain that both the Sáma and the Yajur must be subsequent to the Rik-sanhita, for they consist of little else than quotations from the Rik, taken out of their natural poetic connection, and placed in the artificial order necessary for sacrificial purposes.

Setting, then, these rituals aside, we come to the work whence they were both derived—the famous “Rik,” or “Rigveda-sanhita.” This work is conspicuous in all Indian literature by reason of the simple directness of its style, and the plain matter-of-fact way in which all its statements are made. It contains the natural out-pourings of the human heart in times beyond the reach of history, when the sacrifice was a simple spontaneous act of worship, and man was looking up, in hope and fear, from nature’s works to nature’s God. The Rig Veda stands high and away above all the speculations and crudities which have been built upon its honest statements; and will continue to stand a monument of unaffected piety, and a perpetual beacon to guide the human mind in the path of Truth.

It must not be supposed, however, that the Rigveda is a collection of simple poems expressing one phase of thought and civilization; on the contrary, it contains poems differing widely from each
other, representing various stages of development. Some are simple prayers of child-like faith, others are profoundly philosophical; while others, again, are distinctly sacerdotal. When these hymns first saw the light, the country of "the seven rivers" was in an advanced state of civilization; for, we find frequent mention of gold and silver ornaments, war chariots, costly dresses, handsome buildings, manufactures, trade, sea-voyages, ceremonial observances, and several classes of priests. But all these things are mentioned incidentally; the poems themselves are short compositions addressed to one or more deities, asking for success in war, prosperity in trade, or long life, in return for the praises offered.

The Rig Veda contains 1,017 hymns, arranged in ten divisions; the first division I have recently discovered to be the ritual of an ancient sacrifice, and it is probably the oldest ritual in the world; the next six divisions contain hymns preserved traditionally in six ancient families or tribes, all the hymns ascribed to each particular saint being placed together; the eighth division contains hymns which had not acquired general recognition at the time the arrangement took place; the ninth division is a special collection of hymns in praise of the sacred liquid offered at the sacrifice; and the tenth division is a miscellaneous collection of long and short poems of a more or less mythological character, and, for this reason, properly placed at the end.

It is clear from this sketch of the arrangement of the Rig Veda, that it is not a ceremonial text-book, like the Säma Veda or Yajur Veda; but that it is a collection of sets of poems, preserved from an indefinite antiquity in various families, all the hymns ascribed to one saint and one family being placed together. It was formerly my good fortune to discover that, contrary to the opinion universally entertained previously, the hymns of the Rig Veda are arranged in a definite order, according to the family and poet to which they are ascribed, and according to the deity addressed and the length of each poem. The Rig Veda is simply a well-ordered store-house, from which poems could be selected, as desired, for sacrificial purposes. Some of the hymns were first uttered at a time when official priests were unknown; others were promulgated when a priesthood had come into being; but at the time when the whole collection was brought together in the form in which it has been transmitted to our days, a complicated ceremonial was in existence. It was for the purpose of authorizing that ceremonial that the collection was made; and it was in order to perform that ceremonial that the special arrangement of hymns forming the first division of the Rig Veda was put together.

It is impossible to pursue this interesting subject further on the present occasion; but I hope I have said enough to show that the Rig Veda is the only real Veda, and that is the book which all should
study who entertain respect for the *Vedas*. Everything else in Hindu literature rests upon, and has grown out of that book. As regards the rest, beyond the Sanhitas, Brhamans, Aranyakas, Upanishads, Srauta-Sutras and *Vedangas*—nothing else has the slightest right to be ranked as either *Veda* or *Vedic*.

After the *Vedangas*, the Budhist reform swept over India like a hurricane; and the *Brahmanas* were driven to reason with their antagonists, and to develop the schools of philosophy for the purpose of establishing the logical consistency of their faith. During the Budhistic period Greek influence also spread over Northern India, and when Buddhism fell, all recollection of *Vedic* ideas and all sympathy with *Vedic* feeling had passed away. Then modern *Brahmanism* arose, with its philosophies, its *shastras*, its theatricals, its poetry, and its *Puranas*.

The growth of this wild jungle of scholarship and fable was brought to stoppage by successive Muhammadan incursions, and by the final subjugation of the country to Mughal rule. Under a more enlightened administration the intellect of India is again developing, and is wisely returning to a study of those real models of national development found in the hymns of the *Rig Veda*.
PRINCIPLES OF THE ARYA SAMAJ.

I. The Primordial Root—the Eternal Unseen Sustainer—of all true knowledge, and of objects made known by true knowledge—aye of all these—is the Supreme God.

II. God is Personification of Existence, Intelligency and Bliss. He is Formless, Almighty, Just, Benevolent, Unborn, Endless and Infinite, Unchangeable, Beginningless, Incomparable, Support of all, Lord of all, All-pervading, Omniscient and Controller of all from within, Undecaying, Imperishable, Fearless, Eternal, Holy and Maker of the universe. To Him alone worship is due.

III. The Veda is the Scripture of true knowledge. It is the paramount Duty of every Arya to learn and teach Veda, to hear it read and to recite it to others.

IV. We should ever be ready to embrace truth and to forsake untruth.

V. All acts should be done in accordance with Dharma, Righteousness, after deliberating what is Right and Wrong.

VI. The prime object of the Arya Samaj—Vedic Church—is to do good to the world, that is, to promote Physical, Spiritual and Social good of every sentient being.

VII. Our conduct towards all should be guided by Love and Justice.

VIII. We should dispel avidya—Nescience—and promote vidya—Science, spiritual and physical.

IX. No one should be content with promoting his own good only; on the contrary, he should look for his good in promoting the good of all.

X. All men should subordinate themselves to the laws of Society calculated to promote the well-being of all; they should be free in regard to the laws for promoting individual well-being.
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