VEDIC INFLUENCE ON THE SUN-WORSHIP IN THE PURĀŅAS : A STUDY

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Submitted by
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The thesis is the result of her own investigation and neither the thesis as a whole nor any part of it was submitted to any other University of India for any research degree.

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except the part, where due acknowledgements has been made.

The thesis entitled "VEDIC INFLUENCE ON THE SUN-WORSHIP IN THE

PURĀŅAS: A STUDY" submitted by me for the award of the degree of Doctor of

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not been submitted previously in part or foil to this or any other University for any

degree, diploma or other similar title.

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PREFACE

An inborn curiosity towards the most concrete and powerful phenomena of the nature has been breathed in the mind of an individual, right from the time of the growth of the human civilisation. The great impact of the Sun is observed by the masses of the people from very early period. Due to the importance of the Sun, the Vedic Āryans deified and personified the force of the nature, that consists of heat and light, and worshipped as deity praising different aspects.

In the Purāṇas, the tradition of Vedic Sun-worship was given a priority and it has been transformed into the sectarian worship of the deity with the inclusion of some advanced mode of worship; many of them are derived from the Vedic culture and some of them are borrowed from the Magian cult. The significant innovation of the Sunworship in the Purāṇas is the installation of the images of the Sun in the temples. A number of modes and methods of worshipping the Sun-god developed in the Purāṇic period.

The tradition of worshipping the Sun is prevalent in our present society also. Among the Hindus, the tradition of observing Agnihotra sacrifice and the Sandhyā, etc., is frequently observed. I was greatly influenced by the study of some Vedic hymns related to the Sun-god during my Post-graduate studies. Due to eagerness, I had turned over the pages of some of the prominent Purāṇas with a view to finding out materials about the worship of the Sun-god. A keen interest had developed in me to make a comprehensive study on the worship of the Sun, in both the Vedic and the Purāṇic period. Thus, a modest attempt has been made to prepare a thesis on the topic entitled 'Vedic Influence on the Sun-Worship in the Purāṇas: A Study,' for the degree of Ph.D. of the Gauhati University.

The earlier scholars have contributed a lot towards the Sun-worship in ancient

India. But, a comprehensive study on the topic is still lacking. Here, in the thesis, a

humble attempt has been made to find out the Vedic influence on the Sun-worship in the

Purāṇas. The present study involves the Vedic scriptures as a whole, and some

Mahāpuāṇas are brought under the purview of the study, along with one of the

Upapurāṇas, called the Sāmbapurāṇa, which is considered as the milestone in the field of

Purāṇic Sun-cult. The materials are elaborated and analyzed through a comparative study

of the various relevant texts.

The present work comprises six chapters in it. The first chapter deals with the

concept of Vedic God and Vedic religion with a note on the Vedic literature. The

following chapter discusses, in detail, the salient traits of the Solar divinities along with

the mode and method of worshipping the deities in the Vedic period. The third chapter of

the work deals with the general characteristics of the Purāṇic religion, showing the

influence of the Vedic tradition on it. The fourth chapter contains an extensive study of

the Purāṇic Sun-worship, which is fully influenced by the Vedic tradition of worshipping

the Sun. In the fifth chapter, the rituals relating to the Sun-worship, discussed in the

Purāṇas, have been undertaken. The sixth chapter contains a concluding remark, based

on the findings of the preceding chapters.

It is the result of my academic pursuit for the last six years under the guidance of

my revered preceptor, Prof. Manjula Devi. I shall feel amply rewarded if the work could

raise some interest to the readers.

Date: 11.2.19

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Mitali Goswami)

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ABBREVIATIONS

Books

AĀ. — Aitareyāraṇyakam

AB. — Aitareyabrāhmaṇam

Agni P. — Agnipurāṇam

AK. — Amarakosah

Artha. — Arthaśāstram

Aştā. — Aştādhyāyī

AV. — Atharvavedasamhitā

Āp. DS. — Āpastambadharmasūtram

Āp. GS. — Āpastambagṛhyasūtram

Āp. ŚS. — Āpastambaśrautasūtram

Āś. GS. — Āśvalāyanagṛhyasūtram

Āś. ŚS. — Āśvalāyanaśrautasūtram

Bau. DS. — Baudhāyanadharmasūtram

Bau. GS. — Baudhāyanagṛhyasūtram

BD. — *Bṛhaddevatā*

Bh.S. — Bhaktisūtram

Bhavi. P. — Bhavişyapurāṇam

Bhā. P. — Bhāgavatapurāṇam

Bṛ. Ā. — Bṛhadāraṇyakam

Bṛ. U. — Bṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad

Br. Vai. P. — Brahmavaivartapurāṇam

Brahma P. — *Brahmapurāṇam*

Brahmāṇḍa P. — Brahmāṇḍapurāṇam

Chā. U. — Chāndogyopaniṣad

Devī Bhā. P. — Devībhāgavatapurāṇam

GB. — Gopathabrāhmaṇam

GDS. — Gautamadharmasūtram

GGS. — Gobhilagṛhyasūtram

Garuḍa P. — Garuḍapurāṇam

HGS. — Hiranyakeśigṛhyasūtram

JU. Jaiminīyopaniṣad

KB. Kauṣītakibrāhmaṇam KGS Khadiragṛhyasūtram

Kath. Kathopanişad

KU. Kauṣītataki Upaniṣad

Kā. P. Kālikāpurāņam

Kāt. ŚS. Kātyāyanaśrautasūtram

Kū. P. Kūrmapurāṇam Linga P. Lingapurāṇam

Mahā. Mahābhāṣyam Maitrī U. Maitryopanișad Mat. P.

Mān. GS. Mānavagṛhyasūtram

Matsyapurāṇam

Mār. P. Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇam

Mbh. Mahābhāratam MS. Manusmrtih

Nā. P. Nāradīyapurāṇam

Nir. Niruktam

Padma P. Padmapurāṇam

PB. Pañcaviṁśabrāhmaṇam

PGS. *Pāraskaragṛhyasūtram*

Praśna U. Praśnopanișad

PŚ. Pāṇinīyaśikṣā

Rāmā. Rāmāyaṇam

RV. Ŗgvedasamhitā

Sk. P. Skandapurāṇam

SP. Sāmbapurāṇam

SV Sāmavedasamhitā

Śabda. Śabdakalpadruma

Śāṅ. GS. Śāṅkhyāyanagṛhyasūtram

Śāṅ. ŚS. Śāṅkhyāyanaśrautasūtram

ŚB. Śatapathabrāhmaṇam

ŚMG. Śrīmadbhāgavadgītā

Śvet. U. Śvetāśvetaropaniṣad TĀ. — Taittirīyāraṇyakam

Tāṇḍya B. — Tāṇḍyamahābrāhmaṇam

TB. — Taittirīyabrāhmaṇam

TS. — Taittirīyasamhitā

Varā. P. — Varāhapurāṇam

Vāca. — *Vācaspatyam*

Vā. P. — Vāyupurāṇam

Vāma. P. *Vāmanapurāṇam*

Vi. Dh. P. — Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇam

Viș. P. — Vișnupurānam

VS. — Vājasaneyisamhitā

YS. — Yājñavalkyasmṛtiḥ

GENERAL ABBREVIATIONS

cf. — Compare

ed. — Edited

edn. — Edition

e.g. — As for example

fn. — Footnote

Ibid. — Ibidem, in the same place

i.e. — That is

Op. cit. — Opera citato, in the work already cited

p. — Page

pp. — Pages

trans. — Transtaled, Translation

Vide. — See

viz. — Namely

Vol. — Volume

Vols. — Volumes

TRANSLITERATION SCHEME

V	owels				Conso	nant	ts	
अ	A	a	क	KA	ka	द	DA	da
आ	Ā	ā	ख	KHA	kha	ध	DHA	dha
इ	I	i	ग	GA	ga	न	NA	na
ई	Ī	ī	घ	GHA	gha	प	PA	pa
उ	U	u	ङ	ŅΑ	'nа	फ	РНА	pha
ऊ	Ū	ū	च	CA	ca	ब	BA	ba
ऋ	Ŗ	i	छ	СНА	cha	भ	ВНА	bha
ऋ	Ŗ	<u>r</u>	ज	JA	ja	म	MA	ma
ऌ	Ļ	ļ	झ	JHA	jha	य	YA	ya
ए	Е	e	ञ	ÑA	ña	₹	RA	Ra
ऐ	AI	ai	ठ	ŢΑ	ţa	ल	LA	La
ओ	O	0	ठ	ŢНА	ţha	ਕ	VA	va
औ	AU	au	ड	ŅΑ	фа	श	ŚA	śa
			ढ	DНА	ḍha	ष	ŞA	șa
अं	ΑM	aṁ	ण	ŅA	ņa	स	SA	sa
अ:	АḤ	aḥ	त	TA	ta	ह	НА	ha
Elide	ed अ	•	थ	THA	tha	क्ष	KŞ	kṣ

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CHAPTER-I

VEDIC CONCEPT OF GOD AND RELIGION

Veda, the Storehouse of Knowledge:

The term *veda*, derived from root *vid*, to know with the suffix *ghañ*, literally means knowledge: *vidantyebhiḥ dharmabrahmaṇī kriyājñānamayaṁ brahma vā iti vedaḥ*/¹ The term is derived from root *vid*, that bears the meaning, *vid* (*jñ*āne), to know, *vid* (*vicāraṇe*), to think about, *vid* (*sattāyām*), to exist, *vid* (*lābhe*), to obtain, *vid* to feel, to declare, to dwell.² Ācārya Dayānanda Sarasvatī has opined that the scriptures by which man can attain true knowledge, by the study of which one becomes learned, which helps man in acquiring knowledge or sets man to think about knowledge are the Vedas.³ In the very beginning of his commentary on the *Aitareyabrāhmaṇa*, Sāyaṇācārya has defined *veda* as the book which reveals the knowledge of supernatural method for the achievement of the desired objects and avoidance of the undesirable: *iṣṭaprāptyaniṣṭaparihārayoralaukikamupāyaṁ yo grantho vedayati sa vedaḥ*/⁴ The knowledge, which cannot be attained by perception and inference, that knowledge can only be attained by the Vedas.⁵

The term *veda* primarily stands for the knowledge and secondarily for the vast body of ancient Indian literature. It is the collective designation of the entire sacred

Sarma, Giridhar & Sarma, Paramesvarananda (ed.), Vaiyākaranasiddhāntakaumudī, part III, p.399

cf., sattāyām vidyate jñāne vetti vinte vicāraņe/ vindate vindati prāptau śyanlukśnamśeṣvidam kramāt// Ibid.

³ cf., vidanti, jānanti, vidyante bhavanti, vindati vindate labhante, vindate vicārayanti sarve manuşyāḥ sarvāḥ satyavidyā yairyeşu vā tathā vidvāmsaśca bhavanti te vedāḥ// Saraswati, Sampurnananda (ed.), Rgvedādibhāşyabhūmikā, p.35

⁴ Aitareyabrāhmaṇabhāṣyabhūmikā, p. 1

⁵ cf., pratyakṣeṇānumityā vā yastūpāyo na budhyate/ enam vidanti vedena tasmādvedasya vedatā// TS., Bhāṣyakāropodghātaḥ, p. 2

literature of ancient India, or on the other hand, it is the specific name used for the single book belonging to that particular class. Thus, *Veda* stands for the *Rgvedasamhitā*, the *Yajurvedasamhitā*, the *Sāmavedasamhitā* and the *Atharvavedasamhitā*, and all the literary documents, e.g. the Brāhmaṇas, the Āraṇyakas, the Upaniṣads are designated as the Vedas and the vast body of allied literature linked to it, i.e. Vedāngas.

Different terms are used for the Vedas on later date. They are called $\dot{S}ruti^6$ as the entire text was composed, remembered and handed down from one generation to the other, by means of oral tradition. They are called $\bar{A}mn\bar{a}ya^7$ which is derived from root $mn\bar{a}$ with the prefix \bar{a} , meaning to ponder, to meditate upon. Vedas are the works, to be studied or remembered, or to be learnt with deep attention. They are called $Tray\bar{v}idy\bar{a}$ or $Tray\bar{v}$. Vedic Samhitas are four in number, but, the mantras thereof, are threefold and therefore the term $tray\bar{v}$ is commonly used to signify the four Samhitas. The Atharvaveda is a late addition to the Vedas. The Vedas are called Chandas, due to their metrical character. Several times in the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{v}$, Pāṇini has used the term chandas for the Vedas. The Vedas stands for the Vedas. The Vedic texts were regularly studied by the Vedic students and householders during their daily observances of Pañcamahāyajñas, and therefore, they are called $Sv\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}ya$. Besides

⁶ cf., śrutistu vedo vijñeyo.../ MS., 2.10

⁷ TS., *Bhāṣyakāropodghātaḥ*, p.7

cf., trayī vai vidyā rco yajumsi sāmāni/ ŚB., 1.1.4.3; 4.6.7.1

of., vibhāṣā chandasi/ Aṣṭā., 1.2.36 chandasi punarvasvorekavacanam/ Ibid., 1.2.61 ṣaṣṭhīyuktaśchandasi vā/ Ibid.,1.4.9

cf., yathoktavişayādisadbhāvamabhipretya 'svādhyāyo'dhyetavyaḥ' ityadhyayanam vidhīyate/ TS., Bhāşyakāropodghātaḥ, p. 3 svādhyāyam śrāvayet pitrye.../ MS., 3.232

these, the two terms, viz. $\bar{A}gama$ and Nigama are also used for the Vedas while they are used as the sourcebook of all subsequent religious literature.¹¹

As the pertinent source of knowledge and the root of all the branches of science, the Vedas deal with different aspects of ancient India, i.e. socio-cultural, economic, religious, political, geographical, etc. The precious heritage of ancient India is enshrined in the Vedic texts.

The whole Vedic literature is broadly divided into two groups, i.e. the *Mantra* and the *Brāhmaṇa*. Āpastamba cites in his Śrautasūtra, mantrabrāhmaṇayorvedanāmadheyam/12 Due to their nature of application, mantras come under the class exoteric or karmakāṇḍa, and the philosophical speculations of the Upaniṣads, etc., under the class esoteric or jñānakānḍa. 13

The Mantras or the metrical portion, also called the Samhitās are the collection of hymns, prayers, benedictions, sacrificial formulae, etc. As they are visualized with the inner vision of the Rṣis, i.e. the Vedic seers, ¹⁴ they are called mantras. ¹⁵ Due to their divine origin, mantras are called *apauruṣeya*, i.e. not man-made. ¹⁶

The Samhitās are four in number, viz. the *Rksamhitā*, the *Yajussamhitā*, the *Sāmasamhitā* and the *Atharvasamhitā*. The *Rksamhitā* is the collection of laudatory verses and these are the means to praise the gods: *rcyate stūyate anena devaḥ iti*

¹³ Vide, Sharma, S.N., A History of Vedic Literature, p.3

cf., buddhivṛddhikarāṇyāśu dhanyāni ca hitāni ca/ nityam śāstrāṇyavekṣeta nigamāmścaiva vaidikān//
Ibid., 4.19
pratyakṣañcānumānañca śāstrañca vividhāgamam/ trayam suviditam kāryam

dharmaśuddhimabhīpsatā// Ibid.,12.105

¹² Āś. ŚS., 24.1.31

cf., tadyadenāmstapasyamānān brahmasvayambhvabhyānarṣat ta ṛṣayo'bhavamstadṛṣīṇāmṛṣitvamiti vijñāyate/ Nir., 2.11

cf., mantrā mananāt/ Ibid.,7.12

¹⁶ cf., ...tasmāt nāsti vedasya pauruşeyatvam/ Rgvedādibhāşyabhūmikā

rgvedah/ The Yajussamhitā is the collection of sacrificial formulae, comprising the Taittirīyasamhitā or Kṛṣṇayajurveda and the Vājasaneyisamhitā or Śuklayajurveda. Sāmasamhitā collection sacrificial The is the of chants. the Sāmavedabhāṣyabhūmikā, the Rkmantras are mentioned as the cause and base of the Sāmans. ¹⁷ The *Atharvasamhitā* bears no direct relation with the sacrifices and they are the collection of magical incantations, i.e. the black and white magic. The Mantras or Samhitās form the first stage of development in the field of Vedic literature. Jaimini has cited characteristics the very of all the three Samhitās by saying: teṣāmṛgyatrārthavaśena pādavyavasthā/ gītiṣu sāmākhyā/ śeṣe yajusśabdaḥ//¹⁸ The Rkmantras are those composed in metrical forms with a sense, complete in them. The mantras, those are sung, are called Sāman and the rest is called Yajus. The Atharvavedasamhitā having many verses from the Rgvedasamhitā bears the characteristics of that text.

The Brāhmaṇas are the prose texts, dealing with the theological matters, i.e. observations on sacrifice, mystical significance of various sacrificial rites, etc. They are the running commentaries of the sacrifices. The very characteristics of such texts become clear by the observation of Sir M. Monier-Williams. In his dictionary, the Brāhmaṇas are mentioned as the portion of the *Veda* that is distinct from its *Mantra* and *Upaniṣad* portion, containing the rules for the employment of the mantras or hymns at various sacrifices with detailed explanation of their origin and meaning and numerous old legends. Sāyaṇācārya divides it into two parts—*vidhi*, i.e. rules and directions for rites, and *arthavāda*, i.e. explanatory remarks. In his introduction to the

¹⁷ cf., gīyamānasya sāmna āśrayabhūtā rcah sāmavede samāmnāyante/ Sāmavedabhāsyabhūmikā

¹⁸ *Mīmāmsāsūtra*, 2.1.36-37

¹⁹ Vide, Monier-Williams, M.(ed.), *The Sanskrit English Dictionary*, under *brāhmaṇa*, p.741

Aitareyabrāhmaṇa, Martin Haug differentiates the *Mantra* and the *Brāhmaṇa* by saying that mantras are the part containing the sacred prayers, the invocations of the different deities, and the sacred verses for chanting at the sacrifices, the sacrificial formulas, blessings and curses pronounced by the priest, which is the production of thinking. But on the other hand, Brāhmaṇas are that part of the *Veda* containing speculations on the meaning of the mantras, which give precepts for their application, relate stories of their origin in connection with the sacrificial rites and explain the secret meaning of the later.²⁰

The Āraṇyakas and the Upaniṣads also form part of the Brāhmaṇas. The Āraṇyakas are the forest treatises. As they were to be read in the forests, in contradistinction to the regular Brāhmaṇas, that were meant to be read in the settlement, they are called Āraṇyakas. The forest dwellers, who retired from the active family life, for them, these texts were revealed. These texts were meant to be studied in the forests: araṇyādhyayanādetadāraṇyakamitīryate/ araṇye tadadhīyītetyevaṁ vākyaṁ pracakṣate//²¹

The Upaniṣads are the concluding part of the Vedic literature and as such they are called the *Vedānta*. They mainly discuss the sublime nature of Brahman and lead one to the highest and ultimate goal of the Veda, i.e. the doctrine of Self and Supreme Brahman. Śańkarācārya gives the derivation of the term *upaniṣad* in the introduction to the *Kāṭhakopaniṣad* thus: *saderdhātorviśaraṇagatyavasādanārthasyopanipūrvasya kvippratyayāntasya rūpamidamupaniṣaditi*/²² With a view to attain the secret doctrine, the group of pupils sat near the teacher in Upaniṣadic era. The *Upaniṣad* is termed as

Vide, Haug, Martin, The Aitareya Brāhmaṇam of the Rgyeda, Vol. I, Introduction, pp. ix-x

Sāyaṇācārya on TĀ., 1.1.6

²² Kath.

rahasyam, i.e. secret, by the Indians. Paul Deussen mentions Upaniṣad as secret sign, secret word, secret import, secret formula, secret knowledge, secret meaning and secret instruction.²³ They convey the messages to loose the bondage of the world and enable the pupil to attain the Self or destroy the ignorance completely who is responsible for the deluding appearance of the infinite Self as the finite embodied creatures.²⁴

Each of the four Vedas has their own Samhitās, Brāhmaṇas, Āraṇyakas and Upaniṣads. The vast Vedic literature comprises all these including a class of auxiliary texts, i.e. the Vedāṅgas. The Vedāṅgas are regarded as the limbs of the Vedapuruṣa. In the Mahābhāṣya, it is cited, brāhmaṇena niṣkāraṇo dharmaḥ ṣaḍaṅgo vedo'dhyeyo jñeyaśca/25 The Vedāṅgas are six in number, viz. Śikṣā (phonetics), Kalpa (ceremonials), Nirukta (etymology), Vyākaraṇa (grammar), Chandas (metre) and Jyotiṣa (astronomy). The importance of these treatises is noted in the Pāṇinīyaśikṣā thus: candaḥ pādau tu vedasya hastau kalpo'tha paṭhyate/ jyotiṣāmayanaṁ cakṣurniruktaṁ śrotramucyate// śikṣā ghrāṇaṁ tu vedasya mukhaṁ vyākaraṇaṁ smṛtam/ tasmāt sāṅgamadhītyaitat brahmaloke mahīyate//26

The Vedic texts are the best creation of the Āryan inhabitants of India, which represents the Āryan civilization. The origin of all the sciences, philosophy, religion, culture, etc., is traced back to the Vedic texts and for that, the Vedic age is regarded as the best in the history of India. Among all the Vedas, the *Rgveda* is considered as enormously old by the scholars, as because, they had observed the reflection of the Indo-European mental life in the text, more than the Indian.²⁷ In Rgvedic period, the

Vide, Deussen, Paul, The Philosophy of the Upanishad, pp.12-13

²⁴ Vide, Swami Nikhilananda, *The Upanishads*, Vol. I, p. 11

²⁵ Mahā., *Paśpasāhnikam*, p. 6

²⁶ PŚ., 41-42

²⁷ Vide, Winternitz, M., A History of Indian Literature, Vol. I, p. 68

Āryan civilization was located in the land of Pañca-janas in the Punjab and expanded towards the east region, that bordered by the rivers Sarasvatī and Dṛṣadvatī. But in the later date, the civilization was shifted from the Indus Valley to the Gangatic Plain, 28 The references of the eastward movement of the Āryans from the Saptasindhu are well mentioned in the pages of the *Veda*. The *Rgvedasamhitā* narrates the episode of Viśvāmitra, who with a view to performing the Vedic rituals wanted to cross the confluence of Vipāt and Śutudrī, presently called Vipāśā and Śatadru along with his followers. Again, another reference is found in the Śatapathabrāhmaṇa, that is more concrete than that of the *Viśvāmitra-nadī-samvāda*, where description is found how king Videgha Māthava with the sacrificial fire and his *Purohita*, Gotama Raghunandana came to the bank of the river Sadānīrā, i.e. Gaṇḍakī and following the direction of the sacrificial fire, crossed the river and placed a new settlement, named as Videha, after the name of the king. 30

The socio-religious set up of the Āryan invaders were manifested in the Vedic texts. The people belonging to that particular period, i.e. the Vedic period is known as the Vedic Āryans. Sir M. Monier-Williams holds that, the term $\bar{a}rya$ means the respectable or honourable or faithful inhabitant of Āryāvarta; one who is faithful to the religion of his country; of the race that immigrated from central Asia into Āryāvarta.³¹

Sacrifices or ritualistic activities cover a major part of the lives of the Vedic Āryans. The inhabitants of that society were simple enough, who amazed to see the sublime, grand, beautiful and useful aspect of the nature having divine powers. Nature was a never-ending puzzle to them, which possess power and sublimity. They

²⁸ Basu, Jogiraj, *India of the Age of the Brāhmaṇas*, pp. 1-2

²⁹ RV., 3.33

³⁰ ŚB., 1.4.1.10-17

Vide, Monier-Williams, M.(ed.)., Op. cit., under *ārya*, p. 152

comprehended the true significance of the natural phenomena so intensely and deified them as deities, and started to worship them. The Vedic Āryans worshipped the fire blazing on the hearth or on the altar, the shining Sun, the glowing dawn, etc. They were active and optimistic who prayed their gods for granting long lives, worldly prosperities and brave sons.³²

The Concept of Religion:

The term religion has very wide scope. It is very difficult to give a specific meaning of the term and hard to determine its nature and definition. To find out the origin of the term religion, different observations have been made. The *Oxford English Dictionary* points out the Latin word *religare*, i.e. to bind together, as the origin of the term. In the book *Divine Institutes* also the term *religare* is used as the origin of the religion.³³ Lactantious has derived *religio* from *religare*, to bind or hold back. According to him, men are tied to god and bound to him by the bond of piety, and from that, religion has itself shaped out.³⁴ As it has the divine power of binding the men and god, it is named as religion. But as the term directs the power, the use of *religare* for religion is quite doubtful. Another Latin word, *religere*, i.e. to excute or to rehearse, is also regarded as the origin of the term.³⁵ Cicero has used the term *relegere*, i.e. to gather up again, to take up, to consider, to ponder, as the origin of the term and this etymology is supported by the great scholar Max Müllar too.³⁶ It is unanimously admitted by both the ancient and modern scholars that the term religion is derived from

cf., agninā rayimaśnavatpoṣameva divedive/ yaśasam vīravattamam// RV.,1.1.3 sa no vṛṣannamum carum satrādāvannapā vṛdhi/ asmabhyamapratiskutah// Ibid., 1.7.6

³³ Vide, Max Müller, F., *Natural Religion*, p.83

³⁴ Ibid.

Mohapatra, A.R., Philosophy of Religion: An Approach to World Religions, p.3

Vide, Max Müller, F., Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion, p. 11

religio, that is descendant either form *religare* as well as *religere*. Both the original forms used for religion convey the similar senses; the sense of unity and harmony. Cicero, in his work *Da Natura deorum* (2.28.72) has hold the term *religio* for religion and remarked, "Those who carefully took in hand all things pertaining to the worship of the gods, were called religiosi," i.e. religious.³⁷

The term religion stands as the bond between the mankind and the society. The process of religion has two sides, i.e. an inner side and an outer side. From the inner point of view, it is a state of belief and feeling, an inward spiritual disposition. But from the outer, it is an expression of the subjective disposition in appropriate acts. Both these two aspects are essential to form a religion. The faith, reverence, etc., of the people towards a supernatural power beyond himself is the inner aspect of religion and act of worshipping and service, etc., in respect of that particular power is the outer aspect of religion.³⁸

Different Views Regarding Religion:

Both the Western and Indian scholars have given their concern regarding the religion. As the Western scholars have great belief in theism, their views are mostly influenced by it. James has opined religion as the feelings, acts and experiences of individual men in their solitude so far as they apprehend themselves to stand in relation to whatever they may consider the divine.³⁹ Again, the great scholar Galloway holds religion as man's faith in a power beyond himself. The power he has mentioned is the supreme power that helps man to fulfil the emotional needs giving the stability of life.

Vide, Max Müller, F., *Natural Religion*, pp.83-84

³⁸ Vide, Galloway, G., *The Philosophy of Religion*, pp. 85-86

³⁹ Vide, James, W., The Varieties of Religious Experience, p.32

According to him, man expresses religion in the acts of worship and service. 40 Another Western scholar Flint considers religion as the highest possible form that is theistic one. 41 Patrick has mentioned it as the consciousness of the practical relation of the people to an invisible spiritual order.⁴² Kant has mentioned that whenever people look upon all their moral duties as divine commands then there religion constituted of.⁴³ Alexander defines it as the faith in deity. 44 Of these, the definitions made by James and Galloway about religion look like more reliable than that of Flint and others as they possess both the inner and outer senses of religion. The Indian scholars have also tried their best to define religion. Among different scholars, Swami Vivekananda has viewed religion as the manifestation of the divinity already in man. He has said, "Religions manifest themselves not only according to race and geographical position, but according to individual powers. In one man, religion is manifesting itself as intense activity as work. In another, it is manifesting itself as intense devotion, in yet another, as mysticism in others as philosophy, and so forth."⁴⁵ According to him, the Aryan and Semitic races are the two great sources of all religion. ⁴⁶ S. Radhakrishnan has remarked in this regard thus: "Religion has been identified with feelings, emotion and sentiment, instinct, cult and ritual, perception, belief and faith and these views are right in what they affirm, though wrong in what they deny."⁴⁷

Religion mainly comprises three parts; firstly, philosophy of religion, secondly, the mythology, and thirdly, the ritual. Without the philosophy, religion can not be

Vide, Galloway, G., Op. cit., p.184

⁴¹ Vide, Flint, R., Theism, Being the Baird Lecture for 1876, p.54

⁴² Vide, Patrick, G.T.W., *Introduction to Philosophy*, p.367

Vide, Max Müller, F., Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion, p.15

⁴⁴ Vide, Alexander, S., *Space, Time and Deity*, Vol. II, p.3

⁴⁵ Vide, The Complete Works of Swami Vivekananda, Vol. IV, p.180

Vide, Ibid., Vol. VIII, p. 150

Vide, Radhakrishnan, S., An Idealist View of Life, p. 87

survived. It presents the whole scope of religion setting forth the basic principle of it; the goal, and the means to achieve it. In the second place, mythology consisting of legends relating to the lives of men or of supernatural beings and so forth makes the philosophy concrete. And, lastly, the ritual is more concrete than that of the earlier two. It is made up of forms and ceremonies, physical attitudes, etc. With these three parts, a standard religion is formed in any race of the world.

Origin and Evolution of Religion:

According to Hopkins, one inspired religion was prevalent in ancient India from where all the other religions were decadent.⁴⁸ The view of Hopkins almost resembles the view of the *Veda: yajñena yajñamayajanta devāstāni dharmāṇi prathamāṇyāsan/ te ha nākaṁ mahimānaḥ sacanta yatra pūrve sādhyāḥ santi devāḥ//⁴⁹ The Vedic verse reveals the origin of the religion by saying that the gods introduced religion on earth through the performance of a divine ritual of creation. Among different theories related to its origin, two theories are regarded as earlier—firstly, the theory of divine origin; secondly, the theory of human origin.⁵⁰ According to the first theory, i.e. divine origin, god is the ultimate source of religion and religion is revealed by means of divinity only. But according to the human origin, <i>viveka*, i.e. the human consideration or judgment is the ultimate cause of the origin of religion. Religion, as it is regarded as the result of the divine revelation, but the forms and contents of it cannot be occurred with the participation of human mind.⁵¹ Thus, though these two theories differ from each other, but in origin, they are contemporary to each other.

Hopkins, E. Washburn., Origin and Evolution of Religion, p. 2

⁴⁹ RV..10.90.16

Vide, Prasad, G., The Fountain-Head of Religion, Introduction, pp. xix-xxii

Vide, Radhakrishnan, S., Religion and Culture, p. 25

The principal theories deal with the origin and evolution of religion:

Animism: The theory of animism involves the names of E. B. Tylor and Herbert Spencer. This theory is based on the belief of primitive man that what was active was alive and that, being alive, all animate and inanimate objects, i.e. an object, animal or material had same sort of spirit what man feels within himself. Tylor has defined this theory as belief in spiritual beings and mentioned as the earliest form of religion.⁵² The primitive man believed that whatever man dreamt in his sleep and whatever he was used to do in his dream etc. were nothing but the result of his spirit. Spirit is independent and recognized in various objects including animals and men. After death, the spirit never dies, but sustains and in course of time transformed to the god endowing with the supernatural power. That is why people make offerings to the spirits of his ancestors. Spencer has accepted this ancestor worship as the root of all the religions.⁵³

Naturalism or Animatism: The name of the great scholar Max Müller is associated with the theory of naturalism or animatism. According to him, religion is the outcome of naturalism. According to this theory, religion sprang from the spontaneous emotional reactions of wonder, awe and fear, evoked in man by different natural phenomena like the sun, the moon, the lightning, the thunder, etc. Indeed, the primitive man felt that consciousness or life existed behind all the powerful activities of nature. Various attributes were given to these entities and showed reverences. Thus, the personified and defied phenomena of nature, in course of time, transformed into the nature gods with the evolution of human mind. Max Müller has defined religion as the trust that has grown in the mind and heart of man by the order and wisdom of nature and more

Vide, Tylor, E.B., *Primitive Culture*, Vol. II, p.100

Vide, Spencer, H.L., The Principles of Sociology, Vol. I, p. 411

particularly by those regularly recurring events, i.e. the return of the seasons, the law of cause and effect.⁵⁴ He has referred to the natural religion as the Physical Religion and regarded it as the first phase of development which has two other phases—something not merely human, or very soon, something superhuman that discovered at a very early time in parents and ancestors, particularly after they had departed this life.⁵⁵ As the large number of German Scholar associated with this theory, the theory is known as the German theory too.

Theory of Magic: Sir J. G. Frazer has developed one of the theories relating to the origin of religion. According to this theory, religion is regarded as the child of magic. The primitive man tried their best to control the nature by means of magical powers, i.e. sacrifices, magical rites, etc. Frazer asserted religion as born from such rites.⁵⁶ But, in course of time, people came to know that magical powers did not provide desired results all the time. Consequently, the belief in the unseen being that possessing power had grown in the minds of the people. The primitive man sought the favour of such powerful being and offered offerings and prayer to satisfy him. Thus, the idea of god and religious practices were born in the theology.

Totemism: The name of Emile Durkheim is highly associated with the theory of totemism. According to this theory, totemism is the earliest form of religion. Durkheim explained the point of view that religion is pre-eminently social in nature. It originated in the group ritual, especially in the communal ritual. Indeed, totemism is a social cult, in where a social group itself believes in a being friendly in nature or in close kingship to a particular animal or plant or some other object which is called totem of that social

Vide, Max Müller, F., *India What can it Teach us*, p. 179

Vide, Max Müller, F., *Physical Religion*, pp. 1-3

Vide, Frazer, J.G., The Golden Bough, p.15

group. The totem, the symbol of the group as well as the totemic force becomes the god of the community revered by the primitive men. The name of the totem comes from some convenient animal living near by. It is respected as sacred or tabooed, but not regarded as deities.⁵⁷ The collective representation of the human group showed reverence towards the taboo things becomes religious belief in course of time. And such belief towards the sacred power or totemic force becomes a moral power for the primitive man. The people practised different rites and rituals and offered sacrifices towards their totem, made them united. Durkheim holds such totemic cult as the constituent of the elementary forms of all the religious practices.⁵⁸

All the afore-mentioned theories deal with the origin of religion. Besides these, there are also found some other theories, like the theory of fetishism, theory of group spirit, etc., dealing with the religion, but not with its origin. It is too difficult to find out one of the single theories as the origin of it. Two or more characteristics like animism, animatism, etc., are found in a particular society of ancient date at a single time. Again, some of the characteristics have been more prominent in one society than that of the others. Among different theories of it, animism and animatism were observed almost in all the societies of early date. Therefore, we find among the savages the worship of stones, hills, plants, trees, flowers, rivers, air, wind, the sky, fire, the clouds, the sun, the moon, the animals and birds and so on. Indeed, the primitive people worshipped the powers they feared and sought to possess those in themselves. ⁵⁹ The animistic belief enlightened the people to venerate the animals as because of their living power. The

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⁵⁷ Vide, Rivers, W.H.R., *The History of Melanesian Society*, Vol. II, p. 75

Vide, Durkheim, E., The Elementary Forms of the Religious Life, p. 337

⁵⁹ Vide, Hopkins, E. Washburn., Op.cit., p.13

result of such belief, different ancient societies accepted different animals like bull, goat, cow, etc., as their worshipping power and different totem were accepted.

Classification of Religion:

Galloway in his work has broadly divided the religion into three groups⁶⁰—

- i. Tribal Religion
- ii. National Religion and
- iii. Universal Religion

The tribal religion represents the religion of the tribe. All the members of the primitive group appear in this division. The ethical ideas have not developed in tribal religion, but it stands as the cause of spiritual religion. Tylor has mentioned "Savage animism is almost devoid of that ethical element which to the educated modern mind is the mainspring of practical religion." The national religion is wider than that of the tribal religion. It involves a widening of man's mental horizon and the rise of a larger and more complex social order brings about a distinct advance in the personal consciousness. An individual achieves progress in individuality and knowledge through the interaction with other selves within a wider social system in national religion. It involves the ethical development and religious consciousness. In the national religion, the organized worship of the gods, the national spirit and ideals find expression. As a citizen the individual shares the worship in national religion. The universal religion is something peculiar than that of the earlier two. In this religion, appeals are made to men than the spirit, without distinction of class or race. The

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⁶⁰ Vide, Galloway, G., Op. cit., pp. 88-147

Vide, Tylor, B. Edward, Op. cit, Vol. II, p.360

Vide, Galloway, G. Op.cit. p. 109

salvation or redemption that it offers is open to all. Again, the object of worship is one and the method of divine service everywhere the same.⁶³

Besides these, taking consideration into different theories, dealing with its origin and evolution, religion can be categorized into the following groups—

- i. Primal Religion
- ii. Naturalistic Religion
- iii. Humanistic Religion
- iv. Spiritual Religion

The primal religion is characterized by the theory of animism, spiritism, fetishism, manaism or ancestor worship and totemism. The belief of the primitive people influenced by their surrounding environment, that was full with superstition, magic, fear, illusion, etc., gave birth to the primal religion.

The naturalistic religion believes in worshipping the object of nature or the powers of nature. The mother nature occupies prominent place in this religion. Different objects of nature, i.e., the sun, the moon, wind, etc., occupy specific place in the nature worship. Though the primal religion and naturalistic religion look alike, but indeed they are different from each other. The naturalistic religion is the developed form of the primal religion. The objects of worship in the primal religion are vague and indistinct in character, but the objects of worship in naturalistic religion are endowed with names and varieties of attributes and activities. Both the worshipper and worshipped objects have maintained close relationship in the naturalistic religion. The gods in the naturalistic religion are endowed with the ethical principles with the

⁶³ Vide, Ibid., p.138

development of human intelligence in a higher social order of a civilized life. Again, the natural elements have been elevated to a spiritual level in the naturalistic religion which in the primal religion was only the sources of reverential fear of dread. Galloway determines the possibility that due to the increasing complexity of human behaviour and activities in changed social atmosphere, developed the tendency to multiply the number of gods, each god with specific function to perform.⁶⁴ Thus, the polytheistic system developed from the practice of nature worship of primal society.

The humanistic religion believes in the worship of man having ethical values. The humanistic religion has two phases. According to one, god is believed to incarnate in human form, i.e. the avatāras. Again, in another, due to the good qualities, man is exalted to the position of god and worshipped. The divine qualities are attributed to the man. Gautama Buddha is the character, who was revered and worshipped like the god due to the extraordinary divine qualities.

The spiritual religion mainly comprises the belief of man in spirits and a world beyond. According to it, god is the greatest entity, who is self-born, universal, omnipresent, omnipotent and infinite. He is beyond this world. In this religion, belief in god becomes an inner quality of man and the insight becomes wider. The ritualistic belief of people ended with it. As a result, this religion becomes the universal one that has the power to bind all the people irrespective of their nationality, colour of the skin and all the other factors, those generally tend to division. The instances of spiritual religion are Islamic Religion, Christianity, etc. The spiritual organizations Ram Krishna Mission, Satsanga Vihar, Prajapita Brahmakumari Iswariya Viswavidyalaya, etc., also convey the messages of spiritualism in today's society.

Vide, Ibid., p.117

The Concept of Religion in the Vedas:

The term *dharma* is used in Sanskrit for religion. It is derived from root *dhṛñ*, *dhāraṇe*, meaning to support, or *dhṛň*, *avasthāne*, meaning to take a position. Among the lexicographers, Sir M. Monier-William has defined *dharma* as 'that which is established or firm, steadfast, decree, statue, ordinance, law; usage, practice, customary observance or prescribed conduct, duty; right, justice, virtue, morality, religion, religious merit, good work.'65 According to the *Amarakośa*, *dharma* is used for ritualistic performance that is sacred, blissful, virtuous and full of offerings: *syāddharmamastriyām puṇyaśreyasī sukṛtaṁ vṛṣaḥ*/66 In the Śabdakalpadruma, the term is found both in masculine and neuter gender and gives the meaning of good fortune, i.e. śubhādṛṣṭam.⁶⁷ Thus, the term *dharma* is used in different senses, the concept of which is too wide. It includes in it religion, deity, sacrifice, religious ordinances, moral order, fixed principle or rules of conduct, duty, virtue, etc.

From the etymological point of view, the term *dharma* gives the meaning of supporter or sustainer or upholder. Those who support or sustain or protect all are the *dharma* in the Vedas. Different gods are called as *dharma* in the Vedic texts as they protect or support or sustain the ritual or the individual. Agni, the fire god is called *dharma* as he protects, supports and accomplishes the ritual.⁶⁸ Sūrya, the Sun-god is called *dharma*, i.e. *dharmandivaḥ*⁶⁹ as he is the supporter of the heaven, his own

Monier-Williams, M.(ed.), Op cit., under *dharma*, p. 510

⁶⁶ AK., 1.4.24

⁶⁷ Śabda., Vol. II, p.783

cf., imamañjaspāmubhaye akṛṇvata dharmāṇamagnim vidathasya sādhanam/ aktum na yahvamuṣasaḥ purohitam tanūnapātamaruṣasys nimsate// RV., 10.92.2

⁶⁹ Ibid., 10.170.2

region. Besides this, Sūrya sustains the entire creation with the life-giving aspect. For each and every means to survive, the creatures are dependant upon the rays of the sun. Vāyu, the god of wind, is also mentioned as the *dharma* in the Vedas due to his character of sustainer: *tvam viśvasmādbhuvanātpāsi dharmaṇāsūryātpāsi dharmaṇā*/⁷¹ Vāyu gives lives to all living beings. Indra is also mentioned as the sustainer and the ruler in the Vedas: *varāya te pātram dharmaṇe tanā yajño mantro brahmadyotam vacaḥ*/⁷² He is the prominent deity in the Vedic pantheon, glorified with the rain-giving aspect. Without the rain no corn can grow, no lives can survive. In this way, for different divinities, the term *dharma* is used in the Vedic texts.

The term *dharma* is applied for the sacrifices in the Vedas. Sacrifice is regarded as one of the principal parts of the Vedic religion. The lives of the Vedic Āryans are encompassed with it. It offers the people pollution free environment and stands as the source of all that cause rain, purify all vegetation and herbs, and produce cereals that bestow longevity of lives. ⁷³ As the sacrifices are, so fruitful for the creatures, the term *dharma* is rightly used for *yajña* in the Vedas in the sense of sustainer. ⁷⁴ The very first *yajña* that was performed by the gods is described as the very first means of sustenance. Again, the same is called as Puruṣa or Prajāpati, the lord and protector of all beings. The Vedic rituals, performed following the ritual of creation, have become the means of support and protection of the creatures as well as the unification with the gods and

cf., yā indra prasvastvāsā garbhamacakriran/ pari dharmeva sūryan/ Ibid., 8.6.20 esa dharmo yo esa tapatyesa hīdam sarvam dhārayati/ ŚB., 14.2.2.29

⁷¹ RV.,1.134.5

⁷² Ibid.,10.50.6

Also Vide, Ibid., 1.55.3; AB., 8.12

cf., annādbhavanti bhūtāni parjanyādannasambhavaḥ/ yajñādbhavati parjjanyo yajñaḥ karmasamudbhavaḥ// ŚMG., 3.14

cf., yajñena yajñamayajanta devaḥ tāni dharmāṇi prathamānyāsan/ RV., 1.164.50

regarded as the *dharma*. In this way, several times in the Vedic literature, $yaj\tilde{n}a$ is mentioned as the *dharma* and used as the upholder or sustainer or protector.

Besides these, the term *dharma* is used in same contexts, in the sense of religious ordinances or rites,⁷⁷ somewhere as the fixed principles or rules of conduct,⁷⁸ somewhere as custom,⁷⁹ somewhere as virtue⁸⁰ and somewhere as inherent nature or quality.⁸¹ *Dharma* is mentioned as equivalent to *satya* in the Vedas: ...*yo vai sa dharmaḥ satyaṁ vai tat; tasmāt satyaṁ vadantam āhuḥ, dharmaṁ vadatīti...*⁸² In the *Aitareyabrāhmaṇa*, the whole body of religious institutions is treated as the *dharma*.⁸³ Besides this, *dharma* is also used in the Vedic texts to denote the merit acquired by the performance of religious rites.⁸⁴ *Dharma* directs the duty.⁸⁵ In the Śrīmadbhāgavadgītā,

cf., ṛtena ṛtaṁ dharuṇaṁ dhārayanta yajñasya śāke parame vyoman/ divo dharmandharuṇe seduşo nṛñjātairajātāñ abhi ye nanakṣuḥ// Ibid., 5.15.2

pipartu mā tadṛtasya pravācanaṁ devānāṁ yanmanuṣyā amanmahi/ viśvā idusrāḥ spaludeti sūryaḥ svastyagniṁ samidhānamīmahe// Ibid.,10.35.8

cf., vaiśvānarāya pṛthupājase vipo ratnā vidhanta dharuņeşu gātave/ agnirhi devāñ amṛto duvasyatyathā dharmāṇi sanatā dūduṣat// Ibid.,3.3.1

viśām rājānamadbhutamadhyakṣam dharmaṇāmimam/agnimīde sa u śravat// Ibid., 8.43.24

cf., trīṇi padā vi cakrame viṣṇurgopā adābhyaḥ/ ato dharmāṇi dhārayan// Ibid., 1.22.18 samidhānaḥ sahasrajidagne dharmāṇi puṣyasi/ devānāṁ dūta ukthyaḥ// Ibid. 5.26.6

cf., ghṛtavatī bhuvanānāmabhiśriyorvī pṛthvī madhudughe supeśasā/dyāvāpṛthivī varuṇasya dharmaṇā viṣkabhite ajare bhūriretasā// Ibid., 6.70.1

⁷⁹ cf., iyam nārī patilokam vṛṇānā ni padyata upa tvā martya pretam/ dharmam purāṇamanupālayantī tasyai prajām draviṇam ceha dhehi// AV. 18.3.1

cf., anaptamapsu dustaram somam pavitra ā srja/punīhīndrāya pātave// RV., 9.16.3

cf., pavamāna dhiyā hito'bhi yonim kanikradat/dharmaṇā vāyumā viśa// Ibid., 9.25.2 pavasva devāyuṣagindram gacchatu te madaḥ/ vāyumā roha dharmaṇā// Ibid., 63.22

⁸² Br.U., 1.4.14

cf., dharmasya goptājanīti... abhimantrayeta/ AB., 7.17

cf., ṛtaṁ satyaṁ tapo rāṣṭraṁ śramo dharmaśca karma ca/ bhūtaṁ bhaviṣyaducchiṣṭe vīryaṁ lakṣmīrbalaṁ bale// AV., 9.7.17

⁸⁵ Chā. U., 2.23.1

and in different Smrtis, the term *dharma* is used in the sense of duties. ⁸⁶ Thus, *dharma* is found in the Vedas, in different senses, those direct to a positive and benevolent mental power.

In wider sense, *dharma* denotes religion and involves in it different ordinances those to be strictly followed by the people according to their tribes or castes. The Vedic religion was ritualistic in nature. It finds expression with the mantras and ritualistic activities. With the ritualistic performances, the divinities were tried to please. The priests took an active part in the whole activities of the sacrifices. Each of them performed his own specific duties and stood as the mediator between the gods and the devotees. An invisible bond is created between the worshiper and worshipped. Frequently in the Vedas, the deities are mentioned as the father, brother or the son or friend of the worshippers from whom they asked and gain food or bountiful gifts, glory, brave son or victory over the enemies, etc., and so on and so forth.⁸⁷ Indeed, a nearest and close relationship is tried to develop between the worshippers and worshipped. Thus, in the Vedic religion developed the idea of brotherhood with the involvement of group activities like sacrifices, prayers etc. The principal sacrifices in the Vedic religion can not be performed alone. It involves the performances of group of people, i.e. generally the sacrificer, priests and others.

The Vedic religion is optimistic in nature. In Vedic religion, the worshippers worshipped the deities for all the positive things such as good health, long life,

cf., ...svadharme nidhanam śreyah.../ ŚMG., 3.35

bhagavan sarvavarṇānām yathāvadanupūrvaśaḥ/antaraprabhavāṇāñca dharmān no vaktumarhasi// MS., 1.2

athātaḥ sāmayācārikān dharmānvyākhyāsyāmaḥ/Āp. DS., 1.1.1

⁶⁷ cf., sa naḥ piteva sūnave'gne sūpāyano bhava/ sacasvā naḥ svastaye// RV., 1.1.9 divo na sargo asasṛgramahnām rājā na mitram pra mināti dhīraḥ/ piturna putraḥ kratubhiryatāna ā pavasva viśe asyā ajītim// Ibid. 9.97.30

prosperity, offspring, victory over the enemies etc.⁸⁸ All such expectations of the devotees towards the supreme power lead to the optimism.

The Vedic religion is the best example of naturalistic religion. Some aspects of the primal belief are found in it. The worship of nature, i.e. the worship of sun, the moon, the earth, the rivers, the dawn, the wind, the storm, the fire, the cow, etc., came from the animistic belief of the primitive man. According to it, there is a soul in each and everything in nature. Such ideas gave rise to the ancestor worship in the Vedic time. 89 According to spiritism, each and everything in the world possess a soul or spirit of independent nature. Again, different fetishes are found there in the Vedic period that introduces fetishism. Fetishism is a belief which considers a fetish as the object of worship, i.e. a stone, a piece of metal like gold, a wheel, wood, or even a separated part of human body that possess spirit within, along with the divine and mysterious powers of temporary nature. The wheel, the representative of the sun, 90 the bull, the representative of Parjanya, 91 etc., are the worshipping fetishes found in the Vedic age. In this way, different aspects of the primal religion are found more or less in the Vedic religion. As a result of such elements, the Vedic religion inherits a flavor of magic. It is worthy to note that the religion and magic have always been found intermingled, more or less, in Vedic religious practices.

cf., agninā rayimaśnavatpoṣameva divedive/ yaśasam vīravattamam// Ibid., 1.1.3
tam tvā vājeṣu vājinam vājayāmaḥ śatakrato/ dhanānāmindra sātaye// Ibid.,1.4.9
arvānco adyā bhavatā yajatrā ā vo hārdi bhayamāno vyayeyam/ trādhvam no devā nijuro vṛkasya trādhvam kartādavapado yajatrā// Ibid.,2.29.6

⁸⁹ Vide, Galloway, G., Op. cit., pp. 90-98

of., muṣāya sūryam kave cakramīśāna ojasā/ vaha śuṣṇāya vadham kutsam bātasyāśvaiḥ// RV., 1.175.4

⁹¹ cf., tisro vācaḥ pra vada jyotiragrā yā etadruhre madhudoghamūdhaḥ/ sa vatsam kṛṇvangarbhamoṣadhīnām sadyo jāto vṛṣabho roravīti// Ibid. 7.101.1 sa retodhā vṛṣabhaḥ śaśvatīnām tasminnātmā jagatastasthuṣaśca/ Ibid. 7.101.6

An important point observed in the naturalistic religion is the tendency towards the unification of worship that developed with the development of better bonding among the people in the society. For this, a divine and universal principle is formed. Rta, found in the Vedic literature, is such principle of law that working behind the natural, moral and religious order of the world binds all the things together. In the Vedic religion, the idea of unification becomes more distinct with the introduction of the verse indrain mitrain varuṇamagnimāhuratho divyaḥ sa suparṇo garutmān/ ekain sad viprāḥ bahudhā vadantyagnin yamain mātariśvānamāhuḥ, 2 that conveys the meaning of one single Divine Being becoming one with all creations. Though the religion of the Veda is polytheistic one where a large number of deities are worshipped, but in nature, it is monotheistic one. For example, in a passage, the golden germ Hiraṇyagarbha is mentioned as the supreme deity, who is mentioned as alone and above of all: yah devesu adhi devah ekah āsīt/93

The fear, dread, splendour etc. of the primitive man towards the powerful natural phenomena, had given birth the religious faith inside the mind of the Āryan people. With the development of human emotions, related to the faith and devotion, the concept of god was shaped out and it was fully developed with the realization of divine within.

The Concept of God in the Light of the Vedas:

The term deva is used in the Vedas for the divine concept. The term is well defined by Sāyaṇācārya, in his commentary of the $Rgvedasamhit\bar{a}$ as $d\bar{a}n\bar{a}diguṇayukta$, i.e. one, that is endowed with the qualities of making gifts, etc.

⁹³ Ibid.,10.121

⁹⁴ Ibid., 1.1.1

23

⁹² RV., 1.164.46

Besides this, in the commentary of the same text, he has used the term $d\bar{p}yam\bar{a}nah$, 95 $dyotam\bar{a}nah$, 96 etc., to convey the meaning the shining one. Yāskācārya, in the Nirukta, gives the etymological meaning of the term deva as devo $d\bar{a}n\bar{a}dv\bar{a}$ $d\bar{p}an\bar{a}dv\bar{a}$ $dyotan\bar{a}dv\bar{a}$ $dyotan\bar{a}dv\bar{a}$ $dyotan\bar{a}dv\bar{a}$ $dyotan\bar{a}dv\bar{a}$ $dyotan\bar{a}dv\bar{a}$ According to him, deva is called so as because of making gifts to the earthly beings or for being brilliant or radiant, or because he belongs primarily to the heavenly sphere. The etymological meaning holds the term deva can be derived from the root $d\bar{a}$, $d\bar{i}p$ or dyut. Patañjali, the great grammarian, has derived the term deva from root div, to shine. Those, who shine with the heavenly qualities and deeds of supremacy, are regarded as deities. deva or god is called $devat\bar{a}$ also: deva deva

Almost all the great scholars like Max Müller, Keith, Macdonell, Winternitz, Griswold, etc., have unanimously accepted that the gods are nothing but the defied and personified phenomena of nature. Yāskācārya has etymologized the term on the basis of such natural observation. The great commentator Sāyaṇācārya, Skandaswāmi, etc., have followed and made extensive use of naturalistic interpretations of Yāskācārya and show their awareness towards it. Both Yāskācārya and Sāyaṇācarya have pointed out the myth of Indra's fight against Vṛtra, which is, in reality, a depiction of natural phenomena, i.e. the thunder and the cloud. Vṛtra represents here the cloud: tat ko vṛtraḥ? megha iti nairuktāḥ, tvāṣṭro'sura ityaitihāsikāḥ apām ca jyotiṣaśca

⁹⁵ Ibid., 19.6

⁹⁶ Ibid, 2.38.1

⁹⁷ Nir.,7.15

⁹⁸ Sarup, L. (ed.), The Nighantu and the Nirukta, part II, p. 121

⁹⁹ cf., diveraiśvaryakarmaņo devaḥ/ Mahā. 5.1.59

¹⁰⁰ Nir., 7.15

miśrībhāvakarmāṇo varṣakarma jāyate, tatropamārthena yuddhavarṇā bhavanti/¹⁰¹As a result of the fight of Indra and Vṛṭra, the rain befalls.

The gods are mentioned as arisen from the non-existence in the Vedas. ¹⁰⁸ In the $N\bar{a}sad\bar{i}yas\bar{u}kta$ of the $Rgvedasamhit\bar{a}$, they are cited as born after the creation of the universe. ¹⁰⁹ They are mentioned as daivyajana, i.e. the divine clan. ¹¹⁰ They reside in the Heaven. They are said to be the children of Heaven and Earth, i.e. $devaputre^{111}$ that means they, whose sons are the gods. In a number of hymns, the deities are stated to

¹⁰¹ cf., Nir., 2.16

Also vide, ayam indraḥ vajreṇa sampādito yo mahān vadhaḥ tena vajreṇa vṛtrataram atiśayena lokānām āvarakam andhakārarūpam.../ Sāyanācārya on RV., 1.32.5

cf., yo nākasyādhi rocane divi devāsa āsate/ marudbhiragna ā gahi// RV., 1.19.6 udu şya devaḥ savitā savāya// Ibid., 2.38.1

¹⁰³ Ibid., 1.1.2

cf., devī devebhiryajate yajatrairaminatī tasyaturukṣamāṇe/ rtāvarī adguhā devaputre yajñasya netrī śucayadbhirarkaiḥ// Ibid., 4.56.2

cf., ye maho rajaso vidurviśve devāso adguhal/ Ibid., 1.19.3

cf., śam no devīrabhiṣṭaya āpo bhavantu pītaye/ śam yorabhisravantu naḥ// Ibid.,10.9.4

cf., rātrī vyakhyadāyatī purutrā devyakṣabhiḥ/ viśvā adhi śriyo'dhitaḥ// Ibid.,10.127.1

cf., bṛhanto nāma te devā ye'sataḥ pari jajñire/ekaṁ tadaṅgaṁ skambhasyāsadāhuḥ puro janāḥ//
AV., 10.7.25

cf., ko addhā veda ka iha pra vocatkuta ājātā kuta iyam visṛṣṭiḥ/arvāgdevā asya visarjanenāthā ko veda yata ābabhūva// ŖV., 10.129.6

¹¹⁰ Ibid.,7.53.2

cf., atapyamāne avasāvantī anu şyāma rodasī devaputre/ ubhe devānāmubhayebhirahnām dyāvā rakṣatam pṛthivī no abhvāt// Ibid., 1.185.4

devī devebhiryajate yajatrairaminatī tasthaturukṣamāṇe/ ṛtāvarī adruhā devaputre yajñasya netrī śucayadbhirarkaih// Ibid., 4.56.2

have been born from the Heaven and Earth.¹¹² The terms *pitarā*, *mātarā*, etc., are used in the Vedas to distinguish their universal parenthood.¹¹³ They are cited as *pūrvaje pitrā* and *pitarā pūrvajā* means the primeval parents.¹¹⁴ Thus, being the descendants of Dyaus, the divinities are called as divine and all the natural phenomena within the sphere of heaven and earth are regarded as their children.¹¹⁵ These divinities possess equal naturalness and equal powers.

The term *deva* or *devatā* includes in it all kinds of divinities, viz. the higher gods with great functional importance and the abstract deities with lesser power or prowess. The *Rgvedasamhita* and other Vedic texts contain the worship of the higher gods such as Sūrya, Agni, Indra, Vāyu, Rudra, Uṣas, Ādityas, Maruts, the Aśvins, etc., the deities, comparatively of lesser importance, such as Vivasvat, Trita Āptya, etc., the semi-divine deities Vāstospati, Mātariśvan etc. Besides these, the abstract ideas, like faith, i.e. *śraddhā*, charity, i.e. *dakṣiṇā*, anger, i.e. *manyu*, knowledge, i.e. *jñāna*, speech, i.e. *vāk* etc. have occupied places of worship as deities in the Vedas. In this way, under the sphere of the term *deva*, both the concrete and abstract ideas have come. Different diseases, medicinal plants and creepers, different human organs, etc., have also found a place of worship occupying the form of god in the Vedic pantheon. Thus in the Vedas, both the truly divine as well as the non-divine objects like *dundubhi*, ¹¹⁶

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¹¹² Ibid., 1.159, 1.160,1.185; 4.56; 6.70; 7.53

cf., te sūnavaḥ svapasaḥ sudamsaso mahī jajñurmātarā pūrvacittaye/ Ibid.,1.159.3 pra pūrvaje pitarā navyasībhirgīviḥ kṛṇuddhvaṁ sadane ṛtasya/ ā no dyāvāpṛthivī daivyena janena yātaṁ mahi vā varūtham// Ibid., 7.53.2

¹¹⁴ cf., Ibid.

parikṣitā pitarā pūrvajāvarī ṛtasya yonā kṣayataḥ samokasā/ dyāvāpṛthivī varuṇāya savrate ghṛtavatpayo mahiṣāya pinvataḥ// Ibid., 10.65.8

Griswold, H.D., Religion of the Rgveda, pp. 101-102

¹¹⁶ RV., 6.47.29,30

dyuta, 117 etc., have occupied the places of importance as deities and worshipped by the common people.

Number and Classification of the Vedic Gods:

Yāskācārya has given the classification of the deities, in his famous work Nirukta, referring the views of his predecessors: tisra eva devatā iti nairuktāh agnih prthivīsthāno vāyurvendro vāntariksasthānah dyusthānastāsām sūryo māhābhāgyādekaikasyā bahūni nāmadheyāni bhavantyapi api karmapṛthaktvādyathā hotādhvaryurbrahmodgātetyapyekasya sato'pi vā pṛthageva syuh/ prthagghi stutayo bhavanti tathābhidhānāni/118 According to the expounders of the Vedas, there is triple classification of the divinities. Agni, the Fire god represents the terrestrial class of deities that dwell in the earth; Vāyu or Indra represents the atmospheric region and the gods dwelling in the atmosphere appears as atmospheric or aerial deities. Sūrya, the Sun-god dwells in the celestial region and he represents the entire divinities of that region, who is called the celestial god. As it is seen that the title Hotr, Adhvaryu, Brahman and Udgātr are applied to a single person due to different application of particular sacrificial office, and the single deity also is glorified with different appellations due to the greatness and diversity of the functions. The triple classification of the Vedic deities is viewed by Saunaka also in the *Bṛhaddevatā*, where he states: agnirasminnathendrastu madhyato vāyureva ca/ sūryo divīti vijñeyāstisra eveha devatāh//¹¹⁹ In the Rgvedasamhitā, the same classification of the Vedic deities is made. The gods, who are eleven in the sky, eleven on earth and eleven dwellers in the

¹¹⁷ Ibid., 10.34

¹¹⁸ Nir., 7.5

¹¹⁹ BD., 1.69

atmosphere, are called to the sacrifice to take their offerings.¹²⁰ There are also found some other Rgvedic passages, those stands in support of this.¹²¹ The *Atharvaveda* also divides the gods into triple classification: *ye devā diviṣado antarikṣasadaśca ye ye ceme bhūmyāmadhi*.¹²²

In the *Rgvedasamhitā*, the deities Sūrya, Vāyu and Agni are directly mentioned as the representative of the three regions and invoked for bestowing protection from the calamities of man from the three regions: *sūryo no divaspātu vāto'ntarikṣāt/ agnirnaḥ pārthivebhyaḥ//*¹²³ In this way, in the Vedic texts, the three divinities Agni, Vāyu or Indra and Sūrya representing the three worlds are cited as the supreme divinities. The other divinities are regarded as the result of them.

The three supreme deities appear in different forms due to the supereminence or the divisions of action. Durgācārya in his commentary on the relevant passage of the Nirukta has clarified by, tāsāmeva tisṛṇāmagnyādīnā māhābhāgyādaiśvaryayogenaikātmānamanekadhā vikurvatīnāmekaikasvām prativikāram jātavedo vaiśvānaro varuņo rudro'śvināvuṣā ityeṣamādīni bahuni nāmadheyāni bhavanti pratisthānam svaprakrtyabhedādaikātmyavadevaikatvam na karmaprthaktvāt/ iahāti $s\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}$ devateti/ vaivam api νā api vikaraṇadharmitvādabhinnaprakṛtīnām bahunāmatā/ api svaṁ svamātmānamavikurvatīnāmevānekakarmayogātpṛthakkarmahetuko nāmadheyalābhah $sy\bar{a}t/^{124}$ The different qualities and functions of Fire-god or Agni gave birth to different

cf., ye devāso divyekādaśa stha pṛthivyāmadhyekādaśa stha/ apsukṣito mahinaikādaśa stha te devāso

yajñamimajuşadhvam// RV.,1.139.11

cf., ye trimsati trayasparo devāso barhirāsadan/ vidannaha dvitāsanan// Ibid., 8.28.1 iti stutāso asathā risādaso ye stha trayasca trimsacca/ manordevā yajñiyāsaḥ// Ibid., 8.30.2

¹²² AV., 10.9.12

¹²³ RV., 10.158.1

Durgācārya on Nir., 7.5

appellations like Jātavedas, Vaiśvānara, Tanūnapāt, etc. Vāyu is worshipped as Indra, Rudra, Mātariśvan, etc., due to its various activities and appellations. Mitra, Varuṇa, Viṣṇu, Pūṣan, Āditya, Bhaga etc. are the appellations of the Sun-god. The different divinities in the Vedic pantheon represent different aspects of the three primary deities and manifest before the universe with individuality.

A large number of gods have been eulogized in the Vedas, ¹²⁵ and generally, the number of gods is enumerated as thirty-three; 126 of which, eleven are considered as terrestrial, eleven are as aerial or atmospheric and eleven are regarded as celestial. Sāyaṇācārya in his commentary on the relevant passage of the Rgvedasamhitā, clearly states that although the representative gods of the three worlds are three in number, but due to their greatness or varied manifestations they number as thirty three. 127 The thirty-three gods, frequently mentioned in the Vedas, become double in the Aitareyabrāhmana. There they are divided as Somapā and Asomapā deities. The Somapā deities are mentioned as thirty-three while the Asomapā are again mentioned as thirty three. The group of Somapā deities in the particular Brāhmaṇa are consisted of eight Vasus, eleven Rudras, twelve Ādityas, Prajāpati and Vaṣaṭkāra and Asomapā gods are eleven Prayājas, eleven Anuyājas and eleven Upayājas: tryastimsát vai devāh somapāstrayastrimsadasomapā/ astau vasava ekādaśa rudrā dvādaśādityāḥ prajāpatiśca vaṣaṭkāraśca ete devāḥ somapāḥ/ ekādaśa prayājā ekādaśānuyājyā

cf., bhiragne saratham yāhyarvān nānāratham vā vibhavo hyaśvāḥ/ patnīvatastrimśatam trīmśca devānanuṣvadhamā vaha mādayasva// RV. 3.6.9

trīṇi śatā trī sahasrāṇyagnim trimśacca devā nava cāsaparyan/ aukṣanghṛtairastṛṇanbarhirasmā ādidhotāram nyasādayanta// Ibid.3.9.9

viśvairdevaistribhirekādaśairihādbhirmarudbhirbhṛgubhiḥ sacābhuvā/ ajoṣasā uṣasā sūryeṇa ca somaṁ pibatamaśvinā// Ibid.8.35.3

¹²⁶ Ibid., 1.34.11; 1.45.2

¹²⁷ Ibid., 1.139.11

ekādaśopayājā ete'somapāḥ paśubhājanāḥ\(^{128}\) The thirty three number of Somapā gods mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad include Indra in the list instead of Vaṣaṭkāra.\(^{129}\) Again, in the Śatapathabrāhamaṇa, there is an addition and number of the Somapā deities is mentioned as thirty-four. The Somapā deities of the Śatapathabrāhamaṇa are eight Vasus, eleven Rudras, twelve Ādityas, Dyaus and Pṛthivi and Prajāpati.\(^{130}\) Here the place of Indra or Vaṣaṭkāra is replaced with the inclusion of two deities Dyaus and Pṛthivī. The same Brāhmaṇa contains another passage where the deities are enumerated as thirty-three and both the Indra and Prajāpati are substituted for Dyaus and Pṛthivī: te ekastrimśadindraścaiva prajāpatiśca tryastimśadi\(^{131}\)

Moreover, in the $Rgvedasamhit\bar{a}$, the number of the deities is mentioned as three thousand three hundred thirty-three in two contexts. Thus, different numbers of deities are mentioned in the text. The $Atharvavedasamhit\bar{a}$ admits the three-fold classification according to the abode of the deities and mentions six thousand three hundred thirty-three numbers of demi-gods, i.e. Gandharvas only which is sufficient to indicate a large number of divinities in the Vedic pantheon. 133

Besides these, another classification is found made by Mahīdhara on the $V\bar{a}jasaneyisamhit\bar{a}$ where he divides the deities on the basis of their works and birth,

¹²⁸ AB., 2.18

cf., tryastrimśattveva devā iti/ katame te trayastimśadityaṣṭau vasava ekādaśa rudrā dvādaśādityāsta ekatrmśadindraścaiva prajāpatiśca trayastrimśāviti/ Bṛ. U.,3.9.2

cf., aṣṭau vasavaḥ ekādaśa rudrāḥ dvādaśādityāḥ/ ime eva dyāvāpṛthivī tryastrimśyau/ tryastrimśadvai devāh/ prajāpatiścatustrimśah/ ŚB., 4.5.7.2

¹³¹ Ibid., 11.6.3.5

cf., trīṇi śatā trī sahasrāṇyagnim trimśacca devā nava cāsaparyan/ RV., 3.9.9

cf., brahmacāriṇam pitaro devajanāḥ pṛthag devā anusamyanti sarve/ gandharvā enamanvāyan trayastrimsat trisatāḥ ṣaṭsahasrāḥ sarvāntsa/ devāmstapasā piparti// AV.,11.5.2

i.e. karmadeva, 'work gods' and ājānadevāḥ, i.e. 'gods by birth.' Those deities are called karmadevas, who had attained the position of deities by their eminent works and ājānadevas were the deities produced at the beginning of the creation: agre prathamam martyasya manuṣyasya satastasya puruṣamedhayājinaḥ ājānadevatvam mukhyam devatvam sūryarūpeṇa/ dvividhā devāḥ karmadevā ājānadevāśca/ karmaṇotkṛṣṭena devatvam prāptāḥ karmadevāḥ/ sṛṣṭyādāvutpannā ājānadevāḥ//l³4 Yāskācārya also mentions about this classification of the Vedic deities in his Nirukta. 135

Besides these, some renowned Vedic scholars like Griswold and others have tried their best to classify the deities according to their greatness, gender, etc. In the Vedic texts, the Vedic gods are spoken of as great and small, young and old. But contradiction occurs among the deities as because two leading deities of two fields for which possess supreme powers above the other divinities of that field forwhy it becomes harder to classify the deities on the basis of their greatness. For example, Indra is mentioned as the mighty warrior or Śatakratu having unbounded force while Varuṇa is the supreme moral ruler. It becomes difficult here to find out who is greater one between the two. Both of them are the greatest among the others of their own communities. Such contradiction finds an end with the observation made in the passage, 'None of you is small or young; you are all great.' Furthermore, on the basis

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Mahīdhara on VS., 31.17

cf., ekasyātmano'nye devāḥ pratyaṅgāni bhavanti/ ...karmajanmāna/ ātmajanmānaḥ ātmaivaiṣāṁ ratho bhavatyātmāśva ātmāyudhamātmeṣava ātmā sarvaṁ devasya devasya...// Nir., 7.4

cf., namo mahadbhyo namo arbhakebhyo namo yuvabhyo nama āśinebhyaḥ/ RV., 1.27.13

cf., purām bhinduryuvā kaviramitaujā ajāyata/Indro viśvasya karmaņo dhartā vajrī puruṣṭutaḥ//
Ibid.,1.11.4

cf., kimāga āsa varuņa jyeṣṭhaṁ yatstotāraṁ jighāṁsasi sakhāyam/pra tanme voco dūḍabha svadhāvo'va tvānenā namasā tura iyām// Ibid., 7.86.4

cf., nahi vo astyarbhako devāso na kumārakah/ viśve satomahānta it// Ibid., 8.30.1

of the numerical figures or frequency of citation of the names of the deities, the deities can be arranged into five groups—

i. Indra, Agni, Soma; ii. Aśvins, Māruts, Varuṇa; iii. Uṣas, Savitṛ, Bṛhaspati, Sūrya, Pūṣan; iv.Vāyu, Dyāvāpṛthivī, Viṣṇu, Rudra and v.Yama, Parjanya. 140

The deities are again classified according to their gender, i.e. male divinities, called as the gods and the female deities called as the goddesses. Again, the goddesses can be classified as follows—the goddesses having a natural basis like Pṛthivī (earth), Uṣas(dawn), Vāc(speech), Rātri (night), Sarasvatī (the river) etc., Some goddesses are the personifications of some abstract ideas like ila (Nourishment), Dhiṣaṇā (Abundance), etc., and finally, those deities are also worshipped as goddesses in the Vedic pantheon, who are the wives of gods, i.e. Agnāyī (wife of Agni), Indrāṇī (wife of Indra), Varuṇānī (wife of Varuṇa), etc., and so on and so forth.

Besides these, there are some dual divinities in the Vedic pantheon. The dual divinities represent that class of deities where a pair of gods is worshipped conjugally and they look like a one single god. Indeed the dual divinities are the smallest group of gods. Dyāvāpṛthivī, Mitrāvaruṇau, Indrāgnī, Indrā-varuṇau, Indravāyū, Indrāviṣṇū, Naktosāṣā and Aśvinā are the dual deities. There are some group of gods like the Ādityas, Vasus, Rudras, Maruts, the semi divine Angirasas, the lower deities like Ŗbhus, Apsaras and Gandharvas and finally Viśvedevāḥ, i.e. the all gods. All the deities belonging to one single group possess almost same characteristic features but differ from only in some point of view. For example, all the Ādityas are the children of Aditi and they possess almost same characteristics, but vary only in case of their aspects. Besides these, there are special agricultural deities, such as Kṣetrapatih, lord of the

¹⁴⁰ Vide, Macdonell, A.A., Vedic Mythology, p. 20

field, Urvarā, the deity of the plough land etc. Again a classification can be made among the deities due to certain great functions they share in groups. Parjanya, Varuṇa, Indra, Dyaus, Rudras and the Maruts all participate in the work of rain giving and can be called the rain giving gods; Indra, Trita Aptya, Agni etc. can be called the lightning gods; Rudra and the Maruts, Varuṇa, Soma, the Aśvins, Vāta and the water, etc., are the physician gods.

In this way, in the Vedic pantheon, different classifications of the divinities are made. But of these, the triple classification, done by the ancient scholars on the basis of the regions of the deities is regarded as the most authentic one. From the philosophical point of view also, the matter is looked forth and observation is made that the three primary deities are also the three manifestations only of the one supreme godhead. One verse says *indram mitram varunamagnimāhuratho divyaḥ sa suparno garutmān/ ekaṁ sadviprā bahudhā vadantyagnim yamaṁ mātariśvānamāhuḥ//*¹⁴¹ In another hymn of the *Rgvedasaṁhitā*, the last pada of each verse goes *mahaddevānāmasuratvamekaṁ* 142 which is sufficient to prove the oneness of the divinities. All such implications direct plurality of the divinities behind a single life yielding power and that is none but the one Supreme Soul. 143 The single Supreme Soul manifests itself as various forms and these forms are regarded as the individual limbs of that single Soul: *ekasyātmano'nye devāḥ pratyaṅgāni bhavanti/*144

⁴¹ RV., 1.164.46

ekam santam bahudhā kalpayanti .../ Ibid.,10.114.5

¹⁴² Ibid., 3.55

cf., tasyātmā bahudhā hi saḥ/BD., 4.143
ekam vā idam hi babhūva sarvam/Ibid., 8.58.2
māhābhāgyāddevatāyā eka ātmā bahudhā stūyate/Nir., 7.4

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.

Characteristics of the Vedic Gods:

The divinities in the Vedic pantheon are the representative of different powerful phenomena of the nature. They are endowed with the divine qualities like brilliance, power, wisdom, beauty, righteousness, holiness, omniscience, omnipotence, mercy, etc. Although they commonly share such qualities; yet, all the qualities are not found in them in same measure. For example, Usas, the 'Lady Dawn' possess more beauty than that of the knowledge and strength; Varuna, the moral god has more morality, Indra, the warrior god has more strength than that of the others. Again, the deity, representative of a particular department endowed with the special knowledge and power adequate to the task. For example, the priestly god Agni is well-endowed with knowledge and the epithet jātavedas, i.e. knowing all generations is added to him.

An effort is made here to summarize some common characteristics of the Vedic deities—

i. Devas, the Shining Heavenly Beings:

Devas are the shining celestial clan. As they are mentioned as the heavenly being, their permanent abode is in the sky. It is clearly observed that the celestial gods such as Dyaus, Varuṇa, Mitra, Sūrya, Savitṛ, etc., and the atmospheric divinities like Indra, Mātariśvan, etc., take their abode in the heaven; but terrestrial divinities such as Agni, Soma, etc., are not seen taking their dwelling in the heaven. Indeed they are the deities of the terrestrial region, but having heavenly origin. They are descendent towards the earth.¹⁴⁵ The deified water and rivers are descend towards the earth in the

uccā te jātamandhaso divi ṣadbhūmyā dade/ ugram śarma mahi śravaḥ// Ibid., 9.61.10

34

cf., ānyam divo mātariśvā jabhārāmathnādanyam pari śyeno adreḥ/ agnīşomā brahmaṇā vāvṛdhānorum yajñāya cakrathuru lokam// RV., 1.93.6

form of rain. The deified river Sarasvatī has been described as flowing from the celestial ocean. 146

ii. Indefiniteness of Outline and Lack of Individuality:

The Vedic gods possess some common characteristics due to which it is difficult to identify a single deity with a single attribute. The deities of the same domain share almost the same characteristic features. For example, the deities Dawn, Sun, Fire, etc., possess the common features of being luminous, dispelling darkness, appearing in the morning, etc., Due to the absence of distinctiveness, it becomes harder to find out individuality in a single deity and it becomes too hard when several deities spring from different aspects of the one and the same phenomenon. Mitra, Pūsan, Visnu etc. all are the Sun-gods. But they are individual gods representing different aspects of the god Sūrya. The Sun-god, in his friendly aspect is called Mitra. ¹⁴⁷ Pūsan is the preserver of all beings: bhuvanasya gopā ityesa hi sarvesām bhūtānām gopāyitā/148 The Sun-god, representative of the sunbeam is called Visnu, the god of wide space. All these are the individual deities, but it is difficult to find out them as because they look like the same, they possess almost the same characteristics.

iii. Deities, the Entity with the Beginning:

The Vedic gods are mentioned as the personified and defied form of the phenomena of nature. Though the powerful natural phenomena are worshipped as deities in the Vedas, they are not manifested as beginningless entities. Commonly, all the Vedic deities are mentioned as the children of the father Dyaus and mother Pṛthivī.

cf., ā no divo bṛhataḥ parvatādā sarasvatī yajatā gantu yajñam/ havaṁ devī jujuṣāṇā ghṛtācī śagmāṁ no vācamuśatī śṛṇotu// Ibid., 5.43.11

cf., mitrasya priyatamasya nṛṇām/ Ibid.,7.62.4

cf., atha yad visito bhavati tad visnurbhavati/ Ibid., 12.18

Conjugally they are worshipped and the term *devaputre*, ¹⁵⁰ is used for Heaven and Earth. Sāyaṇācārya interprets the term as *devāḥ putrāḥ yayoste*, i.e., 'whose sons are gods.' ¹⁵¹ They are worshipped to come to the sacrifice along with their children who constitute the heavenly clan. ¹⁵²

Besides this, in the Vedic texts, several references are found where some other divinities are mentioned as the father or mother of the Vedic divinities. For example, Uṣas, the dawn is mentioned as the mother of the deities, ¹⁵³ Brahmaṇaspati is mentioned as the father. ¹⁵⁴ Again, the deity Soma is mentioned as the father and skillful generator of the gods. ¹⁵⁵ He is also called the generator of Heaven, Earth, Agni, Sūrya, Indra and Viṣṇu: *janitā divo janitā pṛthiyāḥ janitāgnerjanitā sūryasya janitendrasya janitota viṣṇoḥ*/¹⁵⁶ The deities are also said as the offspring of Aditi: *tāṁ devā anvajāyanta*/¹⁵⁷ In the *Atharvaveda*, they are mentioned as born from Ucchiṣṭa, the remnants of oblation. ¹⁵⁸ Again once, they are mentioned as born after the creation of universe ¹⁵⁹ and once from that of the ocean along with all the creatures. ¹⁶⁰

iv. Deities, the Immortal Being and Possessor of Cosmic Prāṇa:

The deities are the immortal being. The references are found in the Vedic texts of the birth of the Vedic deities; but no references are found of their death. They are

cf., pra pūrvaje pitarā nabyasībhirgīrbhiḥ kṛṇudhvaṁ sadane ṛtasya/ ā no dyāvāpṛthivī daivyena janena yātaṁ mahi vāṁ varūtham// RV., 7.53.2

cf., te ciddhi pūrve kavayo grnantah puro mahī dadhire devaputre/ RV., 7.53.1

¹⁵¹ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

¹⁵³ cf., mātā devāṇām/ Ibid., 1.113.19

cf., devānām yaḥ pitaram/ Ibid., 2.26.3

cf., pitā devānām janitā sudakso/ Ibid., 9.87.2

¹⁵⁶ Ibid., 9.96.5

¹⁵⁷ Ibid., 10.72.5

cf., ucchişţājjajñire sarve divi devā diviśritaḥ/ AV., 11.7.23

cf., avāgdevā asva visarjanenāthā ko vedavata ābabhūva/ RV., 10.129.6

cf., ayam vai samudro yo'yam pavate/ etasmād vai samudrāt sarve devāḥ sarvāni bhūtāni samuddravanti/ŚB., 14.2.2.2

said as amrta, ¹⁶¹ i.e. immortal and ajara, ¹⁶² i.e., unaging. Sāyaṇācārya interprets the two terms as amrtāh amaraṇadharmāṇah, ¹⁶³ and ajarah jarārahito'yam/, ¹⁶⁴ In the relevant context in the Vedic texts, Savitr is said as the bestower of immortality to the divinities. ¹⁶⁵ Savitr bestows immortality to the Rbhus also. ¹⁶⁶ Once, Agni is also mentioned to confer immortality to the gods: tvām višve amrta jāyamānam sišum na devāh abhi sam navante/ tava kratubhiramrtatvam ayana vaiśvanara yat pitrorādideh//

From the passages quoted above, it becomes clear that the Vedic gods are not primarily immortal, but they have attained immortality by means of some other ways, e.g. drinking soma etc. The Atharvaveda says gods have overcome death by continence and austere fervour: brahmacaryena tapasā devā mrtyumapāghnanta/168 The Śatapathabrāhmaṇa narrates the process of overcoming death by the gods: tadagnāvamṛtamadadhuḥ/ sarveṣāṁ haișa daivānāmātmā yadagnih/ taghadagnāvamṛtamadadhuḥ tadātmannamṛtamadadhata/ tato devāh amṛtā abhavan/169 Besides these, they are called as asura in general. 170 The term asu is used in the Vedas to denote $pr\bar{a}na$, i.e. the vital breath. The deities are called asura as because they are the possessor of the cosmic prāṇa which they bestow towards the earthly beings.

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cf., te'smabhyam śarma yamsannamṛtā martyebhyaḥ/bādhamānā apa dviṣaḥ/ Ibid., 1.90.3

cf., ā svamadma yuvamāno'jarastṛṣvaviṣyannataseṣu tiṣṭhat/ Ibid., 1.58.2

¹⁶³ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid., 1.90.3

Sāyanācārya, Ibid., 1.58.2

cf., devebhyo hi prathamam yajñiyebhyo'mṛtatvam suvasi bhāgamuttamam/ RV.,4.54.2 VS., 33.54

cf., tat savitā vo amrtatvamāsuvat/ RV., 1.110.3

¹⁶⁷ Ibid., 6.7.4

¹⁶⁸ AV.,11.5.19

¹⁶⁹ ŚB., 9.5.1.7

cf., mahaddevānāmasurattvamekam/ RV., 3.55.1-22

cf., prāṇo vā'suḥ/ ŚB., 6.6.2.6 tasyā etasyai vācah prānā evāsuh/ esu hīdam sarvamasūteti/ JU., 1.40.7

v. Generosity:

The Vedic deities are worshipped due to their benevolence in the Vedic pantheon. They are worshipped to bestow various kinds of wealth and offspring to the devotees. For example, in the *Rgvedasamhitā*, Agni is worshipped for bestowing prosperity and wealth: *agninā rayimaśnavatpoṣameva dive dive/ yaśasam vīravattamam/*¹⁷² Again, the divine doors, i.e. divyadvāras are worshipped as they are the possessor of virtuous progeny. The powerful deities with their power rescue their devotees from distress, protect from foes by slaying. All of them are the great giver. They give their devotees everything according to their wish.

vi. Deities and the Rta:

The Vedic deities are mentioned as the upholder of law or order called Rta. The term rta found in the Vedic religion covers three senses, viz. cosmic order, ritualistic order and moral law and order. All the Vedic deities are mentioned as born of Rta, i.e. $rtaj\bar{a}^{177}$ or protector of Rta, i.e. $rtap\bar{a}$ or rtasya $gop\bar{a}$, increaser of Rta, i.e.

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¹⁷² RV., 1.1.3

¹⁷³ cf., vi śrayantāmurviyā hūyamānā dvāro devīḥ suprāyaṇā namobhiḥ/ vyacasvatīrvi prathantāmajuryā varṇam punānā yaśasam suvīram// Ibid., 2.3.5

cf., triņi padā vicakrame viṣṇurgopā adābhyaḥ/ ato dharmāṇi dhārayan// Ibid., 1.22.18

cf., indra tubhyaminmaghavannabhūma vayam dātre harivo mā vi venaḥ/ nakirāpirdadṛśe martyatrā kimanga radhracodanam tvāhuḥ// Ibid., 6.44.10 sam trī pavitrā vitatānyeṣyanvekam dhāvasi pūyamānaḥ/ asi bhago asi dātrasya dātāsi maghavā maghavadbhya indro// Ibid., 9.97.55

Keith, A.B., Op cit, Part-I, p.83
Also vide, Griswold, H.D., Op cit, p. 24

¹⁷⁷ cf., agne trī te vājinā trī ṣadhasthā tistraste jihvā ṛtajāta pūrvīḥ/ tisra u te tanvo devavātāstābhirnaḥ pāhi giro aprayucchan// RV. 3.20.2

cf., sa pitryāṇyāyudhāni vidvānindreşita āptyo abhyayudhyatṛ/ triśīrṣāṇaṁ saptaraśmiṁ jaghanvāntvāṣṭrasya cinniḥ sasrje trito gāḥ// Ibid., 10.8.5

rtāvṛdha¹⁷⁹ and so on. Again, the term rta stands for the moral order which includes truthfulness, righteousness, ethical values etc. The Vedic gods are worshipped due to their truthfulness and morality. Righteousness and morality are characterized to them. All of them are true and not deceitful. Among all the Vedic gods, Varuṇa is mentioned as the supreme power of morality. He is mentioned as the chief upholder of moral law. He is worshipped to loose the sinner from sin: prcche tadeno varuṇa didṛkṣūpo cikituṣo vipṛccham/ samānaminme kavayaścidāhurayam ha tubhyam varuṇo hrnīte//181

vii. Hostility:

The character of hostility is very common among the Vedic gods. All the deities are mentioned as adapt in war-craft. They fight against their enemies prove their supremacy. Sometimes they prove their excellency killing their kith and kin also. For example, Indra is mentioned as the slayer of his progenitor: *kiyatsvidindro adhyeti mātuḥ kiyatpiturjanituryo jajāna/ yo asya śusmam muhukairiya vāto na jutaḥ stanayādbhirabhraiḥ*/¹⁸² He is hardly mentioned as the violator of the integrity of the heaven.

viii. Reciprocal nature:

The Vedic deities are reciprocal by nature. They maintain close relationship with each other. Some of the deities are mentioned as born from each other. Yāskācārya states in the *Nirukta* thus: *itaretarajanmāno bhavanti/ itaretaraprakṛtayaḥ*. ¹⁸³

¹⁸¹ RV., 7.86.2

39

cf., ṛtena mitrāvaruṇāvṛtāvṛdhāvṛtāspṛśā/kratuṁ bṛhantamāśāthe// Ibid., 1.2.8 rtena yāvṛtāvṛdhāvṛtasya jyotisaspatī/ tā mitrāvarunā huve// Ibid., 1.23.5

¹⁸⁰ BD., 3.199

¹⁸² Ibid., 4.17.12

¹⁸³ Nir., 7.4

Sometimes, they are, found to be prototypes of each other. The same is interpreted by Durgācārya with the instance of Sūrya and Agni, Aditi and Dakṣa. The deities Sūrya and Agni, Aditi and Dakṣa are often described as being born from each other: devānām "tvagneḥ sūryo'jāyata" "eṣa prātaḥ prasuvati" iti ha vijñāyate, tasmātsūryasyāgniḥ prakṛtiḥ sūryāccāgniḥ sāyam jāyate, tasmādagneḥ sūryaḥ prakṛtiḥ/ aditerdakṣo dakṣāccāditiriti/184

ix. The Vedic Gods are Identical with the Supreme Soul:

The Vedic deities are Ātmajanmānaḥ, ¹⁸⁵ i.e. produced from one supreme soul. Different elements, living or non-living are indeed belong to one supreme soul. Yāskācārya states in the *Nirukta* that all the living and non-living beings, e.g. the chariot, horse, weapon, arrow, etc., belonging to the gods are identical with the Supreme Soul, which is the all in all of all the gods. ¹⁸⁶ Again he has mentioned that so-called non-deities are deities, in reality, for being identical to the Soul. The Supreme godhead manifests himself in various elements of nature who occupy the form of gods. The same is viewed by Śaunaka also in his *Brhaddevatā*. ¹⁸⁷

x. Mutual Relationship and Interdependence:

The Vedic deities maintain close connection with each other. They are linked with each other due to their different activities and interdependence. For example, Indra

Durgācārya on Nir.

¹⁸⁵ Ibid

cf., ātmaivaiṣām ratho bhavati, ātmā aśvaḥ, ātmā"yudha ātmeṣava ātmā sarvam devasya devasya/ Nir., 7.5

cf., pṛthakpurastādye tūktā lokādipatayastrayaḥ/ teṣāmātmaiva tatsarvaṁ yadyaṁbhaktiḥ prakīrtyate//tejastvaevāyudhaṁ prādur vāhanaṁ caiva yasya yat/ imāmaindrīṁ ca divyāṁ ca vācamevaṁ pṛthak stutām// BD., 1.73,74

is mentioned as the drunker of Soma with the tongue of Agni¹⁸⁸ and he serves all the deities by slaying Vṛtra and giving freedom to them: *yudhendro mahnā varivaścakāra devebhyaḥ satpatiścarṣaṇiprāḥ/ vivasvtaḥ sadane asya tāni viprā ukthebhiḥ kavayo gṛṇanti/*¹⁸⁹ Agni serves all the deities standing as the messenger. ¹⁹⁰ Again, the Ŗbhus have fabricated the car of Indra, Tvaṣṭṛ has fashioned out the bolt. ¹⁹¹ Tvaṣṭṛ again is mentioned as being sharpening the metal axe of Bṛhaspati. ¹⁹² Thus, the Vedic deities are living together with harmony and mutual helpfulness. They are dependent to each other in their day to day activities.

References are found in the Vedic texts of mutual interchanges of services of the Vedic gods. Some attributes are commonly used by two or more deities. For example, the slaying of Vṛṭra which is generally ascribed to Indra is also found in case of Agni and the Aśvins.¹⁹³ The killing of Bala and releasing of cows are once credited to Indra.¹⁹⁴ once to the Aśvins.¹⁹⁵

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cf., yāñ ābhajo maruta indra some ye tvāmavardhannabhavangaṇaste/ tebhiretam sajoṣā vāvaśāno'gneḥ piba jihvayā somamindra// indra piba svadhayā citsutasyāgnervā pāhi jihvayā yajatra/ advaryorvā prayatam śakra hastāddhoturvā yajñam haviṣo juṣasva// RV., 3.35.9,10

¹⁸⁹ Ibid., 3.34.7

cf., iha tvam sūno sahaso no adya jāto jātāñ ubhayāñ antaragne/ dūta īyase yuyujāna rṣva rjumuṣkānvṛṣaṇaḥ śukrāmśca// Ibid., 4.2.2 veradhvarasya dūtyāni vidvānubhe antā rodasī sañcikitvān/ dūta īyase pradiva urāņo viduṣṭaro diva ārodhanāni// Ibid., 4.7.8

cf., anavaste rathamaśvāya takṣantvaṣṭā vajram puruhūta dyumantam/brahmāṇa indram mahayanto arkairavardhayannahaye hantavā u// Ibid., 5.31.4

cf., tvaṣṭā māyā vadapasāmapastamo bibhratpātrā devapānāni śantamā/ śiśīte nūnaṁ paraśuṁ svāyasaṁ yena vṛścādetaśo brahmaṇaspatiḥ// Ibid., 10.53.9

cf., tvamagne aditirdeva dāśuṣe tvam hotrā bhāratī vardhase girā/ tvamilā śatahimāsi dakṣase tvam vṛtrahā vasupate sarasvatī// Ibid., 2.1.11 uta bhrubanta jantava udagni vṛtrahā jani/ Ibid., 1.74.3

 $[\]bar{a}$ vām vipra ihāvase'hvatstomebhiraśvinā/ariprā vṛtrahantamā tā no bhūtam mayobhuvā// Ibid., 8.8.9

cf., avartayatsūryo na cakram bhinadvalamindro angirasvān// Ibid., 2.11.20 adhvaryavo yo dṛbhīkam jaghāna yo gā udājadapa hi valam vaḥ/ tasmā etamantarikṣe na vātamindram somairornuta jūrna vastraiḥ//Ibid., 2.14.3

cf., yābhirangiro manasā niranyatho'gram gacchatho vivare goarņasaḥ/ yābhirmanum śūramiṣā samāvatam tābhirū su ūtibhiraśvinā gatam// Ibid., 1.112.18

A specific deity is mentioned as presiding over a particular area of nature, but some functions of nature such as pouring rain, etc., are indeed the result of mutual help of each other. Sometimes, different deities are attributed for a single activity. Griswold remarks in this regard, every department of nature and of life is brought under the control of some deity. All the deities function as a unity. The unity of the divine activity is not the unity of an individual will as in monotheism, but the unity formed by the collective will of a clan, the clan of the devas. The multiplicity of the Vedic gods reflects the multitudinous aspects of nature and of life, and the unity of which, on the whole, pervades the diverse activities of the gods reflects, in like manner, the unity of nature, the fact that the universe is a cosmo, an ordered whole.

xi. Anthropomorphic and Non-Anthropomorphic Nature:

The natural phenomena were worshipped with the human forms and figures. Human organs like head, face, arms, hands, feet, shoulders, etc. are ascribed to them.¹⁹⁷ They are related to each other as mother, father, sister, friend etc. and human deeds like war, marriage and so on, are linked to them.¹⁹⁸ Some of them are mentioned as wearing garments, e.g. Uṣas. Again, the deities are described as moving in the luminous cars, drawn by different animals and birds like steeds, goats, deer etc.¹⁹⁹

The deities perform different human activities. For example, Agni is described as a priest. ²⁰⁰ The Aśvins are described as physicians of gods who ward off death from

cf., ṛṣvā ta indra sthavirasya bāhū/ ḤV.,6.47.8 yatsamgṛbhnā maghavanakāśirittai/ Ibid., 3.30.5

¹⁹⁶ Griswold, H.D., Op. cit, p. 107

cf., addhīndra piba ca prasthitasrya/ Ibid., 10.116.7 āśrutkarna śrudhi havam/ Ibid., 1.10.9

cf., uşo devamartyā vi bhāhi candrarathā sūnṛtā īrayantī/ Ibid., 3.61.2 dvābhyām haribhyāmindra yāhi/ Ibid., 2.18.4

²⁰⁰ Ibid., 1.1.1

worshippers.²⁰¹ The anthropomorphic as well as non-anthropomorphic characteristic of the Vedic deities are well observed by Yāskācārya in the Niukta: athākāracintanam devānām/ purusavidhā syurityekam/ cetanāvadbhih stutayo bhavanti/ tathābhidhānāni/ athāpi pauruṣavidhikairamgaiḥ samstūyante/ athāpi pauruşavidhikairdravyasamyogaih/ athāpi pauruşavidhikaih karmabhih/ apurusavidhāh syurityaparam/ yaddrśyate'purusavidham api yathāgnirvāyurādityah pṛthivī candramā iti/202 According to some, the deities are anthropomorphic for their panegyrics as well as their appellations are like those of sentient beings. Again, according to some others, the deities are not anthropomorphic as because whatever is seen of them is non anthropomorphic. The fire, the air, the sun, the earth, the moon etc. are worshipped as gods do not possess any human form. These gods are praised like sentient beings as having anthropomorphic limbs or as associated with anthropomorphic objects and action. But by this they cannot be proved with anthropomorphism. The insentient objects are also praised in the same way in the Vedic texts.

xii. Theriomorphic Character:

The Vedic deities are theriomorphic in nature. Sometimes they are designated as animals, sometimes as birds. Mostly in case of the Vedic deities, like, Agni, Parjanya, Indra and the Aśvins, the theriomorphic shape is imposed. Agni is often mentioned as bull or cow: agnirhanaḥ prathamajā ṛtasyapūrva āyuni vṛṣabhaśca dhenuḥ/²⁰³ Parjanya is also mentioned as the bull in the Vedic texts.²⁰⁴

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cf., svāhākṛtaḥ śucirdeveṣu yajño yo aśvinoścamaso devayānaḥ/ tamu viśve amṛtāso juṣāṇā gandharvasya pratyāsnā rihanti/ AV., 7.5.3

²⁰² Nir., 7.6,7

²⁰³ RV., 10.5.7

cf., accā vada tavasam gīrbhirābhih stuhi parjanyam namasā vivāsa/ kanikradadvṛṣabho jīradānū reto dadhātyosadhīsu garbham//Ibid., 5.83.1

Thus, in the Vedic religion numerous divinities are worshipped who are the possessors of aforementioned characteristics. Besides these, they possess some specific characteristics due to which they can be recognized as an individual deity having individual character and form. The religion of the Veda is ritualistic in nature. It finds expression with the mantras and the ritualistic performances offered by the Vedic people towards the deities are indeed the deified and personified form of phenomena of nature.

Review of Literature:

A review of the works, both ancient and modern, those have contributed a lot, towards the field of the study of the Purāṇic Sun-worship on the light of the Vedas, has been furnished below-

The Vedic texts occupy a specific place in the field of Indian religious history. They are considered as the best source of socio-cultural records of ancient India. The *Rgvedasamhitā* contains several data, relating to the Sun-worship in ancient Vedic period. Many scholars have prepared their commentaries on the *Rgvedasamhitā* and it has been published several times by different Editors. The *Mādhavīyavedārthaprakāśa* by Sāyaṇācārya is the best commentary written on the text. It is very helpful for the proper understanding of the content of the *Rgvedasamhitā*. Along with the interpretation of the Vedic terms, Sāyaṇācārya has added here the grammatical peculiarities, etymological derivations and so on. Among different editions of the *Rgvedasamhitā*, one is the *Rgvedasamhitā* with the commentary of Sāyaṇācārya, edited in five volumes, which is published by Vaidika Samśodhana Maṇḍala, in 1972. Besides this, the *Rgvedasamhitā*, along with the commentaries of Skandasvāmin, Udgītha, Veṅkaṭamādhava and Mudgala is edited by Visvabandhu Shastri and published by the

Vishveshvarananda Vedic Research Institute, Hoshiarpur, in seven volumes. ²⁰⁵ Again, the English translation of the Rgvedasamhitā, in two volumes, under the title Hymns of the Rigveda is prepared by R.T.H. Griffith, that is published in the year 1889-1890 from Benares: E.J. Lazarus and Company. Without the help of these works, the study relating to the worship of the Sun-god in the Vedic period cannot be completed. Again, the Atharvavedasamhitā, along with the commentary of Sāyaṇācārya is published in four volumes by the Krishnadas Academy, Varanasi, in the year 1989, which is edited by Shankar Pandurang Pandit. The *Taittirīyasamhitā*, along with the commentaries of Bhattabhāskara and Sāyaṇācārya is edited by T.N. Dharmadhikari, which is published in three volumes by Vaidika Samsodhana Mandala, in 1985. The great scholars Uvata and Mahīdhara have made their commentaries on the Vājasanevisamhitā. J.L. Shastri has edited the work and Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi, has published it in 1971. All these Samhitās contain references to the Sun-worship, in the Vedic period. The Aitareyabrāhmana, along with the commentary of Sāyanācārya is published in two volumes, by Tara Book Agency, Varanasi, in the year 1980-83. The work contains great discussion on the worship of the deity in different sacrificial works. Again, the Satapathabrāhmaņa is published by the Nag Publishers, Delhi, along with the commentaries of Sāyaṇācārya and Harisvāmin, in five volumes, which is edited by S. Sarma. The work remains as the abundant source of the Vedic Sun-worship, containing discussion on the salient traits of the Sun-god. Furthermore, there are several Brāhmanas, Āranyakas and Upanisads, those contain data relating to the Sun-worship during the Vedic period. The Principal Upanişads is the great Upanişadic text, which is edited with introduction, text, translation and notes by S. Radhakrishnan and published by Harper Collins Publishers, in the year 2011. In this work, the translations of eighteen

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²⁰⁵ Vide, Modak, B.R., Makers of Indian Literature: Sāyaṇa, p.33

principal Upanişads are found along with their origin texts in transliterated form. The Grhyasūtras contribute a lot towards the study of the Sun worship. They contain the references to the worship of the Sun-god, in different rites and rituals, in the Vedic period. Almost all the Grhya texts are published along with their commentaries, those have been prepared by the renowned scholars. The Apastambagrhyasūtra is published along with the commentary of Haradatta Miśra and Sudarśana, which is edited by U.C. Pandeya and published by Choukhamba Sanskrit Sansthan, Varanasi, in 2015. The Rgvedīya Grhyasūtra is another work that includes the two Rgvedic Grhyasūtras, viz. the Āśvalāyanagṛhyasūtra, the Śāṅkhyāyanagṛhyasūtra or the Kauṣītakigṛhyasūtra. The work is edited by Amarkumar Chattopadhyaya and published by Sanskrit Pustak Bhandar, Kolkata, in the year 2001. The *Pāraskaragṛhyasūtra* is another important Grhyasūtra, which is edited by Gopalshastri Nene, along with the commentaries of Harihara, Gadādhara and Jayarāma, and published by Chowkhamba Sanskrit Series office, Benaras, in the year 1925. The Grhyasūtras are translated into English by H. Oldenburg and this monumental work is edited by F. Max Müller in two volumes, under Sacred Books of the East Series, under the title *The Grhyasūtras*, and published by Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi.

The Purāṇas are regarded as next to the Vedas. They contain references, relating to the worship of the Sun. The Purāṇas are published several times by different scholars. The *Agnipurāṇa* is edited by Pancanana Tarkaratna and it is published by Nababharat Publishers, Calcutta, in the year 1389. Another edition of the work is published by Chowkhamba Sanskrit Pratisthan, Delhi, along with the Hindi commentary, made by Acarya Sivaprasad Dwibedi. The *Agnimahāpurāṇa* is again published by the Nag Publishers, Delhi in the year 1955. The *Bhāgavatapurāṇa*, along with the commentary Śrīmadbhāgavatabhāvārthadīpikā by Śrīdharasvāmin is edited by

J.L. Shastri, and is published by Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi in 1983. The Brahmapurāna is published by Nag Publisher in the year 2007. Again, the Brahmāndapurāna is edited by J.L. Shastri and published by Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi, in the year 1973. The *Matsyapurāṇa* is published in two volumes along with the English translation by H.H. Wilson. The introductory note of the work is precious one that deals with the Purānic literature as a whole. The work is published by Nag Publishers, Delhi, in 1983. The earliest edition of Mārkandeyapurāna is published by Nababharat Publishers, Calcutta, which is edited by Pancanana Tarkaratna, in the year 1390. The Nababharata Publishers, Calcutta also has published the *Padmapurāṇa* in all the khandas, which are edited by Pancanana Tarkaratna. The *Bhavisyamahāpurāna* and the Sāmbapurāṇa are the great works, dealing with the worship of the Sun-god. The Bhavişyapurānam is published in three parts by Nag Publishers, Delhi, which is edited by R.N. Sharma. The Sāmbapurāna is edited by V.C. Srivastava, along with the text and translation, and published by Parimal Publications, Delhi, in 2013. Almost all the Purāṇas are published and presently available, those help the reader in the study of the Sun-worship in the Purānic period.

Among the modern works, *Sun-Worship in Ancient India*, authored by Lalta Prasad Pandey is regarded as one of the valuable works. The work contains chapters on Sun-Worship in India, in Pre-Vedic age, Vedic age and the post-Vedic age. It contains discussion on the Sun-worship in Śunga period, Gupta period, etc. There is also found about the centeres of Sun-worship in India. The work is published by Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi, in the year 1968. Another work, under the same title *Sun-Worship in Ancient India*, authored by V.C. Srivastava is published by Indological Publications, Allahabad, in 1972. Among the works, relating to the Sun-worship, this work is regarded as important one. The work is written into seven chapters. *Sun Cult in*

Prācyadeśa, History, Religion & Iconography, written by Bijoy Kumar Sarkar is another work directly related to the Sun-cult, which is published by Pratibha Prakashan, Delhi, in the year 2010. This is a noted work written on the Sun-worship in India, especially in Bengal. The work contains six chapters. The Religion and Philosophy of the Veda and Upanishads, written by Arthur Berridale Keith, in two volumes, is regarded as one of the best works in the field of ancient Indian religious history, which is originally published in the year 1925, and again published by Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi, in the year 2007. The work specially deals with the religion and philosophy of the Vedic literature. The work contains discussion on different Vedic deities, including the solar gods. The Religion of the Veda by Hermann Oldenberg is a famous work, published by Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi, in the year 1988. The work contains discussion on Vedic religion and deities. Vedic Mythology, authored by A. A. Macdonell is one of the prominent works, dealing with the specific characters of the Vedic gods. The work is published in the year 1897. The work, in seven chapters, contains various data regarding the solar divinities. Treatment of Nature in the Rgveda, authored by Braj Bihari Chaubey is one of the famous works, dealing with the treatment of nature in the Rgvedic text. The work is published by Vaidik Sahitya Sadan, Hoshiarpur, in 1970. Studies in the Purāņic Records on Hindu Rites and Customs by R.C. Hazra, is the monumental work in the field of Purāṇic religion, which is published by the Unniversity of Dacca, in the year 1936. Studies in the Upapurāṇas is another famous work by R.C. Hazra which is published in two volumes by Sanskrit College, Calcutta. The first volume of it contains discussion on the Saura and Vaiṣṇava Upapurāṇas. This work stands as the best source of study for the topic Sun worship in Purānic period.

Methodology, Scope and Aim of the Study:

The Purāṇic Sun-worship is highly influenced by the Vedic Sun-worship which is dealt with exhaustively in this work. In the present study, the descriptive and analytical methods have been adopted. From the primary and secondary sources, the materials have been collected. After that, they are carefully and systematically analysed and constructively synthesised.

From a keen observation, it can be stated that the Purāṇic Sun-cult bears direct influence of the Vedic Sun-worship. Though the scholars have already contributed a lot on the various aspects of the Vedic and Purāṇic Sun-god, yet a comparative study on the Vedic and Purāṇic Sun-god is still lacking.

The main objective of the study is to find out the Vedic influence on the Sunworship in the Purāṇic sun cult. With this purpose, the Vedic hymns and passages and the Purāṇic verses, relating to the Sun-god have been studied in-depth. They are thoroughly studied out and after analysing all the data, the Vedic influence on the Sunworship on the Purāṇas is traced out. Besides this, the concept of religion in the Vedas and the characteristic features of the Purāṇic religion are also discussed here. The thesis has been concluded with a chapter, consisting of an overall observation on the findings of the chapters, along with a concluding remark.

CHAPTER-II

SALIENT TRAITS OF THE SOLAR DIVINITIES IN THE VEDA

Solar worship has been described as the real religion of India, which is observed by A.S. Geden and thus, nit becomes clear that from very early period, the worship of the Sun-god was prevalent in India. Due to the benevolent aspect of it, the Sun is worshipped as deity. The importance of this natural force is well noted by Kātyāyana in the Sarvānukramanī: ekaiva vā mahānātmā devatā tat sūrya ityācaksate/2 There is one great god and he is called as Sūrya. In the *Brhaddevatā*, Śaunaka directs the Sun as the very soul of all other gods.³ In the Rgvedic passage indram mitram varunamagnim..., it is clearly stated that Indra, Mitra, Varuna, Agni—all these are the names of one and the same divine being, the one Supreme Spirit under various manifestations. Sāyanācārya, while interpreting the relevant passage states that the respective Divine Being is the Āditya itself: amumevādityamekameva vastutah...medhāvino...bahudhā vadanti/⁵ In the Chāndogyopanisad, the Sun-god is worshipped as the symbol of Brahman.⁶

Sūrya is the direct personification of the atmospheric Sun.⁷ It is the most clearly conceived and defined form of the solar divinities. Saṅkarācārya says, tvamantarikṣe'jasraṁ carasi udayāstamayābhyām/⁸ With the rising and setting, the Sun

Geden, A.S., Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics (ed.), Vol. XII, p.83

² Sarvānukramanī, 2.14.20

³ BD., 1.61-65; 68-69

⁴ RV., 1.164.46

⁵ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

⁶ cf., ādityam brahmetyupāste/ Chā.U., 3.19.4

⁷ cf., tvamantarikse carasi sūrvah/Praśna U., 2.9

⁸ Śāṅkara, Ibid.

creates the day and night. Being the creator of the day and night, it provides heat and light towards the whole universe and gives food and vegetation to all the creatures. Different aspects and positions of the Sun have given rise to independent Sun-gods in the Vedic literature and thus a group of solar divinities is formed.

The rising, mounting and setting are the three important aspects of the Sun. In his stimulative aspect, Sūrya is worshipped under the name Savitṛ, cf. savitā sarvasya prasavitā. Varuṇa is the nocturnal Sun. Mitra is regarded as the Sun-god of the day. In his friendly aspect, he is called Mitra. Being Mitra, he preserves the whole universe from destruction. Again, Sūrya is Viṣṇu, the god of wide space, representing the sunbeam in the sky. Sūrya is called Pūṣan, nourishing the whole world with its abundance of rays. Again, besides these, Sūrya is invoked in the Vedic literature under the names Bhaga, Vivasvat, the Aśvins, Aryaman, Parjanya, etc. In this way, several names are found used for the Sun-god and a common group of Āditya is formed. Here follows a discussion on the salient traits of the prominent solar divinities in the Veda.

Sūrya:

The God of Atmosphere:

Sūrya is the most concrete of the solar deities that represents the simplest and most direct form. The bright orb of the Sun is praised highly in the *Rgvedasamhitā*. ¹⁶ In his luminous form, Sūrya is compared to the golden disc or ornament that shines in the

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⁹ Nir., 10.31

¹⁰ cf., astam gacchan sūrya eva varuņa ityācakṣate/ Sāyaṇācārya on RV., 7.87.1

¹¹ cf., aharabhimāninam devam mitram vā ahariti śruteh/ Sāyanācārya, Ibid.,1.89.3

¹² cf., mitrasya priyatamasya nṛṇām/ RV., 7.62.4

cf., mitraḥ pramīteḥ/ trāyate/ Nir., 10.21

¹⁴ cf., atha yad vişito bhavati tad vişnurbhavati/ Ibid., 12.18

cf., atha yad raśmiposam pusyati tat pūsā bhavati/ Ibid., 12.16

cf., udu tyaddarśatam vapurdiva eti pratihvare/ yadīmāśurvahati deva etaśo viśvasmai cakṣase aram// RV., 7.66.14

sky: *ṛtasya śuci darśatamanīkam rukmo na diva uditā vyadyaut*/¹⁷ Sāyaṇācārya interprets the passage thus: *uditā uditau sūryasyodaye sati uditam tattejaḥ divaḥ antarikṣasya rukmo na bhūṣaṇamiva vyadyaut vidyotate prakāśate*/¹⁸

The atmospheric aspect of Sūrya is well-delineated in the Vedas. Sūrya shines in the firmament and enlightens the whole universe. He is called śukra for his brightness. The rising, the mounting and the setting of Sūrya is frequently referred to in the Vedic literature. Sūrya is the god with scorching heat and light. The moon and all the planets of the sky borrow their light away from the Sun and shine in the sky. For such Sūrya is called jyotiṣkṛt. The moon is called Āditya for taking its light away from the Sun. It reflects the sunlight, falling on it and becomes visible to all: tasmādenayoḥ sadṛṣáyoḥ satornatarām candramā bhāti/ āttā hyasya bhāḥ/25 The Aitareyabrāhmaṇa also, points out that the moon is born of the Sun: ādityād vai candramā jāyate/26 Sāyaṇācārya gives the interpretation of the relevant passage thus: yā tithāvamāvāsyāmāditye praviṣṭaścandramāḥ śuklapakṣapratipadyādityājjāyate/27

¹⁷ Ibid., 6.51.1

¹⁸ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

cf., tanmitrasya varuņasyābhicakṣe sūryo rūpaṁ kṛṇute dyorupasthe/ RV., 1.115.5 utpurastātsūrya eti viśvadṛṣṭo adṛṣṭahā/ Ibid., 1.191.8 satyenottabhitā bhūmih sūryenottabhitā dyouh/ Ibid., 10.85.1

²⁰ cf., taccakşurdevahitam śukramuccarat/ Ibid., 7.66.16 śukro'si bhrājo'si svarasi jyotirasi/ AV., 2.11.5

cf., vaiśvānarasya sumatau syāma rājā hi kam bhuvanāmamiśrīh/ ito jāto viśvamidam vi caṣṭe vaiśvānaro yatate sūryeṇa// RV., 1.98.1

tatsūryasya devatvam tanmahitvam madhyā kartorvitatatam sam jabhāra/ yadedayukta haritaḥ sadhasthādādrātrī vāsastanute simasmai// Ibid., 1.115.4

Also vide. Ibid., 1.108.12; AV., 1.29.5; 7.13.1; KU., 2.7

²² cf., esa vai sūryo ya esa tapati/ ŚB., 2.6.3.8

²³ cf., taranirviśvadarśato jyotişkṛdasi sūrya/ RV., 1.50.4

²⁴ cf., ...tadyadādatta, tasmādityah/ ŚB., 11.8.3.11

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ AB., 45.5

²⁷ Sāyaṇācāry, Ibid.

Sūrya creates the days and nights with its rising and setting.²⁸ The Vedic seer observes that the Sun, as if, wears the dirty clothes at the night and in the morning he wears the clean clothes: dve dradhasī satatī vasta ekah keśī viśvā bhuvanāni vidvān/ tirodhāyaityasitam vasānah śukramā date anuhāya jāyai/²⁹ Sāyanācārya is more clear interpreting the passage who states, i.e. kīdrśa eka ādityah, vidvānsarvāllokānsvaraśmibhih keśasamānaraśmiyukto viśvā bhuvanāni prakāśayamānah/ uktayorvastrayormadhye rātrirūpam vastram malinamahorūpam tu śukram/ yadā rātrirūpamasitam vastram vasāno vartate tadā svātmarūpam tirodhāya gacchati/ atha jāryai jīrṇāyā raviḥ paścādanuhāya tadasitam vastram parityajya śuklamahorūpam śvetam vastramādatte/30 Here, the day and night are compared to the clothes with white and black colour, i.e. clean and dirty respectively. Sūrya wears both these types of clothes accordingly while actively participating in the process of the creation of the days and nights. In the Gopathabrāhmana, the course of the earth around the Sun is referred to as the cause of day and night, but not the rising and setting of the Sun. 31 He is extolled as the cause for the days and nights. 32 In the Aitareyabrāhmaṇa also, it is stated that the Sun never sets nor rises. He appears to have

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²⁸ cf., vi dyāmeşi rajaspṛthvahā mimāno aktubhih/ paśyanjanmāni sūrya// RV., 1.50.7

²⁹ TS., 3.2.2.2

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ cf., sa vā eşa na kadācanāstameti nodayati/ tad yadenam purastāt udayatīti manyate rātraiseva tadantam gatvā// GB., 2.4.10

³² cf., idam vapurnivacanam janāsaścaranti yannadyastasthurāpaḥ/ dve yadīm bibhṛto māturanye iheha jāte yamyā sabandhū// Ibid., 5.47.5

śukram te anyadyajatam te anyadvişurūpe ahanī dyaurivāsī/ viśvā hi māyā avasi svadhāvo bhadrā te pūşanniha rātirastu// Ibid., 6.58.1

^{...} he pūṣan tvadīyamanyadekam rūpam śukram nirmalam divasasyotpādaksm/ tvadīyamanyadekam rūpam yajatam kevalam yajanīyam na prakāśakam rātrerutpādakam/ ata eva viṣurūpe viṣamarūpe ahanī ahaśca rātriśca bhavataḥ/ ahorātrayornirmāṇe sūrya eva kartā.../ Sāyaṇācārya on AV., 11.6.21

set when night befalls. Again, in the morning, one regards the Sun to have risen, as if, he creates the day, and at that time the other part remains in darkness.³³

As soon as Sūrya rises, it illuminates the whole world with its light.³⁴ In the Vedic texts, Sūrya is worshipped as the highest light.³⁵ In the Upaniṣads, he is called as the lord of light.³⁶ Sūrya is worshipped as the light and the light is called as the Sun: $s\bar{u}ryo$ jyotirjyotiḥ $s\bar{u}ryaḥ$.³⁷ He is acclaimed as viśvajyoti.³⁸ In the Vājasaneyisamhitā also, Sūrya is eulogized to bestow the all-pervading light.³⁹ It is poetically conceived that all the constellations depart with the night like the thieves at the rising of the Sun.⁴⁰ Several times in the Vedas, the dark-dispelling traits of Sūrya is mentioned. The darkness is imagined as the skin over the firmament and Sūrya is invoked to throw it out over the water.⁴¹ The obscure sunlight during the eclipse of the Sun is mythically described in the Vedas. Svarbhānu, a demon is said to have eclipsed the Sun with

cf., sa vā eṣa na kadācānastameti nodeti iti/ taṁ yadastametīti manyante'hna eva tadantamitvā'thā"tmāṇaṁ viparyasyate rātrīmevāvastātkurute'haḥ parastāt iti... sa vā eṣa na kadācana nimrocati// AB., 14.6

cf., taraņirviśvadarśato jyotişkṛdasi sūrya/ viśvamā bhāsi rocanam// RV., 1.50.4 yena sūrya jyotiṣā bādhase tamo jagacca viśvamudiyarṣi bhānunā/... Ibid. 10.37.4 Also vide, Ibid., 1.62.5; 1.112.13; 1.115.4; 1.123.12; 1.124.8; 4.13.4; TS., 1.4.31,39

³⁵ cf., sūryamaganma jyotiruttamam/ Chā. U., 3.17.7 deveşu madhye sūryam devam sūryarūpeņa vartamānamagnisanbaddhamevottamam jyotiraganma prāptāsma/ TS., 4.1.7

^{36 ...}jyotisām patih/ Praśna U., 2.9

³⁷ VS., 6.9

³⁸ ŚB., 8.7.1.15,16,17,22

^{39 ...}viśvamjyotiryaccha/ VS., 15.58

cf., apa tye tyāyavo yathā nakṣatrā yantyaktubhih/ RV., 1.50.2

⁴¹ cf., vahisthebhirviharanyāsi tantumavavyayannasitam deva vasma/ davidhvato raśmayah sūryasya carmevāvādhustamo apsva'ntaḥ// Ibid., 4.13.4

darkness while Atri restores the light of the Sun. 42 Again, the defeat of Sūrya by Indra is also narrated as alluding to an eclipse in the Vedas. 43

In the *Bṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad*, Sūrya is invoked as that supreme power, which is capable of destroying the ignorance with his light. Sūrya is invoked to unveil the face of Satya Brahman by spreading his rays that is covered with the veil of ignorance.⁴⁴

In the Vedic literature, Sūrya is mentioned as moving on a car with one steed, i.e. etaśa, ⁴⁵ or seven mares called haritah, ⁴⁶ or seven horses, i.e. aśva, ⁴⁷ or with indefinite number of steeds. ⁴⁸ His horses are commonly called ketavah, ⁴⁹ i.e. the rays of the Sun. Sāyaṇācārya has clearly stated that saptaharitah are simply his rays: sapta saptasamkhyakāh haritah aśvāh rasaharaṇaśīlā raśmayo vā The living beings on the earth are completely dependent on these rays. Even after death also, as stated in the Rgvedasamhita, the sunrays lead man to Brahmaloka: abharata śikṣatam vajrabāhu asmā indrāgnī avatam śacībhih/ ime nu te raśmayah sūryasya yebhih sapitvam pitaro

cf., yattvā sūrya svarbhānustamasavidhyadāsuraḥ/akṣetravidyathā mugdho bhuvanānyadīdhayuḥ// svarbhānoradha yadindra māyā avo divo vartamānā avāhan/gūlham sūryam tamasāpavratena turīyeṇa brahmaṇāvindadatriḥ// Ibid., 5.40.5

cf., eva svena bhāgadheyenopadhāvatim sa evainam varuņapāśānmuñcati kṛṣṇa ekaśitipādbhavati vāruņo hyeṣa devatayā samṛdhyai suvarbhānurāsuraḥ sūryam tamasā'vidhyattasmai devāḥ prāyaścittimaicchantasyañ yatprathamam tamo'pāghnantsā kṛṣṇā'virabhavadyaddvitīyañ sā phalgunī yattṛtīyañ sā valakṣī yadadhyasthādapākṛntantsā'virvasā/ TS., 2.1.2.2 svarbhānurha vā'suraḥ/ sūryam tamasā vivyādha.../ ŚB., 5.3.2.2

⁴⁴ cf., hiranmayena pātrena satyasyāpihitam mukham/ tat tvam pūṣan apavṛnu satya-dharmāya dṛṣṭaye// Br. U., 5.15.1,2

⁴⁵ cf., etaśo vahati dhūrṣu yuktaḥ/ RV., 7.63.2

⁴⁶ cf., sapta svasārah suvitāya sūrya vahanti harito rathe/ Ibid., 7.66.15

⁴⁷ cf., sapta vuñiati rathamekacakro aśvo vahati saptanāmā/ Ibid., 1.164.2

cf., aham sūryasya pari yāmyāśubhih paitaśebhirvahamāna ojasā/ Ibid., 10.49.7

⁴⁹ cf., ketavah prajñāpakāh sūryāśvāh yadvā sūryaraśmayah/ Sāyanācārya, Ibid., 1.50.1

⁵⁰ Sāyanācārya, Ibid.

na āsan//⁵¹ Though Indrāgnī is the deity worshipped in the verse in point, yet Indra and Agni are none other than Sūrya. Sāyaṇācārya in his interpretation of the relevant passage states thus: sūryātmana indrasya yebhiḥ raśmibhiḥ yaiḥ arcibhiḥ asmākaṁ pitaraḥ pūrvapuruṣāḥ sapitvaṁ sahaprāptavyaṁ sthānaṁ brahmalokamagacchan/ arcirādimārgena hi brahmalokamupāsakā gacchanti... tasmāt sūryasya raśmīnāṁ stavanenendrāgnyorubhayārapi stutiḥ siddhā/⁵²

Sūrya, the Soul of Universe:

Sūrya is eulogized in the Vedas as the soul of the whole universe: $s\bar{u}rya\ \bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ $jagatastasthuṣaśca/^{53}$ Sāyaṇācārya interprets the passage: $sth\bar{a}varajaṅgam\bar{a}tmakasya$ $sarvasya\ prāṇijātasya\ jīvātmā/\ udite\ hi\ sūrye\ mṛtaprāyam\ sarvam\ jagat$ $punaścetanayuktam\ sadupalabhyate/\ tathā\ ca\ śrūyate-\ 'yo'sau\ tapannudeti\ sa\ sarveṣām\ bhūtānām\ prāṇādāyodeti'\ (TĀ. 1.14.1)/ He is the inner soul of all moveable and immoveable things. Rising in the sky, it stimulates the entire living beings. It is stated in the <math>Taittirīy\bar{a}ranyaka\ (1.14.1)$ that as soon as he rises he bestows life on each creature. For the life-giving power, he is called $prāṇa.^{54}$ Thus, the Sun stands as the stimulator of the world. The darkness of the earth is driven away with its light and the activities of every moving object are quickened by it. 55 As Sun covers the whole universe with his rays, he is rightly called as $lokamprn\bar{a}.^{56}$

⁵¹ RV.,1.109.7

⁵² Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

⁵³ RV., 1.115.1; TS., 2.4.13.1

⁵⁴ cf., udyannu khalu vā ādityaḥ sarvāṇi bhūtāni prāṇayati tasmādenam prāṇa ityācakṣate/ AB., 25.6

⁵⁵ cf., yena sūrya jyotiṣā bādhase tamo jagacca viśvamudiyarṣi bhānunā/ RV., 10.37.4

⁵⁶ ŚB., 8.7.2.1

Sūrya is the great preserver: *viśvasya sthāturjagataśca gopā*,⁵⁷ which is amplified by Sāyaṇācārya thus: *viśvasya sarvasya sthātuḥ sthāvarasya jagataḥ jaṁgamasya ca gopā gopāyitā*,⁵⁸ As Sūrya sustains the whole universe, he is rightly called Prajāpati.⁵⁹ In the *Śatapathabrāhmaṇa*, Sūrya is mentioned as both the sustainer and the protector of the world: *eṣa vai sūryo ya eṣa tapatyeṣa vā idaṁ sarvamabhigopāyati sādhunā tvadasādhunā tvadeṣa idaṁ sarvaṁ vidadhāti*,⁶⁰

Sūrya absorbs the water and releases it down towards the earth, ⁶¹ and the relevant passage is thoroughly explained by Sāyaṇācārya thus: ayamādityaḥ suyantubhiḥ sugamanaiḥ sarvaśāsaiḥ sarvasya śāsakaiḥ abhīśubhiḥ raśmibhiḥ krivikartā nāmāni nāmakānyudakāni pravaṇe nimne bhūpradeśe muṣāyati muṣṇāti ādatte/⁶² Waters from the earth are sucked up by the Sun. The water, sucked by the Sun, descends to the earth in the form of fertilizing rains mixing with the moisture in the heaven. ⁶³ From the rain, corns abundantly grow and creatures receive their food. He is called samudra as he moistens the whole earth with rain water. ⁶⁴ Thus, he discharges his duty as the sustainer of the whole universe.

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⁵⁷ RV., 7.60.2

⁵⁸ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

⁵⁹ cf., ...divo dharttā bhuvanasya prajāpati/ RV., 4.53.3

⁶⁰ ŚB., 2.6.3.8

⁶¹ cf., pra va ete suyujo yāmanniṣṭaye nīcīramuṣmai yamya ṛtāvṛdhaḥ/ suyantubhiḥ sarvaśāsairabhīśubhiḥ krivirnāmāni pravaņe muṣāyati// RV., 5.44.4

⁶² Sāyaṇācāya, Ibid.

⁶³ cf., kṛṣṇaṁ nibhānaṁ harayaḥ suparṇā apo vasānā divamutpatanti/ ta āvavrtrantsadanādrtasyādidghrtena prthivī vyudyate// RV., 1.164.47

⁶⁴ cf., ādityo vrstyā jagadādrī kurvan samudra ucyate/ Mahīdhara on VS., 15.6.3

Sūrya, the Time:

With its rising and setting, Sūrya creates the day and night and determines the time. 65 In the Vedas, Sūrya is compared to a horse that drives the year or samvatsara in the form of one-wheeled chariot: sapta yuñjati rathamekacakrameko aśvo vahati saptanāmā/ trinābhi cakramajaramanarvam yatremā viśvā bhuvanāni tasyuh 66 The one wheeled-chariot mentioned in the verse is samvatsara, i.e. the year; single horse is the Sun, seven are his rays. The three naves of the wheel are the three seasons: rainy, winter and summer. 67 Again, the one wheeled-chariot is mentioned with the twelve spokes, i.e. dvādaśāra. 68 By these twelve spokes, twelve months of the year are interpreted which form a complete year. 69 Again, the twelve-spoked wheel is mentioned as the generator of the seven hundred and twenty offspring. 70 These offspring are indeed the days and nights of the year, i.e. three hundred-sixty days and three hundred-sixty nights. 71 Sūrya is identified with samvatsara in the Brhadāranyakopaniṣad thus: eṣa ha vā aśvamedho ya eṣa tapati tasya samvatsara ātmā 72 i.e. the Sun that gives forth heat is the horse sacrifice, his body is the year. The samvatsara or the solar year is divided into two halves, i.e. uttarāyaṇa and the

⁶⁵ cf., kālādhīnatvāt sarvasya sthiteh/ Sāyaṇācārya on RV., 1.164.2

⁶⁶ RV., 1.164.2

⁶⁷ Vide, trinābhi cakram/ tisro nābhisthānīyāḥ sandhyāḥ sambaddhā vā traya ṛtavo yasya tattādṛśam/ ke te/ grīṣmavarṣāhemantākhyāh/ Sāyanācārya, Ibid.

⁶⁸ cf., dvādaśāram nahi tajjarāya varvarti cakram pari dyāmṛtasya/ ā putrā agne mithunāso atra sapta śatāni vimśatiśca tasthuḥ// RV., 1.164.11

Vide, dvādaśāraṁ dvādaśasaṁkhyākameṣādirāśyātmakaiḥ māsātmakairvā araiḥ rathāṅgāvayavairyuktam/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

⁷⁰ cf., pañcapādam pitaram dvādaśākṛtim diva āhuḥ pare ardhe purīṣiṇam/ atheme anya upare vicakṣaṇam saptacakre ṣadara āhurarpitam// RV.,1.164,12

cf., şaşţiśca ha vai trīṇi ca śatāni samvatsarasyāhāni/ ŚB., 9.1.1.43 sapta ca vai śatāni vimśatiśca samvatsarasyāhorātrāḥ sa eşo'haḥsammānaḥ/ AĀ., 3.2.1 samvatsarasyāpyahāni rātrayaśca militvā vīmśatyadhikasamkhyayā ganyante/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

⁷² Br. U., 1.2.7

dakṣiṇāyana. When the Sun turns north from the winter solstice that is called uttarāyaṇa and the opposite movement, i.e., the movement of the Sun from the summer solstice to south is called dakṣiṇāyana.⁷³ In yet another verse of the Rgvedasamhitā, Sūrya's wheel is described as constituting five spokes.⁷⁴ The five spokes of the wheel of the chariot of the Sun indicates the five seasons.⁷⁵

Sūrya, as the creator of seasons is mentioned several times in the Vedas.⁷⁶ The $V\bar{a}jasaneyisamhit\bar{a}$ gives the names of the six seasons, viz., spring, summer, rainy, autumn, early winter and winter.⁷⁷ The passage also indicates the respective characteristics of the seasons, such as heat, cold, dryness, etc. ⁷⁸ All these characteristics of the season are due to the special position of the earth in relation to the Sun during the earth's revolution.

Sūrya, the Healer:

In the *Rgvedasamhitā*, Sūrya is worshipped to remove sickness, diseases, etc., of the body with his rays. The life- yielding aspects of the sunrays are mentioned in the interpretation of Sāyaṇācārya thus: *kīdṛśo raśmiḥ/ gabhīravepāḥ gambhīrakampanaḥ/ raśme prakampanam calanam kenāpi draṣṭumaśakyamityarthaḥ/*

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⁷³ KB., 25.3.1-32

cf., pañcāre cakre parivartamāne tasminnā tasyurbhuvanāni viśvā/ RV., 1.164.13

⁷⁵ cf., pañcāre pañcarturūpaih arairyukte cakre samvatsarātmake/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

⁷⁶ cf., ādityastveva sarvaṛtavaḥ/ ŚB., 2.2.3.9;

Also vide, VS., 2.32

cf. namo vaḥ pitaro rasāya nemā vaḥ pitaraḥ śoṣāya namo vaḥ pitaro jīvāya namo vaḥ pitaraḥ svadhāyai namo vaḥ pitaro ghorāya namo vaḥ pitaro manyave/ namo vaḥ pitaraḥ pitaro namo vo grhānnaḥ pitaro datta sato vaḥ pitaro deṣmaitadvaḥ pitaro vāsa ādhatta// Ibid., 2.32

⁷⁸ cf., manyuḥ krodhaḥ/ krodha iva hi śiśira oṣadhīrdahati/ Uvaṭa, Ibid.

⁷⁹ cf., tenāsmadviśvāmanirāmanāhutimapāmīvāmapa duṣvapnyam suva/ RV., 10.37.4 apāmīvā bādhate veti sūryam/ Ibid., 1.35.9;

īvām rogādibādhām apa bādhate samyak nirākaroti/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

asuraḥ sarveṣām prāṇadaḥ/⁸⁰ In the *Taittirīyāraṇyaka* also, the life-giving power of the sunrays is fully observed,⁸¹ and the deity is worshipped. Sūrya is entreated to cure the heart diseases and jaundice.⁸² The yellowness of eyes, skin, teeth and nail, which are the symptoms of jaundice are taken away to the parrots and other yellow-coloured birds, or trees as soon as the Sun rises.⁸³

The rays of the Sun contain the power to fight with the worms, for which, in the *Atharvaveda*, he is worshipped to smite the worms.⁸⁴ Again, Sūrya is prayed for curing the sting or Yakṣman along with the headache, head ailment, earache, anaemia, limb-splitting, etc.,⁸⁵ cough,⁸⁶ skin-diseases, etc.⁸⁷ Sūrya is also worshipped to take away the venomous affect of the body caused by the snakebite.⁸⁸ He is mentioned as the destroyer of poison too: *sūrye viṣamā sajāmi dṛti surāvato gṛhe/ so cinnu no marāti no vayaṁ marāmāre asya yojanaṁ haristhā madhu tvā madhulā cakāra/*⁸⁹ Sūrya is

⁸⁰ Sāyaṇācārya on RV., 1.35.7

cf., sarveṣām bhūtānām prāṇānādāyodeti/ TA., 1.14.1

⁸² cf., udyannadya mitramaha ārohannuttarām divam/ hṛdrogam mama sūrya harimāṇam ca nāśaya// RV., 1.50.11

anu sūryamudayatām hṛdyoto harimā ca te/ go rohitasya varņena tena tv \bar{a} pari dadhmasi// AV., 1.22.1

⁸³ cf., śukeşu me harimāṇaṁ ropanākāsu dadhmasi/ atho hāridraveşu me harimāṇaṁ ni dadhmasi// RV., 1.50.12; AV., 1.22.4

⁸⁴ cf., udayannādityaḥ krimin hantu nimrocan hantu raśmibhiḥ/ AV., 2.32.1

⁸⁵ cf., tāsu tvāntarjarasyā dadhāmi pra yakṣma etu nirṛtiḥ parācaiḥ/ evāham tvām kṣetriyānnirṛtyā jāmiśamsād druho muñcāmi varuṇasya pāśāt/anāgasam brahmaṇā tvā kṛṇomi śive te dyāvāpṛthivī ubhe stām// Ibid., 2.10.5

Also vide, Ibid., 9.8

⁸⁶ cf., muñca śīrṣaktyā uta kāsa enam paruṣparurāviveśā yo asya/ yo abhṛjā vātajā yaśca śuṣmo vanaspatīntsacatām parvatānśca// Ibid., 1.12.3

⁸⁷ cf.,apacitaḥ pra patata suparṇo vasateriva/ sūryaḥ kṛṇotu bheṣajaṁ candramā vo'pocchatu//Ibid., 6.83.1

⁸⁸ cf., devā aduḥ sūryo adād dyauradāt pṛthivyadāt/ tisraḥ sarasvatīraduḥ sacittā viṣadūṣaṇam// Ibid., 6.100.1

⁸⁹ cf., sūrye viṣamā sajāmi dṛtim surāvato gṛhe/so cinnu na marāti no vayam marāmāre/asya yojanam hariṣṭhā madhu tvā madhulā cakāra// RV., 1.191.10

worshipped to convert viṣa, treated as the viṣavidyā, the science of poison, to antidotes with the help of sun-rays, which as a result becomes madhulā, i.e., madhuvidyā, accomplished by the science of ambrosia. ⁹⁰ In the Atharvaveda, Sūrya is invoked for longevity along with many other gods. ⁹¹

Sūrya is also worshipped for removing the evil dreams, 92 and evil-spirits. 93 Thus, he is depicted as the healer of mental diseases, who bestows peace and prosperity. 94

Sūrya, the Lord of Morality:

Sūrya is worshipped in the Vedas as the observer of all the divine and mortal beings. In the Vedas, Sūrya is often called the eye of the gods like Mitra, Varuṇa, Agni, etc. ⁹⁵ He is worshipped to guard his devotees against distress and blemishes: *adyā devā uditā sūryasya niramhasaḥ pipṛtā niravadyāt*. ⁹⁶ Sāyaṇācārya interprets the relevant passage thus: *yuyamasmān amhasaḥ pāpāt niṣpipṛta niṣkṛṣya palāyata*. ⁹⁷ In the *Taittirīyasamhitā* also, Sūrya is eulogized to protect his devotees from the evil. ⁹⁸ The

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⁹⁰ cf., he vişa tvām madhu amṛtam cakāra/ viṣasya viṣabhāvam dūre'panodya amṛtīcakāreti/ eṣaiva madhudātrī nirviṣīkartrī madhuvidyā/ yadetadādityasya viṣayojanam tena ca amṛtīkaraṇam yadasti eṣā madhuvidyā/ Sāyanācārya, Ibid.

⁹¹ cf., pārthivasya rathe devā bhagasya tanvo bale/ āyuṣyamasmā agni, sūryo varca ā dhād bṛhaspati// AV., 2.29.1

⁹² cf. ... tenāsmadviśvāmanirāmanāhutimapāmīvāmapa duşşvapnyam suva// RV., 10.37.4

⁹³ cf., ...adrstāntsarvāñjambhayattsarvāśca yātudhānya// Ibid., 1.191.8

⁹⁴ cf., viśāhā tvā sumanasaḥ sucakṣasaḥ prajāvanto anamīvā anāgasaḥ/udyantaṁ tvā mitramaho divedive jyogjīvāḥ prati paśyema sūrya// Ibid., 10.37.7

⁹⁵ cf., caksurmitrasya varunasyāgneh / Ibid., 1.115.1

⁹⁶ Ibid., 1.115.6

⁹⁷ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

⁹⁸ cf., ... sūryastvā purastvātpātu kasyāśridabhiśastyā vītihotram tvā kave dyumantam samidhīmahyagne bṛhantamadhvare viśo yantre stho vasunām rudrāṇāmādityānām sadasi sīda juhūrūpabhṛddhruvā'si.../ TS., 1.1.11

Upaniṣads and the Sūtras also enjoin the Sun-worship to release his worshippers from sin and distress. ⁹⁹ *Rtaja*, i.e. born of truth, an attributive to Sūrya also indicates Sūrya's command over the morality. ¹⁰⁰

Sūrya, the Supreme Reality:

In the Upaniṣads, Sūrya is identified with the Supreme Reality, i.e. the Brahman: $\bar{a}ditye$ brahmety $\bar{a}deśah$, $^{101}s\bar{u}rya$ brahmetyup $\bar{a}ste$. The worshippers are advised to worship the Brahman, meditating him on the Sun as the Sun is the symbol of Brahman. In the Maitryopaniṣad, Sūrya is identified with Aum, i.e. Praṇava and the relevant text enjoins that one should meditate on the Sun as aum and get united to it. 104

In the Upaniṣadic doctrine, the Brahman represents the formless part. He is described as the formless form of Brahman that is known as the *puruṣa*: etasya yataḥ etasya tasyaiṣa raso ya eṣa etasmin maṇḍale puruṣaḥ, tasya hyeṣa rasaḥ. ¹⁰⁵ This Brahman is the light and that light is called the Sun. ¹⁰⁶ Thus, due to the all-pervading power of Sūrya, he is identified with Brahman, the Supreme Reality.

 $^{^{99}}$ cf.,udayantam ādityam upatiṣṭhate yajñopavītam kṛtvodakam ānīya triḥ prasicyodapātram vargo'si pāpmānam me vṛndhīti.../ KU., 2.7

atha manthasya 'tatsaviturvṛṇīmahe, tatsavituvareṇyam' iti pūrve ca/ 'adabdhaṁ mana' iti ādhikārikāḥ śāntayastataḥ/ ityāhnikam/ athotthānakāle'pakṛṣya pāpam/ nityāṁ śāntiṁ kṛtvā/ 'uditaḥ śukriyaṁ dadha' iti ādityam īkṣante// Śāṅ. GS., 6.4.8-13

¹⁰⁰ cf., ...nṛṣadvarasadṛtasadvyomasadabjā gojā ṛtajā adrijā ṛtam// RV., 4.40.5

¹⁰¹ Chā. U., 3.19.1

¹⁰² Ibid., 3.19.4

¹⁰³ cf., sa ya etam evam vidvān ādityam brahmetyupāste'bhyāso ha yadenam sādhavo ghoṣā ā ca gaccheyurūpa ca nimrederannimrederan// Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ cf., evam hyādityād vā āditym aum ityevam dhyāyāt ātmānam yuñjīteti/ Maitrī U., 6.3

¹⁰⁵ cf., asau vā āditva esa purusah/ ŚB. 7.5.2.27

¹⁰⁶ cf., yad amūrtam tatsatyam tad brahma tajjyoti yajjyotih sa ādityah/Maitrī U., 6.3

Savitr

The God of Atmosphere:

The stimulative aspect of the Sun is represented by the form Savitṛ in the Vedic literature. Though there is contradiction among the scholars regarding the abstraction of the deity, yet Savitṛ cannot be a mere abstract deity as because anthropomorphism of his personality is well cited in the Vedas who is called *hiraṇyākṣaḥ*, ¹⁰⁷ i.e. golden-eyed, *hiraṇyapāṇi*, ¹⁰⁸ i.e. gold-handed, etc.

The golden deity Savitṛ is mentioned in the Vedas as the supporter of the sky, i.e. divo dhartā. 109 Sāyaṇācārya interprets the term divo dhartā in the relevant passages as divaḥ dyulokasya dhartā dhārakaḥ 110 or divaḥ dyulokasya dhartā dhārayitā avasthāpayitā vā/111 Savitṛ supports the sky with his stimulative rays. He is referred to in the Rgvedasamhitā as the supporter of the whole world: na pramiye saviturdaivyasya tadyathā viśvam bhuvanam dhārayiṣyati/112 Savitṛ diffuses his rays preceded by Uṣas, 113 impels Sūrya, 114 and impels the car of the Aśvins. 115 Sāyaṇācārya has interpreted the identification of the two divinities, Savitr and Sūrya by saving that

¹⁰⁷ RV., 1.35.8; VS., 34.24

¹⁰⁸ RV., 1.22.5; 35.9; AV.,3.21.8;7.15.2

¹⁰⁹ cf., divo dhartā bhuvanasya prajāpatiḥ piśangam drāpim prati muñcate kaviḥ/vicakṣaṇaḥ prathayannapṛṇannurvajījanatsavitā sumnamukthyam// RV., 4.53.2
gāyajya grāmam vūvudhiriyāśyānyāśreya vatsam sumanā duhānā/ patiriya iāyāmahhi no nyetu dhartā

gāvaiva grāmam yūyudhirivāśvānvāśreva vatsam sumanā duhānā/ patiriva jāyāmabhi no nyetu dhartā divaḥ savitā viśvavāraḥ//Ibid., 10.149.4

¹¹⁰ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid., 4.53.2

¹¹¹ Sāyaṇācāry, Ibid., 10.149.4

¹¹² RV., 4.54.4

cf., vyañjate divo anteşvaktūnviśo na yuktā uṣaso yatante/ saṁ te gāvastama ā vartayanti jyotiryacchati saviteva bāhū// Ibid., 7.79.2

cf., hiranyapānih savitā vicarşanirubhe dyāvāpṛthivī antarīyate/ apāmīvām bādhate veti sūryamabhi krsnena rajasā dyāmrnoti// Ibid., 1.35.9

¹¹⁵ cf., yuvorhi pūrvam savitosaso rathmrtāya citram dhṛtavantamisyati// Ibid., 1.34.10

though they are same as regards their divinity, but they are different in their forms and one may go to the other, cf., *yadyapisavitṛṣūryayorekadevatātvam tathāpi mūrttibhedena gantṛgantavyabhāvaḥ*. In the *Śatapathabrāhmaṇa*, they are said as identical, in the Upaniṣads by means of Savitṛ prayer, the worship of the Sun is ordained. Its

The atmospheric character of Savitṛ becomes clear with his portrayal in the Vedas as the illuminator of the three regions, viz. the air, heaven and earth. The brightness of the deity illumines the eight points of the earth, along with three desert regions and the seven rivers. Sāyaṇācārya in his commentary on the respective passage has pointed out the eight points of the earth and the three desert and seven rivers thus: pṛthivyāḥ sambandhinīḥ aṣṭau kakubhaḥ prācyādyāścatasro diśa āgneyyādyāścatasro vidiśa ityevamaṣṭau diśaḥ vyakhyat savitā prakāśitavān/ tathā yojanā prāṇinaḥ svasvabhogena yojayitṛn dhanva antarikṣopalakṣitān trī trisamkhyākān pṛthivyādilokān sapta sindhūn gaṅgādinadīḥ samudrānvā savitā vyakhyat/121 Besides this, Savitṛ conveys the departed spirit to the righteous.

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¹¹⁶ Sāyanācārya, Ibid.,1.35.9

¹¹⁷ cf., savitā vai devānām prasavitā prasavitā vai kṣattā tasmātsāvitrī bhavatyetadvā'asyaikāmratnam yatkṣattā tasma'etaitena sūyate tām svamanapakramiṇam kurute.../ ŚB., 5.3.1.7

¹¹⁸cf., tat savitur varenyam ityasau vā ādityah savitā sa vā evam pravaranīya ātmakāmenetyāhurbrahmavādino'tha bhargo devasya dhīmahīti, savitā vai devas tato yo'sya bhargākhyas tam cintayāmītyāhur brahmavādino'tha dhiyo yo nah pracodayāt iti.../ Maitrī. U. 6.7

¹¹⁹ cf., tisro dyāvaḥ saviturdvā upasthāñ ekā yamasya bhuvane virāṣāṭ /āṇim na rathyāmṛtādhi tasthuriha bravītu ya u tacciketat// RV., 1.35.6

¹²⁰ cf., aṣṭau vyakhyatkakubhaḥ pṛthivyāstrī dhanva yojanā sapta sindhūn/ Ibid., 1.35.8

¹²¹ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

¹²² cf., āyurviśvāyuḥ parim pāsati tvā pūṣā tvām pātu prapathe purastāt/ yatrāsate sukṛto yatra te yayūstatra tvā devaḥ savitā dadhātu// RV.,10.17.4

Savitṛ is mentioned as the rays of the Sun in the Vedas. ¹²³ He stretches out his light continually from the east, shining with the rays of the Sun, cf., sūryaraśmirharikeśaḥ purastātsavitā jyotirudyānajasram/ ¹²⁴ Thus, he gives light and disperses darkness from the world. ¹²⁵ He is mentioned in the Vedas as the highest light: idam śreṣṭham jyotiṣām jyotiḥ. ¹²⁶ He is worshipped to bring the light. ¹²⁷ His paths in the firmament are said as dustless and easy to traverse. ¹²⁸ By two radiant steeds or by two or more brown, white-footed horses, his car is drawn in the sky. ¹²⁹ Observing all the creatures, he moves on a downward and upward path and arouses the mortal and immortal. ¹³⁰

Savitr, the Stimulator:

Savitṛ removes the darkness and diffusing the light enlightens the whole world to indulge in their respective duties. In the Vedas, he is mentioned as the enlightener of men, i.e. *savitāram nṛcakṣam*.¹³¹ Sāyaṇācārya gives the interpretation of the term

¹²³ cf., āprā dyāvāpṛthivī antarikṣam vi sūryo raśmibhiścekitānaḥ// Ibid., 4.14.2 uta yāsi savitastrīṇi rocanota sūryasya raśmibhiḥ samucyasi/ Ibid., 5.81.4

¹²⁴ Ibid., 10.139.1

¹²⁵ cf., abhīvṛtaṁ kṛśanairviśvarūpaṁ hiraṇyaśamyaṁ yajato bṛhantam/ āsthādrathaṁ savitā citrabhānuḥ kṛṣṇā rajāṁsi taviṣīṁ dadhānaḥ// Ibid., 1.35.4

āprā rajāmsi divyāni pārthivā ślokam devaḥ kṛṇute svāya dharmaṇe/pra bāhū asrāksavitā savīmani niveśayanprasuvannaktubhirjagat// Ibid., 4.53.3

¹²⁶ Ibid., 1.113.1

¹²⁷ cf., urdhvā yasyāmatirbhā adidyutat savīmani/ hiraṇyapāṇiramimīta sukratuḥ kṛpāt svaḥ// AV., 7.14.2; ŚB., 3.3.2.12

¹²⁸ cf., ve te panthāḥ savitaḥ pūrvyāso'reṇavaḥ sukṛtā antarikṣe/ RV., 1.35.11

¹²⁹ cf., ā devo vātu savitā suratno'ntariksaprā vahamāno aśvaih/ Ibid., 7.45.1

cf., ā kṛṣṇena rajasā vartamāno niveśayannamṛtaṁ martyaṁ ca/hiraṇyayena savitā rathenā devo yāti bhuvanāni paśyan//yāti devaḥ pravatā yātyuvdatā yāti śubhrābhyāṁ yajato haribhyām/ā devo yāti savitā parāvato'pa viśvā duritā bādhamānah// Ibid., 1.35.2,3

¹³¹ Ibid., 1.22.7

nṛcakṣam thus: nṛcakṣam manuṣyāṇām prakāśakāriṇam/¹³² For the generation of the people, Savitṛ comes to the world along with the rays of the day. ¹³³ Savitṛ is mentioned in the Vedas as the stimulator: savitā prasavānām adhipatiḥ sa māvatu/¹³⁴ He is the lord of stimulation. The Aitareyabrāhmaṇa directs the same as savitā vai prasavānāmīśe. ¹³⁵ Again, the deity is worshipped as the stimulator of the human intellect. ¹³⁶ The worshippers meditate upon him with a view to achieving the highest light. ¹³⁷ As soon as he rises, he inspires and flourishes all acts. Savitṛ is mentioned as the progenitor of the gods, and that is why, all the desires produced by Savitṛ prosper in man: savitā vai devānām prasavitā, tathā hyāsā ete savitṛprasūtā eva sarve kāmaḥ samṛdhayante/¹³⁸

The term *savitṛ* is derived from root *su*, that indicates the nature of the deity as the generator or impellor in the Vedas. Each and everything is under the control of Savitṛ, who governs this universe with its light: *eṣa vai savitā—ya eṣa tapati/*¹³⁹ In the commentary of the relevant passage, Sāyaṇācārya interpretes *eṣa vai khalu savitā sa ca sūrya eti- prakarṣaprakāśādinā jagannirvāhaṁ kurvan sarvadā sañcarati/⁴⁴⁰*

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¹³² Sāyanācārya, Ibid.

¹³³ cf., udu şya devaḥ savitā savāya śaśvattamam tadapā vahnirasthāt/ nūnam devebhyo vi hi dhāti ratnamathābhajadvītihotram svastau// RV., 2.38.1; 7.4

¹³⁴ AV., 5.24.1

¹³⁵ AB., 1.16

¹³⁶ cf., tatsaviturvarenyam bhargo devasya dhīmahi/ dhiyo yo nah pracodayāt// RV., 3.62.10

¹³⁷ cf., ... tat tasya devasya savituḥ sarvāntaryāmitayā prerakasya jagatsraṣṭuḥ parameśvarasya varenyam sarvaiḥ upāsthatayā jñeyatayā ca sambhajanīyam bhargaḥ avidyātatkāryayorbharjanādbhagaḥ svayamiyotih parabrahmātmakam tejah dhīmahi vayam dhyāyāmah/ Sāyanācārya, Ibid.

¹³⁸ ŚB., 2.3.4.39

¹³⁹ Ibid., 5.3.1.7

¹⁴⁰ Sāyanācārya, Ibid.

Again, he is mentioned in the Vedas as the incentive force, so communicative to produce motion suddenly, i.e. impellor.¹⁴¹ Savitr motivates everyone including the gods.¹⁴² He has fastened the heaven and the earth; has fastened the illimitable space or hasten the cloud that moistens.¹⁴³

As Savitṛ is well connected with the sacrifice, he is invoked to vivify the worshipper. As Savitṛ is worshipper. Savitṛ is worshipped in the Śrauta sacrifices for instigation. Savita Savita has well-interpreted the instigative aspect of him thus: yo'yaṁ savitā devaḥ sa eva prasavānāṁ karmasvanujñānamīśe svāmī bhavati/ In the Śatapathabrāhmaṇa, Savitṛ is mentioned as the progenitor of the gods, and that is why, all the desires produced by Savitṛ, prosper in man: savitā vai devānāṁ prasavitā, tathā hyāsā ete savitṛprasūtā eva sarve kāmāḥ samṛdhyante/ 148

In this way, the stimulative aspect of Savitr is frequently delineated along with its power of generation, impulsion and instigation.

¹⁴¹ TS.,1.1.1; 1.1.4; 1.1.6; 1.2.6; 1.7.7; 4.1.1; 4.1.3

¹⁴² cf., yuktvāya manasā devān suvaryato dhiyā divam/ bṛhajjyotiḥ kariṣyatassavitā prasuvāti tān// Śvet. U. 2.3

¹⁴³ cf., Sarup, L.(ed.), The Nighantu and the Nirukta, Part-II, p.164

¹⁴⁴ cf., yadadya sūra udite'nagā mitro aryamā/ suvāti savitā bhagaḥ// RV., 7.66.4

¹⁴⁵ cf., savitā vai prasavānāmīśe savitr prasūtā evainam/ AB., 1.16

¹⁴⁶ cf., ...yatsāvitreņa japena prasauti savitā vai prasavitā karmaņa eva prasavāya/ KB., 1.4.14 ātithyena ha vāi devā dvipadaśca catuṣpadaśca paśūnāpnotyāsanne haviṣyātithye'gnim manthanti... abhi tvā devasavitariti sāvitrīm prathamāmanvāha savitr prasūtatāyai savitrprasūtasya ha vai na kācana ṛṣṭirbhavatyariṣṭyai ... sarvasyā"ptyai// Ibid., 1.8.1

Also vide, PB., 1.8.1;16.5,6; 24.15.2,3; ŚB., 3.5.3.10,12;3.5.4.4 and so on

¹⁴⁷ AB., 1.16

¹⁴⁸ ŚB., 2.3,4.39

Savity, the Preserver:

In the Vedic literature, Savitṛ is called as the preserver of the world: divo dhartā bhuvanasya prajāpatiḥ. 149 In the Brāhmaṇas, he is referred to as identical with Prajāpati. 150 It is stated that, Prajāpati being Savitṛ, created all the living beings. 151 He is invoked as the supreme god and creator of the world. Savitṛ regulates all the moveable and immoveable things. 152 He gives immortality to the deities and lengthens the life of men. 153 The Nirukta states him as the protector. 154 While interpreting a Rgvedic verse, devastvaṣṭa savitā, etc., Durgācārya has clarified the preservative aspects of Savitṛ by saying tvaṣṭā devo madhyamaḥ savitā sarvasya bhūtagrāmasya prasavitā utpādayitodakasampradānadvāreṇa/ kimutpādayitaiva/ netucyate/ pupoṣa prajāḥ puṣṇāti rasānutpādya/ na kevalaṁ puṣṇāti/ kiṁ tarhi/ purudhā jajāneti/ bahudhā cainā janayati vardhayati/ kena punarasau janayati puṣṇāti vardhayati ca/ yata āha/ imā ca viśvā bhuvanānyasya/ imāni viśvāni bhuvanāni udakāni asya yataḥ svatāyāṁ vartante tasmājjanayati puṣṇāti vardhayati ca/ hāsā

Again, Savitṛ is mentioned as the preserver of the rain water, i.e. $ap\bar{a}\dot{m}$ $nap\bar{a}t$ in the $Rgvedasa\dot{m}hit\bar{a}$. Sāyaṇācārya in his interpretation, gives the meaning of the term $ap\bar{a}\dot{m}$ $nap\bar{a}t$ as $ap\bar{a}\dot{m}$ $nap\bar{a}ta\dot{m}$ jalasya ca $p\bar{a}lakam/$ $sant\bar{a}pena$ śosakamitvarthah/ 157

¹⁴⁹ RV., 4.53.2; KB., 2.21.4

¹⁵⁰ ŚB., 12.3.5.1

¹⁵¹ cf., prajāpatih savitā bhūtvā prajā asrjat/ TB., 1.6.4.1

¹⁵² cf., bṛhatsumnaḥ prasavītā niveśano jagataḥ sthāturubhayasya yo vaśī/sa no devaḥ savitā śarma yacchatvasme kṣayāya trivarūthamamhasaḥ// RV., 4.53.6

cf., devebhyo hi prathamam yajñiyebhyo'mṛtatvam subasi bhāgamuttamam/ ādiddāmānam savitarvyūrṇuṣe'nūcīnā jīvitā mānuṣebhyaḥ// Ibid., 4.54.2

¹⁵⁴ cf. devastvastā savitā sarvarūpaḥ poṣati prajā rasānupradānena/ bahudhā cemā janayati/ imāni ca sarvāṇi bhūtānyudakānyasya/ Nir., 10.34

¹⁵⁵ Ibid.

¹⁵⁶ cf., apām napātamavase savitāramupa stuhi/ tasva vratānyaśmasi// RV., 1.22.6

¹⁵⁷ cf., apām napātam jalasya na pālakam/ santāpena śosakamityarthah/ Sāyanācārya on RV., 1.22.6

Because, Savitr, who belongs to the middle region causes the rain water to come down by evaporating the water body of the earth with its heat. The water and wind follow his order. He leads the water, and leads the other gods also. As soon as Savitr appears in the world, the offering of oblations, invocations, etc., towards the other divinities start.

Savitṛ is mentioned in the Vedas as the ruler, who rules over the wide world, i.e. dhrtavrata. He is called the $satyadharm\bar{a}$, i.e. observer of divine truth. 163

Savity, the Healer:

In the Vedas, Savitṛ is mentioned as the healer of mental and physical disorder. He removes the evil dreams. ¹⁶⁴ In his interpretation on the respective passage Sāyaṇācārya directs the meaning of the term *duṣvapnya* as *duḥṣvapnyaṁ duḥsvapnaṁ duḥsvapnawadduḥkhakaraṁ dāridryam*/¹⁶⁵ He drives away the evil spirits and sorcerers. ¹⁶⁶ Savitṛ stands as the remover of diseases. ¹⁶⁷ He is worshipped to make men sinless. ¹⁶⁸

¹⁵⁸ cf., āpaścidasya vrata ā nimṛgā ayam cidvāto ramate parijman// RV., 2.38.2

¹⁵⁹ cf., devo'nayatsavitā supānistasya vayam prasave yāma ūrvīh// Ibid., 3.33.6

¹⁶⁰ cf., yasya prayāṇamanvanya idyayurdevā devasya mahimānamojasā/Ibid., 5.81.3

cf., anya it devāḥ anye'pyagnyādayaḥ yasya devasya dyotamānasya savituḥ prayāṇamanu yayuḥ gacchanti prāpnuvanti/ kim/ mahimānam mahattvam/ saviturudayābhāve agnihotrādyaniṣpattesteṣām haviḥstutyādyabhāvāt/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

¹⁶² cf., adābhyo bhuvanāni pracākaśadvratāni devaḥ savitābhi rakṣate/ prāsrāgbāhū bhuvanasya prajābhyo dhṛtavrato maho ajmasya rājati// RV., 4.53.4

¹⁶³ cf., tripañcāśaḥ krīlati vrāta eṣāṁ devaiva savitā satyadharmā/ Ibid., 10.34.8 devaiva savitā satyadharmendro na tasthau samare dhanānām/ Ibid., 10.139.3

¹⁶⁴ cf., adyā no deva savitaḥ prajāvatsāvīḥ saubhagam/ parā duḥṣvapnyaṁ suva// Ibid., 5.82.4

¹⁶⁵ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

cf., hiraṇyahasto asuraḥ sunīthaḥ sumṛlīkaḥ svavāñ yātvarvāṅ/ apasedhatrakṣaso yātudhānānasthāddevaḥ pratidoṣaḥ gṛṇānaḥ// RV.,1.35.10

śam no bhavantu vājino haveşu devatātā mitadravaḥ svarkāḥ/ jambhayanto'him vṛkam rakṣāmsi sanemyasmadyuvavannamīvāh// Ibid., 7.38.7

¹⁶⁷ cf., hiranyapāṇiḥ savitā vicarṣaṇirubhe dyāvāpṛthivī antarīyate/ apāmīvām bādhate veti sūryamabhi kṛṣṇena rajasā dyāmṛṇoti// Ibid., 1.35.9

¹⁶⁸ cf., deveşu ca savitarmānuşeşu ca tvam no atra suvatādanāgasaḥ// Ibid., 4.54.3 Also vide, Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

Savitr, the Bestower of Wisdom and Intelligence

Savitṛ is praised in the *Gāyatrīmantra*. Not only in the Samhitās, but in the Brāhmaṇas, Āraṇyakas, Upaniṣads and Sūtras also, the application of *Gāyatrīmantra* is mentioned. In the *Rgvedasamhitā*, in a single verse only the invocation occurs. But, in the other Samhitās, the application of it occurs more than once, which signifies that more importance is attached to *Gāyatrīmantra* on later date. The *Gāyatrīmantra* contains the notion that solar light is the symbol of ultimate knowledge and reality. Savitṛ is worshipped along with the other gods in the Agnihotra sacrifice, and aṣṭakapāla offerings. He is the divine object of meditation. For wisdom and intelligence the deity is prayed in the Vedas.

Mitra:

Mitra, the Friend of the People:

The Sun-god, in his friendly aspect is called Mitra. As the deity is closely associated with Varuna, only a single hymn of the *Rgvedasamhitā* is devoted to the

¹⁷⁰ VS., 3.35; 22.9; TS., 1.5.6.4; 4.1.11.1; ŚB., 2.3.4.39; 13.6.2.9; GB.,1.1.34-36; TA., 1.11.2; Bṛ.U., 6.3.11; Śvet. U., 4.18; Āś.ŚS., 7.6.6; 8.1.18; Āp.GS., 4.10.9-12

¹⁶⁹ cf., RV., 3.62.10

cf., yaḥ savitā devaḥ naḥ asmākaṁ dhiyaḥ karmāṇi dharmādiviṣayā vā buddhīḥ pracodayāt prerayet tat tasya devasya savituḥ sarvāntaryāmitayā prerakasya jagatsraṣṭuḥ parameśvarasya vareṇyaṁ sarvaiḥ upāsyatayā jñepatayā ca saṁbhajanīyaṁ bhargaḥ avidyātatkāryayorbharjanādbhargaḥ svayaṁjyotiḥ parabrahmātmakaṁ tejaḥ dhīmahi vayaṁ dhyāyāmaḥ/ Sāyaṇācārya on RV., 3.62.10

¹⁷² VS., 3.35

¹⁷³ TS., 4.1.11.1

cf., bhagam dhiyam vājayantah puramdhim narāśamso grāspatirno avyāh/ āye vāmasya samgathe rayīnām priyā devasya savituh syāma// RV., 2.38.10

¹⁷⁵ cf., devam naraḥ savitāram viprā yajñaiḥ suvrktibhiḥ/ namasyanti dhiyeṣitāḥ// Ibid., 3.62.12 yuñjate mana uta yuñjate dhiyo viprā viprasya brhato vipaścitaḥ// vi hotrā dadhe vayunāvideka inmahī devasya savituḥ pariṣṭutiḥ/ Ibid., 5.81.1,2

deity.¹⁷⁶ Mitra is mentioned as the friend of the people in the Vedic mythology: mitrasya priyatamasya nrinām/¹⁷⁷ Sāyaṇācārya, in his commentary derives the term as mitram pramītestrāyakamaharabhimāninam devam/ maitram vā ahaḥ (TB., 1.7.10.1) iti śruteḥ/¹⁷⁸ Again, Yāskācārya interprets the term as mitraḥ pramīteḥ/ trāyate/ samminvāno dravatīti vā/ medayatervā/¹⁷⁹ Mitra is so called because he preserves the whole universe from destruction or because he runs measuring things together. He is worshipped in the Vedas to bring men together: janam ca mitro yatati bruvāṇaḥ/¹⁸⁰ In his commentary on the respective passage, Sāyaṇācārya states thus: bruvāṇaḥ asmābhiḥ stūyamānaḥ mitraḥ ca janam sarvam prāṇijātam yatati yātayati pravartayati/ tathā ca śrūyate-mitro janānyātayati bruvāṇaḥ (RV., 3.59.1)/¹⁸¹ He is regarded as the great supporter of the race of the man.¹⁸² Mitra sustains the beings with his rain-giving aspects and thus, he stands as the friend of the people.¹⁸³ He gives food, wealth and happiness to his devotees and protects them being a friend.¹⁸⁴ Besides this, he makes his worshippers free from the sin, distress and diseases.¹⁸⁵ He is invoked as

¹⁷⁶ Ibid., 3.59

¹⁷⁷ Ibid., 7.62.4

¹⁷⁸ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid., 1.89.3

¹⁷⁹ Nir., 10.21

¹⁸⁰ RV., 7.36.2; Also vide, Ibid., 3.59.5

¹⁸¹ Sāyanācārya, Ibid., 7.36.2

¹⁸² cf., mitrasya carsanīdhrto'vo devasya sānasi/ dyumnam citraśravastamam// RV., 3.59.6

¹⁸³ cf., bruvāņaḥ stūyamānaḥ śabdaṁ kurvāṇo vā mitraḥ/ prakarṣeṇa sarvaimīyate jñāyate tathā sarvān vṛṣṭipradānena trāyata iti vā mitraḥ sūryaḥ/ janān karṣakādijanān yātayati/ kṛṣyādikarmasu prayatnaṁ kārayati/ Sāyanācārya, Ibid., 3.59.1

¹⁸⁴ cf., pra sa mitra marto astu prayasvānyasta āditya śikṣati vratena/ na hanyate na jīyate tvoto nainamanho aśnotyantito na dūrāt// RV., 3.59.2

mitrasya carşanīdhrto'vo devasya mānasi/ dyumnan citraśravastamam// Ibid.,3.59.6

¹⁸⁵ cf., anamīvāsa idyāa madanto mitrajñavo varimannā pṛthivyāh/ ādityasya vratamupakṣiyanto vayam mitrasya sumatau syāma// Ibid., 3.59.3

ugrāniṣṭanivāraṇe'tyantaṁ tīkṣṇau tā tau yuvāṁ no'smānāgasaḥ pāpānmuñcataṁ muktaṁ kurutam// Śāyaṇācārya on ŚB., 4.7.15.3

manve vāṁ mitrāvarunāvṛtāvṛdhau sacetasau druhvaṇo yau nudethe/ pra satyāvānamavatho bhareṣu tau no muñcatamaṁhasaḥ// AV., 4.29.1

the creator as well as the sustainer. As the deity lightens the entire world with his light, he is well delineated as the king: mitraḥ sūryaḥ namasyaḥ sarvairnamaskaraṇīyaḥ suśevaḥ śobhanasukhaḥ/ sukhena sevya ityarthaḥ/ rājā sarvasya jagataḥ prakāśapradānena svāmī sukṣatraḥ/ kṣatraśabdena balamucyate śobhanabalopetaḥ vedhāḥ sarvasya jagato vidhātā/187 Again, in the Taittirīyasamhitā, he is mentioned as the god of concord and agreement: samayakāmo mitram/188

Mitra, the Sun-god of the Day:

Mitra is the supporter of the heaven and earth in the Vedas. ¹⁸⁹ He is worshipped in the Vedas as the Sun-god of the day. ¹⁹⁰ Sāyaṇācārya states in his interpretation of a Rgvedic passage: *aharabhimāninaṁ devaṁ mitraṁ vā ahariti śruteḥ*/ ¹⁹¹ Mitra is regarded as the presiding deity of the day. He uncovers the objects in the morning that is covered by Varuṇa in the night. ¹⁹²

Mitrāvarunau, Presiding Deity of the Day and Night:

Mitra and Varuṇa are worshipped jointly in the Vedas. In the *Taittirīyasamhitā*, Mitra and Varuṇa are invoked as the presiding deity of the day and night: *ahorātre vai mitrāvaruṇo*. Again in another context, *mitraḥ aharabhimānī devatā varuṇaḥ rātryābhimānī/ maitraṁ vā ahaḥ vāruṇī rātriḥ/194* The close association of Mitra and Varuṇa as the deity of the day and night are prominently expressed in the Vedic texts.

¹⁸⁸ TS., 2.1.8.4

¹⁸⁶ cf., ayam mitro namasthah suśevo rājā suksatro ajanista vedhāh/ Ibid., 3.59.4

¹⁸⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸⁹ cf., mitro dādhāra pṛthivīmuta dyām/ RV., 3.59.1 abhi yo mahinā divam mitro babhūva saprathāh/ abhi śravobhih pṛthivīm/ Ibid., 3.59.7

¹⁹⁰ cf., maitram vā ahar/ TS., 2.1.7.4; TB., 2.1.10.1

¹⁹¹ Sāyanācārya on RV., 1.89.3

¹⁹² cf., iţasya te vi crtāmyapinaddhamaporņuvan/ varuņena samubjitām mitrh prātarvyubjatu//AV., 9.3.18

¹⁹³ TS., 2.4.10.1

¹⁹⁴ TB., 1.7.10.1

But it is observed, in a Rgvedic verse both the deities are invoked and invited after the rising of the Sun. ¹⁹⁵ They are worshipped jointly as the leader of the water. ¹⁹⁶ They protect the rain water and shower it towards the earth for the welfare of his devotees. ¹⁹⁷ They are jointly invoked as the lord of the sea, i.e. *sindhupati*. ¹⁹⁸

Pūşan:

Pūṣan, the Lord of Entire World:

Puṣan, in his luminous form is well mentioned in the Vedic mythology. ¹⁹⁹ His solar character becomes very clear with the use of the epithet, $\bar{a}ghrini$, ²⁰⁰ i.e. glowing. Pūṣan is mentioned in the Vedas as the lord of prosperity. In the *Nirukta*, it is cited: atha yadraśmipoṣam puṣyati tatpūṣā bhavati/²⁰¹ Yāskācārya clearly states that Pūṣan is the preserver of all beings. ²⁰² He looks upon all the creatures and protects them. ²⁰³ Pūṣan is mentioned in the Vedic texts as the dweller of the heaven. ²⁰⁴ He is mentioned as the messenger of the Sun in the aerial ocean and the best charioteer that drives downwards the golden rays (wheels) of the Sun. ²⁰⁵ By his rays, Pūṣan indeed preserves

¹⁹⁵ cf., prati vām sūra udite mitram gṛṇṣe varuṇam/ aryamaṇam riśādasam// RV., 7.66.7

¹⁹⁶ cf., varunomitro aryamā yūyamṛtasya rathyāh/ Ibid., 7.66.12

¹⁹⁷ cf., rtasya gopāvadhi tiṣṭhatho rathaṁ satyadharmāṇā parame vyomani/ yamatra mitrāvaruṇāvatho yuvaṁ tasmai vṛṣṭirmadhumatpinvate divaḥ// Ibid., 5.63.1

¹⁹⁸ Ibid., 7.64.2

¹⁹⁹ cf., śukram te anyadyajatam te anyadvişurūpe ahanī dyaurivāsi/ viśvā hi māyā/ Ibid., 6.58.1

cf., ā pūṣañcitrabarhiṣamāghṛṇe dharuṇaṁ divaḥ/ Ibid., 1.23.13
na hi tvā pūṣannatimanya āghṛṇe na te sakhyamapahnuve/ Ibid.,1.138.4
Also vide, Ibid., 6.48.16; 6.53.3,8,9; 6.55.1,3

²⁰¹ Nir., 12.16

²⁰² cf., bhuvanasya gopā ityesa hi sarvesām bhūtānām gopāyitā ādityah/ Ibid.,7.9

²⁰³ cf., yo viśvābhi vipaśyati bhuvanā sam ca paśyati/ sa naḥ pūṣāvitā bhuvat// RV., 3.62.9

²⁰⁴ cf., divyanyah sadanam cakra uccā prthivyāmanyo adhyantarikse/ Ibid., 2.40.4

²⁰⁵ cf., utādah paruse gavi sūraścakram hiranyayam/ nyairayadrathītamah// Ibid., 6.56.3

all. He manifests the entire world with his light.²⁰⁶ He is mentioned as the producer and the protector of the cattle.²⁰⁷ Again, six seasons are stated to be created by him.²⁰⁸ Sāyaṇācārya states thus: *uto api ca saḥ pūṣā mahyaṁ yajamānāya indubhiḥ yāgahetubhiḥ somaiḥ yuktān ṣaṭ vasantādīn ṛtūn anuseṣidhat anukrameṇa punaḥ punarnayan vartate iti śeṣaḥ/²⁰⁹ He bestows the wealth.²¹⁰ By such deeds, he stands as the lord not only of the entire firmament and also of the whole world.*

Pūṣan, the Pastoral Deity:

Pūṣan is the deity related to the cattle.²¹¹ He is called *paśupā*, the protector of the cattle in the Veda.²¹² He is mentioned as the son of the cloud,²¹³ and the brother of rain, i.e. Indra.²¹⁴ He is mentioned as the associate of Soma, i.e. Somāpūṣaṇā,²¹⁵ Bhaga,²¹⁶ and Viṣṇu.²¹⁷ He is worshipped in the Vedas for bestowing the rain²¹⁸ as well as to move the solar chariot.²¹⁹ The solar rays and the rain are the essential part of the

²⁰⁶ cf., śukram te anyadyajatam te anyadvişurūpe ahani dyaurivāsi/ viśvā hi māyā asi svadhāvo bhadrā te pūşanniha rātirastu// Ibid., 6.58.1

²⁰⁷ cf., pūṣā gā anvetu naḥ pūṣā rakṣatvarvataḥ/ Ibid., 6.54.5 pūṣannanu pra gā ihi yajamānasya sunvataḥ/ Ibid., 6.54.6 Also vide, Ibid., 6.54.10; 56.5; 58.2; TB., 1.7.2.4

²⁰⁸ cf., uto sa mahyamindubhih sadyuktāñ anusesidhat/ gobhiryavam na carkṛṣat// RV.,1.23.15

²⁰⁹ Sāyanācārya, Ibid.

²¹⁰ cf., viśvā hi māyā avasi svadhāvo bhadrā te pūşanniha rātirastu/ RV., 6.58.1

²¹¹ Ibid., 6.54.5,6,10; 58.2; TB., 1.7.2.4

²¹² RV., 6.58.2

²¹³ cf., sam pūsannadhvanastira vyamho vimuco napāt/ saksvā deva pra naspurah// Ibid., 1.42.1

²¹⁴ cf., māturdidhisumabravam svasurjārah śrnotu nah/ bhrātendrasya sakhā mama// Ibid., 6.55.5

²¹⁵ Ibid., 2.40

²¹⁶ cf., pūṣā bhago vandyāsaḥ/ Ibid., 1.90.4

²¹⁷ cf., pra pūṣaṇam viṣṇumagnim purandhim savitāramoṣadhīḥ parvatāśca/ Ibid., 6.21.9 indram viṣṇum pūṣaṇam brahmaṇaspatimādityāndyāvāpṛthivī apaḥ svaḥ/ Ibid., 7.44.1

cf., sa veda sustutīnāmindurna pūṣā vṛṣā/ abhi spurah pruṣāyati vṛajam na ā pruṣāyati// Ibid., 10.26.4

²¹⁹ cf., utādah paruse gavi sūraścakram hiranyayam/ nyairadrathītamah//Ibid., 6.56.3

agronomy. The car of Pūṣan is mentioned as drawn by goat, i.e. ajāśva, instead of Sāyanācārya interpretes the term ajāśva thus: ajāśchāgā evāśvā horse.²²⁰ aśvakāryāpannā yasya tādṛśa pūṣan/²²¹ All the above symbolizes the pastoral character of the deity. Again, the deity takes gruel as his food and so he is called karambhin or *karambhāt* in the Vedas.²²²

Pūṣan, the Deity of the Marriage Ceremonial:

Pūṣan is the deity related to the marriage ceremonial. He is mentioned as the husband of Sūryā in the marriage hymn of the Rgveda.²²³ He is besought to take the bride's hand and lead her away and to bless her in her conjugal relation.²²⁴ He is worshipped for giving the share of maidens to his devotees.²²⁵ He is worshipped in the Vedas as the wooer of his mother, i.e. the Rātrī, māturdidhisum²²⁶ and the lover of his sister, i.e. Usas, svasūryo jāra/²²⁷

Pūṣan, the Knower of the Paths:

Pūṣan is regarded as the knower of the path in the Vedas, and so he is invoked to manifest the hidden goods.²²⁸ It is believed that the lost and hidden king Soma has

²²¹ Sāyanācārya on RV., 6.55.3

²²⁷ Ibid., 6.55.4

²²⁰ cf., rāyo dhārāsyāghrņe vaso rāśirajāśva/ Ibid., 6,55,3

²²² cf., ya enamādideśati karambhāditi pūsanam/ RV., 6.56.1 karambhāt karambhāṇām ghrtamiśrāṇām yavasaktūnām attā/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

²²³ cf., yadaśvinā prechamānāvayātam tricakreņa vahatum sūryāyāḥ/ viśve devā anu tadvāmajānan putraḥ pitarāvavrnīta pūṣā// RV., 10.85.14

²²⁴ cf., pūsā tveto nayatu hastagrhyāśvinā tā pra vhatām rathena/ grhān gaccha grhapatnī yathāso vaśinī tvam vidathamā vadāsi// Ibid., 10.85.26

²²⁵ cf., avitā no ajāśvah pūsā vāmanivāmani/ ā bhaksatkanyāsu nah// Ibid., 9.67.10

²²⁶ Ibid., 6.55.5

²²⁸ cf., tyesam śargho na mārutam tuvisvanyanaryānam pūsanam sam yathā śatā/ sam sahasrā kārisaccarsanibhya āñ āvirgūlhā vasū karatsurvedā no vasū karat//Ibid., 6.48.15

been found by the grace of Pūṣan. ²²⁹ In the Vedic texts, it is stated that the deity is offered oblation whenever something gets lost: sampūṣanviduṣā iti naṣṭamadhijigamiṣan mūlho $v\bar{a}/^{230}$ Besides this, the verses for Pūṣan are recited when cows are driven to pasture. ²³¹

Pūṣan is regarded as the protector or guardian of the paths in the Vedas. He is called *pāthaspatha* in the Vedic mythology.²³² He is invoked to protect from harm on his path: *pūṣantava vrate vayam na riṣyema kadā cana/ stotārasta iha smasi/*²³³ He is begged to grant an auspicious path, i.e. *dadātu punaḥ pūṣā pathyām yā svasti,*²³⁴ and worshipped to remove dangers, the wolf and the way-layers from the paths.²³⁵ With the view to protect, Pūṣan follows the cattle.²³⁶ He saves them from injury, brings them home unhurt and drives back the lost to their destinations.²³⁷ He is begged to disperse foes and make the path good enough to lead to good pasture.²³⁸

²²⁹ cf., pūṣā rājānamāghṛṇirapagūlhaṁ guhā hitam/ avindaccitrabarhiṣam// Ibid., 1.23.14

^{. ...} somasya drapsamavṛṇīta pūṣā/ TS., 3.3.9.1

²³⁰ Āś. GS., 3.7.9

 $^{^{231}}$ cf., ...pūṣā gā anvetu na iti gāḥ pratiṣṭhamānā anumantrayet.../ Śāṅ. GS., 3.9.1

²³² RV., 6.49.8

²³³ Ibid., 6.54.9

²³⁴ Ibid.,10.59.7

²³⁵ cf., sam pūṣannadhvanastira vyamho vimuco napāt/ Ibid., 1.42.1 apa tyam paripanthinam muṣīvāṇam huraścitam/ dūramadhi sruteraja// Ibid., 1.42.3

²³⁶ cf., Ibid., 6.54.5,6.10; 58.2

²³⁷ cf., mākirņeśanmākīm riṣanmākīm sam śāri kevaţe/ athāriṣṭābhirā gahi// Ibid., 6.54.7

cf. ati naḥ saścato naya sugā naḥ supathā kṛṇu/pūṣanniha kratum vidaḥ// abhi sūyavasam naya na navajvāro addhvane/ pūṣanniha kratum vidaḥ// Ibid., 1.42.7,8

Vișņu

Viṣṇu, the Deity with Three Strides:

Viṣṇu is regarded as the solar deity. The Sun-god, representative of the sunbeam is called Viṣṇu in the Vedas. Viṣṇu is the god of wide space. The *Nirukta* states, *atha* yad viṣito bhavati tad viṣṇurbhavati/ viṣṇurviśatervā/ vyaśnotervā, i.e. that, which is set free becomes Viṣṇu. The term viṣṇu is derived from the root viś to pervade or from vy-aś to interpenetrate.

Several times in the Vedas, he is mentioned with his three strides. ²⁴¹ The strides of Viṣṇu are nothing but the elemental rays, which are also mentioned in connection to Sūrya also. ²⁴² These rays give heat and rain and crops, by means of what the whole world sustains. Viṣṇu is described as traversing the earth or terrestrial spaces with his three steps. ²⁴³ His two steps are visible to men, but the third or the highest step is mentioned as beyond the flight of birds or mortal ken: *dve idasya kramaṇesvardṛśo'bhikhyāya marto bhūraṇyati/ tṛtīyamasya nakirā dadharṣati vayaścana patayantaḥ patatriṇaḥ//*²⁴⁴ With the first two strides, Viṣṇu traverses the earth and the firmament. But with the third, he has attained the utmost limit of

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cf. dve indrasya kramaņe svardṛśo'bhikhyāya martyo bhuraṇyati/ tṛtīyamasya nakirā dadharṣati vayaścana patayantaḥ patatriṇaḥ// Ibid., 1.155.5

viṣṇuṁ stomāsaḥ purudasmamarkā bhagasyeva kāriṇo yāmani gman/ urukramaḥ kakuho yasya pūrvīrna madhanti yuvatayo janitrīḥ// Ibid., 3.54.14

²⁴⁰ Nir., 12.18

²⁴¹ cf., yasya tripūrņā madhunā padānyakṣīramānā svadhayā madanti/ ya u tridhātu pṛthivīmuta dyāmeko dyādhāra bhūvanāni viśvā// RV., 1.154.4

cf., catvāra in bibhrati kṣemayanto daśa garbham carase dhāpayante/ tridhātavaḥ paramā asya gāvo diraścaranti pari sadyo antān// Ibid., 5.47.4

²⁴³ cf., yah pārthivāni tribhiridvigāmabhiruru kramistorugāyāya jīvase/ Ibid., 1.155.4

²⁴⁴ Ibid., 1,155.5

magnitude and upheld the vast and beautiful heaven. ²⁴⁵ The highest step of Viṣṇu is regarded as his ultimate abode. He is called *giriṣṭhā*, *girikṣit*, etc., which mean dwelling in the highest position. ²⁴⁶ Sāyaṇācārya, in his commentary on the respective passages interprete the two terms thus: *giriṣṭhā giristhāyī giriḥ parvataḥ samudgīrṇo bhavati parvavān parvataḥ parva punaḥ pṛṇāteḥ pṛṇātervā iti*, and *girikṣite vāci girivadunnatapradeśe vā tiṣṭhate/* Viṣṇu, in his heavenly form is conceived as an eye fixed on the heaven. ²⁴⁷

According to some scholars, these three steps of Visnu are nothing but the three positions of the Sun in the i.e. the Sun in his rising, in his culminating and in his setting.²⁴⁸ But according to some others like Śākapūṇi, etc., the three steps represent the course of the solar deity through the three divisions of universe.²⁴⁹ The Brāhmanas also mention Visnu with his three strides, i.e. one in earth, one in air and the other in the heaven that is recognized as the Sun, the goal, and the safe refuge of the refugee. ²⁵⁰ The myth of Visnu as a dwarf that recovered the earth for the gods from Asuras by three strides is familiar in the Vedic literature.²⁵¹

²⁴⁵ cf., paro mātrayā tanvā vṛdhāna na te mahitvamanvaśnuvanti/ubhe te vidma rajasī pṛthivyā viṣṇo deva tvam paramasya vitse//na te viṣṇo jāyamāno na jāto deva mahimnaḥ paramantamāpa/ udastabhnā nākamṛṣvam bṛhantam dādhartha prācīm kakubham pṛthivyāḥ// Ibid., 7.99.1,2

²⁴⁶ cf., pra tadvişņuḥ stavate vīryeṇa mṛgo na bhīmaḥ kucaro giriṣṭhāḥ/ Ibid., 1.154.2 pra viṣṇave śūṣametu manma girikṣita urugāyāya vṛṣṇe/ Ibid., 1.154.3

²⁴⁷ cf., tadvişnoh paramam padam sadā paśyanti sūrayaḥ/ divīva cakṣurātatam// Ibid., 1.22.20

cf., idam vişnurvi cakrame tredhā ni dadhe padam/ samūlhamasva pāñsure// yadidam kim ca tadvikramate viṣnuḥ/ tridhā nidhatte padam/ pṛthivyāmantarikṣe divīti śākapuṇiḥ/ samārohaṇe viṣnupade gayaśirasītṣaurṇavābhaḥ/... Nir., 12.19

²⁴⁹ Ibid.

²⁵⁰ ŚB., 1.9.3.9-15; TB., 3.1.2.7

²⁵¹ TS., 2.1.3.1; TB., 1.6.1.5; ŚB., 1.2.5.5

Visnu, the Deity of the Motion:

Besides the three strides, Visnu is mentioned as the deity of motion in the Vedas. The epithets urugāva, wide-going, 252 urukrama, wide-striding, 253 etc., and the forms like vikramane, 254 vicakrame, 255 etc., are used for the deity in the Vedas. Viṣṇu is referred to as the variegated stone found in the midst of the heaven that takes strides.²⁵⁶ With light he has fastened the world.²⁵⁷ Setting in motion like a circular wheel, Visnu causes ninety and four periodical revolutions: caturbhih sākam navatim ca nāmabhiścakram vyatīravīvipat/ *bṛhaccharīro* vimimāna na vṛttaṁ rkvabhiryuvākumāraḥ pratyetāhavam/258 Here Viṣṇu is defined as identical with the time comprising ninety-four periods including the year, two solstices, five seasons, twelve months, twenty-four half months, thirty days, eight watches, and twelve zodiacal signs. Indeed, Viṣṇu regulates the time with his motion.

Visnu as the Creator:

Viṣṇu is mentioned as the generative force in the Vedas. He is regarded as the protector of the embryos²⁵⁹ and jointly invoked with other deities to promote conception.²⁶⁰ In the Khilasūktas, once he is worshipped for the placement of a male child in the mother's womb and in another, it is prayed for a male child with Viṣṇu's

²⁵² cf., yo askabhāyaduttaram sadhastham vicakramāṇastredhorugāyaḥ/ RV., 1.154.1 yah pārthivāni tribhiridvigāmabhiruru kramistorugāyāya jīvase/ Ibid., 1.155.4

²⁵³ cf., urukramasya sa hi bandhurithā visnoh pade parame maddhva utsah/ Ibid., 1.154.5

 $^{^{254}}$ cf., yasyoruşu trişu vikrama
ņeşvadhikşiyanti bhuvanāni viśvā// Ibid., 1.154.2

²⁵⁵ cf., madhye divo nihitaḥ pṛśniraśmā vi vakrame rajasaspātyantau// Ibid., 5.47.3

²⁵⁶ Ibid.

²⁵⁷ cf., vyastabhnā rodasī viṣṇavete dādhartha pṛthivīrmābhato mayūkhaiḥ// Ibid., 7.99.3

²⁵⁸ Ibid., 1.155.6

²⁵⁹ cf., ... etvacchā viṣṇum nisiktapāmavobhih/ Ibid., 7.36.9

²⁶⁰ cf., viṣṇuryoniṁ kalpayatu tvaṣṭā rūpāṇi piṁśatu/ā siñcatu prajāpatirdhātā garbhaṁ dadhātu te// Ibid., 10.184.1

most beautiful form. He is cited as the producer of Sūrya, Uṣas and Agni in the $Rgvedasamhit\bar{a}$.

Viṣṇu is connected with the cosmogonic boar in the Veads. The Śatapathabrāhmaṇa mentions the boar having the name Emūṣa, who raised up the earth from the water. The Taittirīyasamhitā and the Taittirīyabrāhmaṇa hold that the boar is prajāpati here. The Taittirīyasamhitā and the Taittirīyabrāhmaṇa hold that the

Vișnu and the Sacrifice:

Viṣṇu is identified with the sacrifice in the Vedas.²⁶⁵ He is mentioned as the germ of the sacrifice: tamu stotāraḥ pūrvyaṁ yathā vida rtasya garbhaṁ januṣā pipartana.²⁶⁶ In his interpretation on the respective passage Sāyaṇācārya states thus: he stotāraḥ tamu tameva viṣṇuṁ pūrvyaṁ pūrvyārham anādisaṁsiddham rtasya garbha yajñasya garbhabhūtaṁ yajñātmanotpannamityarthaḥ/²⁶⁷ He is worshipped to come to the institutor of the rite and assist the celebration of the sacrifice.²⁶⁸ In the

²⁶¹ Vide, Macdonell, A.A., Vedic Mythology, p. 40

cf., āpo vā idamagre salilamāsīttasminprajāpatirvāyurbhūtvā'caratsa imāmapaśyattām varāho bhūtvā'harattām viśvakarmā bhūtvā... iti so'bravīt/ TS., 7.1.5.1

²⁶² cf., urum yajñāya cakrathuru lokam janayantā sūryamuṣāsamagnim/ dāsasya cidvṛṣaśiprasya māyā jaghnathrnarā pṛtanājyeṣu// RV., 7.99.4

²⁶³ ŚB., 14.1.2.11

^{...} yasminnidamadhitiṣṭhatīti/ sa varāho rūpaṁ kṛtvopa nyamajjat/ TB., 1.1.3.6

²⁶⁵ cf., yajño devebhyo nilāyata viṣṇu rūpam kṛtvā sa pṛthivīm prāviśat.../ TS., 6.2.4.2 vāmano ha viṣṇurāpta/ taddevā na jihīḍire mahadvai no'hurye no yajñasammitamahuriti/ ŚB., 1.2.5.5

²⁶⁶ RV., 1.156.3

²⁶⁷ Ibid.

²⁶⁸ cf., ā yo vivāya sacathāya daivya indrāya viṣṇuḥ sukṛte sukṛttaraḥ/ vedhā ajinvattṛṣadhastha āryamṛtasya bhāge yajamānamābhajat// Ibid., 1.156.5

Śatapathabrāhmaṇa, both Viṣṇu and sacrifice are mentioned as identical. 269 Lord Viṣṇu had obtained the three regions with his three strides. With the first step, he gained the earth, with the second, the aerial expanse, and with the last step, he gained the sky.²⁷⁰ The sacrifice also possesses the same parvading power, and thus, both of they stand as identical. Again, Visnu is worshipped to bestow heat on the sacrifice.²⁷¹

Vivasvat:

Vivasvat, the Rising Sun:

The term vivasvat, derived from vi+vas, etymologically gives the meaning shining forth. The shining aspect of the Sun-god is called Vivasvat indeed. Vivasvat is the rising Sun. In the Vedic texts, in connection with Agni and Uşas, the term vivasvat is used, 272 which is found in the sense of brilliant. In the Śatapathabrāhmaṇa, it is clearly stated that Vivasvat is Āditya and it illumines the day and night.²⁷³

Vivasvat, A Form of the Sun-god:

Vivasvat is mentioned as the ancestor of the human race as well as the deities. In the Vedic texts, the deities are spoken of as the offspring of Vivasvat: parāvato ye didhisanta āpyam manuprītāso janimā vivasvatah/²⁷⁴ Particularly, the Aśvins, Yama,

²⁶⁹ cf., yajño vai viṣṇuḥ/ ŚB., 1.1.2.13

²⁷¹ cf., viṣṇuryunaktu bahudhā tapāmsyasmin yajñe suyujaḥ svāhā// AV., 5.26.7

²⁷² cf., vivasvatā caksasā dyāmapaśca devā agnim dhārayandraviņodām/ RV., 1.96.2 amūrah kaviraditirvivasvāntsusamsanmitro atithih śivo nah/ citrabhānurusasām bhātyagre'pām garbhaḥ prasva ā viveśa// Ibid., 7.9.3

²⁷³ cf., asau vā ādityo vivasvān esa hyahorātre vivaste// ŚB., 10.5.2.4

²⁷⁴ RV., 10.63.1

etc., are clearly stated to be born of Vivasvat in the Vedas.²⁷⁵ Again, Agni is said to be produced from his parents, i.e. the fire-sticks and the Vivasvat.²⁷⁶ In the Vedic texts, men are directly stated to be the progeny of Vivasvat Āditya.²⁷⁷

The Ādityas:

Sūrya is called as Āditya in the Vedic texts.²⁷⁸ In the *Nirukta*, Yāskācārya etymologizes the term alternatively as *aditeḥ putram*,²⁷⁹ i.e. the son of Aditi. The Ādityas are the sons of Aditi. ²⁸⁰ They are worshipped in a group in the Vedic literature due to their adherence to some common traits. In the *Taittirīyasaṁhitā*, the episode of begetting the children by Aditi is mentioned.²⁸¹ At first, Aditi had begot four children, and then, again she had got Mārtaṇḍa, and then, the Vivasvat.

Divergent views are found regarding the names and numbers of the Ādityas. They are somewhere mentioned as six, 282 viz, Mitra, Aryaman, Bhaga, Varuṇa, Dakṣa

āhuta dhūmaste keturabhavaddivi śritaḥ// Ibid., 5.11.3

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cf., ańgirobhirā gahi yajñiyebhiryama vairūpairiha mādayasva/ vivasvantam huve yaḥ pitā te'smin yajñe barhişyā niṣadya// Ibid., 10.14.5 apāgūhannamṛtām martyebhyaḥ kṛtvī savarṇāmadadurvivasvate/ utāśvināvabharadyattadāsīdajahādu

dvā mithunā saraņyūh// Ibid., 10.17.2 cf., asammṛṣṭo jāyase mātroh śucirmandrah kavirudatiṣṭho vivasvatah// ghṛtena tvāvardhayannagna

²⁷⁷ cf., ...asmākam bhogāya bhavāditi tato vivasvānādityo'jāyata tasya vā iyam prajā yanmanuşyāstāsveka evardho yo yajate sa devānām bhogāya bhavati devā vai yajnāt/ TS., 6.5.6.2

²⁷⁸ cf., sūryamāditeyam/ RV., 10.88.11
Also vide, Śāń GS., 2.3, 3.8.7; GGS., 2.10.27

²⁷⁹ Nir., 2.13

 $^{^{280}}$ cf. aṣṭau putrāso aditerye jātāstanvaspari/ devāñ upa praitsaptabhiḥ parā mārtāṇḍamāsyat// RV., 10.72.8

²⁸¹ cf., aditiḥ putrakāmā... tasyai catvāra ādityā ajāyanta... vyṛddhamāṇḍamajāyata sā"dityebhya eva... vivasvānādityo'jāyata.../ TS.,6.5.6.1,2

cf., imā gira ādityebhyo ghṛtasnūḥ sanādrājabhyo juhvā juhomi/ śṛṇotu mitro aryamā bhago nastuvijāto yaruno dakso amśah// Ibid., 2.27.1

and Amśa; somewhere as seven²⁸³ with the inclusion of Sūrya or somewhere as eight²⁸⁴ with the Mārtaṇḍa as Aditi brought him after presenting the seven to the gods.²⁸⁵ But the list of *Taittirīyabrāhmaṇa* is quite different from that of the *Rgveda* where Dhātṛ, Indra and Vivasvat are mentioned as Āditya instead of Dakṣa, Sūrya and Mārtaṇḍa.²⁸⁶ The *Śatapathabrāhmaṇa* and some other texts have viewed Ādityas as twelve, identical with the twelve months of the year.²⁸⁷

Some traits are very common among the Ādityas. They are the solar divinities and they are closely connected with the celestial light.²⁸⁸ In luminary form, they are worshipped.²⁸⁹ The Ādityas keep collected the rain in the heaven in the form of cloud so that they shower the rain in the rainy season.²⁹⁰ The *Nirukta* states *ādityaḥ kasmāt/ādatte rasān/ādatte bhāsam jyotiṣām/ādīpto bhāseti vā/aditeḥ putra iti vā*, i.e. From what (root) is *āditya* derived? He takes the fluids, he takes (i.e. eclipses) the light of the luminaries, or he blazes with lustre, or he is the son of Aditi.²⁹¹ Taking the fluids from the earth, Ādityas again shower it for the growth of the corn or help in the process of

²⁸³ cf., sapta diśo nānāsūryāḥ sapta hotāra rtvijaḥ/ devā ādityā ye sapta tebhiḥ somābhi rakṣa na indrāyendro pari srava// Ibid., 9.114.3

²⁸⁴ Vide. Ibid., 10.72.8, AV., 8.9.21; TB., 1.1.9.1

²⁸⁵ cf., saptabhiḥ putrairaditirupa praitpūrvyam yugam/prajāyai mṛtyave tvatpunarmārtāṇḍamābharat// RV., 10.72.9

²⁸⁶ TB., 1.1.9.1-3

 $^{^{287}}$ cf., vyācam mithunam samabhavatsa dvādaśa drapsāngarbhyabhavatte dvādaśādityā'srjyanta tāndivyupādadhāt/ ŚB., 6.1.2.8

ādityaevaikavimsasyāyatanam dvādasamāsāh.../ PB., 10.1.10 S

²⁸⁸ Vide, Srivastava, V.C., Sun-worship in Ancient India, p.116

²⁸⁹ cf., imam stomam sakravato me adya mitro aryamā varuņo jupanta/ ādityāsaḥ śucayo dhārapūtā avrjinā anavadyā ariṣṭāḥ// RV., 2.27.2

²⁹⁰ cf., dhārayanta ādityāso jagatsthā devā viśvasya bhuvanasya gopāḥ/ dīrghādhiyo rakṣamāṇā asuryamrtāvānaścayamānā rnāni// Ibid., 2.27.4

²⁹¹ Sarup, L., Op cit., p. 29

generation. The Ādityas are regarded as the upholders of all the moveable and immoveable things and protectors of the universe: dhārayanta ādityāso jagatsthā devā viśvasya bhuvanasya gopāḥ/292 They are mentioned as bhūryakṣāḥ for their nature of beholding the innermost of the people and distinguishing capacity of single and double-minded one. 293 They are the punisher of the sin, 294 as well as forgiver too. 295 They hate the falsehood. They are mentioned as the friends of the noble worshippers like the birds who protect their young, spreading the wings over. The Ādityas dismiss the sickness and distress of the devotees. Sāyaṇācārya states in the commentary of the relevant passage that the Ādityas remove the illness, enemy, sin, etc., of the devotees: ādityāḥ amīvāṁ rogam apa sedhata/ asatto'pagamayata/ sridhaṁ cāpasedhakaṁ śatruṁ ca apa sedhata/ durmatim asmākaṁ duḥkhasya mantāraṁ ca apa sedhata/ api ca he ādityāṣaḥ ādityāḥ naḥ asmān aṁhasaḥ pāpāt yuyotama pṛthakkṛruta/299

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²⁹² RV., 2.27.4

²⁹³ cf., ta ādityāsa uravo gabhīrā adabdhāso dipsanto bhūryakṣāḥ/ antaḥ paśyanti vṛjinota sādhu sarvam rājabhyaḥ paramā cidanti// Ibid., 2.27.3

pākatrā sthana devā hṛtsu jānītha martyam/ upa dvayum cādvayum ca vasavaḥ// Ibid., 8.18.15

cf., mitrastanno varuņo māmahanta śarma tokāya tanayāya gopāḥ/mā vo bhujemānyajātameno mā tatkarma vasavo yaccayaddhve// Ibid., 7.53.2

²⁹⁵ cf., adite mitra varuņota mṛla yadvo vayam cakṛmā kaścidāgaḥ/urvaśyāmabhayam jyotirindra mā no dīrghā abhi naśantamisrāḥ// Ibid., 2.27.14

pra va eko mimaya bhūryāgo yanmā piteva kitavam śaśāsa/āre pāśā āre aghāni devā mā mādhi putre vimiva grabhīṣṭa// Ibid., 2.29.5

²⁹⁶ cf., ime cetāro anṛtasya bhūrermitro aryamā varuņo hi santi/ ima ṛtasya vāvṛdhurduroņe śagmāsaḥ putrāḥ aditeradabdhāḥ// Ibid., 7.60.5

²⁹⁷ cf., vidā devā ādhānāmādityāso apākṛtim/ pakṣā vayo yathopari vyasme śarma yacchatānehaso va ūtayaḥ suūtayo va ūtayaḥ// Ibid., 8.47.2

²⁹⁸ cf., apāmīvāmapa sridhamapa sedhata durmatim/ ādityāso yuyotanā no amhasaḥ// Ibid., 8.18.10

²⁹⁹ Sāyanācārya, Ibid.

Partial discussion on the salient traits of the solar divinities under the group of Ādityas is given below, which are not discussed earlier:

Mitra:

The different traits of Mitra as a solar divinity are already narrated in the preceding contexts.

Aryaman:

Frequently in the Vedic texts, Aryaman is worshipped along with the other deities. The friendly aspect of Aryaman, referred to in the Vedic texts, ³⁰⁰ resembles the Sun-god Mitra. He is worshipped in connection with the marriage ceremony in the Vedic texts. ³⁰¹ In the *Tāṇḍyamahābrāhmaṇa*, it is clearly stated that Aryaman takes the *devayāna* path, i.e. the path that lead to the gods: *yamāhuraryyamnaḥ panthāityeṣavāva devayāna panthāḥ* ³⁰² Sāyaṇācārya interpretes the respective passage and states it clearly that Aryaman is Āditya, so he takes the path that leads to the region of the gods. ³⁰³ The path of Aryaman is ruddy one and that is why the deity also looks redish. ³⁰⁴ The red-coloured Sun of the morning sky is called Aryaman in the Vedic mythology. ³⁰⁵

³⁰⁰ cf., aryamyam varuna mitryam vā sakhāyam vā sadamidbhrātaram vā/veśam vā nityam varunāranam vā yatsīmāgaścakṛmā śiśrathastat// RV., 5,85.7

vaṣaṭ te pūṣannasminsūtāvaryamā hotā kṛṇotu vedhāḥ/ sisratām nāryṭtaprajātā vi parvāṇi jihatām sūtavā u// AV., 1.11.1

³⁰¹ cf., tvamaryamā bhavasi yatkanīnām nāma svadhāvanguhyam vibharşi/ añjanti mitram sudhitam na gobhiryaddampatī samanasā kṛṇoṣi// RV., 5.3.2

somajuşţam brahmajuşţamaryamṇā sambhṛtam bhagam/ dhātuardevasya satyena kṛṇomi pativedanam// AV., 2.36.2

³⁰² Tāṇḍya B., 25.12.3

³⁰³ cf., yadi aryyamnaḥ ādityamūrttibhedasya panthā aryamityāhuḥ/ sa eṣa eva khalu devayānaḥ panthāḥ/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

³⁰⁴ cf., tasmādeso'runatama iya diya upadrše'runatama iya hi panthāh/ Tāndya B., 25.12.5

cf., devayānamārgasyārcirādityarūpatvāttena gatopyaryamā aruņatamo divi dr\u00e1yate pr\u00e4ta\u00e1k\u00e4l\u00e1na līna \u00e4dityoryyamā so'ru\u00e1natamo bhavati/ S\u00e4yan\u00e4c\u00e4raya, Ibid.

Bhaga:

Bhaga is one of the solar divinities closely connected with Savitr.³⁰⁶ He is worshipped in his aspect of prosperity. Bhaga means wealth. The deity is addressd as Vidhartr, i.e. the supporter of all, and worshipped to bestow wealth.³⁰⁷ Yāskācārya in the *Nirukta* states that his time is prior to sunrise.³⁰⁸ In the *Atharvaveda*, he is invoked as the early Sun overpowering Uṣas.³⁰⁹ Bhaga, i.e. fortune approaches the men likewise the Sun that approaches men with his rising: *janaṁ bhago gacchati/ iti vā vijñāyate/ janaṁ gacchatyāditya udayena/³¹⁰*

Varuņa:

Varuṇa, the son of Aditi, mentioned with the shining robe and golden mantle,³¹¹ represents the solar character of the deity. The term *varuṇa* is derived from the root *vṛ*, to cover. Varuṇa seems to represent the luminous encompassing sky.³¹² But Sāyaṇācārya states that Varuṇa is the setting Sun: *astaṁ gacchan sūrya eva varuṇa ityucyate*/³¹³ The car of Varuṇa is described as shining like the Sun.³¹⁴ He is called suneyed,³¹⁵ thousand-eyed,³¹⁶ farsighted,³¹⁷ etc., in the Vedic texts. As his rays go

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³⁰⁶ Vide, Macdonell, A.A., Op cit., p.45

of., prātarjitam bhagamugram huvema vayam putramaditeryo vidhartā/ ādhraścidyam manyamānasturaścidrājā cidyam bhagam bhakṣītyāha// RV., 7.41.2

³⁰⁸ cf., bhago vyākhyātaḥ/ tasya kālaḥ prāgutsarpaṇāt/ Nir., 12.13

³⁰⁹ cf., samaddhvarāyoṣaso namanta dadhikrāveva śucaye padāya/arvācīnam vasuvidam bhagam me rathamivāśvā vājina ā vahantu// AV., 3.16.6

³¹⁰ Nir., 12.13

³¹¹ cf., bibhradradrāpim hiranyayam varuno vasta nirnijam/ pari spašo ni sedire// RV., 1.25.13

³¹² Vide, Keith, A. B., The Religion and Philosophy of the Veda and Upanisads, Part-I, pp. 96-98

³¹³ Sāyanācārya on RV., 7.87.1

³¹⁴ cf., ratho vām mitrāvaruņā dīrghāpsāḥ syūmagabhastiḥ sūro nādyout/ RV., 1.122.15

³¹⁵ cf., bahayah sūracaksaso'gnijihyāh rtāyrdhah/ Ibid., 7.66.10

³¹⁶ cf., ā caṣṭa āsām pātho nadīnām varuņa ugraḥ sahasracakṣāḥ/ Ibid., 7.34.10

³¹⁷ cf., kadā kṣatraśriyam naramā varunam karāmahe/ mrlīkāyorucakṣasam// Ibid., 1.25.5

everywhere, Varuṇa protects all the beings and abode of all the beings with the rays. The is mentioned as the lord of order and light in the Vedas. The omniscient Varuṇa observes the truth and falsehood of the people: $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ varuṇo yāti madhye satyānṛte avapaśyañjanānām/ Being the moral governor, he punishes the people according to their deeds. It is believed that he binds the sinners with his fetters $(p\bar{a}sa)$. His abode is mentioned as golden that is situated in the heaven.

Daksa:

In the Vedic texts, Dakṣa, along with Aditi, is regarded as universal parent³²⁴ that represent the luminous sky. But, again in another context in the *Rgvedasamhitā*, Dakṣa is invoked as the son of Aditi. Aditi gave birth to Dakṣa; and again, Dakṣa gave birth to Aditi. After that, the entire gods take their birth. In his *Nirukta*, Yāskācārya clearing the doubts regarding the birth of these two deities states: aditirdākṣāyaṇī/... tatkathamupapadyate/ samānajanmānau syātāmiti/ api vā devadharmeṇetaretarajanmānau syātām/ itaretaraprakṛtī/³²⁶ According to it, the two

³¹⁸ cf., yo dhītā manuşyāṇām paśavo gāiva rakṣati nabhantāmanyake same/ Ibid., 8.41.1

 $^{^{319}}$ cf., ŗtena yāvŗtāvŗdhāvŗtasya jyotiṣaspatī/ tā mitrāvaruṇā huve// Ibid., 1.23.5

³²⁰ Ibid., 7.49.3

³²¹ cf., prche tadeno varuno didrkṣūpo emi cikituṣo viprccham/ samānaminme kavayaścidāhurayam ha tubhyam varuno hṛṇīte// kimāga āsa varuna jyeṣṭham yatsrotāram jighāmsasi sakhāyam/pra tanme voco dulabha svadhāvo'va tvānenā namasā tura iyām// Ibid., 7.86.3,4

³²² cf., uduttamam varuna pāśamasmadavādhamam vi madhyamam śrathāya/ Ibid., 1.24.15 uduttamam mumugdhi no vi pāśam madhyamam cṛta/ avādhamāni jīvase// Ibid., 1.25.21

³²³ cf., adarśi gātururave varīyasī panthā rasya samayamsta raśmibhiścakṣurbhagasya raśmibhiḥ/dyukṣam mitrasya sādanamaryyamno varunasya ca// Ibid., 1.136.2

³²⁴ cf., asacca sacca parame vyomandaksasya janmannaditerupasthe/ Ibid., 10.5.7

³²⁵ cf., aditerdakşo'jāyata dakṣādvaditiḥ pari// aditirhyajaniṣṭa dakṣa yā duhitā tava/ tām devā anvajāyanta bhadrā amrta bandhavah// Ibid., 10.72.4,5

³²⁶ Nir., 11.23

deities might have had the same origin, or in accordance with the nature of gods, they might have been born from each other, or they might have derived their characteristics from each other. The *Śatapathabrāhmaṇa* describes him as Prajāpati, the creator.³²⁷ In the beginning of the creation, Prajāpati Dakṣa, being desirous of offspring, sacrificed with the sacrifice, which is called Dākṣāyaṇa sacrifice.

Amśa:

The solar god Amsa has less importance among the Vedic deities. He is almost synonymous with Bhaga which expresses the meaning concrete sense of share, portion and that of apportioner. 328

Sūrya:

The salient traits of Sūrya are already narrated in the preceding pages.

Mārtanda:

Mārtaṇḍa is said as born from a dead egg that was thrown away by Aditi. ³²⁹ The birth episode of Mārtaṇḍa is stated more clearly by Sāyaṇācārya in his interpretation on the respective passage: atha prajāyai prāṇināmutpattaye mṛtyave teṣāṁ maraṇāya mārtāṇḍaṁ mṛtāt vyṛddhādaṇḍājjātaṁ mārtāṇḍanāmānaṁ sūryaṁ punaḥ ābharat āharat/³³⁰ He is regarded as the eighth Āditya. ³³¹ Macdonnell, in his Vedic Mythology, mentions him as the representative of the setting Sun. ³³²

³³¹ cf., aştamam putram mārtāṇḍam sūryam/ Ibid., 10.72.8

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³²⁷ cf., prajāpatirha vā'etenāgre yajñeneje/ prajākāmo bahuḥ prajayā paśrubhiḥ syā śriyam jñeyam yaśaḥ syāmannādaḥ syāmiti/ ŚB., 2.4.4.2

³²⁸ Vide, Macdonell, A.A., Op cit., p.46

³²⁹ cf., saptabhiḥ putrairaditirupa praitpūrvyam yugam/ prajāyai mṛtyave tvatpunarmārtāṇḍamābharat// RV., 10.72.9

³³⁰ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

³³² Vide, Macdonell, A.A., Op cit., p. 44

Some Other Divinities that Come Under the Solar Family:

The Aśvins:

The Aśvins, the twin deities, 333 occupy a specific place among the deities of light. Sāyaṇācārya, in his interpretation on the respective passage clearly narrates the episode of the Aśvins' birth, according to which the twin deities were born of Vivsvat and Saraṇyū: uta api ca sāśvarūpiṇī saraṇyūstadā aśvināvabharat/ svodare garbhabhūtau dhāritavatī/ yat yadā tat jāyāpatibhyāmaśvarūpātmanā sambhogakāle retaḥ patitam āsīt tadāśvinau janayāmāsetyarthaḥ/334 Yāskācārya, in his Nirukta mentions that among the Aśvins, one is the son of night and the other is the son of dawn. They are invoked conjointly, and their time of appearance and functions are identical. As the deities of the morning twilight, they dispel darkness and the evil spirits. The Śatapathabrāhmana mentions the Aśvins as red white in colour that directs their connection with the morning Sun. The Aśvins are called rudravartanī, 338 i.e. red-pathed, hiraṇyavartanī, i.e. golden-pathed. The car of the Aśvins is sunlike or golden, 339 having thousand rays 340 or ornaments. 341 It signifies the solar character of the

³³³ cf., utāśvināvabharadyattadāsīdajahādu dvā mithunā saranyūh/ RV., 10.17.2

³³⁴ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

³³⁵ cf., tayoḥ samānakālayoḥ samānakarmaṇoḥ samstutaprāyayorasamstavenaiṣo'rdharco bhavati/ vāsātyo anya ucyate/ uṣah putrastvanya iti/ Nir., 12.2

³³⁶ cf., vapumṣi jātā mithunā sacete tamohanā tapuṣo buddhna etā/ RV., 3.39.3 brahma jinvatamuta jinvatam dhiyo hatam rakṣāmsi sedhatamamīvāḥ/ sajoṣasā uṣasā sūryeṇa ca somam sunvato aśvinā// Ibid., 8.35.16

³³⁷ cf., śyeta āśvino bhavati/ śyetāviva hyaśvināva.../ ŚB., 5.5.4.1

³³⁸ RV., 1.3.3

³³⁹ cf., hiranyayena purubhū rathenemam yajñam nāsatyopa yātam/ Ibid., 4.44.4 ā nūnam yātamaśvinā rathena sūryatvacā/ bhujī hiranyapeśasā kavī gambhīracetasā// Ibid., 8.8.2

³⁴⁰ cf., ā vā ratham purumāyam manojuvam jīrāśvam yajñiyam jīvase huve/ sahasraketum vaninam śatadvasum śruṣtīvānam varivodhāmabhi prayaḥ// Ibid., 1.119.1

³⁴¹ cf., atah sahasranimijā rathenā yātamaśvinā// Ibid., 8.8.11,14

deities. The Aśvins are connected with marriage, production and love.³⁴² They are worshipped to bring lovers together. They are regarded as the divine physicians in the Vedic texts.³⁴³

Vena:

Due to the solar nature, Vena is regarded as the solar god in the Vedic literature. The first *maṇḍala* of the *Rgvedasamhitā* contains the reference of the deity, ³⁴⁴ and in the last *maṇḍala* of the same he is depicted as a full-fledged Sun-god. ³⁴⁵ In the *Taittirīyasamhitā* and in the *Atharvavedasamhitā* also, he is invoked as the Sungod. In the *Rgvedasamhitā*, he is more concrete than that of the *Atharvavedasamhitā* and the *Taittirīyasamhitā*. Vena is mentioned as manifested with the eyes of the Sun: *sūryasya cakṣasā tejasā paṣyan prakāṣamāno venaḥ/* The solar origin of the deity becomes clear with the words *venaṣcodayatpṛṣnigarbhā*, *jyotirjarāyu*, *sūryasya ṣiṣum*, etc. ³⁴⁹ The deity is mentioned as staying in the highest heaven. ³⁵⁰ He is identified with the Sun and mentioned as the strong-winged bird in the sky. ³⁵¹

of., garbham dhehi sinīvāli garbham dhehi sarasvati/ garbham te asvinau devāvā dhattām puṣkarasrajā// Ibid., 10.184.2

³⁴³ cf., yābhiḥ pakthamavatho yābhiradhrigum yābhibrabhrum vijoṣasam/ tābhirno makṣū tūyamaśvinā gatam bhiṣajyatam yadāturam// Ibid., 8.22.10 aśvinau vai devānām bhiṣajau/AB., 1.18

³⁴⁴ cf., yajñairatharvā prathamah prathstate tatah sūryo vratapā vena ājani/ RV., 1.83.5

³⁴⁵ Ibid., 10.123

³⁴⁶ TS., 4.2.8

³⁴⁷ AV., 2.1

³⁴⁸ Sāyaṇācārya on RV., 10.123.8

³⁴⁹ RV., 10.123.1

cf., apsarā jāramupasişmiyāṇā yoṣā bibharti parame vyoman/ caratpriyasya yonişu priyaḥ santsīdatpakṣe hiraṇyaye sa venaḥ// Ibid.,10.123.5

³⁵¹ cf., nāke suparņamupa yatpatantam hṛdā venanto abhyacakṣata tvā/ hiraṇyapakṣam varuṇasya dūtam samasya yonau śakunam bhuraṇyum// Ibid.,10.123.6

Vena shines summit the the water the heavens: samudrādūrmimudiyarti/³⁵² Sāyanācārya has stated sindhum syandanaśīlam jalasamūham adhi asthuh adhitisthanti/³⁵³ Vena produces rain from the water and with it he nourishes the whole universe: vrstipradānādinā sarvasya jagatah posakam/³⁵⁴ His rain-giving aspect is well cited in the Vedic texts.³⁵⁵

Vena is mentioned as the primary cause of the things, the father of the universe and the friend of the cosmic order in the $Rgvedasamhit\bar{a}$.

Rohita:

The term *rohita* that signifies the 'red one,' is used as an epithet of the Sun-god in the earlier Vedas. ³⁵⁷ He is mentioned as the red horse. Somewhere, Rohita is called as the horse of Agni, ³⁵⁸ somewhere as the horse of the gods: *ete vai devāśvāḥ*. ³⁵⁹ But in the later Vedas, especially in the *Atharvavedasaṁhitā*, Rohita achieves the form of independent god. ³⁶⁰ At the very outset of the Atharvavedic hymn, dedicated to him, he is mentioned as the deity: *rohitaḥ kaścid devaḥ/ udyana yaḥ sūryastadātmaka iti*

³⁵² Ibid., 10.123.2

353 Ibid.,10.123.4

354 Ibid., 10.123.6

355 cf., samudrādūrmimudiyarti veno nabhojāḥ pṛṣṭham haryatasya darśi/ Ibid.,10.123.2 urdhvo gandharvo adhi nāke asthātpratyancitrā bibhradasyāyudhāni/ Ibid., 10.123.7

356 cf., yo naḥ pitā janitā yo vidhātā dhāmani veda bhuvanāni viśvā/ yo devānām nāmadhā eka eva tam sampraśnam bhuvanā yantyanyā// Ibid., 10.82.3

357 cf., rohitā lohitavarņau/ rohita ityagneraśvasya 'rohito'gneḥ' iti darśanāt/ Sāyaṇācārya on RV., 1.94.10

rohitā rohitavarnāvaśvau/Ibid., 1.134.3

Also vide, Ibid., 2.10.2; 3.6.6

358 RV., 1.94.10

³⁵⁹ TS., 1.7.4.3

³⁶⁰ Vide, Macdonell, A.A., Op.cit., p. 115

jñeyam/³⁶¹ The rising Sun is called as Rohita. He is mentioned as identical with Sūrya: itah paśyanti rocanam divi sūryam vipaścitam/³⁶² By means of the horses of Surya, he moves on.³⁶³

Rohita is the generator of the universe. 364 He generated the heaven and earth. 365 He made firm the heaven and the earth and established the sky. 366 He generated all the forms. 367 In the Atharvavedasamhita, Rohita is mentioned as the generator of the sacrifice: rohito yajñasya janitā mukham ca, 368 and, called as the mouth of it. He is mentioned as the great sacrificer. ³⁶⁹ Rain befalls as the result of sacrifice performed by him and everything is sustained due to the rain and heat. He stands as the measurer of the day and night.³⁷⁰

The derivation of the term rohita goes as ruho ruroha praruho ruroha dyāvāpṛthivībhyām ruroheti rohitaḥ/371 He is mentioned as sarvā ruroha ruhaḥ.372 At the end of the generations, he stood aloft upon the firmament.³⁷³ Rohita illumines the

³⁶¹ AV., 13.1

³⁶² Ibid., 13.1.39

³⁶³ cf., sūryasyāśvā harayaḥ ketumantaḥ sadā vahantyamṛtāḥ sukhaṁ ratham/ Ibid., 13.1.24

³⁶⁴ cf., yo rohitob viśvamidam jajāna/ Ibid.,13.1.1

³⁶⁵ cf., rohito dyāvāpṛthivī jajāna/ Ibid., 13.1.6

³⁶⁶ cf., rohito dyāvāpṛthivī adṛmhat tena sva svabhitam tena nākaḥ/Ibid.,13.1.7

³⁶⁷ cf., rohito adhi nāke asthād viśvā rūpāni janayan yuvā kavih/ Ibid., 13.1.11

³⁶⁸ Ibid., 13.1.13

³⁶⁹ cf., vedim bhūmim kalpayitvā divam kṛtvā dakṣiṇām/ ghramsam tadagnim kṛtvā cakāra viśvamātmanvad varsenājyena rohitah// Ibid., 13.1.52

³⁷⁰ cf., divam ca sūrya prthivīm ca devīmahorātre vimimāno yadesi/ Ibid., 13.2.5

³⁷¹ cf., ruho ruroha rohita ā ruroha/ Ibid., 13.1.4

³⁷² Ibid., 13.1.26

³⁷³ cf., urdhvo rohito adhi nāke asthād/ Ibid., 13.1.11

darkness of the sky with his light.³⁷⁴ He gives his rays towards the earth and the ocean also.³⁷⁵ Thus, moving every corner, he measures out the spaces.

Sun-worship in Theriomorphic, Fetishistic and Symbolic Forms:

Likewise in the anthropomorphic forms, the Sun-god is also worshipped in theriomorphic, fetishistic and symbolic forms; but in support of that no adequate evidences can be found. It becomes clear from the viewpoints of the scholars that Sunworship was rather prominent in anthropomorphic forms than that of the theriomorphic and others during the Vedic period.³⁷⁶

The Aśvins seem to have appeared in the form of horses,³⁷⁷ while Aja Ekapāt as the goat with one foot.³⁷⁸ The divine force Sūrya has been described as the horse,³⁷⁹ the eagle³⁸⁰ or a particular bird called Suparṇa Garutmat,³⁸¹ and the bull³⁸²

Besides these identifications of the Sun-god, there are various animal fetishes linked to the solar deities.

The Horse:

Frequently in the Vedas, as the symbol of the Sun-god, the horse is used. For example, the sacrificial steed is believed to be fashioned out of the Sun: $s\bar{u}r\bar{a}da\acute{s}vam$

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³⁷⁴ Ibid., 13.2.2

³⁷⁵ cf., rohito raśmibhirbhūmim samudramanu sam carat/ Ibid., 13.2.40

³⁷⁶ Vide, Keith, A.B., Op cit., Part-I, p. 62 Macdonell, A.A., Op cit., p.148

³⁷⁷ cf., aśvairaśvināvityaurnavābhah/ Nir., 12.1

³⁷⁸ cf., pāvīravī tanyaturekapādajo divo dhartā sindhurāpah samudriyah/ RV., 10.65.13

³⁷⁹ cf., gandharvo asya raśanāmagrbhnātsūrādaśvam vasavo niratasta/ Ibid., 1.163.2

³⁸⁰ cf., ā sūryo yātu saptāśvaḥ kṣetraṁ yadasyorviyā dīrghayāthe/ raghuḥ śyenaḥ patayadandho acchā yuvā kavirdīdayadgoṣu gacchan// Ibid., 5.45.9

³⁸¹ cf., uksā samudro arusah suparnah pūrvasya yonim piturā viveśa/ Ibid., 5.47.3

³⁸² cf., āyam gauh prśnirakramīdasadanmātaram purah/ pitaram ca prayantsvah// Ibid., 10.189.1

vasavo nirtaṣṭa,³⁸³ a white steed is believed to be the leader of the dawn: śvetaṁ nayantī sudṛśīkamaśvam/³⁸⁴ The close association of the Sun with the horse becomes clear with the use of the term ketava, i.e. the seven horses, etc., and others that draw the Sun-god.³⁸⁵ The term ketava is interpreted by Sāyaṇācārya as ketavaḥ prajñāpakāḥ sūryāśvāḥ yadvā sūryaraśmayaḥ/³⁸⁶ The horses of the Sun are directly worshipped in the Vedas.³⁸⁷ As the symbol of the Sun, the horse is employed in different Vedic rituals like Aśvamedha, Ṣoḍaśin, etc.³⁸⁸At the time of establishment and re-establishment of the fires in the rituals, a horse is employed and that is the symbol of the Sun-god.³⁸⁹ All these indicate the horse's employment as the animal fetish during the Vedic period.

Dadhikrā:

Dadhikrā is one of the divine steeds deified in the Vedic texts.³⁹⁰ The term is used as a synonym of horse in the *Nighanţu*.³⁹¹ He is one of the fetishes of Sūrya. The fetish Dadhikrā is the representative of the swift moving luminary Sūrya that reflects

³⁸³ Ibid., 1.163.2

³⁸⁴ Ibid., 7.77.3

³⁸⁵ cf., udu tyam jātavedasam devam vahanti ketavaḥ/ Ibid., 1.50.1 sapta tvā harito rathe vahanti deva sūrya/ Ibid., 1.50.8 Also vide, Ibid., 1.50.9; 1.115.3

³⁸⁶ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid., 1.50.1

³⁸⁷ cf., ā sūryo yātu saptāśvaḥ kṣetraṁ yadasyorviyā dīrghayāthe/ RV., 5.45.9 ayukta sapta haritaḥ sadhasthādyā ī vahanti sūryaṁ ghṛtācīḥ/ Ibid., 7.60.3 Also vide, TS., 5.6.4.1; AV., 13.3.18

³⁸⁸ cf., AB., 8.20

^{...}sūrye sodaśinah stotramupākarotyetasminvai loka.../ TS., 6.6.11.6

³⁸⁹ Vide, Keith, A.B., Op cit., Part- II, p.316

³⁹⁰ RV., 4.38-40; 7.44

³⁹¹ Nighantu, 1.14

the warlike aspect, i.e. the swiftness of the Sun. Sāyaṇācārya interpretes the term as dadhadanyaṁ dhārayan krāmatīti dadhikrāḥ/ tametannāmakaṁ devam/ The swiftness of the Sun becomes clear with his application as the first steed at the head of the chariot, devam identification with the eagle and the swan. His speed is compared to the wind.

Tārkşya:

Tārkṣya is another divine steed closely associated with Dadhikrā. Indeed, Tārkṣya is the representative of the Sun-god. He is the son of Tṛkṣa, i.e. Suparṇa Garutmat. There are two hymns in the *Rgvedasamhitā*, in where, the deity Tārkṣya is invoked. He is described as the impeller of mighty steeds, vanquisher of the chariots, swift and speeding to battle. The epithet *ariṣṭanemi* is associated with the deity. Sāyaṇācārya, in his interpretation, states the meaning of the term thus: *ariṣṭanemiḥ/nemiḥ iti āyudhanāma/ ariṣṭo'himsito nemiryasya/ yadvā rathacakrasya dhārā nemiḥ/yatsambandhino rathasya nemirna himsyate so'riṣṭanemiḥ/A01 Tārkṣya is invoked to prosper his devotees with uninjured fellies.*

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³⁹² cf., uta vājinam puruniṣpidhvānam dadhikrāsu dadathurviśvakṛṣṭim/ RV., 4.38.2 āśum dadhikrām tamu na ṣṭavāma divaspṛṭhivyā uta carkirām/ Ibid.,4. 39.1

³⁹³ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid., 4.38.2

³⁹⁴ cf., dadhikrāvā prathamo vājyarvāgre rathānām bhavati prajānan/ RV., 7.44.4

³⁹⁵ cf., uta smainam vastramathim na tāyumanu krośanti kşitayo bhareşu/nīcāyamānam jasurim na śyenam śravaścācchā paśumacca yūtham// Ibid., 4.38.5

³⁹⁶ cf., padbhirgrdhyantam medhayum na śūram rathaturam vātamiva dhrajantam/ Ibid., 4.38.3

³⁹⁷ cf., tārkṣyaṁ tṛkṣaputraṁ suparṇam/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid., 10.178.1

³⁹⁸ RV., 1.89; 10,178

³⁹⁹ cf., tvamū şu vājinam devajūtam sahāvānam tarutāram rathānām/ ariṣṭanemim pṛṭanājamāmśu svastaye tārkṣyamihā huvema// Ibid.,10.178.1

⁴⁰⁰ cf., svasti nastārksyo aristanemih svasti no brhaspatirdadhātu// Ibid.,1.89.6

⁴⁰¹ Sāyanācārya, Ibid., 1.89.6

Paidva:

Paidva is one of the mythical steeds that had the name, as because, it was related to king Pedu: *paidvaḥ/ pedoḥ sambandhī/*⁴⁰² The Aśvins are said to have brought it to king Pedu. He is mentioned as white in colour, conqueror of combatants, invincible in war by arrows, seeking heaven worthy of fame, likewise Indra. He is again mentioned as the dragon-slayer. Paidva is always used as the symbol of the Sun in the Vedic texts. Ho are the first paid to have brought it was always used as the symbol of the Sun in the Vedic texts.

Etaśa:

For the horses of the Sun, the term etaśa is used in the Vedic texts. 407 In singular, the term signifies either the Sun horse, 408 or the wheel of the Sun. 409 The bright form of the Sun or the wheel of the Sun is brought by the god Etaśa towards the earth. 410 Etaśa is one of the chief representatives of the Sun that brings light towards the earth. 411

⁴⁰² Ibid., 1.116.6

⁴⁰³ cf., yamaśvinā dadathuḥ śvetamaśvamaghāśvāya śaśvaditsvasti/ tadvā dātraṁ mahi kīrtenyaṁ bhūtpaidvo vājī sadamiddhavyo aryaḥ// RV., 1. 116.6
yuvaṁ cyavānaṁ jaraso'mumuktaṁ ni pedave ūhathurāśumaśvam/ Ibid., 7.71.5

⁴⁰⁴ cf., yuvam pedave puruvāramaśvinā spṛdhām śvetam tarutāram duvasyathaḥ/ śaryairabhidyum pṛtanāsu duṣṭaram carkṛtyamindramiva carṣaṇīsaham// Ibid., 1.119.10

⁴⁰⁵ cf., purū varpāmsyaśvinā dadhānā ni pedave ūhathurāśumaśvam/msasrasām vājinamapratītamahihanam śravasyam tarutram// Ibid., 1.117.9

⁴⁰⁶ Vide, Keith, A.B., Op cit., Part-I, p. 191

⁴⁰⁷ cf., sa sūrya prati puro na udgā ebhiḥ stomebhiretaśebhirevaiḥ/ RV. 7.62.2 aham sūryasya pari yāmyāśubhiḥ praitaśebhirvahamāna ojasā/ Ibid., 10.49.7

⁴⁰⁸ cf., etaśa iti sūryāśvasyākhyā/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid., 1.121.13

⁴⁰⁹ cf., etaśaśca rathasya cakram bharat prāyahat/ Ibid., 1.121.13

⁴¹⁰ cf., udu tyaddarśatam vapurdiva eti pratihvare/ yadīmāśurvahati deva etaśo viśvasmai cakṣase aram// RV., 7.66.14

⁴¹¹ cf., etaśena tvā sūryo devatām gamayatu/ TS., 1.6.4.6

The Bull:

The bull is another animal fetish of the Sun-god. In the Vedic mythology, the solar divinities Sūrya, Rohita, etc., have been described as the bull. The description of the bull as a ruler of thirty days clearly points out the solar character. A white bullock is offered as the fee for god Savitr, the Sun-god. Besides these, in many rites the bull is employed as the symbol of the Sun. It represents the procreative potency of the Sun-god.

The Goat:

The goat is another symbol of the Sun-god. The pastoral deity Pūṣan is closely associated with the goat, 416 that achieves the divinity in the form of the Aja Ekapāt, the one-footed goat. The Aja Ekapāt is regarded as the Sun-god by Durgācārya in the Nirukta. Commenting on the relevant passage, he states, 'aja ekapāt' iti vaktavyam/ sa punarayamādityo nityam 'ajano' gamanaḥ/ 'ekaḥ' ca 'pādo brahmaṇaḥ/ vijñāyate hi 'agniḥ pādo vāyuḥ pāda ādityaḥ pādo diśaḥ pādaḥ' (Chā. Upa. 3/18/2)/ 'ekena pādena pātīti vā'/ saevamidam jagadekenāmśenānupraviśya pāti rakṣati svāṣakāle prāṇātmanā'nnam pacan/ ajanaścetyaja ekapāt/ 'ekena pādena pivatīti vā'/

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⁴¹² cf., āyam gauḥ pṛśnirakramīdasadanmātaram puraḥ/ Ibid., 10.189.1 ārohañchukro bṛhatīratandro dve rūpe kṛṇute rocamānaḥ/ citraścikitvān mahişo vātamāyā yāvato

arohańchukro brhatiratandro dve rupe krnute rocamanah/ citrascikitvan mahiso vatamaya yavato lokanabhi yadvibhati// AV., 13.2.42

Also vide, TS., 1.5.3.1; ŚB., 2.1.4.29

⁴¹³ ŚB., 5.3.1.7

⁴¹⁴ AV., 4.38; 5.7; 6.31

⁴¹⁵ Vide, Srivastava, V.C., Op cit., p. 155

⁴¹⁶ Vide, Macdonell, A.A., Op cit., p.35

⁴¹⁷ Ibid., p.73

ekenāmsenodakam sarvasmājjagatah pibatyajanascetyaja ekapāt/ atha 'vā'/ ajano gamanaḥ 'eko'sya pāda iti' aja ekapāt/418

The Taittirīyabrāhmaņa states him as having risen out in the sky pointing out the solar character of the deity. 419

The Bird:

Bird is one of the animal fetishes employed for the Sun-god. Frequently in the Vedic literature, Sūrya is compared to the bird, 420 as because of the swiftness of its speed. Though he is mentioned as an eagle, or a swan, or a falcon, etc., in the Vedic literature but a particular bird Suparna Garutmat or simply Suparna is closely associated with him. 421 Suparna probably was a mythical bird associated with the Viṣṇu. Thus, the birds in general and Suparṇa in particular are employed as the symbol of the Sun-god.

The Wheel:

Wheel is one of the material objects used as the symbol of the Sun that represents both the shape and motion of it. 422 In the Vedic literature, the wheel is frequently mentioned. 423 In different Vedic rituals and sacrifices like Vājapeya, etc.,

418 Durgācārya on Nir.,12.28

⁴¹⁹ cf., ... āntarikṣamaruhadagam dyām/ tam sūryam devamajamekapādam/ proṣṭhapadāso anuyanti sarve/ TB.,3.1.2.8

⁴²⁰ cf., uksā samudro arusah suparnah pūrvasya yonim piturā viveśa/ RV., 5.47.3 patango vācam manasā bibharti tām gandharvo'vadadgarbhe antah/ Ibid., 10.177.2

⁴²¹ Macdonell, A.A. Op cit., p. 152

⁴²² Ibid., p.155

⁴²³ cf., musāva sūryam kave cakramīśāna ojasā/ RV., 1.175.4 tvā yujā ni khidatsūryasyendraścakram sahasā sadya indo/ Ibid., 4.28.2 Also vide, Ibid., 4.30.4; 5.29.10; AV., 13.3.18

wheel is employed as the Sun symbol. 424 The god Viṣṇu, who is none other than the Sun-god is identified with the wheel. 425

The Golden Disc:

The golden disc or a disc or plate of gold is employed as the Sun symbol in the Vedic rituals. The term *rukma* is used for the Sun in the Vedic texts. The term *rukma* is interpreted by Sāyaṇācārya as bright and thus the Sun-god is regarded as the ornament of the sky. Due to the shining nature and round shape of the gold disc or plate, it may be regarded as the symbol of the god of light, i.e. Sūrya.

The Lotus:

The Lotus is one of the fetishes that is employed to symbolize the Sun-god. This symbol is used in the Vedic rituals to show the fertility aspect of the deity. In different rituals, a Lotus leaf is placed in the first layer in the centre as the symbol of the Sun-god. The Lotus wreath with the twelve flowers may signify the twelve months of the year. The association of Lotus and the Sun is well mentioned in the *Atharvaveda*.

⁴²⁴ Keith, A.B., Op cit., Part-I, p. 67; Part-II, p, 340

⁴²⁵ cf., caturbhiḥ sākam navatim ca nāmabhiścakram na vṛttam vyatīravīvipat/ bṛhaccharīro vimimāna ṛkka bhiryuvākumāraḥ pratyetyāhavam// RV.,1.155.6

 ⁴²⁶ cf., brahma jajñānam prathamam purastādvi śrīmattaḥ suruco vena āva/ VS., 13.3
 Also vide, TS., 4.2.8; AB., 7.12; PB. 18.9.9; ŚB. 3.5.1.20; 3.9.2.9; 5.2.1.21; 5.4.1.13; 7.4.1.10; 12.4.4.6; Āp.ŚS. 16.22.3; Kāt.ŚS.17.74

⁴²⁷ cf., divo rukma urucaksā udeti/ RV., 7.63.4

⁴²⁸ cf., ayam sūrvah rukmah rocamānah.../ Sāyanācārva, Ibid., 7.63.4

⁴²⁹ cf., apām pṛṣṭhamasi yoniragneḥ samudramabhitaḥ pinvamānam/ vardhamāno mahāñ ā ca puṣkare divo mātrayā varimnā prathasva/ VS.13.2

⁴³⁰ PB., 18, 9, 6-8

Sun-god and the Image-Worship:

Though the image worship was not prominent in the Vedic period, yet it is evident to think that it was prevalent in ancient India. For example, the citation about the hands, limbs, mouth, etc., of different divinities carries out the mind of the people towards the image worship. Again, in the Agnicayana sacrifice a gold man⁴³¹ is placed along with the gold plate and the Lotus leaf. This gold man as the representative of the Sun-god is a very prominent concept of the Upaniṣads: *ya eṣo'ntarāditye hiraṇyamayaḥ puruṣo dṛśyate/*⁴³² The concept of the Sun-god as the supreme power is well established in the Rgvedic period and in the *Hiraṇyagarbhasūkta* he is mentioned as the creator. The Lotus leaf represents the generative aspect of the Sun-god and the gold plate represents the solar orb that upholds the whole universe. The gold man of the Śatapathabrāhmaṇa represents the man in the solar orb. The text also directs the way how to make the image of the gold man. All these, presupposes the conception of the image worship of the Sun-god in the Vedic period.

Different Rituals and the Sun-Worship:

The worship of the Sun-god under different names and forms occupy a specific place in almost all the rituals of the Vedic period. Due to its importance, the deity was worshipped in many rituals. Observing the movement of the Sun, marriage and different ceremonies are performed.

 431 cf., hiraņyagarbhaḥ samavartatāgre bhūtasya jātaḥ patireka āsīt/ VS., 13.4

⁴³³ RV., 10.121.6

⁴³⁴ Sāyaṇācārya on ŚB., 7.4.1.17

⁴³⁵ ŚB., 7.4.1.15

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Also vide, Āp.ŚS., 16.22.3; Kāt.ŚS.17.75

⁴³² Chā. U., 1.6.6

The Marriage Ceremony:

Marriage, i.e., the vivāha is the ceremony that is regarded as the pivot of all the household ceremonies. The householder enters into the Garhasthyaśrama by holding the hands of the wife through the marriage ceremony. The procreation of progeny and the attainment of spiritual merit through mutual co-operation were regarded as the chief purposes of Āryan marriages. 436

The appropriate time for seizing the hands of a girl by the householder is prescribed in the Grhyasūtras. The Śāṅkhyāyanagrhyasūtra states that during the northern course of the Sun, in the time of increasing moon, on an auspicious day, the householder shall seize the hand of a girl. 437 The same is noted in the Pāraskaragṛhyasūtra also.438 This time is also preferable for the tonsure, initiation, etc. 439 The Āśvalāyanagrhyasūtra states thus: udagayana āpūryamānapakṣe kalyāne nakṣatre colakarmopanayanagodāna vivāhāḥ/440

In the marriage ceremony, Aryaman, a form of the solar god, regarded as the guardian of the unmarried girls, is prayed to release the bride and give her to the bridegroom. 441 Pūṣan is prayed to lead the bride to the groom: sā naḥ pūṣā śivatamāmairaya sā na ūrū uśatī vihara/ yasyāmuśanta praharāma śepam yasyāmu

436 cf., Ram Gopal, India of Vedic Kalpasūtras, p. 204

438 cf., udagayana āpūryamānapakse punyāhe kumāryāh pāṇim grhnīyāt// PGS., 1.4.5

441 cf., aryamanam na devam kanyā agnimayakṣata/ sa imām devo'ryamā preto muñcātu nāmutah svāhā/ Ibid., 1.7.13

tāñjuhoti sarthahatenea tiṣṭhatī aryamaṇam devam kanyā"agnimayakṣata/ sano aryamā devaḥ preto muñcātu mā pateḥ svāhā// PGS.1.6.2

⁴³⁷ Śāṅ GS.,1.5.5

⁴³⁹ Āś.GS., 1.4.1

⁴⁴⁰ Ibid.

kāmā bahavo niviṣṭyā iti/⁴⁴² By the Abhyātāna formula, Indra, Yama, Mitra, Savitṛ, Sūrya, Viṣṇu are worshipped for the protection of the bride and the bridegroom. The Abhyātāna is one kind of special oblations. At wedding, the fried grains are poured at the joined hands of the bride by bride's brother: vadhvañjalāvupastīrya bhrātā bhrātṛsthāno vā dvirlājānāvapati/444 After that, the bride makes sacrifices towards the god Aryaman, Varuṇa, Pūṣan, Bhaga, etc. Both the bride and bridegroom revolve round the fire for seven times with the mantras, those sacred to Viṣṇu. Again, before going to the house of the bridegroom, the relatives of bride's family make the girl sit down behind the fire, where the bridegroom offers Ājya oblation to Agni, to Soma, to Prajāpati, to Mitra, to Varuṇa, to Indra, to Indrāṇī, to the Gandharvas, to Bhaga, to Pūṣan, to Tvaṣṭṛ, to Bṛhaspati, wishing happy married life to the newly married couple.

⁴⁴² PGS., 1.4.16

Also vide, tām naḥ pūṣañchivatamāmerayasva yasyām bījam manuṣyā vapanti yā na ūrū uśatī visrayātai yasyāmuśantaḥ praharema śepam/ HGS., 1.6.20.2

cf., agnirbhūtānāmadhipatiḥ samāvatvindro jyeṣṭhānām yamaḥ pṛthivyā vāyurantarikṣasyra sūryo divaścandramā nakṣatrāṇām bṛhaspatirbrahmaṇo mitraḥ satyānām varuṇo'pām samudraḥ srotyānāmannarthasāmrājyānāmadhipati tanmāvatu soma oṣadhīnāmsavitā prasavānām rudraḥ paśunām tvaṣṭā rūpāṇām viṣṇuḥ parvatānām maruto gaṇānāmadhipatayaste māvantu pitaraḥ pitāmahāh parevare tatāstatāmahāh/... PGS., 1.5.10

⁴⁴⁴ Āś.GS., 1.7.8

cf., aryamaṇaṁ nu devaṁ kanyā agnimayakṣata... varuṇaṁ nu devaṁ kanyā agnimayakṣata... pūṣaṇaṁ nu devaṁ kanyā agnimayakṣata/ sa imāṁ devaḥ pūṣā preto muñcātu nāmutaḥ svāhetyavicchindatyañjaliṁ sruceva juhuyāt/ Āś.GS., 1.7.8

^{...} avicchindatyañjalimiyam nāryyupabrūte'ryamaṇam nu devapūṣaṇamityuttarayorhute patiryathetam parivrajya pradakṣiṇamagnimpariṇayati.../ GGS., 2.2.6-10

⁴⁴⁶ cf., ekamişe vişnustvānvetu/ dve ūrje vişnustvānvetu/ trīni vratāya vişnustvānvetu/ catvāri māyobhavāya vişnustvānvetu/ pañca paśubhyo vişnustvānvetu/ şaḍrāyaspoṣāya vişnustvānvetu/ sapta saptabhyo hotrābhyo vişnustvānvetu/ iti/ HGS., 1.5.21.1

⁴⁴⁷ Sān.GS., 1.11.4

mounting on the chariot for the journey to the new home, the solar deity Pūṣan is worshipped, due to the prosperous aspect of him. Hiraṇyakeśigṛhyasūtra refers that the first one oblation of all the morning oblations, given by the bridegroom in the morning period for three days after marriage is devoted only to Sūrya. On the fourth day, towards the morning, the husband offers oblations of cooked food towards Sūrya, along with other divinities like Agni, Vāyu, etc., for expiation. He worships the deities to drive away all the evils from his wife. He desires protection from the substance that dwells in the bride which may bring death to her husband, causes sonlessness to her, destruction of the cattle, etc. Viṣṇu is worshipped to make ready the womb of the bride for conception.

The Rites Related to the Childbirth:

According to the *Sāṅkhyāyanagṛhyasūtra*, it is believed that, the deity Savitṛ has shaped the male child in the womb of the mother. But, in the *Hiraṇyakeśigṛhyasūtra*, Tvaṣṭṛ is invoked to give the shape of the child: ... tvaṣṭā

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⁴⁴⁸ cf., prayāṇa upapadyamāne "pūṣā tveto nayatu hastagṛhya" iti yānamārohayet/ Āś.GS., 1.8.1

⁴⁴⁹ cf., nityam sāyam prātarvrīhibhiryavairvā hastenaite āhutī juhoti/ agnaye svāhā/ prajāpataye svāhā/ iti/ saurīm pūrvām prātareke samāmananti// HGS., 1.7.23.9

ds. 450 cf., agnimupasamādhāya prāyaścittājyāhutīrjuhotyagne prāyaścitta iti caturagneḥ sthāne vāyucandrasūryāḥ samasya pañcamīm bahuvadūdyāhuterāhuteḥ sruvasampātamudapātre'vanayettanaināmsakeśanakhāmabhyajya hāsayitvā plāvayanti// GGS., 2.5.2-6 agne prāyaścitte tvam devānām prāyaścittirasi brāhmaṇastvā nāthakāma upadhāvāmi yā'syai patighnī tanūstāmasyai nāśaya svāhā/ vāyo prāyaścitte tvam devānām... sūryaprāyaścitte... PGS., 1.11.2 Also vide, HGS., 1.7.24.1; Sān.GS.1.18.2

⁴⁵¹ Sāṅ.GS., 1.18.3

cf., dakşinena pāninopasthamabhimrsedvişnuryonim kalpayatvityetayarccāgarbhandhehisinīvāli/ GGS, 2.5.9

vişnuryonim kalpayatu ...// HGS., 1.7.25.1

Also vide, KGS., 1.4.15;

⁴⁵³ Sāṅ.GS., 1.19.6

rūpāṇi piṁśatu.../⁴⁵⁴ In the beginning of the third month of the pregnancy, the Puṁsavana ceremony is performed with a view to securing son: tṛtīyasya garbhamāsasyādisadeśe puṁsavanasya kālaḥ/⁴⁵⁵ Mitra and Varuṇa are worshipped for a male child.⁴⁵⁶ Again, in Sīmantonnayana ceremony, Dhātṛ, the creator, who disposes offspring and wealth, is worshipped to give further life, son and safety, along with Varuna.⁴⁵⁷

After the birth of a child, the Jātakarman ritual is performed, in which Savitṛ is worshipped for the long life of the son. On the twelfth day, after the birth of the child or in the third or fourth month, the Niṣkramaṇasaṁskāra is performed. On that specific day, the child is first taken out of the house and the father makes the child look at the Sun with the utterance of the *mantra*: *taccakṣurdevahitaṁ*, etc. The ceremony of showing of the Sun to the child is called Ādityadarśana. The *Mānavagṛhyasūtra*

⁴⁵⁴ HGS., 1.7.25.1

⁴⁵⁵ GGS., 2.6.1

cf., ...patiravasthāya dakṣiṇena pāṇinā dakṣiṇamamsamanvavamṛśyānantarhitam nābhideśamabhimṛśetpimāmsau mitrāvaruṇāvityetayarccātha yathārtham// Ibid., 2.6.2-4

⁴⁵⁷ cf., jātarūpeņa vādāya kumārasya mukhe juhoti medhām te mitrāvaruņavityetayarcā sadasampatimadbhutamiti ca/ Ibid., 1.7.21 prathamagarbhāyāścaturthe māsyāpūryamāṇapakṣe purāye nakṣatregnimupasādhāya vyāhṛtiparyantam kṛtvā dhātā dadātu no rayim/ HGS., 2.1.1.2

⁴⁵⁸ cf., kumāram jātam purā'nyairālabhātsarpirmadhunī hiranyanikāṣam hiranyena prāśayet/ " pr ate dadāmi madhuno ghṛtasya vedam savitrā prasūtam maghonām āyuṣmāngupto devatābhiḥ śatam jīva śarado loke asmin" iti// Āś.GS., 1.15.1

cf., caturthe māsi niṣkrmaṇikā// sūryamudīkṣayati taccakṣuriti// PGS., 1.17.5.6 jananājjayotsne tṛtīye tṛtīyāyām prātaḥ snāpya kumāramastamite śāntāsu dikṣu pitā candramasamupatisthet prāñjalih/ KGS., 2.3.1

cf., taccakşurdevahitam purastācchukramuccarat/ paśyema śaradaḥ śatam jīvema śaradaḥ śatam śrṇuyāma śaradaḥ śatam prabravāma śaradaḥ śatamadīnāḥ syāma śaradaḥ śatam bhūyaśca śaradaḥ śatāt// VS., 36.24

directs that, in it, a *sthālīpāka* is prepared and sacrificed to the Sun. 461 With a *mantra*, the father shows the Sun to the son: udutyam jātavedasamityetayopasthāyādityābhimukham darśayet namaste astu bhagavanśataraśme tamonuda jahi me deva daurbhāgyam saubhāgyena mām samyojayasva iti/462 In the sixth month, after the childbirth, the Annaprāśana ceremony is performed. 463 This is the ceremony of feeding the child for the first time. In the Annaprāśana, at the time of feeding the child, Varuna, Aditi, etc., are worshipped with oblation wishing the protection of the child. 464 After one year or three year, the tonsure ceremony of the child is performed. 465 In this, the razor is worshipped before cutting the hair. 466 The adhering mantra of this ritual explains that the razor used for the purpose is the razor, used by the solar deities, Savitr, Dhātr and Brhaspati for cutting the hair of Varuna and Indra respectively. 467 All they are the solar divinities and connected with the Cudākaraņa ritual of an individual.

The Initiation Ceremony:

In the Upanayana or the initiation, mainly the deity Savitr is worshipped. With the initiation, the child steps into the new life of a student, where his object is to acquire

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⁴⁶¹ cf., caturthe māsi payasi sthālīpākam śrapayitvā tasya juhoti/ ādityaḥ śukra udagātpurastāddhamsaḥ śuciṣadyadedenamiti sūryasya juhoti/ Mān. GS., 1.19.2,3

⁴⁶² Mān.GS., 1.19.4

cf., sasthe māse'nnaprāśanam/ PGS., 1.19.1

⁴⁶⁴ Sān.GS., 1.27.7

cf., tṛtīye varṣe cūḍākarma/ HGS.,2.1.6.1 tṛtīye varṣe caulam/ KGS., 2.3.16

 $^{^{466}\,\,}$ cf., svadhite mainaṁ hiṁsīḥ / iti kṣureṇābhinidadhāti/ Ibid., 2.1.6.8

⁴⁶⁷ cf., yenāvapatsavitā kṣureṇa somasya rājño varuṇasya keśān tena brāhmaṇo vapatvāyuṣmānayaṁ jaradaṣṭirastu yena pūṣā bṛhaspaterindrasya cāyuṣe'vapat tena te vapāmyāyuṣe dīrghāyutvāya jīvase.../ Mān.GS., 1.21.6

more knowledge, health, strength, celibacy and etiquette. Invoking the solar deities Savitr, Pūṣan, the Aśvins, etc., the teacher takes the responsibility of the students. He recites the mantra: tatsaviturvrnīmahe, i.e. that we choose of Savitr, in devotion of the deity, filling his own palms and those of the pupil with water. 468 Then from the hollow of his hands, he makes the water flow down on the palm of the hands of the pupil. Then having poured the water over his hands, he, with his own hand takes hold of the pupil's hand together with the utterance of the mantra: devasya tvā savituh prasave'śvinorbāhubhyām pūsno hastābhyām hastam grhnāmyasau iti tasya pāninā $p\bar{a}nim$ sangustham $grhn\bar{i}y\bar{a}ta/^{469}$ The teacher takes the responsibility of the student by the impulse of the god Savitr, with the arms of the two Asvins and with the hands of Pūsan. 470 The student is asked to look at the Sun and the teacher murmurs few words in invocation of Savitr. He worships the deity for the protection of the student. 471 From that time, the teacher is regarded as the father of the brahmacārin. The teacher is called Ācārya as because he gives the knowledge of dharma to the brahmacārin: vasmāddharmānācinoti sa ācārvah//472 With a formula 'Move in the Sun's course' he makes his turn round from left to right. 473 Sūrya, along with the deities Agni and Indra, is invoked to bestow insight, offspring and splendour on the brahmacārin. 474 Bhaga.

⁴⁶⁸ Āś.GS., 1.20.4

⁴⁶⁹ Ibid.; GGS., 2.10.26

⁴⁷⁰ Āś.GS., 1.20.4

cf., ādityamīkṣayet/ deva savitareṣa te brahmacārī tam gopāya sa māmṛtetyācāryaḥ// Ibid., 1.20.6

⁴⁷² Āp.DS., 1.1.1.14

⁴⁷³ cf., utsrjyāpo devasya ta iti dakṣiṇottarābhyām hastābhyāmañjalim gṛhṇīyādācāryaḥ// sūryasyeti' pradakṣiṇamāvartayet// KGS., 2.4.13,14

Also vide, Śāń.GS., 1.3.2

⁴⁷⁴ cf., ... mayi medhām mayi prajām mayi sūryo bhrājo dadhātu yatte agne tejastenāha tejasvī bhūāsam...//Āś.GS.,1.21.4

Pūṣan, Aryaman, Mitra, etc., are also worshipped for long life, blessed offspring, strength, insight, etc., on the *brahmacārin*.⁴⁷⁵ Both the teacher and the pupil recite Sāvitrī after that.⁴⁷⁶ After one year of the studentship the teacher teaches the Savitr to the student.⁴⁷⁷ First of all, it is recited foot-wise, then hemistich-wise and last of all in full.⁴⁷⁸ The teacher advises the student to recite the *Gāyatrīmantra*, step by step, so that he becomes aware of his duties and performs them with an utter devotion so that the god may bestow intellectual strength on him and he would be self-confident. The Vedic study is opened by the *Sāvitrī*.⁴⁷⁹ With the rising of the Sun, it starts with,⁴⁸⁰ and, at the ending of the studentship the Sun-god is also worshipped.⁴⁸¹

Among different vratas, the Ādityavrata is one that the *brahmacārin* has to follow during his study in the preceptor's house. The other vratas are Godānikābda, Araṇyasaṁhitā, Jyeṣṭhasāmikā. They, who undergo the Ādityavrata wear one garment; they allow nothing to be between themselves and the Sun, except trees and

cf., athainam paridadāti/ parīmamindra brahmaņe mahe śrotrāya dadhmasi/ athainam jarimā nayejjayokśrotre adhijāgarat/ iti brāhmanam/ parīmamindra brahmane mahe rāṣṭrāya dadhmasi/ athainam...// HGS, 1.1.4.8

medhām me devaḥ savitā ādadhātu medhām me devī sarasvatī ādadhātu medhāmaśvinau devāvādhattām puşkarasrajāviti/ PGS, 2.4.8

Also vide, Sān.GS., 2.3.1

⁴⁷⁶ cf., ... ityupasthāya jānvācyopasamgrhya brūyādadhīhi bhoḥ sāvitrīm bho anubrūhīti// tasya vāsasā pāṇibhyām ca pāṇī samgrhya sāvitrīmanvāhab paccho'rdharcarśaḥ sarvām/ Āś.GS., 1.21.4,5

⁴⁷⁷ Sān.GS., 2.5.12

⁴⁷⁸ Ibid., 2.5.10-12

⁴⁷⁹ Ibid., 2.5.1

⁴⁸⁰ Ibid., 2,9,10

cf., vedartham samāpya snāyāt...uduttamamiti mekhalāmunmucya daṇḍam nidhāya vāso'nyatparidhāyādityamupatisthate// PGS., 2.6.1,15

⁴⁸² cf., tesusāyamprātarudakomasparśanamādityavratantunacarantyeke/ GGS., 3.1.30

⁴⁸³ cf., godānavrātikādityavrataupanisadajyesthasāmikāssamvatsarāh/ KGS., 2.5.17; GGS., 3.1.28

roofs of the houses: ye carantyekavāsaso bhavantyādityañjanāntardadhate'nyatra jānubhyāmaguruprayuktāh/484 vṛkṣaśaraṇābhyām nāpo'bhyavayan-tyūdardhyam Satyavrata Sāmaśramī states in the commentary of the relevant passage thus: ye tu caranti careyuh, te ekavāsasah uttarīyahīnāh bhavanti bhaveyuh tāvatkālamiti tesām prati prathamopadeśaḥ/ ca punaḥ' vṛkṣaśaraṇābhyām anyatra 'ādityam na antardadhe' vrksacchāyām grhe ca bhavatyevādityāntardhānam tato'nyatra ādityāntardhānāya chatrādikam na vyavahareyuriti dvitīyah/485 Most probably the sunbath-therapy of present day is similar, in some points of view, to this vrata; though it has no direct connection with the Vedic studies and fasts, etc. It is used as the remedy for curing some diseases, and regarded as the great sources of Vitamin D, for the entire body. Again, the students have to perform the Vaiśvadeva sacrifice, in which the oblation is made on the name of solar deity Vișnu. The other divinities Indra, Yama, Varuna, Āditya, Pūṣan, Dhātr, etc., are worshipped there. In this sacrifice, Sūrya is worshipped in his luminary form, i.e., in the form of a disc of the Sun. 486

Again, Savitṛ, Mitra, Varuṇa and Pūṣan are worshipped to protect the worshipper's house and the *brahmacārin* also during his living in the house of teacher or at the time of setting out for a journey. In the Upākarman ceremony, i.e. the ceremony by which, the annual course of study is opened, in the Utsarjana, Samāvartana, etc., also the solar divinities Savitṛ, Sūrya, Viṣṇu, etc., are worshipped for the protection and fulfilment of all the needs.

⁴⁸⁴ GGS., 3.1.31; KGS., 2.5.18; Sān.GS., 2.11

⁴⁸⁵ Satyavrata Sāmaśramī on GGS., 3.1.31

⁴⁸⁶ Śāṅ.GS, 2.14.7,8

⁴⁸⁷ Ibid., 2.18.3

⁴⁸⁸ Ibid., 4.5.12; 4.6.4; 4.9.3

After returning from preceptor's house the *snātaka* is served by *arghya* reception in his home. According to the *Pāraskaragṛhyasūtra*, *arghya* reception is due to six persons, viz., to a teacher, to an officiating priest, to the father-in-law, to the king, to a friend and to a *snātaka*. Here, the guest is worshipped giving the position of the Sun-god: *varṣmo'smi samānānamudyatāmiva sūryaḥ*/Having the seat, the guest himself declares that he is the highest one among the people, as the Sun among the thunderbolts, etc. The guest is served vividly with different mantras sacred to Mitra, Savitṛ, etc., in the *arghya* reception.

Other Rites:

It is observed that in a number of *Grhya* rites, the Sun-god is worshipped. The time of the Vedic Śrauta rituals are generally determined by the rising and setting of the Sun: prāgastamayodayābhyām prāduṣkṛṭya// astamite homaḥ//udite cānudite vā//⁴⁹³ For different activities, connected with the rituals, time is uttered mostly by saying sunset or sunrise. The time for cooking of brahmaudana for the anupravacanīya sacrifice is determined as after the sunset. The brahmaudana implies the boiled rice, with which the Brāhmaṇas are to be fed. Nārāyaṇa, on the commentary of the respective passage narrates brahmabhya odano brahmaudanaḥ/ brahmaśabdo brāhmanavācakah/ tena brāhmanabhojanam vidhāsyamānamata eva carorbhavati/496

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⁴⁸⁹ cf., sadarghyā bhavantyācārya rtvigvaivāhyo rājā priyah snātaka iti/ PGS., 1.3.1

⁴⁹⁰ Ibid., 1.3.8

⁴⁹¹ cf., imam tamabhitiṣṭhāmi yo mā kaścābhidāsatītyenamabhupaviśati// Ibid.

⁴⁹² cf., mitrasya tveti madhuparkam pratīkṣate// devasya tveti pratigrhnāti// Ibid., 1.3.16,17

⁴⁹³ KGS., 1.5.7-9

⁴⁹⁴ cf., astamite camasadarvyāvādāya śūrpañcātipraṇītasyārdhaṁ vrajati// GGS., 3.7.11

⁴⁹⁵ Āś.GS., 1.22.10

⁴⁹⁶ Nārāyana on Ibid.

Again, the significance of the term anupravacanīya becomes clear with the commentary of Rudraskanda on *Khadiragṛhysūtra*: pravacanāt paścāt kriyata ityanupravacanīyahomaļ/⁴⁹⁷

A ritual for strewing the Kuśa round the fire altar is valid for all the ceremonies in which oblations are made towards the solar divinities. ⁴⁹⁸ It is believed that these grasses belong to Viṣṇu. ⁴⁹⁹ Both, the deity Viṣṇu and grasses cover a large area. Most probably this is the reason for linking the grasses to Viṣṇu. Again, at the time of dipping the Kuśas (two strainers) into the ājyas, Savitṛ is uttered to purify it with the rays of the Sun: savituṣṭvā prasava utpunāmyacchidreṇa pavitreṇa vasoḥ sūryasya raśmibhiḥ/⁵⁰⁰ The sunrays are regarded as the uninjured purifier. The water in the śruva spoon is also purified by the impulse of Savitṛ. ⁵⁰¹ The sacrificer holding the Kuśa blades with the left hand and śruva in the right, mentions his hands as the hands of Viṣṇu and offers ājya oblations to Agni, Soma, Pūṣan, etc., in different directions. ⁵⁰²

Being a householder, the sacrificer worships the sacred domestic fire regularly and performs the five great sacrifices. He worships the fire in the morning as well as in the evening with the oblation of barley or rice, sesamum, etc.⁵⁰³ The performer sacrifices in the evening worshipping the Agni and in the morning worshipping the

⁴⁹⁷ Rudraskanda on KGS., 2.5.34

⁴⁹⁸cf.,sampūyotpunātyudagagrābhyāmpavitrābhyāmaṅguṣṭhābhyāñcopakaniṣṭhikābhyāñcāṅgulibhyāmab hisaṁgṛhya prākśastrirutpunāti devastvāsavitotpunātvacchidreṇapavitreṇa vasoḥ sūryyasya raśmibhiriti sakṛdyajuṣāṁ dvistūṣnīm/ GGS., 1.7.25

⁴⁹⁹ Śāṅ.GS., 1.8.16

⁵⁰⁰ Āś.GS., 1.3.3

Also vide, Śāń.GS., 1.8.21, , GGS, 1.7.25

⁵⁰¹ Śāṅ.GS., 1.8.24

⁵⁰² Ibid., 1.9.3-5

⁵⁰³ Āp.GS., 3.7.19; Āś.GS., 1.9.7

Sun: agnaye svāhā iti sāyam juhuyāt sūryāya svāhā iti prātastūṣṇīm dvitīye ubhayatra/504 Different Gṛḥyasūtras contain the chapters on the Pañcamahāyajñas. According to the Āśvalāyanagṛḥyasūtra, if the performer offers oblations over the fire, that is called Devayajña, i.e. the sacrifice to the gods; if he makes bali offerings that is the sacrifice to the Beings; if he makes piṇḍa offerings to the fathers, that is the sacrifice to the Pitṛs; if he studies the Vedic texts, that is the sacrifice to Brahman; if he gives to men, that is the sacrifice to men: tadyadagnau juhoti sa devayajño yadbalim karoti sa bhūtayajño yatpitṛbhyo dadāti sa pitṛyajño yatsvādhyāyamadhīyate sa brahmayajño yanmanuṣyebhyo dadāti sa manuṣyayajña iti/505 In Devayajña, with the word svāhā, he offers the offerings to the divinities Indra, Yama, Varuṇa, etc. 506

Seasonal Ceremonies:

Again, different periodical sacrifices are performed by the householder. The Śravaṇā ceremony is performed on the full moon day of Śrāvaṇa. Here Sūrya is worshipped as serpent. Sof As Śrāvaṇa is rainy season, in this, oblation is mainly made to Viṣṇu and other deities like Varuṇa, etc. At Āgrahāyanī, the full moon day of Mārgaśīrṣa, Pratyāvarohaṇa ceremony is celebrated. Here Parjanya is worshipped.

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⁵⁰⁴ Āś. GS., 1.9.8

⁵⁰⁵ Āś.GS., 3.1.3

⁵⁰⁶ Āś.GS., 1.2.1-9; Śāṅ.GS., 1.2.5

⁵⁰⁷ cf., āgneyapāndupārthivānām sarpānāmadhipate'vanenikşva śvetavāyavāntarikṣānām sarpānāmadhipate'vanenikṣvābhibhūh sauryadivyānām sarpānāmadhipatevanenikṣveti// PGS., 2.14.12

cf., divyānām sarpāṇāmadhipatirīkṣatām, divyāḥ sarpā īkṣantām, ādarśenekṣayati/ Śāṅ.GS., 4.15.12 apaśvetapadājahi pūrveṇa cāpareṇa ca/ sapta ca vāruṇīrimāḥ prajāḥ sarvāśca rājabāndhavaiḥ svāhā/...sthālīpākasya juhoti viṣṇave śravaṇāya śrāvaṇyai paurṇamāsyai varṣābhyaśceti// PGS., 2.14.4-6

⁵⁰⁹ cf. upodutisthanti udāyusā svāyusotparjanyasya vṛṣṭyā pṛthivyāḥ saptadhāmabhiriti// Ibid., 3.2.14

Savitṛ is also worshipped in the ritual along with Mitra and others. On the full moon day of Prauṣṭhapāda, the sacrifice is made to Indra, and the *ajya* oblations are made to Indra, Indrāgnī, etc. On the full moon day of Āśvayuga, the offerings of Pṛṣātakas, i.e., a mixture of curds and butter, are made towards Indra, Indranī, the two Aśvins, the full moon of Āśvayuga, and to the autumn: āśvayujyāṁ pṛṣātakāḥ//pāyasamaindraṁ śrapayitvā dadhimadhughṛtamiśraṁ juhotīndrāyendrāṇyā aśvibhyāmāśvayujyai paurṇamāsyai śarade ceti// The cows are besprinkled at the time of returning home by reciting the Sāmavedic mantra: ā no mitrā varunā, etc. 14

A rite is performed in an auspicious day or under the Nakṣatra Jyeṣṭhā before ploughing. This rite is performed in adoration to Indra as Indra is the lord of plough. To Indra, to Parjanya, to two Aśvins, etc., the worshipper offers oblations. After the ploughing, $\bar{A}jya$ oblations are offered to Indra and Sītā, the wife of Indra, performing the Sītāyajña. By these the worshipper wishes the full growth of his crops.

The Śunāsīrīya is an agricultural rite, related to ploughing. It is performed at any time after the Śākamedha, in a period of four months. The special offering at Śunāsīrīya consists of a cake on twelve potsherds for Śunāsīrau or for Indra Śunāsīra,

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⁵¹⁰ Śāṅ.GS., 4.18.3

⁵¹¹ cf., prauṣṭhapadyāmindrayajñaḥ// pāyasamaindram śrapayitvā'pūpāmścāpūpaiḥ stīrtvā"jyabhāgāviṣṭvā"jyāhutīrjuhotīndrāyendrāṇyā ajāyaikapade'hirbudhnyāya prauṣṭhapadābhyaśceti// PGS., 2.15.1,2

⁵¹² Sān.GS., 4.16.3

⁵¹³ PGS., 2.16.1,2

⁵¹⁴ SV., 1.220; KGS., 3.3.4

⁵¹⁵ cf., atha yavānāmetamutyam madhunā samyutam/ yavartha sarasvatyā adhivanāya cakṛṣuḥ indra āsītsīrapatih śatakratuh kīnāśā āsanmarutahā sudānava iti// PGS., 3.1.6

cf., puṇyāhe lāṅgalayojanaṁ jyeṣṭhā vendradaivatyam// indraṁ parjanyamaśvinau maruta udalākāśyapaṁ svātikārīṁsītāmanumatiṁ ca dadhnā taṇḍulairgandhairakṣatairiṣṭvā'naḍuho madhughṛte prāśayet// sīrāyuñjantīti yojayet// Ibid., 2.13.1-3

fresh milk or barley gruel for Vāyu, and a cake of one potsherd for Sūrya, in addition to the offerings of Cāturmāsya.⁵¹⁷

At the time of building the house on the ground, some rituals are performed. At the time of establishing the pillar, pouring water into it, the sacrificer utters the name of Varuṇa and Mitra. Getting the consent of Brāhmaṇa, he enters into the house offering oblations to Indra, Bṛhaspati, etc. He touches the wall and the post with their eastern, southern, western and northern juncture, and going out of the house worships the quarter of the horizon, with the mantra, May Ketā and Suketā protect me from the east. Here, Agni and Sūrya are called as Ketā and Suketā, respectively. At the time of consecration of a garden, establishing the sacred fire, a mess of cooked food is prepared and sacrifices are performed towards Viṣṇu, Indra, etc., with the formulas-To Viṣṇu svāhā! To Indra and Agni svāhā! To Viṣvakarmā svāhā! etc.

There are some other ceremonies, related to the solar divinities, which are performed for the attainment of special wishes. One, who is desirous of the enjoyment of riches is advised to worship Sūrya, the desirous of rich in wealth is advised to look at

⁵¹⁷ Vide, Ram Gopal, *India of Vedic Kalpasūtras*, p.541

⁵¹⁸ cf., athāsminnapa āsecayet/ aitu rājā varuņo revatīvirasminsthāne tiṣṭhatu modamānaḥ/ irāṁ vahantau ghṛtamokṣamāṇā mitreṇa sākaṁ saha saṅviśantviti// Āś.GS., 2.9.5
śālāṁ kārayiṣyannudagayana āpūryamāṇapakṣe rohiṇyāṁ triṣu cottareṣvagnimupasamādhāya vyāhṛtiparyantaṁ kṛtvā juhoti/ imaṁ me varuṇa/ tattvā yāmi/... HGS., 1.8.27.1

⁵¹⁹ cf., sthālīpākasya juhoti/ agnimindram bṛhaspatim viśvāndevānupahvaye sarasvatīm ca vājīm ca vāstu me datta vājinaḥ svāhā/... PGS., 3.4.8

⁵²⁰ Ibid., 3,4,10-13

⁵²¹ cf., nişkamya diśa upatiṣṭhate/ ketā ca mā suketā ca purastādgopāyetāmityagnirvai ketādityaḥ suketā tau prapadye tābhyām namo'stu tau mā purastādgopāyetāmiti// Ibid., 3.4.14

⁵²² Śān.GS., 5.3.3

him. 523 Again, the desirous of stock of horses and elephants is advised to sacrifice fried grain to the Sun. 524 Sun-god is worshipped for wealth and safety too. 525 In the context of expiation also, Sūrya in the form of Savitr is worshipped uttering the syllable Om, the Mahāvyāhrtis, etc.⁵²⁶

The Procedure of Worshipping the Sun-god:

Generally, the Vedic worship consists of the recitation of the hymns and the offerings through the sacrificial institution, and accordingly the Sun-god is also worshipped with these methods.

The hymns recited for the deities are either the prayer, or the praise. The whole Vedic texts consist of the praise and the prayers towards different divinities. The solar divinities are somewhere worshipped with the prayer, 527 and somewhere, with the praise.⁵²⁸ Different hymns devoted to the Sun-god are found in the Samhitās, Brāhmanas, Upanisads, in the Śrautasūtras and the Grhyasūtras. There are some mantras, which are not to be recited, but to be murmured. The murmuring of the mantras is called japa. The utsarga ceremony contains the reference of murmuring in favour of the Sun-god—sauryāṇi japitvā. 529 Here and there in the Gṛḥyasūtras, the references of *japa* in connection with the Sun-god are scattered.

⁵²³ cf., prathamayā"dityamupatişthedbhogakāmo'rthapatau prekṣamāṇe//KGS., 4.1.13

⁵²⁴ cf., trtīyayā candramasi tilatandulān ksudrapasusvastyayanakāmah/ Ibid., 4.1.15,16 trtīyayā candramasi tilatandulān ksudrapasusvastyayana kāmah/ GGS., 4.5.32

⁵²⁵ cf., caturthyā"dityamupasthāya gurumarthamabhyttisthet// KGS., 4.1.16 caturthyādityamupasthāyārthān prapadyeta svastyarthavānāgacchati/ GGS., 4.5.33

⁵²⁶ Śāṅ.GS., 6.3.12; 7.68.9

⁵²⁷ RV. 1.50.11,12,13; 7.68;7.70

⁵²⁸ Ibid., 1,115

⁵²⁹ Śāṅ.GS., 6,6,4

The procedure of the Sun-worship becomes clear by the study of the *Sandhyopāsanā*, or *Sandhyā* or *Sandhyāvandanā* and its constituents viz. *japa*, ⁵³⁰ i.e. the muttering of the Gāyatrī, the *arghya*, ⁵³¹ the *ācamana*, ⁵³² i.e cleansing the mouth, the *prāṇāyama*, ⁵³³ the inhalation and exhalation of the air, the *mārjana*, ⁵³⁴ the *aghamarṣana*, ⁵³⁵ and the *upasthāna*. ⁵³⁶ The student performs *Sandhyopāsanā* twice in a day; once in the morning and other in the evening. The Gṛḥyasūtras contains the references of *japa* while the Dharmasūtras contain the references of *ācamana*, *prāṇāyāma* etc. The *Sandhyā* is regarded as the ideal worship for every twice-born householder and the whole procedure of *Sandhyā* is included in the general worship of the deity.

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cf., ojo'sīti japitvā kaste yunaktīti yojayitvom bhūrbhuvah svastatsaviturityaṣṭau kṛtvah prayunkta ityāmnātāḥ kāmā ādevo yātīti triṣṭubhañ rājanyasya yuñjata iti jagatiñ vaiśasya/ Mān.GS., 1.2.3 āpaḥ punantu pṛthivīm pṛthivī pūtā punātu mām/ punantu brahmaṇaspatirbrahmapūtā punātu mām/ yaducchiṣṭamabhojyam yadvā duścaritam mama/ sarvam punantu māmāpo'satām ca pratigraham svāheti// Bau.DS.,2.5.8.11

⁵³¹ cf., śrotriyasya tu pādyamarghyamannaviśeṣāṁśca prakarayet// GDS., 5.32

⁵³² cf., āsīnastrirācāmeddhṛdayaṅgamābhiradbhiḥ/ Āp.DS.,1.5.16
śucau deśa āsīno dakṣiṇaṁ bāhuṁ jānvantarā kṛtvā yajñopavītyāmaṇibandhanātpāṇī prakṣālya
vāgyato hṛdayaspṛśastriścaturvā'pa ācāmet// dviḥ parimṛjyate// pādau cābhyukṣet// khāni
copaspṛśecchīrṣaṇyāni// mūrdhani ca dadyāt/ suptvā bhuktvā kṣutvā ca punaḥ// GDS., 1.35-40

⁵³³ cf., prāṇāyāmāstrayaḥ pañcadaśamātrāḥ/ GDS.,1.55
savyāhṛtikāṁ sapraṇavāṁ gāyatrīṁ śirasā saha/ triḥ paṭhedāyataprāṇaḥ prāṇāyāmassa ucyate// savyāhṛtikāssapraṇavāḥ prāṇāyāmāstu ṣoḍaśa/ api bhrūṇahanaṁ māsātpunantyaharahardhṛtāḥ// Bau.DS.,4.1.30

⁵³⁴ Ibid., 2.4.2

cf., athātaḥ pavitrātipavitrasyāghamarṣaṇasya kalpam vyākhyāsyāmaḥ/ tīrtham gatvā snātaḥ śucivāsā udakānte sthaṇḍilamuddhṛtyāsakṛlktinnena vāsasā sakṛtpūrṇena pāṇinā"dityābhimukho'ghamarṣaṇam svādyāyamdhīyita/ prātaśśatam madhyāhne śatamaparāhṇe śatamaparimitam vā/ uditeṣu nakṣatreṣu prasṛtapāvakam prāśnīyāt/ jñānakṛtebhyo'jñānakṛtebhyaścopapātakebhyaḥ saptarātrātpramucyate/...
Ibid., 3.5.1-7

⁵³⁶ cf., vārunībhyām rātrimupatisthata imam me varuna tattvā yāmīti dvābhyām//Ibid., 2.4.11

Again, the Sun-god is worshipped with offerings. Offerings are either the oblations or the libations. Oblations are the clarified butter that are poured on fire and the libations are the Soma juice that is sprinkled over the fire or the ground or sometimes on the sacred grass strewed on the floor. The Vedic texts contain the references of the oblation of the clarified butter towards the solar divinities, viz. Mitra, Viṣṇu, to the Aśvins, Ādityas, etc.⁵³⁷ Again, there are references of the libation to the Aśvins on the Kuśa grass, Mitra over the fire, ⁵³⁹ etc. the *Taittirīyasaṁhitā* contains the references of the oblations and the libations towards the Āditya, ⁵⁴⁰ Sūrya, ⁵⁴¹ Pūṣan, ⁵⁴² Savitṛ and the Aśvins. ⁵⁴³

The two methods of salutation and the meditation are also ordained for the deities Sūrya⁵⁴⁴ and Savitṛ⁵⁴⁵. As the horses of the Sun-god are regarded to be the object

 $^{^{537}}$ cf., pīpāya dhenuraditir
ṛtāya janāya mitrāvaruņā havirde/ RV.,1.153.3

bhavā mitro na śevyo ghṛtāsutirvibhūtadyumna evayā u saprathāḥ/ adhā te viṣṇo viduṣā cidarghyaḥ stomo yajñaśca rādhyo haviṣmatā// Ibid., 1.156,1

Also vide, Ibid., 2.27.1; 3.59.1; 6.51.1; 10.108.1; TS. 2.6.8

⁵³⁸ cf., dasrā yuvākavaḥ sutā nāsatyā vṛktavarhiṣaḥ/ ā yātaṁ rudravartanī//RV., 1.3.3 trirno aśvinā yajatā divedive pari tridhātu pṛthivīmaśāyatam/ tisro nāsatyā rathyā parāvata ātmeva vātaḥ svasarāṇi gacchatam//Ibid., 1.34.7

Also vide, Ibid., 1.47.4; 1.116.1; 1.117.1

cf., pra sa mitra marto astu prayasvānyasta āditya śikṣati vratena/ na hanyate na jīyate tvoto nainamamho aśnotyantito na dūrāt// Ibid., 3.59.2

⁵⁴⁰ TS.,1.8.7

⁵⁴¹ Ibid., 1.8.2

⁵⁴² Ibid., 1.8.8

⁵⁴³ Ibid., 1.8.8

⁵⁴⁴ cf., patangamaktamasurasya māyayā hṛdā paśyanti manasā vipaścitaḥ/ samudre antaḥ kavayo vi cakṣate marīcīnām padamicchanti vedhasaḥ// RV., 10.177.1

cf., na yasyendro varuno na mitro vratamaryamā na minanti rudraḥ/ nārātayastamidam svasti huve devam savitāram namobhiḥ//bhagam dhiyam vājayantaḥ puramdhim narāśamso grāspatirno avyāḥ/ āye vāmasya samgathe rayīṇām priyā devasya savituḥ syāma// Ibid., 2.38.9,10
Also vide, Ibid., 3.62.10; 4.1.11;5.82.8

of reverence, they are saluted—bhadrā aśvā haritaḥ sūryasya citrā etagvā anumādyāsah/ namasyanto diva ā prsthamasthuh pari dyāvāprthivī yanti sadyah/546 The Upanisadic literature contains the references of the meditation of the Sun. It is advised in the *Chāndogyopanisad* that, one should meditate on the sevenfold *sāman* in the Sun. The Sun-god is the $s\bar{a}ma$, as because, he is always the same. ⁵⁴⁷

The Aitareyabrāhmaņa directs that the recitation of the hymns should be in accordance with the movement of the Sun.⁵⁴⁸ According to the types of the heat, the tone of the utterance of the mantras get changed, i.e. gentle tone in the morning due to the gentle heat, stronger tone in the midday due to the stronger heat. Different times are prescribed in different texts, for the worship of the Sun-god. In some contexts two times of worship is mentioned for the deity, ⁵⁴⁹ i.e. the morning and the evening, somewhere as three, 550 i.e. the morning, the noon and the evening and somewhere as seven connected with the seven different times of the day, i.e. pre-sunrise, post rise, the cow gathering, the midday, the past mid day, past afternoon and the post sun set, thinking the god as the symbol of Brahman.⁵⁵¹

Thus, the importance of the deity Sūrya is delineated in the Vedic texts. Sūrya is indeed the deified form of the atmospheric Sun. Among the salient traits of the deity,

⁵⁴⁶ Ibid.,1.115.3

⁵⁴⁷ cf., atha ādityam saptavidham sāmopāsītā, sarvadā samastena sāma, mām pratīti sarveņa samastena sāma/ Chā. U., 2.9.1

brhadratho vai nāma rājā... vairāgyam upeto'ranyam nirjagāma/ sa tatra paramam tapa āsthāyādityam udīkṣamāṇa ūrdhvabāhustiṣṭhati.../ Maitrī U., 1.2

⁵⁴⁸ AB..3.44

⁵⁴⁹ KB., 2.2:2.8

⁵⁵⁰ cf., ... udyantamādityamupatiṣṭhate... etayaivāvṛtā madhye santamudbhargo'si pāpmānām ma udvrhdhīti, etavaivāvrtāstam vantam samvargo'si pāpmānam me samvrhdhīti.../ KU., 2.7

⁵⁵¹ Chā.U., 2.9.8

the most important is that, being the creator of the day and night, he provides heat and light towards the whole universe, and stands as the ultimate cause of the food and nutrition. Besides the Sun, the traits of the other solar deities are also eulogised in the Vedas. Due to their importance, they are worshipped with great devotion in the Vedic pantheon.

CHAPTER-III

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PURĀŅIC RELIGION AND ITS LINK WITH THE VEDIC TRADITION

Purāņic Literature:

The Purāṇic literature occupies a specific place in the field of Indian literature. Purāṇas represent a class of religious literature, and stands as an abundant source for the Indian religion, rightly called as Hinduism.¹ In the *Yājñavalkyasmṛti*, they are mentioned as one of the fourteen branches of knowledge, i.e. vidyāsthānas, and sources of *dharma*. ² The Purāṇas are mythological in character having didactic contents, in which are collected ancient tradition of the creation, the deeds of the gods, heroes, saints and ancient ancestors of the human race, the beginning of the famous royal families, etc.³

The term *purāṇa* means ancient one.⁴ In the *Rgvedasamhitā*, in the sense of ancient, the term is used. ⁵ The deity Soma is called *purāṇa* in the relevant verse. According to the *Vācaspatyam*, two meanings, *purābhavam* and *purā nīyate* are conveyed by the term, ⁶ i.e. those, who remained in the past and dealt with the past are

Vide, Winternitz, M., A History of Indian Literature, Vol. I, p.517

cf., purāṇanyāyamīmāṁsādharmaśāstrāṅgamiśritāḥ/vedāḥ sthānāni vidyānāṁ dharmasya ca caturdaśa// YS., 1.3

³ Vide, Winternitz, M., Op. cit., Vol. I, p.520

cf., purā purvasmin kāle bhava/ Śabda., Vol. IV, p.190 purānyā purā kṛtayā.../ Sāyaṇācārya on RV., 9.99.4

⁵ cf., ... purāṇyā purā kṛtayā/ Ibid., 9.99.4

⁶ Vāca., Vol. V, p. 4369

called as Purāṇas. Yāskācārya in his *Nirukta* opines, *purāṇam kasmāt?purā navam bhavatīti*/⁷ Purāṇas are the new creation though old indeed. They are the old narratives or ancient legends having didactic contents. Different Purāṇas also have given the meaning of the term. According to the *Matsyapurāṇa*, *Purāṇa* means *purātanakalpa*,⁸ as it deals with the history of the ancient period. The *Vāyupurāṇa* states, *yasmāt purā hyanatīdam purāṇam tena tat smṛtam*,⁹ i.e. as it lived in the past or breathed in the ancient times, it is called *purāṇa*. According to the *Padmapurāṇa*, *purāṇa* means the follower of the tradition: *purāparamparāmvakti purāṇam tena vai smṛtam*/¹⁰

The Purāṇas along with the Itihāsas are regarded as the fifth *Veda* due to their close connection with the Vedic texts. ¹¹ In the *Chāndogyopaniṣad*, they are placed in the same relationship to the *Atharvaveda*, where the northern rays of the Sun-god, i.e. the hymns of the *Atharvaveda* are mentioned as the northern honey-cells, and Itihāsas and Purāṇas are mentioned as the flowers. ¹² In the *Śatapathabrāhmaṇa*, in the context of *pāriplava*, among other matters the Hotṛ priest is directed to narrate some Purāṇas, as they are the Vedas. ¹³ In the *Śāṅkhyāyanaśrautasūtra* ¹⁴ and the

⁷ Nir., 3.19

⁸ Mat.P., 53.72.

⁹ Vā.P., 1.203

¹⁰ Padma P., 1.2.54

cf., ṛgvedaṁ bhagavo'dhyemi yajurvedaṁ sāmavedamātharvaṇaṁ caturthamitihāsapurāṇaṁ pañcamaṁ vedānāṁ vedaṁ.../ Chā.U., 7.1.2

rgvedo yajurvedaḥ sāmaveda ātharvaṇścaturtha itihāsapurāṇaḥ pañcamo vedānāṁ vedaḥ/ Ibid., 7.1.4

cf., atha ye'syodañco raśmayastā evāsyodīcyo madhunādyo'tharvāṅgirasa eva madhukṛtaḥ itihāsapurānaṁ puṣpam tā amrtā'pah/ Ibid., 3.4.1

cf., athāṣṭame'han/... matsyāśca matsyahanaścopasametā bhavanti/ tānupadiśatītihāso vedaḥ soyamiti kañciditihāsamācakṣīta/ atha navame'han/... tānupadiśati purāṇam vedaḥ soyamiti kiñcitpurāṇamācakṣīta/ ŚB., 13.4.3.12-13

¹⁴ Śāṅ. ŚS,16.2.27

 \bar{A} śval \bar{a} yanaśrautas \bar{u} tra 15 also, Pur \bar{a} nas are mentioned as the Vedas. The Pur \bar{a} nas are the very soul of the Vedas. They possess a general approach and they are easier than that of the Vedas. They are the ultimate source of the Vedic tradition, for the people who are unable to have it.

The Purāṇas have sacred origin. They are mentioned as originated from the residue of the sacrifice along with the Rcs, the Sāmans, the metres and the Yajus mantras. In the Bṛhadāraṇyaka, they are mentioned as born from the breath of the Mahad Bhūta: ...mahato bhūtasya niśvāsitam etayad ṛgvedo yajurvedaḥ sāmavedo'tharvāṅgirasa itihāsaḥ purāṇam... / Different Purāṇas, such as the Matsyapurāṇa, the Vāyupurāṇa, the Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa, the Liṅgapurāṇa, the Nāradīyapurāṇa, the Padmapurāṇa, etc., refer to that there was only one Purāṇa in origin, that taught of by Brahmā, and from that the other Purāṇas were shaped out on the later date.

Eighteen Purāṇas have been enumerated, which were handed down traditionally.²⁴ The Purāṇic literature consists of eighteen Mahāpurāṇas and more than a hundred Upapurāṇas, along with a large number of treatises belonging to one or other of these works. The list of the eighteen Mahāpurāṇas found almost in all the Purāṇas are, *Brāhma*, *Pādma*, *Vaiṣṇava*, Śaiva or *Vāyavīya*, *Bhāgavata*, *Nāradīya*, *Mārkaṇḍeya*,

¹⁵ Āś. ŚS., 10.7.1

cf., rcaḥ sāmāni chandāmsi purāṇam yajuṣā saha/ ucchiṣṭāj jajñire.../ AV., 11.7.24

¹⁷ Bṛ. Ā., 2.4.10

¹⁸ Mat. P., 53.3-11

¹⁹ Vā. P., 1.60-61

²⁰ Brahmāṇḍa P., 1.1.40-41

²¹ Linga.P.,1.2.2

²² Nā.P.,1.92.22-26

²³ Padma P., 5.1.45-52

²⁴ Mat.P., 53.11; Mār.P., 134.7-11; Viş.P., 3.6.21-23 and so on.

Āgneya, Bhavisya, Brahmavaivarta, Lainga, Vārāha, Skānda, Vāmana, Kaurma, Mātsya, Gāruḍa and Brahmāṇḍa. 25 The Matsya, the Agni and the Nāradīyapurāṇa mention the Vāyupurāna among the eighteen Purānas in their list, while the Visnu, the Mārkaṇḍeya, the Kūrma, the Padma, the Linga, the Bhāgavata and the Brahmavaivartapurāna mention the Śaivapurāna, substituting the Vāyupurāna.²⁶ In his commentary on the Mitāksarā on the Yājñavalkyasmrti, Bālambhatta has mentioned that the Vāyavīyapurāna is also called the Śaivapurāna. 27 Al-beruni, in his work on India that was composed in 1030 A.D., cites the common names of the Purāṇas, those found in the other lists of the Mahāpurāṇas. Besides this, he has given another list of the Puranas that he had come to know from some other sources, which contains the names of some Upapurāṇas, along with the Mahāpurāṇas. The list contains the names of Ādi, Matsya, Kūrma, Varāha, Narasimha, Vāmana, Vāyu, Nanda, Skanda, Āditya, Soma, Sāmba, Brahmānda, Mārkandeya, Tārkşya, i.e. Garuda, Visnu, Brahma and Bhavisyapurāṇa.²⁸ Here in this list, the names of some Mahāpurāṇas are omitted and some Upapurāṇas are included. The Devībhāgavata contains a verse containing the first letter of all the eighteen Mahāpurāṇas, which goes as madvayam bhadvayam caiva batrayam vacatustayam / anāpalingakūskāni purānāni prthak prthak/²⁹ The enumeration of the ślokas of the Mahāpurāṇas shows that almost a total of four lakh of verses are found in the Mahāpurānas.³⁰

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²⁵ Bhā.P., 12.7.23,24, Viṣ.P., 3.6.19-24 and so on.

²⁶ Agni P., 272.4,5, Mat.P.,53.18,19; Mār.P., 134.8; Vis.P., 3.6.19 and so on

²⁷ YS..1.3

²⁸ Vide, Kane, P.V., *History of Dharmaśāstra*, Vol. V, Part-II, p. 831

²⁹ Devī Bhā.P., 1.3.2

³⁰ Vide, Kane, P.V., Op. cit., Vol. V, Part-II, pp. 831-832

According to the *Matsyapurāṇa*, the Upapurāṇas are the sub-sections, i.e. upabhedas of the eighteen principal Purāṇas.³¹ They are different from the eighteen Mahāpurāṇas; but closely connected to them and known as originated from them. The *Kūrmapurāṇa* mentions them as the summaries or abridgements of the eighteen Mahāpurāṇas, those come out from the sages, after listening to the eighteen Mahāpurāṇas from Vyāsa, who is regarded as the propounder of it: *anyānyupapurāṇāni munibhih kathitāni tu/ astādaśapurānāni śrutvā saṃksepato dvijāh//³²*

It is very difficult to draw a line in between the two classes of the Mahāpurāṇas and the Upapurāṇas, due to their close connectivity. In the *Amarakośa*, the term *purāṇa* is distinguished as *purāṇam pañcalakṣaṇam*, i.e., 'What has five signs or characteristics,' but the term *upapurāṇa* does not occur in it. Again, the list of the eighteen Mahāpurāṇas, that is found in the different Mahāpurāṇas prove the earlier origin of the *Mahāpurāṇa* class; but no list of Upapurāṇas is introduced in the major Purāṇas. Besides this, in a large number of cases the Upapurāṇas themselves furnish them as the *Purāṇa*, not the *Upapurāṇa*; even, sometimes, claim to be superior to the major Purāṇas.

Different Purāṇas speak of *Purāṇa* as *pañcalakṣaṇa*: sargaśca pratisargaśca vaṁśo manvantarāṇi ca/ vaṁśānucaritaṁ caiva purāṇaṁ pañcalakṣaṇam//³⁵ The pañcalakṣaṇas of the Purāṇas are sarga, "creation," pratisarga, "re-creation," vaṁśa, "genealogies of gods, kings and sages," manvantaraṇi, "cosmic cycle or the Manuperiods of time" and vaṁśānucarita, "the history of the royal dynasties and of the

31 cf., upabhedān pravakṣyāmi loke ye sampratiṣṭhitāḥ/ Mat.P., 53.58

³² Kū.P., 1.1.16

³³ AK.,1.6.5

Vide, Hazra, R.C., Studies in the Upapurāṇas, Vol. I, p. 16

³⁵ Kū.P.,1.1.12; Mār.P., 134.13,14; Varā.P., 2.4; Vā.P., 4.10,11 and so on

families of sages," i.e. the early and later dynasties, whose origin is traced back to the Sun (solar dynasty) and the moon (lunar dynasty). The same definition with little variation occurs in the *Matsyapurāna* and some others. ³⁶ But, besides these five, the Purānas handed down to us contain much more characteristics. The *Bhāgavatapurāna*³⁷ mentions ten topics to be discussed in the Purāṇas, viz. sarga, visarga, i.e. dissolution, creation after destruction, vrtti, i.e. modes of subsistence that occur naturally or prescribed by śāstra for all men, raksā, i.e. protection by the avatāras, destroying those, who hate the Vedas, antarāni, i.e. manvantaras, vamśa, vamśānucarita, samsthā, i.e. four kinds of *laya*, *hetu*, i.e. the cause of creation, *apāśraya*, i.e. the refuse of individual souls, i.e. Brahma. The Brahmavaivartapurāna makes a significant remark in this regard that the Upapurāṇas possess five characteristics whereas the Mahāpurāṇas possess the ten.³⁸ It mentions the ten characteristics thus: srsti, visrsti, sthiti, pālana, karmavāsanā, manuvārtā, pralaya varņana, moksa nirūpaņa, harikīrtana and devakīrtana. But, the observation on the extant Upapurānas show that very few of the works belonging to the Purāṇic literature, only follow the norms ordained for them. Besides the five-fold characteristics, the Upapurānas deal with the local cults and fulfils the need of different sects than the Mahāpurānas.³⁹

cf., pañcāṅgāni purāṇeṣu ākhyānakamiti smṛtam/ sargaśca pratisargaśca vaṁśo manvantarāṇi ca/ vaṁcānucaritaṁ caiva purāṇaṁ pañcalakṣaṇam// Mat.P., 53.65 sargasya pratisargasya vaṁśamanvantarāṇi ca/ sarveṣveteṣu kathyante vaṁśānucaritaṁ ca yat//

Viș.P., 3.6.24

³⁷ cf., sargo'syātha visargaśca vṛtti-rakṣāntarāṇi ca/ vaṁśo vaṁśānucaritaṁ saṅsthā heturapāśrayaḥ// daśabhirlakṣaṇairyuktaṁ purāṇaṁ tadvido viduḥ/ kecitpañcavidhaṁ brhman mahad-alpa vyavasthayā// Bhā.P.,12.7.9,10

³⁸ Br.Vai.P., 4.131.6-10

³⁹ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op cit., Vol. I, p. 25

The Purānas give the purānalaksana with the verse ākhyānaiścopākhyānairgāthābhih kalpaśuddhibhih/ purāṇasamhitām cakre purānārthaviśāradāh//⁴⁰ According to it, Vyāsa, the compiler, to accomplish the purpose of the Purānas compiled a *Purāna Samhitā*, consisting of ākhyāna, upākhyāna, gāthā and kalpaśuddhi. These four are regarded as the four elements of the Purāṇas that constitute the body of it. $\bar{A}khy\bar{a}na$ signifies the Purānic stories. The historical and legendary tradition of the Purānas is maintained by it. It is mentioned in the Viṣṇupurāna that ākhyāna, i.e. the religious manuals, along with the Vedāngas, institutes of Manu and other lawgivers, traditional scriptures, poem, etc., form the body of the mighty Visnu, assuming the form of the sound: vedāngāni samastāni manvādigaditāni ca/ śāstrāṇyaśeṣāṇyā-khyānānyunuvākāśca ye kvacit/ kāvyālāpāśca ye kecit gītakānyakhilāni ca/ śabdamūrttidharasyaitad vapurvisnomahātmanah//^{A1} In the Purānas, the *ākhyāna* of Kuvalayāśva, ⁴² Prahlāda, ⁴³ etc., are found. The upākhyānas maintain close connectivity with the ākhyānas. Sir Monier Monier-Williams gives the meaning of the term as a subordinate tale story. 44 Gāthās are the metrical composition found in the Purāṇas. The ancient popular songs are called as $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$. They are dedicated to some particular divinities. For example, in the Viṣṇupurāṇa, it is stated that the divine Rsis utter the greatness of the Gayātīrtha by the mouth of Pitrs. The Pitrs, desiring to participate in the śrāddha at Gayā mentions the Pitrtīrtha of Gayā as best of all the holy places, and Pitāmaha, the god of gods remaining there bestows welfare to all: pitrtīrtham gayā nāma sarvatīrthavaram śubham/ yatrā"ste devadevešah

⁴⁰ Vā.P., 60.21; Vis. P., 3.6.15

⁴¹ Vis.P., 1.22.83,84

⁴² Mār.P., 18

⁴³ Mat.P., 47

⁴⁴ Vide, Monier-Williams, M.(ed.), *The Sanskrit English Dictionary*, under *upākhyāna*, p. 212

bhāgamabhīpsubhih//⁴⁵ pitāmahah// tatraisā pitrbhirgītā gāthā Kalpaśuddhi is the last element found in the Purāṇic texts. All the Purāṇic texts contain the account of the period. And such periodic account is called as kalpaśuddhi. In the Purānas, *Brahmakalpa*, *Vārāhakalpa*, etc., are found. 46

On the basis of their contents, Purānas are classified into several groups, viz. the encyclopaedic, including the Agnipurāna, the Garudapurāna and the Nāradīyapurāna; some primarily deal with the tīrthas such as the Padmapurāṇa, the Skandapurāṇa, the Bhavişyapurāṇa; the sectarian, including the Lingapurāṇa, the Vāmanapurāṇa and the Mārkandeyapurāņa; and historical, such Vāyupurāṇa, the the the Brahmāndapurāna, the Visnupurāna, etc. 47

Again, according to the three qualities, viz. sattva, rajas and tamas, the Mahāpurāṇas are classified into three divisions; viz. Sāttvika or Viṣṇuite, Rājasika or dedicated to Brahmā and *Tāmasika*, dedicated to lord Śiva. 48 The *Visnu*, the *Nāradīya*, the Bhāgavata, the Garuda, the Padma and the Vārāha are the Sāttvikapurānas while the Brahma, the Brahmānda, the Brahmavaivarta, the Mārkandeya, the Bhavişya, the Vāmana are the Rājasikapurāṇas and the Matsya, the Kūrma, the Linga, the Śiva, the Skanda and the Agnipurāna are the Tāmasikapurānas.

Pre-Purāṇic Religious Systems Prevalent in India:

Prior to the Purāṇic religion, different religious movements took place in ancient India due to the invasion of the foreign invaders, having indigenous religious system and the local inhabitants of the region possessing individual religious belief. Due to their relationship to the Vedic tradition they can be classified into the Vedic,

⁴⁵ Mat.P., 22.4,5

⁴⁶ Ibid. 53

Kane, P.V., Op. cit., Vol. V, Part-II, p. 842

Garuda P., 1.223.17-20; Padma P., 6.263.81-84

comprising the Śrauta and the Smārta tradition; the anti-Vedic that includes the Jainism, the Ājīvakism and the Buddhism; the semi-Vedic consisting of the Vaiṣṇavism, the Śaivism and the Bhāgavatism; and non-Vedic, i.e. the Śāktism and the Tāntricism. Besides these, in some religious systems there are found elements of two or more religious sects. Such religions are composite in nature. The Purāṇic religion is also a composite religion where the Vedic tradition of sacrificial religion, the semi-Vedic tradition of Vaiṣṇavism, Śaivism and other unorthodox cults and the non-Vedic tradition of Śaktism and Tāntricism are intermingled.

i. The Vedic Religious System:

The orthodox religion of ancient India is broadly divided under three heads: Vedism, Brāhmaṇism and the Hinduism.⁵⁰ The Vedism and the Brāhmaṇism were the two stages of the sacrificial religion, while the Hinduism is the representation of the *Smārta* and Epic-Purāṇic religion. A great discussion on the Vedic religion is presented in the earlier chapter. Here, the Brāhmaṇical religion is discussed concisely. The Vedic religion was the ritualistic religion of the Āryans, where the natural forces were worshipped as the deities with the prayer and the sacrifices, followed with the offerings of food, meat, Soma, etc. The Brāhmaṇical religion was formulated following the Vedic tradition. It comprised the Śrauta and the Smārta elements. In the Brāhmaṇas, the simplest form of worshipping of the deities in the Samhitās became more expanded, and it became the religion of the masses of the people. The rules of the castes and the stages were strictly followed in the Brāhmaṇical religion. The Brāhmaṇas were given the highest place of honour in the society and regarded as the highest commanding authority among the entire Āryans as they appeared from the mouth of the

⁴⁹ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Studies in the Purāṇic Records on Hindu Rites and Customs, p.193

Vide, Goyal, S.R., A Religious History of Ancient India, Vol. II, p.2

Vedapuruşa.⁵¹ The other classes, viz. the Kşatriyas, the Vaiśyas and the Śūdras stood next to them. Among different duties they had to perform, their first and the foremost duty was the performing of the sacrifices, showing reverence towards the divinities. Such performances were done following the Vedas, i.e. *Śruti* and for that, they were called *Śrauta*. But gradually, in course of time, sections of thinkers occurred in the society, who questioned over the existence of the deity,⁵² regarded sacrifice as futile.⁵³ Such thinking contributed a lot to the growth and development of different religious thought, against the Brāhmaṇism. The elaborate system of sacrifice, which had been evolved and consolidated during the Brāhmaṇa period, which had come to be recognised almost as the hallmark of Vedic religious practice, became well-nigh extinct during the Upaniṣadic period. The profound philosophical speculations of the Upaniṣads have given way to a new ethical code. Thus, it is observed that long before the time of Manu, *Śrauta* rites became obsolete and finally, it was replaced with the tradition called *Śmārta*.⁵⁴

ii. Anti-Vedic Religious System:

The *Mahāvagga*,⁵⁵ belonging to the *Suttanipāta* mentions sixty-three different philosophical schools, those probably of non- Brāhmaṇical in character, existed at the time of Gautama Buddha. In the Jaina literature also, passages are found containing a larger amount of unorthodox doctrines.⁵⁶ These evidences are sufficient to prove the

cf., brāhmaņo'sya mukhamāsīdbāhū rājanyaḥ kṛtaḥ/ ūrū tadasya yadvaiśyaḥ padbhyām śūdro ajāyata// ŖV., 10.90.12

⁵² Ibid., 10.121

Vide, Goyal, S.R., Op. cit., Vol. II, p.2

⁵⁴ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op.cit., p. 194

Max Müller, F., The Sacred Books of the East, Vol.10, p. 93

Radhakrishnan, S. (ed.), *The Cultural Heritage of India*, Vol. I, p.150

existence of other unorthodox religious system in India, prior to the Purāṇic religion. The Jainism, propounded by Mahāvīra, the Ājīvakism by Gosāla Maṅkhaliputta and the Buddhism by Gautama Buddha were the well known anti-Vedic religious systems, prevalent in ancient India.

Jainism: Among the anti-Vedic religious teachers, Vardhamāna Mahāvīra was one, who is regarded as the propounder of Jainism. Mahāvīra was born in a suburb of Vaiśālī, the capital of the famous republican clan of the *Licchavis*. He had practised severe austerity and became the founder or rather the reformer of the Jaina church.⁵⁷ According to the Jaina tradition, there were twenty-three tīrthaṅkaras, i.e. prophets before Mahāvīra.⁵⁸ Professor Jacobi holds Pārśvanātha, the twenty-third *tīrthaṅkara* as the propounder of Jainism.⁵⁹ But, no adequate evidences, in support of this view can be obtained. History ascribes Pārśvanātha with another religious sect, known as *Nirgrantha*.⁶⁰ Mahāvīra was immediately preceded by Pārśvanātha. He belonged to the same religious sect; but later on, he had given rise to his own religious sect by his own personality.

The four great vows of Jainism, viz. not to injure life, to be truthful, not to steal and to possess no property were imparted by Pārśvanātha, where Mahāvīra added a fifth one, i.e. chastity.⁶¹ The Jainas were against to the Brāhmaṇical tradition. They did not recognise the Vedas as authoritative though they had a little faith in caste distinction and in the Brāhmaṇical rites and duties. As for example, Mahāvīra valued most the fourth stages of life and recommended it to his followers. Besides this, the

Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p.194

⁵⁸ Vide, Bhattacharyya, H.(ed.), *The Cultural Heritage of India*, Vol. IV, p.36

⁵⁹ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p.194

Vide, Bhattacharyya, H.(ed.), Op. cit., Vol. IV, p.37

⁶¹ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p. 195

Jainas believed in the individual eternal soul and regarded austerity as the essential means of salvation. Unlike the Upaniṣads, they believed each individual soul as eternal and there was no scope of integration in between the individual soul and the ultimate soul.⁶²

The observations made by the two teachers, Pārśvanātha and Mahāvīra, were almost same; but they varied in some points of views. Pārśvanātha allowed his disciple to wear an upper and under garments where Mahāvīra ordained the rule that obliged the ascetic to be completely naked.⁶³

Ājīvakas: Gosāla Maṅkhaliputta formed another religious system conflicting against the Jainism. He was the great rival of Mahāvīra who lived with him for six years practising austerities. Due to a dispute, they were separated and Gosāla Maṅkhaliputta set up a new religious system whose followers were called as the Ājīvakas.⁶⁴ Gosāla made Śrāvastī his head quarters and shifted there.

The teachings of the Ājīvakism resembled much more with the Mahāvīra. But Gosāla was not very strict about the moral matters like that of Mahāvīra. It is impossible to determine the spread and popularity of this religious system due to insufficient evidences. A scrappy account about the Ājīvakas was only found in the Jaina works where the authors attacked Gosāla with their words. It proves the powerful existence of the sect of Ājīvakas in the region that stood as an obstacle to the spread of Jaina religious system. From some inscriptional evidences, it is seen that the sect of the Ājīvakas continued during the reign of Aśoka and his successors.⁶⁵

Vide, Bhattacharyya, H.(ed.), Op. cit., Vol. IV, p. 39

⁶³ Vide, Max Müller, Op. cit., Vol. 10, p.154

⁶⁴ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p. 196

⁶⁵ Vide, Ibid.

Buddhism: Under the royal patronage of the great kings Aśoka, Kaniṣka and Harṣavardhana, the Buddhism had flourished out all over India. Gautama Buddha had formulated the religious system called Buddhism that was contemporary to the Jainas and Ājīvakas. Buddhism was not really a revolt against the caste, but against the sacrificial system, against the *Veda* and its authority was to show the way to salvation. As Buddha laid sole stress on the moral effort, non-violence, truth, etc., which had been already integrated to the Hinduism, the religion of Buddha may be regarded as the reformation in Hinduism.⁶⁶

The Buddhism included in it the traditions, belief and spiritual practices based on the teachings of Buddha. In the first sermon in the deer-park, near Banaras, Buddha preached that one who renounced the world should shun two extremes, viz. the pursuit of pleasure and the practice of useless austerities, which led to wisdom and salvation. He had expounded the four noble truths, rightly called as *catvāri āryasatyāni*, viz. *duḥkha*, i.e. suffering, *duḥkha-samudaya*, i.e. cause of suffering, *duḥkha-nirodha*, i.e. the suppression of suffering and *duḥkha-nirodhagāminī paṭipadā*, i.e. the way that leads to the suppression of suffering. As a way to suppress the suffering, Buddha had mentioned the eight-fold paths, i.e. *aṣṭāṅgiko mārgaḥ*, viz. right views, right thoughts or aspirations, right speech, right actions, right living, right exertion, right recollection and right meditation. These eight-fold paths lead the people to a virtuous life.⁶⁷ The Buddhism insisted on five śīlas, which were prohibition of injury to and destruction of life, of theft, of sexual impurity, of falsehood and of intoxicating liquors. Besides these, five more precepts were added for the Buddhist priests, viz. prohibition of eating at forbidden hours, of attending worldly amusements such as dancing, song, music and

Vide, Kane, P.V., Op. cit., Vol. V, Part-II, p. 939

⁶⁷ Vide, Ibid., Vol. V, Part-II, pp. 939-940

shows, of the use of unguents and ornaments, of the use of a large or ornamented couch and of the receiving of gold and silver. ⁶⁸

The Buddhism is broadly divided into two branches; one is Hīnayāna and the other is Mahāyāna. The ultimate goal of the Hīnayāna is the cessation of kleśas, i.e. destructive mental states including ignorance, attachment and aversion and the attainment of the sublime state of *nirvāṇa* practising the *aṣṭamārga*. The *Mahāyāna* aspires to the Buddhism by means of the *boddhisattva* path, i.e. remaining in the cycle of rebirth. Though the Buddhism maintained a little connection with the Hinduism, but did not acknowledge any personal god or Supreme god, neither *bhakti* nor the metaphysical and abstract knowledge of god. A highly developed ethical life was regarded as the sole means of attaining salvation in the Buddhism.

iii. Semi-Vedic Religious System:

There arose some other religious movements in ancient India, which were, not fully Vedic or not non-Vedic or anti-Vedic; but they were semi-Vedic. The Bhāgavatism, Vaiṣṇavism and the Śaivism were the prominent semi-Vedic religious systems prevalent in ancient India. The earliest records of these systems were found in the great epic *Mahābhārata*. As the *Mahābhārata* is a work exploring the ideas and belief of its author in the Vedas and the rules of castes and āśramas, the influences of the same are also seen in the systems.

Bhāgavatism: The Kṛṣṇa Vāsudeva is regarded as the founder of the *Bhāgavata* religion. The existence of Kṛṣṇa Vāsudeva, as a founder of a religious sect was doubted as because the scholars hold Kṛṣṇa Vāsudeva as not a human being, but a popular deity,

⁶⁸ Vide, Ibid., Vol. V, Part-II, p. 943

⁶⁹ Vide, Ibid.

belonging to the solar family or a vegetation deity or a tribal deity. But there is no scope of such doubt as it has been proved by the researches that the Kṛṣṇa Vāsudeva of Mathurā was a human teacher belonging to the republican Kṣatriya clan, known as Sātvatas or Vṛṣṇis, a branch of the Yādava tribe who was popular in the age of the Brāhmaṇas.⁷⁰

The Bhāgavatism substituted a personal god Hari, in place of the abstract idea of the Brahman. He was believed to be beyond the ken of logic or argument. Only by means of whole hearted devotion or *bhakti*, he could be apprehended. The *Nārāyaṇīy*a section of the Śāntiparvan and the *Bhagavadgītā* were regarded as the source of *bhakti* cult. In the *Nārāyaṇīya* section, Hari is mentioned as worshipped by King Uparicara Vasu according to the sāttvata rules that were proclaimed by the sun.⁷¹

In the *Nārāyaṇīya* section of the *Mahābhārata*, the revelation of god to man is mentioned as the highest boon granted by him to man.⁷² Meditation is mentioned as the way to achieving the deity.⁷³ In the Śāntiparvan, Sāttvata and Pañcarātra are identified thus: kāmyanaimittikā rājan yajñiyāḥ paramakriyāḥ/ sarvāḥ sāttvatamāsthāya vidhim cakre samāhitaḥ/ pāñcarātravido mukhyāstasya gehe mahātmanaḥ/ prāyaṇam bhagavatproktam bhuñjate vāgrabhojanam/⁷⁴ The Bhāgavatism is also called Nārāyanīya or Ekāntika, as well as, Sāttvata or Pāñcarātra.⁷⁵

Vide, Bhattacharyya, H.(ed.), Op. cit., Vol. IV, p. 37

Vide, Kane, P.V., Op. cit., Vol. V, Part-II, p. 953

cf., antarikṣagataḥ ko'yam tapasā siddhimāgataḥ/ adhaḥ kāyordhvavakraśca netraiḥ samativāhyate// tataḥ paramadharmātmā triṣu lokeṣu viśrutaḥ/ bhāskaram samudīkṣañca prānbhukho bhāgyato agamat/ śabdenākāśamakhilam pūrayanniva sarvaśaḥ// Mbh., 12.340.16,17

⁷³ Ibid., 12.340.19

⁷⁴ Ibid., 12.335.24,25

Vide, Bhattacharyya, H.(ed.), Op. cit., Vol. IV, p.146

In the Bhāgavatism, an irreverent attitude towards the *varṇāśramadharma* and the Brāhmaṇas was observed. The casteless tradition of Bhāgavatism was seen when the casteless foreigners were mentioned as admitted into the *Bhāgavata* fold. The foreigners accepted Vaiṣṇavism. They were mentioned as sinners, or mlecchas or abrāhmaṇya. It is observed that, the common people were warned not to disclose the contents of the holy books to these casteless people.

Vaiṣṇavism: In the Vaiṣṇavism, Viṣṇu was regarded as the supreme divinity. The follower of this religion was called Vaiṣṇavas. The most important development of the system was the growth of the Pāñcarātra Saṁhitās. The Pāñcarātra Saṁhitās contained the complete exposition of the faiths, beliefs, and practices of the Vaiṣṇavas. The Nārāyaṇīya section of the Mahābhārata⁸¹ was regarded as the earliest document of the Pañcarātras. In the Mahābhārata, the seven Citra Śikhaṇḍin Ḥṣis were mentioned as the narrator of a śāstra along with the four Vedas containing one lakh of verses to direct the people both in activity and inactivity. The scripture composed by the Citra Śikhaṇḍin Ḥṣis was regarded as the forerunner of the Pañcarātra Saṁhitā. The Mahābhārata itself admits that Pañcarātra system was different from the Vedas and the

cf., kirātahūṇāndhrapulindrapukvasābhīrasuhmā yavanāḥ khaśādayaḥ/ ye'nye ca pāpā yadyupāśrayāśrayāḥ śudh yanti tasmai prabhaviṣṇave namaḥ// Bhā. P., 2.4.18

⁷⁷ Ibid., 2.4.18; 2.7.46

⁷⁸ Vis. P., 5.38.28

⁷⁹ Ibid., 4.24.18

⁸⁰ Vāma. P., 103.69-70

⁸¹ Mbh., 12.335-351

cf., loka tantrasya kṛtsnasya yasmād dharmaḥ pravartate/... Ibid., 12. 335.39 loka dharmam anuttamam/ Ibid., 12. 335.29

⁸³ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p.198

Vedic tradition.⁸⁴ In the early Samhitās of this sect, the influence of the Vedas and the *varṇāśramadharma*, etc., were seen hardly, which had decreased with the development of time in later date.

Śaivism: Śaivism was another semi-Vedic religious system prevalent in ancient India. Lord Siva was regarded as the supreme deity in the Saivism. This religious tradition did not recognise the Veda as authoritative and it had only a little place for the varnāśramadharma in early date. The irreverent character of Śaivism was seen in the dialogue between Daksa and Śiva in the Mahābhārata where Śiva is mentioned as the founder of the Pāśupata system, which was mostly contradictory to the rules of varṇāśramadharma: apūrvam sarvatobhadram viśvatomukham avyayam/ abdair daśārdha-samyuktam gūḍham aprājñaninditam// varṇāśramakṛtairdharmairviparītam kvacit samam/ gatām tairadhyavasitam atyāśramam idam vratam// mayā pāśupatam daksa śubham utpāditam purā/85 The Pāśupatas remained naked or used only a piece of rag called *kaupīna*. 86 The casteless foreigners were admitted into this fold and Śūdras and women were also allowed to have dīkṣā and worship lord Śiva. Different inscriptional records are sufficient to throw light on the worship of Lord Siva among different tribes in ancient India. The dynasties like Śaka, Kuśāna, etc., those reigned over India from the 1st century B.C. to the 3rd century A.D., were either Sivaites or Buddhists.87

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cf., yūyam hi bhāvitā yajñaiḥ sarvayajñeṣu mānavaiḥ/ mām tato bhāvayiṣyadhvameṣā vo bhāvanā mama// ityartham nirmitā vedā yajñāścauṣadhibhiḥ saha/ ebhiḥ samyakprayuktairhiḥ prīyante devatāḥ// Mbh., 12. 349. 64,65

⁸⁵ Ibid., 12.284.121-124

⁸⁶ Kū.P., 1.33.8; 2.37.100

⁸⁷ Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p. 202

Though the two sects, the Vaiṣṇavism and the Śaivism are non- Brāhmaṇical in character, yet among the early worshippers of these two sects there were some, who, believed the Vedas as authoritative and had great attraction towards the *varṇāśramadharma* and the rules of Smṛtis. They were called as *Smārta* Vaiṣṇavas and *Smārta* Śaivas.

Besides the religions, called the Bhāgavatism, Vaiṣṇavism and Śaivism, there was also another one that inculcated the worship of Brahmā. No enough evidences of this sect are found in the earlier records. But, later on, in the *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa* and the *Sṛṣṭikhaṇḍa* of *Padmapurāṇa*, a little about the Brāhma sect is found. This sect attached great importance to asceticism.

Non-Vedic Religious System:

There are found some other religious systems those are fully non-Vedic in character. Śaktism, Tāntricism, etc., are the non-Vedic religious system, prevalent in ancient India.

Śaktism: Śakti, the consort of Śiva is worshipped in Śaktism. It was the non-Vedic religious movement that grew and developed, prior to the Purāṇas. The term *śakti* represents the female divinity in general, and energising power of some divinity in particular. ⁸⁸

Śaktism is based on the Sāṁkhya philosophy that believes the spirit or Puruṣa as inactive and Prakṛti as productive. Prakṛti is regarded as the ultimate material cause in Śaktism. ⁸⁹ The Śakti makes the god active and effective. The worship of Śakti is accompanied with sacrifices of animals and occasionally of human beings. Besides this,

Vide, Goyal, S.R, Op. cit., Vol. II, p.281

⁸⁹ Vide, Bhattacharyya, H.(ed.), Op. cit., Vol. IV, p.52

the $cakra\ p\bar{u}ja$, i.e. the circle worship is performed where an equal number of men and women sit round in a circle uttering mystic mantras, partaking $pa\bar{n}catattva$, consisting of five elements, viz. wine, meat, fish, parched grain and sex.⁹⁰

Tantricism: Tantricism stood as an obstacle to the Brāhmaņical religion. The proper time of its rising cannot be ascertained. It is purely non-Vedic in character. The ideas and practices of Tantricism are inclined towards the Vaisnavism, Śaivism, Śaktism, etc. They are associated with the worship of Siva or Sakti, etc., with different mūdrās, mantras, maṇḍalas, the five makāras, viz. madya, māmsa, matsya, mudrā and maithuna, i.e. sexual intercourse, the daksinamārga and the Vāmamārga and magical practices for acquiring supernatural powers.⁹¹ According to some scholars, *Tantra* is magical, superstitious and obscene, whereas the others consider it as scientific and profoundly spiritual. 92 The main topics dealt with in the Tantras are ascertainment of mantra, installation of deities, tīrthas, duties of the different āśramas, support of Brāhmanas, maintenance of other creatures, yantras, theogonic speculations, location of heavenly bodies, traditional history, vratas, cleanliness and uncleanliness, delineation of hells, etc. These contents are classified into four padas, viz. jñāna, yoga, kriyā and caryā. Jñāna involves the philosophical and occult doctrines, yoga involves meditation to acquire magical powers, kriyā involves activities connected with temple building and idol- worship and *caryā* involves observances, rites, etc. 93

Instead of the mantras, the Tantric mode of worship gives importance to the yantras that are the diagrams of symbolic interpretation of the body of the deity along

90 Ibid.

⁹¹ Vide, Kane, P.V., Op. cit., Vol. V, Part-II, p. 1031

⁹¹ Ibid

⁹² Vide, Goyal, S.R., Op. cit., Vol. II, p. 389

⁹³ Ibid., p. 397

with his $b\bar{\imath}jamantra$ drawn on paper or metal plate, or inscribed, or painted on a precious stone, mudrās and nyāsas. Mudrās are the special position of fingers and movements of hands while the nyāsas are the placement of different parts of the divine body on the different parts of one's own body by touching them with finger tips and the palm.

In its early date it did not recognise the *varṇāśramadharma* and had not believed Veda as authoritative, but later on, such ideas also entered into it in little amount.

Religion of the Purāṇas:

With the downfall of the Buddhism and declination of the Jainism, the Vedic faith with sectarianism was reconciled and as a result of that, Purāṇic religion formed out with a strong position. As the Purāṇic religion preceded the Buddhism, Jainism or other anti-Vedic religious systems, non-Vedic systems like Tāntricism, Śaktism, etc. and the Vedic ideas of Brāhmaṇism, Bhāgavatism, the elements of all these, are found in the Purāṇic religion in a wholesome way. The Purāṇas, along with its five or ten characteristics, contain chapters on varṇāśramadharma, ācāra, śrāddha, prāyaścitta, dāna, pūjā, vrata, tīrthas, pūrtadharma, pratiṣṭhā, dīkṣā, utsarga, etc., and the glories of various deities, and thus contain the Smṛti codes or conduct. They are mentioned along with the Dharmaśāstras and regarded as authoritative works on dharma. But, gradually, the position of the Purāṇas as the Dharmaśāstras degraded and it turned into important codes of Hindu rites and customs by including chapters on different matters. With the growth of the sectarianism, along with the Vedic and Smārta matters, the

⁹⁴ Vide. Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p.5

⁹⁵ Ibid., p.6

Purāṇic texts contain some new ideas relating to *bhakti*, *pūjā*, *avatāra*, *vrata*, pilgrimage, etc. The Vedic and Brāhmaṇical tradition, those regarded as authoritative and divinely ordained have contributed a lot towards the development of the Purāṇic religion.

The religion of the Veda was reinstalled in the Purāṇas with some changes and additions fulfilling the demand of the changing time. The Vedic concept of dharma was very wide and in different senses, the term was used in the Vedas. But in the Purāṇas, the term dharma was generally used to denote religious practices and social customs. The varņāśramadharma was reinstalled in the Purāṇas. The Buddhists, the Jainas and some other pre-Purānic religious systems accepted the complete renunciation, i.e. sannyāsa, as the only way to attain the final emancipation. Unlike it, the Purāṇas accepted the four stages of life and prescribed the performances of the duties that ordained by the Smrtis to follow in different stages of life, to reach to the stage of sannvāsa. 96 Besides this, continuing the Vedic tradition, they highly appreciated the Gārhasthyāśrama. The householder is mentioned as the source of the other three stages and known as the only means to attain dharma in the Purānas. 97 The manes are only pleased with the śrāddha that is performed by the person who is loyal to the duties of the stages of life and have acquired knowledge. 98 Seven acts are prescribed by the Purāṇas for man, viz. celibacy, penance, sacrifice, begetting children, funeral sacrifices, acquirement of learning, and making gifts of food throughout the whole life.⁹⁹ In the Vedic period, the Śūdras and the women had no right in the sacrificial performances.

⁹⁶ Devī Bhā. P., 1.18,19; Mār.P., 95

⁹⁷ Kū.P., 1.2.51,52

⁹⁸ Mat.P., 144.61; Vā.P., 56.68

⁹⁹ Mat.P., 141.61,62; Vā. P., 56.69-71

But the Jainas and the Buddhas had given greater freedom and facilities to them. As an influence of it, in the Purāṇas, references are found of Śūdra's becoming the king by dint of the observation of vows and worship, e.g. Buddhadvādaśīvrata. King Nṛga, who was a Śūdra in his previous birth, performed this *vrata* and became the king in his next birth. To popularise the participation of women in religious matters, the Purāṇas have contained chapters on chaste and devoted wife. A wife is mentioned as the potent cause of righteousness, wealth and love among men, and in particular, one who forsakes her, has indeed abandoned righteousness. A wifeless man is not appreciated in the Purāṇas.

Due to the growth and development of the sectarianism, most of the deities of the Vedic period went to the backdrop and five deities, viz. Viṣṇu, Śiva, Durgā (Śakti), Sūrya and Gaṇeśa were worshipped as the prominent deities in the Purāṇas. They were called as *Pañcadeva*. The worship of the deities had given rise to independent cult, such as Vaiṣṇavism, Śaivism, Śaktism, the Solar-cult and the cult of Gaṇeśa, centering round the worship of the individual deities, Viṣṇu, Śiva, Durgā or Śakti, Sūrya and Gaṇeśa, respectively. The Purāṇic religion is the sectarian religion where the personal gods were worshipped instead of the Vedic Brāhmaṇical community worship. The thirty-three numbers of the Vedic deities were transformed into thirty-three crores of gods in the Purāṇic religion. Some of the Vedic concept relating to the deities, remained unchanged in the Purāṇas too, e.g. the twelve months of the year are said as symbolic

¹⁰⁰ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op cit., p.231

¹⁰¹ Varā. P., 47.20

¹⁰² Mār. P., 16.14

¹⁰³ Ibid., 71.9-11

¹⁰⁴ Vide, Goyal, S.R., Op. cit., Vol. II, p.73, fn.1

of the twelve Ādityas in the Purāṇas likewise the Vedas.¹⁰⁵ But in course of time, Āditya, who included both Indra and Viṣṇu, lost his importance; of Indra and Viṣṇu, Viṣṇu remained and in course of time, had given rise to Vaiṣṇavism. In the same way, the Vedic Prajāpati assimilated into Brahmā, the creator in the Purāṇas.¹⁰⁶

The three deities, Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Śiva or Maheśa, are connected in the Purāṇas, to the three cosmic principles, viz. creation, preservation and destruction. The three guṇas, Sattva, Rajas and Tamas were mentioned as associated with them: *rajo brahmā tamo rudro viṣṇuḥ sattvaṁ jagatpatiḥ/ etā eva trayo devā eta eva trayo guṇāḥ/*¹⁰⁷ In the character of Brahmā, the Supreme Being creates mankind, then possessing an excess of goodness, he becomes Viṣṇu and protects them righteously; then associated with the Tamas, assuming the form of Rudra, dissolves the whole universe. ¹⁰⁸ Besides the major sectarian gods, Purāṇas also introduce many minor gods, viz. Kārtikeya, ¹⁰⁹ Kuvera, ¹¹⁰ etc. Some local gods also occurred in the Purāṇic pantheon, like the village deities, ¹¹¹ deities in the cremation ground, ¹¹² etc. Thus, in the Purāṇas, thirty-three crores of deities occur, but, the oneness of the deity is understood with the passage of time, where the three principal forms of creation are worshipped as the manifestation of a single deity: *ekā mūrtistrayo bhāgā brahmāviṣṇumaheśvarāḥ*. ¹¹³

Bhā.P., 12.11.32-46

¹⁰⁶ Vā.P., 1.5.40-45

¹⁰⁷ Mār.P., 43.18

cf., brahmatve sa prajāḥ sṛṣṭvā tataḥ sattvātirekavān/ viṣṇutvametya dharmeṇa kurute paripālanam// tatastamogaṇodrikto rudratve cākhilam jagat/ upasamhṛtya vai śete trailokyam triguṇo'guṇaḥ// Ibid., 43.14,15

¹⁰⁹ Mat.P., 5.27; 53.61

¹¹⁰ Ibid., 67.15; Vi. P., 5.36.12

¹¹¹ Brahmāṇḍa P.,3.22.27

¹¹² Bhā.P., 4.1.34; Vā. P., 96.182

¹¹³ Mat.P., 3.16

In the Purāṇic religion, the elements of all kinds, from the primitive to advanced were found, e.g. ancestor worship found in śrāddha, Piṇḍapitṛyajña, 114 spirit worship in the reference of Dākinīs, Sākinīs, Piścāsas, 115 etc., worship of the Mother goddess observed in the reference of Pṛthivī, 116 Aditi, 117 Durgā, 118 Kāli 119 and Ambikā, 120 worship of the cultural heroes in the worship of Vāsudeva Kṛṣṇa, 121 Pradyumna, 122 Aniruddha, 123 Sāmba, 124 Vāmana, 125 tree worship in the worship of Bilva, 126 Tulasī, 127 etc., stone-worship in the worship of Śālagrāma, the stone-emblem of Viṣṇu, and Śivaliṅga. 128

Twofold devotees occurred in the Purāṇic period —firstly, the extreme sectarians, who confined their devotion and worship almost exclusively to their sectarian deity like Viṣṇu, Śiva, Śakti, etc., and secondly, the general followers of the Brāhmaṇical religion, those revered and worshipped all the deities though specially attached to a sectarian deity following some of the important Vedic rituals and

¹⁴ Ibid.,16.21; 17.4

¹¹⁵ Bhā.P., 10.6.27-29; 63.10,11

Mat.P., 10.1,35; 166.6; Vā. P., 42.78-81; 50.2-4

¹¹⁷ Bhā.P., 9.1.10; 6.6.25; Mat.P., 172.5; 179.15; 253.27

¹¹⁸ Bhā.P., 10.2.11; Mat.P., 93.16; 260.55-66

¹¹⁹ Brahmānda.P., 4.7.72; 44.59; Mat.P., 13.32;172.19

¹²⁰ Bhā. P., 3.12.13; Mat.P., 58.26

¹²¹ Bhā. P., 10.8.14,19; Vā.P., 1.148

¹²² Bhā.P., 1.10.29; Vi.P., 4.15.37

¹²³ Mat.P., 47.23; 93.51

¹²⁴ Bhā.P., 1.10.29

¹²⁵ Ibid., 1.3.19; 2.7.17,18; Mat.P., 47.42-46, Vis.P., 3.1.42

¹²⁶ Mat.P., 13.31

¹²⁷ Bhā.P., 1.19.6; 5.3.6

¹²⁸ Mat.P., 13,33

practices. The Smārtas prescribed the regular worship of the five gods. Besides this, the rest of the Hindu pantheon was also freely worshipped. 129

In the Vedic period, emphasis was laid on the sacrificial activities or karmakānda, while in the Purāṇas, bhakti occupied the place of importance. Bhakti is one of the components of the Purāṇic religion. Sāṇḍilya, in his Bhaktisūtra defines bhakti as sā parānuraktirīśvare/130 The derivative meaning of it can be interpreted into two ways: firstly, the highest form of bhakti is affection fixed on god or secondly, bhakti is the highest affection fixed on god. 131 Prapatti, i.e. the self-surrender is connected to it. The two terms dhyāna and upāsanā are used as synonym of the term. 132 Though the term bhakti occurs several times in the Rgvedasamhitā, 133 but the great scholar D.C. Sircar holds it as an un-Āryan concept that gradually adopted by the mixed Ārya-non-Āryan population of the country, which cannot be a prominent feature of the Vedic religion as the Vedic religion was dominated by that of the sacrificial cult.134

Bhakti is classified into several divisions. In the Padmapurāna, 135 the different divisions of bhakti are mentioned as, laukikī bhakti related to the common people, vaidikī bhakti, laid down by the Vedas, and ādhyātmikī bhakti, i.e. philosophical, or as mānasī bhakti, i.e. mental, vācikī bhakti, i.e., verbal and kāvikī bhakti, that is done with the body, such as fasts and vratas. 136 The Bhāgavatapurāņa classifies it into sāttvikī

Radhakrishnan, S., Op.cit., Vol. I, p. 49

Bh.S., 1.1.2

Vide, Kane, P.V., Op.cit, Vol. V, Part-II, p. 959

Vide, Ibid., Vol. V, Part-II, p. 960

RV., 1.127.5, 8.27.11

Vide, Goyal, S.R., Op. cit., Vol. II, p.91

Padma P., 5.15.165-168

Ibid., 5.15.165-168

bhakti, rājasī bhakti and tāmasī bhakti, ¹³⁷ and into uttamā (best), madhyamā (middle) and kaṇiṣṭha (inferior). ¹³⁸ The Bhāgavatapurāṇa mentions that bhakti is of ninefolds, viz. śravana (hearing about Viṣṇu), kīrtana (repetition of the name of the deity), smaraṇa (remembering him), pādasevana (worshipping the feet of the image of Viṣṇu), arcana (offering pūjā), vandana (bowing or paying homage), dāsya (treating oneself as the slave of the deity), sakhya (treating him as a friend) and ātmanivedana (surrendering one's soul to him). ¹³⁹ A devotee practising anyone of these can achieve the god.

Of the three mārgas that lead to the salvation or the final emancipation, viz. the *karmamārga*, the *bhaktimārga* and the *jñānamārga*, the *bhaktimārga* is referred to as the best *mārga*. In the *bhaktimārga*, the *bhakta* or devotee resigns himself to god's grace. In the *Śrīmadbhagavadgīta*, the supreme soul Lord Kṛṣṇa himself states *bhakti* as the best *mārga* for achieving him. ¹⁴⁰ The devotees, who dedicate all their actions to god and regarding him as their highest goal, worship him, meditating on him with devotion towards none beside the deity, and whose minds are always placed on the Lord and without delaying, the Lord deliver them from the ocean of *saṃsāra* and death. ¹⁴¹ The *karmamārga* leads to the salvation by means of the sacrificial performances, while the *jñānamārga* leads to the Brahman with the brāhmīsthiti, i.e. the state of identifying one with Brahman. ¹⁴² *Bhakti* establishes a personal relationship in between the god and devotees. As a result of such relationship, miraculous element

^{.37} Bhā.P., 3.29.7-10

¹³⁸ Ibid.,3.34.38-41

¹³⁹ Ibid., 7.5.23,24

¹⁴⁰ ŚMG., 12

¹⁴¹ Ibid., 12.6,7

¹⁴² Ibid., 2.72

becomes prominent. The episode of Prahlāda, found in the Purānas, is the best example of it. 143 Pleased with the bhakti of the devotees, the Supreme Soul grants them the desired boons and protect them from every danger. The japa, dhyāna, tīrthayātrās, dāna, pātha, i.e. recitation, and śravaṇa, i.e. hearing of the sacred books were regarded as the act of devotion in the Purāṇas. The *Brahmapurāṇa* refers to that men, even after having committed many sins under the influence of error or delusion, do not go to hell, if they worship Hari, the remover of all sins. Those who always remember Janārdana, though they may be quietly of roguery, after their death, reach to the happy world of Vișnu. Even a man, habituated to flying into extreme rage, also reciting the name of Hari, attains *mukti* as his fault destroys at the grace of the Lord: krtvāpi bahuśah pāpam narā mohasamanvitāḥ/ na yānti narakam natvā sarvapāpaharam harim/ śāvyenāpi narā nityam ye smaranti janārdanam/ tepi yānti tanum tyaktvā viṣṇulokamanāmayam// atyantakrodhasakto'pi kadācitkīrtayeddharim/ doşakşayānmuktim labheccedipatiryathā/¹⁴⁴ Again, both the Vāmanapurāna and Padmapurāna admit that, the same merit of visiting of all tīrthas and holy shrines are secured with the repetition of the names of Visnu. 145

Besides the *bhakti*, another new addition in the Purāṇic religion is the introduction of the avatāras of the deities. The depiction of different avatāras is one of the specific characteristic of the religion. The term *avatāra* is derived from root *tṛ*, that along with the prefix *ava* gives the meaning descending or descent and applied to the gods, who assumed the form of a human being or even of an animal or birds and continued to live in that form up to the fulfilment of the purpose for which he had

¹⁴³ Vis.P., 17-20

¹⁴⁴ Brahma P., 2.16.87-89

cf., pṛthivyāṁ yāni tīrthāni puṇyānyāyatanāni ca/ tāni sarvāṇyavāpnoti viṣṇornāmakīrtanāt// Padma P., 6.245.85; Vāma. P., 94.63

assumed the form. In the *Durgāsaptaśatī* of the *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa*, the mother goddess declares that whenever trouble will arise, caused by the Dānavas, at each such time she will accomplish the foes' destruction incarnating her. Whenever virtue declines and evil flourishes the divine entity incarnates him or her in human form or in the form of other creatures for the protection of holiness. The incarnations of the deities are mentioned as the re-installer of *dharma* and the performance of sacrifices: *jajñe punaḥ punarviṣṇuryajñe ca śithile prabhuḥ/ kartuṁ dharmavyavasthānamadharmasya ca nāśanam;* i.e. when sacrifices grew rare, Lord Viṣṇu was born again and again to establish *dharma*, destroying *adharma*. The sectarian deities, i.e. fully personal and anthropomorphic gods and their incarnations were the object of *bhakti* in the Purāṇic religion.

The Purāṇic texts refer to different avatāras. Though variations are there in different Purāṇas regarding their names and forms, but ten incarnations of Viṣṇu are commonly mentioned in different Purāṇas. The *Bhāgavatapurāṇa*, in one place, mentions twenty-two avatāras of Viṣṇu. They are: Brahmā, Vārāha, Nārada, Naranārāyaṇa, Kapila, Dattātreya, Yajñāvatāra, Rṣabhadeva, Pṛthu, Matsya, Kūrma, Dhanvantari, Mohinī, Nṛsiṁha, Vāmana, Paraśurāma, Parāśara, Rāma, Balabhadra, Kṛṣṇa, Buddha and Kalki. Again, in another place, it mentions twenty-three avatāras including Hayagrīva. Sixteen avatāras, viz. Matsya, Kūrma, Nṛsiṁha, Vāmana, Paraśurāma, Balabhadra, Varāha, Rāma, Buddha, Kalki, Haṁsa, Dattā, Kumāra i.e.

¹⁴⁶ Kane, P.V., Op. Cit., Vol. V, Part-II, p. 992

cf., ittham yadā yadā bādhā dānavotthā bhavişyati/ tadā tadāvatīryāham karişyāmyarisamkṣayam// Mār.P., 88.51

¹⁴⁸ Vā.P., 98.69

¹⁴⁹ Mat.P., 285.6,7; Varā.P., 4.2; 48.17-22; 55.36,37 and so on.

¹⁵⁰ Bhā. P., 1.3.1-25

¹⁵¹ Ibid. 2.7.11

Nārada, Rṣabha, Vyāsa are also mentioned in the *Bhāgavatapurāṇa* and along with Hayagrīva also, the avatāras are mentioned in the same *Purāṇa*. Again the *Vāyupurāṇa* mentions twenty-eight avatāras of Lord Śiva. 152

There are references of amiśāvatāras or kalāvatāras in the Purāṇas. In the Durgāsaptaśatī, the supreme mother is mentioned as helped by the different amiśāvatāras, those indeed are the different manifestations of the deity. In the Purāṇic religious history, the doctrine of avatāra, occupied a specific place. One of the principal aims of any religion, to bring unity in the society, in against to the diversity, was partially fulfilled by such avatāravāda. The use of image and temples are common in their worship.

With the rise and development of bhakti, in the Purāṇic religion developed the idea of $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. The $Paurāṇikap\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ was different from that of the Vedic $yaj\bar{n}a$. The mode and method of both the rituals were different. Instead of twelve or sixteen priests, the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ was performed by only one priest; sometimes with one or two assistants. Sixteen upacāras, viz. $\bar{a}v\bar{a}hana$, $\bar{a}sana$, $p\bar{a}dya$, arghya, $\bar{a}camana$, $sn\bar{a}na$, vastra, $yaj\bar{n}opav\bar{t}ta$, anulepana or gandha, puṣpa, $dh\bar{u}pa$, $d\bar{v}pa$, naivedya, $t\bar{a}mb\bar{u}la$, $dakṣiṇ\bar{a}$ and pradakṣiṇa were used there in the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. The offering of puṣpa, gandha, $dh\bar{u}pa$, $d\bar{v}pa$ and naivedya were unknown in the Vedic period. They were the later innovations in the age of the Purāṇas. The concept of $up\bar{u}c\bar{u}ra$ was of Vedic origin, as the term $up\bar{u}c\bar{u}ra$ is used in the sense of 'honour' or 'mode of showing honour' in the Vedic texts. The vertical sense of 'honour' or 'mode of showing honour' in the Vedic texts.

¹⁵² Vā.P., 23

Vide. Kane, P.V., Op. cit., Vol. V, Part-I, p.35

¹⁵⁴ Goyal, S.R., Op. cit., Vol. II, p.117

¹⁵⁵ ŚB.,1.1.1.11

The Purānic religion introduced the worship of images of different deities. J.N. Banerjea holds that pratimā and sandrs as used for symbolic representation of divinities, those were not associated with particular cults, but in course of time acquired the significance of arcā, i.e. the object of regular worship. ¹⁵⁶ Pāṇini in his Aṣṭādhyāyi uses two terms pratimā and pratikṛti probably for images of gods. 157 The Vedic scholars like Max Müller, Wilson, Macdonell, etc., had remarked that the Āryans knew no image worship or temple, as it was the religion of the yajñas. But in against to it, Bollensen and a group of scholars have pointed out that in the Rgvedasamhitā, gods were often described as divo naras or naras and mentioned was made of their vapuh, tanu, rūpa, etc., that presupposes the image worship in the Vedic period. 158 Again, several Rgvedic passages refer to the images of gods and in a passage, reference is made of the kartā of Indra (RV., 4.17.4). Again the term vṛttāni is found, used in the plural form for the Vrtta, the foe of Indra in several passages, which may also indicate the various images of Vrtta. The Vedic gods were supposed to have two types of bodies: abstract and finite. Images were regarded as the temporary finite resting place of the abstract body. In a passage in the Atharvaveda (AV., 7.31), the deity was worshipped by his worshippers to enter into the concrete body with his real body. ¹⁵⁹ J.N. Banerjea has denied the matter and remarks that there was no place for imageworship in early Vedic religion.¹⁶⁰ According to him, the anthropomorphic interpretation of the deities cannot be the proof of image worship of the deities, as even Yāska, in the discussion of the form of gods, clearly states them as apaurusavidhāh.

Goyal, S.R., Op. cit., Vol. II, p.128

¹⁵⁷ Astā., 5.3.96; 5.3.99

Vide, Banerjea, J.N., Development of Hindu Iconography, pp.48-49

¹⁵⁹ Vide, Ibid., p.50-51

¹⁶⁰ Ibid., p.73

Again, in the Brāhmaṇas and the Sūtras also, yajñas are described in detail and there is no mention of the $arc\bar{a}$ and no record of temples or images worship. ¹⁶¹

Vratas occupied a specific place in the Purānic religion. The term *vrata* is used in the sense of religious undertaking or vow in which one has to observe certain restrictions about food or one's general behaviour. 162 Apte has mentioned that a vrata comprehends several items such as snāna, the morning prayer, sandhyā, sankalpa, homa, pūjā of the deity or deities in whose honour, or for securing whose favour, the vrata is undertaken, upavāsa, feeding of Brāhmaṇas, maiden or married women or the poor or helpless (according to the nature of the *vrata*), gifts (of cows, money, apparel, sweetmeats) and the observance of certain rules of conduct during the period of vrata. 163 The matter becomes more clear with the observations of R.C. Hazra, according to whom, the main component parts of a vrata are generally selection of a proper tithi, determination of taking the vow, lying on the ground, bath, appointment of Brāhmanas as priest, muttering (*japa*), offering oblations to the fire (*homa*), fasting, abstinence (especially from food), making gifts, feeding Brāhmaṇas, keeping awake during the night and listening to tales, i.e. ākhyānaśravaṇa. 164 On certain tithi, week day, month or other period, a vrata is observed for securing some desired object by the worship of a deity, usually accompanied by restrictions as to food and behaviour. 165 Ordaining the rules of vrata the Agnipurāṇa states that one who undertakes a vrata must always take a bath everyday, should subsist on a limited quantity of food, should worship and honour his guru, gods and Brāhmaṇas and should avoid kṣāra, i.e. saline,

¹⁶¹ Vide. Goyal, S.R., Vol. II, pp.129,130

¹⁶² Mbh., 12.35.39; 13.103.34

Vide, Kane, P.V., Op. cit., Vol. V, Part-I, p.31

¹⁶⁴ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op.cit., p.240

Vide, Kane, P.V., Op. cit., Vol. V, Part-I, p. 28

kṣaudra, i.e. species of honey, lavaṇa, i.e. salt, madhu, i.e. honey and māṁsa, i.e. meat: nityasnāyī mitāhāro gurudevadvijārcakaḥ/ kṣāraṁkṣaudraṁ ca lavaṇaṁ madhumāṁsāni varjayet//166 The Purāṇic texts tried their best to popularise the vows. The Matsyapurāṇa prescribes the observance of vows without any discrimination. 167 The Bhaviṣyapurāṇa states that, the vows along with the upavāsas and niyamas, are the boats to cross the deep ocean of hells. 168 The vows are closely associated with the dānas. They are offered observing the vows or vratas, on occasion of funeral ceremonies, etc.

The Purāṇas glorify the greatness of gifts with the sayings that *dānaṁ ekaṁ kalau yuge*, ¹⁶⁹ *dānadharmāt paro dharmo bhūtānāṁ neha vidyate*, ¹⁷⁰ etc. The making of gift is the only pity in the Kali age. The creatures have no other piety on earth than that of the *dāna*. By making gifts, one occupies health, wealth, a beautiful wife and children on earth and after death attains *Brahmaloka*, *Viṣṇuloka*, etc. ¹⁷¹ The person, who never donates, becomes unable to get those things in the next world. ¹⁷² The Purāṇic texts were familier with the great varieties of gifts. Along with the land, gold, silver, etc., Purāṇas mention about the gift of artificial cow, made of paddy, raw sugar (*guḍa*), seasamum, water, ghee, etc., of hillock, made of gold, silver, gems, salts, sesamum, ghee, sugar, cotton, etc.; of tulāpuruṣa, kalpapuruṣa, pādapa, kāmadhenu, horse, universe, earth, horse and chariot, elephant and chariot, five ploughs, kalpalatā,

Agni P., 175.12

¹⁶⁷ Mat.P., 70.32

¹⁶⁸ Bhavi.P., 4.7.1

¹⁶⁹ Kū.P., 1.28.17; Vā. P., 68.8

¹⁷⁰ Kū.P., 2,26.56

¹⁷¹ Mat.P., 206.30

¹⁷² Padma P., 1.31.124

cows, etc., all made of gold; and so forth. The references are found in the Purānas of the process of making the *guḍadhenudāna*, i.e. the gift of a cow made of raw sugar, ¹⁷⁴ the dhānyācaladāna, i.e. the gift of a hillock made of paddy, 175 etc. Among different danas, the gift of food and the gifts to the Brahmanas are regarded as the best. The distribution of the food, particularly offered to the learned Brāhmanas is highly praised in the Purānas: sarvesāmeva dānānāmannam śresthamudāhrtam/...prānā hyannam manusyānāṁ tasmājjantuh prajāyate// pratisthitā lokāstasmādannam anne praśasyate/...annasya hi pradānena svargamāpnoti mānavah/...nyāyenāvāptamannam tu harsa samanvitah/ dvijebhyo vedavrddhebhyo datvā pāpātpramucyate/¹⁷⁶ Among all gifts, the gift of food is superior to all; food is the life of men and from food all beings spring forth. The world is dependent on it and by the gift of food, man secures heaven. It makes the man free from sin also when given to the Brāhmanas, deeply learned in the Vedas. The Purāṇas deal with the occasion of making the gifts according to which the great gifts should be made on the days of the Ayana, Visuvan, Vyatipāta, Dinaksaya, Yugādi and Manvantaras, on Samkrānti, Vaidhṛti, Caturdaśī, Aṣṭamī, Śuklapañcadaśī, Parvan days, Dvādaśī, etc. 177 According to their qualities or conditions, different kinds of recipients of gifts are introduced in the Purānas, e.g. Śrotriya (versed in Śruti), Kulīna (of high lineage), Vinīta (well disciplined), Vratastha (observing a vow), *Tapasvin* (practicing penance), etc. 178

¹⁷³ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p.247

¹⁷⁴ Mat.P., 82.3-10

¹⁷⁵ Ibid., 83.12-26

¹⁷⁶ Brahma P., 218.10-13,22-23

¹⁷⁷ Mat.P., 274.19-23

¹⁷⁸ Kū.P., 2.26.11, 14; Mat.P., 72.35; 97.15; Varā. P., 50.15,16

Purāṇic Religion and Its Link to the Vedic Tradition:

The Vedas and the Purāṇas are closely related to each other. The Purāṇas regard the Vedas as the source of *dharma*, and the sacrifices, etc., those ordained by the *Śruti*, and the *Smṛiti* are also called the *dharma*. But, the *dharma*, that are dealt with in other texts are only the shadow of it. In earlier period, the Purāṇas were regarded as inferior, in comparison to the Vedas; but in course of time, the position of the Purāṇas were upgraded, and it became the soul of *dharma*, while the *Śruti* and the *Smṛti* became the eyes of it. The sacredness of the Purāṇas are well established when it is referred to that the reading of the Purāṇas or listening to a recitation of the Purāṇas destroys all types of sin. Is

The Purāṇic religion is highly influenced by the Vedic tradition. The prevalence of the Vedic sacrifices in the Purāṇic period can be proved with its narration in several Purāṇas. The *Agnipurāṇa* mentions that the Rc, Yajus and Sāmans are created for the accomplishment of the sacrifices: *rco yajumsi sāmāni nirmame yajñasiddhaye*/¹⁸³ Again, in the *Matsyapurāṇa*, Śakra says Bali about the gods' partaking of their shares in the sacrifices on the authority of the Vedas. The Purāṇas glorify the sacrifices too much that the Vena's destruction at the hands of his subjects is shown as the result of

¹⁷⁹ Kū.P., 1.12.251,252

¹⁸⁰ Ibid., 1.16.115-117; Devī Bhā. P.,7.39.16

¹⁸¹ Ibid., 11.1.21-23

cf., sarvapāpaharam puṇyam pavitram ca yaśasvi ca/ brahmā dadau śāstramidam purāṇam mātariśvane// Vā. P., 103.58

purāṇasamhitā ceyam tava bhūpa mayoditā/ sarvapāpaharā nityamārogya śrīphalapradā// Mat.P., 290.20

¹⁸³ Agni P., 17.13

cf., yajñabhāgabhujo devā vedaprāmānyato'suraļ/ Mat.P.,246.14

the evil- deed, done by Vena, with banning of sacrificial performances in the kingdom. 185

The Purāṇas treat the Vedas as authoritative and enjoin the employment of many Vedic mantras in many rites. For example, following the Vedic tradition, the Purāṇas prescribe *homa* oblation towards the nine planets with the employment of nine Vedic mantras. Again, the *homa* is prescribed when inauspicious birds or animals cry near the house or enter into it: *mṛgapakṣivikāreṣu kuryāddhomaṁ sadakṣiṇam* should be engaged in a *japa* for muttering *devāḥ kapota*, etc. He whole procedure of establishment of images of gods or the *liṅga* involve several Vedic mantras. In the purification of the image, four Vedic mantras are employed. Again, two mantras are applied at the time of placing of a jar, full of water, near the head of the bed on which the image is to be placed. The *Agnipurāṇa*, in the procedure of building a temple, prescribes the recital of different Vedic mantras. Along with the Vedic mantras, the *Paurāṇika* mantras are also applied in religious rites. The Viśvedevaḥ are invited to come to the *śrāddha* with the employment of the *Rkmantra* that is interpreted by Griffith as O Viśvedevaḥ, come hitherward, hear my invocation, seat yourselves upon this sacred grass.

⁸⁵ Viș.P., 1.13

¹⁸⁶ Mat.P., 93

¹⁸⁷ Ibid., 237.13

cf., devāḥ kapota iti vā japtavyāḥ pañcabhirdvijaiḥ/ Ibid.

¹⁸⁹ RV., 10.165.1-5

¹⁹⁰ Mat.P., 265

¹⁹¹ RV., 7.49.1,2,3; 10.9.1

¹⁹² VS., 12.35; TS.,4.2.32

¹⁹³ RV., 10.9.1-3, 10; 10.9.4; VS., 4.36 and so on

¹⁹⁴ Griffith on RV., 2.41.13

 $\bar{a}gacchantu\ mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}g\bar{a}$ is also applied. The $Visnudharmottarapur\bar{a}na$ prescribes one hundred and eighty-four $Paur\bar{a}nika$ verses along with the Vedic mantras in the procedure of coronation.

The doctrine of the *bhakti* perhaps originates following the Vedic tradition, about the loving faith in god. In a Rgvedic passage, the devotee worships the god with the words 'In perfect unison, all yearning hymns of mine that find the light of heaven have sung forth Indra's praise; as wives embrace their lords, the comely bridegrooms, so they compass Maghavan about that he may help.' Again, the *sakhyabhakti* is observed when under the purview of friendship, the deity, to fulfil the longing of Horse, himself becomes a horse: $d\bar{u}n\bar{a}sam$ sakhyam tava gaurasi $v\bar{v}$ agavate/ asvo asva

The Vedic texts were familiar with the word vrata, but it was not niyama in the Vedas like the Purāṇas. Niyama means the observance of the strict restrictive rules. The Agnipurāṇa states the vrata or vow as the restrictive rule enjoined by the Śastras. The vratas are always associated with the homa and $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. The method of homa, etc., that is performed along with the vratas are similar to the Vedic sacrifices. The Kalyāṇinīvrata, \bar{A} 000 Ādityaśayanavrata, \bar{A} 010 etc., possess most of the elements from the Vedas.

cf., āgacchantu mahābhāgā viśvadevāḥ mahābalāḥ/ ye yatra vihitāḥ śrāddhe sāvadhānā bhavantu te// Garuda P., 1.218.7

¹⁹⁶ Vi.Dh.P.,2.21

¹⁹⁷ Griffith on RV., 10.43.1

¹⁹⁸ RV., 6.45.26

¹⁹⁹ Agni P., 175.2

²⁰⁰ Mat.P., 69

²⁰¹ Ibid., 55.18

Right from the time of the Vedas, a tradition of $d\bar{a}na$ is maintained in religious circumstances. References are found of extracting the highest amount of the priestly fees from their clients by the Vedic priests. The act of making gifts was looked upon as religious in the Vedas but the Vedic texts were not familiar with the great variety of gifts like that of the Purāṇas. the Dānastutis of the *Rgvedasaṃhitā* and others mention only of the simple gifts of the land, gold, silver, cows, horses, houses, clothes, food, drink, etc. But, in the Purāṇas, such simple form of gifts were transformed into the gifts of artificial cows made of paddy, raw sugar (guda), seasamum, etc. Again, the glorification of the gift of anna as the śreṣṭhadāna in the Purāṇic age is indeed the continuation of the Vedic tradition of making the gift of anna. The Vedas praise the gift of food and mentions it as the highest offering.

The Purāṇas discuss almost all the topics those are discussed in the Vedas. Besides the sacrifices, japa, homa, $d\bar{a}na$, vratas, etc., they contain the discussions on $ahi\dot{m}sa$, 205 $p\bar{u}rtadharma$, 206 etc., which, in origin the repetition of the Vedic tradition. The $p\bar{u}rtadharma$ involves in it works of public utility, charity, social service and the relief of the poor and the distressed. In the Vedas, the word $i\dot{s}t\bar{a}p\bar{u}rta$ occurs. 207 In the $Rgvedasa\dot{m}hit\bar{a}$, the terms $i\dot{s}ta^{208}$ and $p\bar{u}rta^{209}$ occur separately; of which $i\dot{s}ta$ means sacrifice and $p\bar{u}rta$ directs the works such as digging a well or tank, etc. The Purāṇas

²⁰² Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p.247

²⁰³ RV., 4.15.7; 5.30.15; 5.36.6; 6.45.31; 6.47.23, 24;

annam śritāni bhūtāni annam prāṇamiti śrutiḥ/ tasmādannam pradātavyamannam hi paramam haviḥ/ Bau. DS., 2.3.68

²⁰⁵ Linga P., 8.8,9; Mat.P., 52.8-11, Vāma.P., 14.1,2,

²⁰⁶ Agni P., 209.2.3

²⁰⁷ Chā. U., 5.10.3; Praśna U., 1.9

²⁰⁸ RV., 10.11.2

²⁰⁹ Ibid., 6.16.18; 8.46.21

also deal with such topics following the Vedic order. In the *Mārkaṇḍeyaprāṇa*, the very characteristics of *iṣṭāpūrta* is cited as, *agnihotraṁ tapaḥ satyaṁ vedānāṁ caiva sādhanaṁ/ ātithyaṁ vaiśvadevaṁ ca iṣṭamityabhidhīyate// vāpīkūpataḍāgāni devatāyatanāni ca/ annapradānamarthibhyaḥ pūrtamityabhidhīyate//²¹¹¹ Here, in this verse, both the <i>iṣṭa* and *pūrta* are distinguished—maintaining the sacred fires, tapas, truthfulness, study of the *Veda*, hospitality and Vaiśvadeva are called *iṣṭa* and digging of wells and tanks, and building of temples, distribution of food to the needy people are pūrtas.

In the Purāṇas, instead of the sacrifices, emphasis is laid on the greatness of pilgrimages, sacred bath, etc. According to the Purāṇas, the sacrificial rites with inanimate things, i.e. fuel-sticks, flowers and Kuśa-grass always produce inanimate results.²¹¹ The *Padmapurāṇa* contains a verse that extols the greatness of pilgrimage and sacred bath by saying that merely going to the Gaṅgā or by taking a sacred bath in the Phalgu river, one secures the merit of performance of Aśvamedha.²¹² Besides this, the pilgrimage, vratas, etc. are prescribed as because they are advantageous for the poor.²¹³

Non- Vedic Elements in the Purānic Religion:

As the Purāṇic religion is a composite religion, besides the Vedic elements, in the Purāṇas, elements of Śaivism, Śaktism, Tantricism, etc., are found. The influence of Tantricism in the Purāṇas can be apprehended with the references of worshipping the

²¹⁰ Mār. P., 16.123,124

cf., avidyāntargatairyajñakarmabhirna prayojanam/ mama hiṁsātmakairasti nigamoktairacetanaiḥ// samitpuṣpakuśaprāyaiḥ sādhanairyadyacetanaiḥ/ kriyate tattathā bhāvi kāryaṁ kāraṇavannṛṇām/ Ibid., 1.2.13.59,60

²¹² Padma P., 1.38.2

²¹³ Mat.P., 99.17,18; 112.12-15

gods and of Viṣṇu in *Vaidikī*, *Tāntrikī* or *Miśra* mode of worship: *vaidikastāntriko miśro viṣṇorvai trividho makhah/ trayāṇāmīpsitenaikavidhinā harimarcayet//*²¹⁴ Of these, the first and the third are prescribed for the three higher varṇas, and the *Tāntrikī* for the Śūdras. References are found of *Tāntrikī Dīkṣā* also in the Purāṇas. Again, *Mantra-nyāsa*, the drawing of coloured lotuses or circle during worship or observance of vows, consecration, the prove the existence of *Tāntrika* elements in the Purāṇic religion. The method of bath without which no one can take participation in any religious performances is indeed full of Tāntric practices. Furthermore, the *Agnipurāṇa* contains a list of articles required for *Vaśīkaraṇa*. The growth of sectarianism is one of the special features in the Purāṇic religion. The Vaiṣṇavism, Śaktism, etc., are developed into individual cult in the Purāṇic period. The direct influence of these are found in the *Vaiṣṇava*, Śaiva and Śākta Purāṇas

Growth of the Purāṇic Texts for Propitiating the Sun-god:

The Sun-god is worshipped under different names and forms in the Vedic and the Purāṇic texts. Due to his greatness, the deity was worshipped as a prominent deity in the Vedas. But the Sun-worship as a cult and sect became established only in the Epic-Purāṇic age. From numerous evidences, it becomes clear that the worshipping of the Sun-god is an ancient tradition. The Vedic literature contains its proof. But it cannot be denied that an indigenous school of Sun worshipper might be there in India

²¹⁴ Agni P., 372.34

²¹⁵ Bhā.P., 11.11.37

²¹⁶ Mat.P., 266.29,30

²¹⁷ Ibid., 58.21,22; 62.16-19

²¹⁸ Vide, Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., p.219

²¹⁹ Agni P., 123.28-34

²²⁰ Goyal, S.R., Op. cit., Vol. II, p.330

from the pre-Vedic times.²²¹ Again, there had been a foreign tradition of Sun-worship too, i.e. the Magian tradition, quite popular in the society from 1st century A.D. onwards. 222 During the post-Vedic period, prior to the Purāṇas, an indigenous Sun-sect was prevalent in India that found its expression in the Epics. The Sun-sect called the Sauras was very familiar in the Mahābhārata: sahasrānucarān saurānsahasram cāṣṭa cāparān/²²³ It refers to thousand and eight others present there in the camp of the Pāṇḍus, who were the worshippers of the Sun. The Mahābhārata mentions about a secret Veda of the Sun that was taught to Arvāvasu.²²⁴ It can be inferred from the reference that the Sauras developed a Veda of their own that was different from the traditional Vedas. Again in the Mahābhārata, a hymn dedicated towards the Sun-god possessing hundred and eight names of the deity is found.²²⁵ According to it, Brahmā, Visnu, Rudra, Skanda, Yama, etc., all are the names of the Sun. Sun-god is mentioned as the highest god, the lord of Manus and Manvantars in the work. 226 The Epic $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ contains the $\bar{A}dityahrdayamantra$, 227 that is devoted to the sun. The Sun-god has been identified, with all the great divinities and mentioned as the lord of even Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Maheśa, in the Rāmāyaṇa. 228 He is worshipped as the creator, sustainer and destroyer of all creatures. 229

Vide, Srivastava, V.C., Sun-worship in Ancient India, p. 204

²²² Banerjea, J.N., Op. cit, p.433

²²³ Mbh., 7.82.16

cf., rahasyavedam kṛtavān sūryasya dvijottamaḥ/ Ibid, 3.138.18

²²⁵ Ibid, 3.3.16-28

cf., drśvarānām tvamīśvarah/ Ibid, 3.3.56

²²⁷ Rāmā., 6.105

cf., brahmeśānacuteśāva sūrāyādityavarcase/ Ibid, 6.105.19

²²⁹ Ibid, 6.105.22

Not only among the Āryans, but among the non-Āryan tribes also, the indigenous tradition of Sun-worship was prevalent. The Magas of the Śākadvīpa, mentioned earlier, are the best example of it. In the *Mahābhārata*, the reference of Magas, the fire Sun worshipping priests are found. They are mentioned along with the other three tribes of Śākadvīpa in the *Mahābhārata*. Besides this, the Siddhas, the Cāraṇas, the Gandharvas, the Yakṣas, the Guhyakas, the Nāgas, the Asuras and the Rāksasas are mentioned in the text those adored the Sun. 231

In the Purāṇas, the worship of the deity has given rise to independent cult, called the Sun-cult, one of the five cardinal cults of Paurāṇika Hinduism. Both the Mahāpurānas and the Upapurānas contain the eulogy of the Sun-god. But especially, it was the Sāmbapurāṇa that principally dealt with the cult of the Sun. R.C. Hazra in his work Studies in the Upapurānas, enumerates the chapters and extracts, which deal with the method and praise of the Sun-worship.²³² He has given also the names of the Bhavisyapurāna, the Brahmapurāna, the Skandapurāna, the Varāhapurāna, the Matsyapurāṇa, the Agnipurāṇa, the Garuḍapurāṇa, the Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇa, the Bhavişyottarapurāna, Kālikāpurāņa Besides this, the the and SO on. Mārkandeyapurāna contains chapters in praise of the Sun-god along with some stories of the Sun. Again, references are found in the Purānic texts, and in some other works relating to the cult whose present existence cannot be traced out.

The *Bhaviṣyottarapurāṇa* refers to the $M\bar{a}rtaṇdapurāṇa$. It was one of the Saurapurāṇas that dealt with the *sauravrata*. But the text is not available to us. Again, the $\bar{A}dityapurāṇa$ was one of the earliest and most popular Upapurāṇas that dealt with

²³⁰ Ibid, 6.2.36

²³¹ Mbh., 3.3.29,40

Vide, Hazra, R.C., Studies in the Upapurāṇas, Vol. I, p. 29

²³³ Bhavi.P., 4.121.1,2

the sun-cult.²³⁴ The name of the *Purāna* occurs in the list of the major Purānas, given by Alberuni also which he had prepared on the basis of his knowledge of the names of the Purānas from different sources.²³⁵ He had made the translations of some verses of the Adityapurāņa also, those are used by several Nibandhas, Smṛtis, etc., on the later date. These verses are devoted to the worship of the Sun. The Skandapurāna²³⁶ and the Matsvapurāna²³⁷ contain the name of this Purāṇa. Besides this, the name of the Ādityapurāna occurs in the list of the eighteen minor Purānas that has been presented by the *Devībhāgavata*. 238 According to it, the *Ādityapurāṇa* is a very extensive work. 239 The Brahmāndapurāna mentions that the Ādityapurāna elaborately describes Gāyatrī's appearance, colour, etc. 240 Besides these, different vratas related to the Sun-cult, viz. Putra-saptamīvrata, āṣāḍa-śuklā-saptamīvrata, etc., were discussed in it. 241 It is difficult to find out whether the Adityapurāna was sectarian or non-sectarian Purāna, as it exhibits non-sectarian character dealing with Viṣṇu, Śiva, Durgā, etc., also along with the Sun-cult. Dealing with the matter, R.C. Hazra opines 'We do not know definitely to which sect the Adityapurāṇa originally belonged or whether it was a non-sectarian work.' In the comparatively early *nibandhas* there is a large number of extracts, quoted from the Adityapurana in which the worship of the Sun has been prescribed, on the other hand, Visnu worship is recommended and praised in some of its verses.²⁴²

Vide, Hazra, R.C. Op. cit., Vol. II, p.491

²³⁵ Kane, P.V., Op. cit., Vol. V, Part-II, pp. 831-832

²³⁶ Sk.P., 7.1.2-79,83

²³⁷ Mat.P., 53.59-63

²³⁸ Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., Vol. II, p.491

²³⁹ Devī Bhā.P., 1.3.15

²⁴⁰ Brahmānda P., 3.2.31

²⁴¹ Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., Vol. II, 495-499

²⁴² Ibid., p.494

The $Bh\bar{a}skar\bar{a}hva$ is another minor $Pur\bar{a}na$ that propitiate the Sun-worship. Raghunandana has given the name of this $Pur\bar{a}na$ in a list of the Upapur $\bar{a}na$ that he had derived from the $Kaurmapur\bar{a}na$.

One of the famous Purāṇas, related to the Sun cultis the *Saurapurāṇa*. Though the very name of the *Purāṇa* suggests the solar character of the *Purāṇa*, but it deals mainly with the Śiva and his glories. R.C. Hazra has made a significant remark in this regard that, besides the present *Saurapurāṇa*, which is a Śaiva work, there was an earlier *Saura Purāṇa* which is now lost. Indeed, it is difficult to determine that all these minor Purāṇas were all together different works of one and the same work was called by different authors by different names. With his keen observation, R.C. Hazra holds both the *Saura* and *Mārtaṇḍa* as different Purāṇas as because there is no similarity in between the vratas discussed in both the two works.

Besides these, there is another minor *Purāṇa*, deals with the Sun-cult. It is named as *Uttara Saura*. Only the reference of this *Purāna* is found.²⁴⁷

The *Saura dharma* dealing with the Sun-worship, is another minor *Purāṇa* that propitiated the Sun-cult. The *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* narrates the solar character of this *Purāṇa*. ²⁴⁸ Some passages of this *Purāṇa* are quoted in different Smṛtis.

The *Sāmbapurāṇa* is the great work dealing with Sun worship. It is one of the minor Purāṇas that contains the chapters on the development of solar worship to the independent cult of worshipping the deity. The *Sāmbapurāṇa* gives the information

²⁴³ Ibid., p.491

²⁴⁴ Vide, Ibid., p.511

Pandey, Lalta Prasad, Sun-Worship in Ancient India, p. 153

²⁴⁶ Hazra, R.C., Op. cit., Vol. II, p.390

Vide, Pandey, Lalta Prasad, Op. cit., p. 154

²⁴⁸ Bhavi P., 1.1.4-8; 76-89

about the modes of worship of the deity, 249 about the making of the image of the deity, 250 about the construction of the temples, 251 bringing of the Magas for worshipping the Sun-god, 252 etc. As a whole, the overall development of Sun-cult is discussed in the $S\bar{a}mbapur\bar{a}na$.

According to the *Sāmbapurāṇa*, Sāmba, the son of Kṛṣṇa, was cursed by Kṛṣṇa to become an ugly leper. Sāmba appeased Nārada, who advised to worship the Sun-god to get rid of his disease. Sāmba went to the great river Candrabhāgā and then to Mithravana and worshipping the deity there, he got cured. Sāmba established a city called Sāmbapura in the Mithravana on the bank of the river Chandrabhāgā. He was advised to establish a Sun-image on the bank of the river by the Sun-god. But an image of the deity was found in the river itself. Sāmba erected a temple and at the advice of Nārada and Sun, brought eighteen families of the Magas from the Śākadvīpa. The scholars generally identify the Sāmbapura with Multān. Landrabhāgā.

The *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* is another *Purāṇa* that deals with the Sun-cult. This *Purāṇa* is closely associated with the *Sāmbapurāṇa*, in its content and narration. It also gives an account of the origin of the cult, 255 the solar deity and his associates, 256 the mode of worship, 257 the solar priests 258 and the solar festivals. 259

²⁴⁹ Sāmba P., 36,37,42

²⁵⁰ Ibid., 29

²⁵¹ Ibid., 16, 29

²⁵² Ibid., 27

²⁵³ Ibid., 3

Vide, Pandey, Lalta Prasad, Op. cit., p.155

²⁵⁵ Bhavi. P., 1.70,72,73

²⁵⁶ Ibid., 1.79

²⁵⁷ Ibid., 1.52, 205, 206

²⁵⁸ Ibid., 1.139

²⁵⁹ Ibid., 1.50,55

Thus, the worship of the Sun-god is transformed into the indigenous cult of worshipping the Sun in the period of the Purāṇas. With the sectarianism, in the Purāṇas, has developed some new ideas like, worship of image of the deity, worshipping of the deity constructing temples. Along with these, different festivals, vrata culture, etc., have entered into the sphere of Sun-worship in the Purāṇas.

CHAPTER-IV

VEDIC INFLUENCE ON THE SUN-WORSHIP IN THE PURĀŅAS

Eulogy of the Sun-god in the Purāṇas:

Sūrya is indeed a natural phenomenon that is deified as deity in the Purāṇas following the Vedic tradition. Due to his immense power, the deity is eulogized with great importance right from Vedic times. The Vedic texts were familiar with the eulogy of the deity with different traits. But in the Purāṇas, some other modes of worshipping the deity were developed, and along with the recitation of the mantras dedicated to the Sun, these modes of worship also have introduced. The deity is worshipped as one of the five prominent deities in the Purāṇas.

The Sun-god is worshipped as a sectarian deity in the Purāṇas. The worship of the Sun in the Purāṇic period has given rise to independent cult called the Saura-cult. The glimpses of the sectarianism relating to the Saura-cult can be observed in the two Epics, the *Rāmāyaṇa* and the *Mahābhārata*. The *Rāmāyaṇa* informs about a region on the mountain Cakravān, where, Viśvakarmā installed a *cakra*, i.e. the Sun-god having one thousand spokes, i.e. the thousand rays of the deity: *caturbhāge samudrasya cakravānnāma parvataḥ/ tatra cakrasahasrāram nirmitam viśvakarmaṇā//¹ The Viśvedevas*, Maruts, Vasus and other gods worshipped the Sun-god there,² and the hill was always blessed with the grace of the Sun.³ Again, a reference is found in the

¹ Rāmā., 4.42.27

² cf., ādityamupatiṣṭanti taiśca sūryābhipūjitaḥ/ Ibid.,4.42.42

³ cf., ādityena prasannena śailo dattavaraḥ purā//tenaivamuktaḥ śailendraḥ sarva eva tadāśrayāḥ/matprasādādbhaviṣyanti divā rātrau ca kāñcanāḥ// Ibid., 4.42.38,39

Rāmāyaṇa about the ascetic Sun-worshippers, those resided near the river Mandākinī, who adored the deity with arms upwards.⁴ The *Mahābhārata* has referred to the thousand and eight numbers of the Sun-worshippers met with in the camp of the Pāndus.⁵

Due to his prominence as an atmospheric deity, the Sun-god has been worshipped right from the Vedic age. The numerous aspects of the deity have given rise to independent forms of the Sun, e.g. Sūrya, Savitr, Mitra, Varuṇa, Dakṣa, etc., in the Vedic pantheon. Of these, Mitra, Varuṇa, Dakṣa, etc., have constituted a special class of gods, called the Ādityas. The *Rgvedasaṁhitā* primarily mentions the six Ādityas,⁶ viz. Mitra, Aryaman, Bhaga, Varuṇa, Dakṣa and Aṁśa, which have developed elsewhere as eight,⁷ and finally have numbered as the twelve Ādityas, and have been identified as the twelve months of the year.⁸ They are called Ādityas, as because they are born from the Aditi, the divine mother: ādityaḥ eva tāvat kasmāt āditya ucyate...aditeḥ putra iti vā/ aditirdevamātā tasyāḥ putraḥ/ so'yamāditeyaḥ sannāditya ityucyate/⁹ The tradition of worshipping the Sun-god in his various forms is maintained in the Epic and the Purāṇic period. The different epithets and characteristics

⁴ cf., ādityamupatiṣṭhante niyamādūrdhvabāhavaḥ/ Ibid., 2.95.7

⁵ cf., sahasrānucarān saurān sahasram cāsta cāparān/ Mbh., 7.82.16

⁶ cf., imā gira ādityebhyo ghṛtasnūḥ sanādrājabhyo juhvā juhomi/ śṛṇotu mitro aryamā bhago nastuvijāto varuņo dakṣo amśaḥ// RV., 2.27.1

⁷ cf., aṣṭau putrāso aditerya jātāstanvaspari/ Ibid., 10.72.8 aṣṭayoniraditiraṣṭaputrā.../ AV.,8.9.21

s cf., ādityaevaikavimsatyāyatanam dvādasamāsāḥ...// PB., 10.1.10; vyācam mithunam samabhavatsa dvādasa drapsāngarbhyabhavatte dvādasādityā'srjyanta tāndivyupādadhāt/ ŚB., 6.1.2.8

Also vide, Ibid., 2.6.3.5,8; Śāń.GS., 2.14.8

⁹ Durgācārya on Nir., 2.13

of the deity have given rise in the post-Vedic period different forms of the Sun. ¹⁰ In the *Yuddhakāṇḍa* of the *Rāmāyaṇa*, Rāma was advised by the sage Agastya to worship and satisfy the Sun-god with the recitation of the *Ādityahṛdaya*. ¹¹ The *Ādityahṛdaya* is mentioned as the old mystery, i.e. *guhyaṁ sanātanam*, by which the enemies can be conquered in the battlefield. ¹² In the hymn, the Sun-god is eulogized with his various names, e.g. Āditya, Savitṛ, Sūrya, Khaga, Pūṣan, Bhānu, Divākara, Haridaśva, Saptasapti, Śambhū, Tvaṣṭṛ, Mārtaṇḍa, Aṁśumān, Hiraṇyagarbha, Śiśira, Tapana, Ahaskara, Ravi, Agnigarbha, Kavi, etc. ¹³ Again, in the *Mahābhārata*, one hundred and eight names of the Sun-god are specified. ¹⁴ They are, Sūrya, Aryaman, Bhaga, Tvaṣṭṛ, Pūṣan, Arka, Savitṛ, Ravi, Aja, Kāla, Mṛtyu, Kha, Śukra, Budha, Prabhākara, Indra, Vivasvat, Soma, Viṣṇu, Rudra, Skanda, Tejasāṁpati, Dharmadhvaja, etc. All these hundred and eight names of the Sun direct different aspects and activities of the deity. The tradition of worshipping the deity in his one hundred and eight names is continued up to the Purāṇas, ¹⁵ and moreover, somewhere in the Purāṇic texts, they are mentioned as more than thousand. ¹⁶

Along with such development, gradually, the Vedic approach of worshipping the Sun-god also has become changed. The *Rāmāyaṇa* refers to the *Sandhyopāsanā*, in worship of the deity. ¹⁷ In the *Mahābhārata*, along with the invocations or hymns or the mantras, the deity is worshipped with the offerings of *arghya*, flower-garlands and

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¹⁰ Mbh., 7.82.16

¹¹ Rāmā., 6.105.2,3

¹² Ibid., 6.105.4

¹³ Ibid., 6.105.10-15

¹⁴ Mbh., 3.3.18-28

¹⁵ Sk.P., 1.2.43.18-30

¹⁶ Brahma P., 31

¹⁷ Rāmā., 2.64.34

scents and with vows and fasts, and ascetic penances of various kinds. The mighty king Samvaraṇa worshipping Sūrya with all these articles achieved his daughter Tapatī, as the reward of his devotion. All these modes of worshipping the Sun-god have fully developed in the Purāṇic period, and in the Purāṇas, the deity is found worshipped as an independent deity with different modes and appellations.

Purānic Sūrya, the Atmospheric Deity:

The connection of the Sun with the atmosphere is highly appreciated in the Purāṇas. He is eulogized in the Purāṇic texts as the ball of the fire that is placed in the sky. ¹⁹ The worship of the Sun-god as the fire-ball can be traced in the Vedas. ²⁰ The *Bṛhaddevatā* states that the Sun-god divides him into the three forms of the fire and establishes in the three regions. ²¹ Due to the connection of the Sun-god with the sky, the deity is cited with the epithets, *ambarastha*, ²² *ambarasaṅśrita*, ²³ etc., in the Purāṇic texts. He is the very form of the sky: *vyāpī tvameva bhagavangaganasvarūpam*/²⁴ The luminous aspect of the deity is very prominent. He is mentioned as luminous that can be gazed upon because of the circle of the splendour. ²⁵ The deity is eulogized as the

¹⁸ Mbh., 1.173

bhāsvānprasīdatu// Mār.P., 109.73

¹⁹ cf., yathaiva vyomni tvām vahnipindopamamahamapaśyam.../ Viş.P., 4.13.9 vahnistvameva jalaśoṣaṇataḥ pṛthivyāḥ ṣṛṣṭim karoṣi/ Mār.P., 103.9

²⁰ RV., 1.95.3

²¹ cf., etadbhūtesu lokesu agnibhūtam sthitam tridhā/BD., 1.64

²² Mār.P., 104.34

²³ Ibid., 104.32

²⁴ Ibid., 103.9

cf., sūryācandramasordivye maṇḍale bhāsvare khage/jalatejomaye śukle vṛttakumbhanibhe śubhe// Mat.P., 128.38 yasyaikabhāsvaraṁ rūpaṁ prabhāmaṇḍaladurdṛśam/ dvitīyamaindavaṁ saumyaṁ ca no

white shining solar orb in the Purāṇas.²⁶ It is indeed the Vedic continuation of worshipping the deity in the form of the bright orb of the Sun.²⁷ The Vedic viewers have given importance on this aspect and rightly mentioned him as the *rukma*, i.e. the golden disc in the sky.²⁸

The Sun is the ultimate source of light. The body of the deity consists of the rays of the light. The bright character of the deity is fully vibrant in the Purāṇic mythology: bhāsvantamādyam paramam parebhyaḥ/30 He is uttered as param jyotiḥ, 31 viśvāśrayam jyotiḥ, 32 etc., in the Purāṇas. The worship of the deity as the source of light is indeed the continuation of the Vedic tradition. In the Vedas also the deity is eulogized as the viśvājyotiḥ, 33 jyotiṣām jyotiḥ, 4 etc. Again, he is frequently called śukra in the Vedas, due to his bright appearance; while in the Purāṇas due to the same aspect, he is called prabhākara. With his light, the Sun-god makes everything around him visible. As he penetrates the earth and the entire atmosphere, 37 he is rightly called as the eye of the entire world: jagaccakṣuḥ, 38 lokasamastacakṣuḥ, 9 etc. The idea of

cf., bhumeryojanalakṣam tu vasiṣṭha ravimaṇḍalam/raverlakṣeṇa candraśca lakṣānnākṣatraminduta/ Agni P., 120.6

²⁷ RV., 7.66.14

²⁸ Ibid., 6.51.1

²⁹ cf., mayukhasahasravapu/ Mār.P., 107.6

³⁰ Ibid., 103.7

³¹ Ibid.

³² Ibid., 102.22

³³ ŚB., 8.7.1.15

³⁴ RV., 10.170.3

³⁵ Mār.P., 109.68

³⁶ cf., divi sthitañca deveśam dyotayantam samantatah/ Ibid., 109.63

 $^{^{37}}$ cf., yanmadhyagato bhagavānstapatāmpatistapana ātapena trilokīm pratapatyabhāsayatyātmabhāsā .../ Bhā.P., 5.21.3

raviņā bhāṣitā pṛthvī yāvattāvannabho matam /Agni P., 120.5

³⁸ Padma P., 1.77.30; Sk.P., 4.1.49.35

³⁹ Mār.P., 107.5

worshipping the Sun-god as the eye of the universe originated in the Vedic thought, $s\bar{u}ryo\ bh\bar{u}tasyaikam\ cakṣuh/^{40}$ Moreover, in the Vedas, the Sun-god is called as the eye of the Mitra and the Varuṇa. Indeed, with the mention of the Mitra and the Varuṇa, the whole universe is meant. Commenting on the relevant passage on the $V\bar{a}jasaneyisamhit\bar{a}$, Mahīdhara quotes: $mitrasya\ varuṇasya\ cakṣase\ sarvajagato\ draṣṭe;$ $mitr\bar{a}varuṇaśabdena\ sarvam\ jagallakṣyate/^{42}$ As he dispels the darkness and lightens the whole world with his light, he is known by the epithet $jagatprad\bar{\imath}pa$, i.e. the lamp of entire world.

The Sun-god is eulogized as the lord of the atmosphere and the chief of the planetary system in the *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa*: *devadāṇavayakṣāṇāṁ grahāṇāṁ jyotiṣāmapi tejasābhyadhikaṁ devam*/⁴⁵ He creates the stars, planets and the moon: *ityevaṁ maṇḍalaṁ śuklaṁ bhāsvaraṁ lokasaṅjñitam*// *nakṣatragrahasomānāṁ pratiṣṭhā yonireva ca*/ *candraṛkṣagrahāḥ sarve vijñeyāḥ sūryasambhavāḥ*/⁴⁶ Indeed, the stars, planets and the moon take their light from the Sun and thus the deity stands as the creator of them. For this aspect, the deity is called as the *jyotiṣkṛt* in the Vedas. ⁴⁷ As the moon borrows his light from the Sun, the Sun is considered as the soul of the moon and called as the *somātman* in the Purāṇas. ⁴⁸

⁴⁰ AV., 13.1.45

⁴¹ VS., 4.35

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³ Mār.P., 110.3

⁴⁴ Ibid., 107.11

⁴⁵ Ibid., 109.62

⁴⁶ Mat.P., 128.27,28

⁴⁷ RV., 1.50.4

⁴⁸ Mār.P., 104.26

With his rising and the setting the Sun-god creates the day and the night.⁴⁹ As he creates the day he is called *divākara* in the Purāṇas.⁵⁰ Indeed, there is no rising and the setting of the Sun. It depends upon on its visibility. When Sūrya becomes visible to the people, it is regarded as the day; when he disappears from the visibility, that is called the night.⁵¹ In the Vedas also Sun-god is depicted as the maker of the day and the night.⁵² A class of divine personages, those are of the size of a thumb, called as the Bālakhilya seers are believed to lead him surrounding from the sunrise to the sunset.⁵³

The Sun-god is always mentioned with the car that is drawn by the seven steeds. These seven horses are frequently mentioned in the Purāṇas.⁵⁴ They represent the seven types of the rays of the Sun.⁵⁵ These seven rays are named as Suṣumna, Harikeśa, Viśvakarmā, Viśvaśravā, Saṁyadvasu, Arvāvasu and Svaraka.⁵⁶ Again, somewhere these rays are mentioned as the seven metres of the Veda.⁵⁷ Indeed, the glorification of

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⁴⁹ cf., ahorātravyavasthākāraṇam bhagavānraviḥ/ Viṣ.P, 2.8.11 prākāśyam ca tathauṣṇyam ca sauryāgneye tu tejasī/ parasparānupraveśādāyyāyete divāniśam// Mat. P.,128.12

⁵⁰ Mat.P., 97.11, Mār.P., 104.34

yairyatra dṛśyate bhāsvān sa teṣāmudayaḥ smṛtaḥ/ tirobhāvañca yatraiti tatraivastamanam raveḥ// Viṣ. P., 2.8.14

⁵² GB., 2.4.10

⁵³ cf., tathā bālakhilyā ṛṣayo'nguṣṭaparvamātrāḥ ṣaṣṭisahasrāṇi purataḥ sūryam sūktavākāya niyuktāḥ sanstuvanti// Bhā.P.,5.21.17

cf., saptaturangamāya/ Mat.P., 97.16 hayāśca sapta/ Viş. P., 2.8.7 samajavasaptasaptaye/ Mār. P., 107.2

⁵⁵ Linga P., 60.20, 21; Brahmānda P., 2.24.66-68

cf., suṣumno harikeśaśca viśvakarmā tathaiva ca/ viśvaśravāḥ punaścānyaḥ samyadvasurataparaḥ/ arvāvasuritikhyātaḥ svarakaḥ saptakīrtitāḥ/ Kū.P, 1.41.3,4

⁵⁷ cf., gāyatrī sa bṛhatyuṣṇig jagatī triṣṭubeva ca/ anuṣṭup paṅktirityuktāśchandāṅsi harayo rave// Viṣ. P., 2.8.7

 $[\]dots$ ravirathayugo yatra hayāśchandonāmāna
ḥ saptāruṇayojitā vahanti devamādityam// Bhā.P., 5.21.15

the Sun-god with the seven horses in the Purāṇas, is the continuation of the Vedic tradition of worshipping the deity with seven horses, which is already discussed in the second chapter under the subhead *Sūrya: The God of Atmosphere*. The nomenclature of the rays and the identification of the rays with the seven Vedic meters is indeed the later development in the Puraṇic Sun-cult. Again, the rays of the Sun are eulogized due to their great disease-curing power. The Sun-rays are always considered as the remover of the sickness, diseases, sins, etc., in the Vedic texts. By the rays, Sūrya nourishes the earth, the moon and other stars also.

Sūrya, the Creator, the Preserver and the Destroyer:

The Purāṇic Sūrya is delineated as the ultimate cause of everything, i.e. $sarvabh\bar{u}t\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$. He is the creator and the destroyer of the world. He is mentioned in the Purāṇas as the cause of the creation, dissolution and permanence, i.e. $srstisamh\bar{a}rasthitihetoh$. Three worlds are created by him. Again, he has created the mountains and the rivers. He is mentioned as the cause of the heat, rain, cold and

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⁵⁸ Padma P., 1.77.17-29; 78. 44-47

⁵⁹ cf., tenāsmadviśvāmanirāmanāhutimapāmīvāmapa duṣvapnyam suva/ RV., 10.37.4 apāmīvā bādhate veti sūryam/ Ibid., 1.35.9;

īvām rogādibādhām apa bādhate samyak nirākaroti/ Sāyaṇācārya, Ibid.

cf., sūryaraśmiḥ suṣumṇo yastarpitastena candramāḥ/ kṛṣṇapakṣe'maraiḥ śaśvat pīyate vai sudhāmayaḥ// Viṣ. P., 2.11.22

nakṣatragrahasomānāṁ pratiṣṭhāyonireva ca/ candraṛkṣagrahāḥ sarve vijñeyāḥ sūryasambhavāḥ// Mat.P.,128.28

⁶¹ Padma P., 1.77.31; Mat.P., 97.11

⁶² Bhavi.P., 1.48.22

⁶³ Mār.P., 100.2

cf., ajāya lokatrayakāraņāya bhūtātmane gopataye vṛṣāya/ Ibid., 104.4

⁶⁵ Bhavi.P., 1.48.24

flood.⁶⁶ All the creatures, i.e. the movable and the immovable, the animate or the inanimate are created from the Sun. For all these aspects, Sūrya is worshipped as the soul of the whole universe and of whole created beings, e.g. *deva, tiryak, manuṣya, sarīṣṣpa, vīrudha*, etc.⁶⁷ The idea of worshipping the Sun-god as the soul of universe is indeed influenced by the Vedic thought: *sūrya ātmā jagatastasthūṣaśca*/⁶⁸. In the Vedas, the deity is worshipped as the soul of the universe, who directly causes the creation, survival of the created beings and the destruction of all.

The Sun absorbs the water by his bright rays: tejobhiḥ sarvalokebhyaḥ ādatte raśmibhirjalam/⁷⁰ He absorbs it from the earth for eight months and in another four months again pours it to the earth in the form of the rain. Due to this aspect, he is mentioned in the Purāṇas, as the robber of the waters, i.e. vāritaskara.⁷¹ The corns grow from the rain and the whole universe subsists on it. Thus, being the creator of the rain, Sūrya stands as the cause of the food and the vegetation for the entire earth.⁷² He is rightly called as the nectar for the vivification of plants: yadrūpam jīvanāyaikam vīrudhāmamṛtātmakam/⁷³ Again, the connection of the Sun-god with the breath is mentioned in the Purāṇas. Without Sūrya no one can breathe and without the breath no one can survive in the world: āprāṇāḥ prāṇinaḥ sarva āpaḥ śuṣyanti tejasā/ na

⁶⁶ cf., so'yam saptaganah sūryamandale munisattama/ himoṣna-vārivṛṣṭīnām hetutve samayam gatah// Vis P., 2.10.21

⁶⁷ cf., devatiryanmanuşyanam sarısıpasavırudham/ sarvajıvanikayanam surya atma dıgısvaranı// Bha. P.,5.20.46

⁶⁸ RV., 1.115.1

⁶⁹ Brahmānda P., 2.22.25; Mār. P., 101.20-22; Vis P,2.9.8-18

⁷⁰ Mat.P., 125.31

⁷¹ Mār.P., 102.8

⁷² Bhavi.P., 1.53.6

⁷³ Mār.P., 104.26

 $c\bar{a}mbhas\bar{a}$ $vin\bar{a}$ $srstirvisvasy\bar{a}sya$ $bhavisyati//^{74}$ The same idea originated in the Vedas where the Sun-god itself is called as the vitality: asau $v\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}dityah$ $pr\bar{a}nah$ $pr\bar{a}namevain\bar{a}nutsrjati/^{75}$

Thus, Sūrya survives the whole universe with his rays and heat. He warms, matures, protects the universe and turns it into ashes: *tapasi pacasi viśvaṁ pāsi bhasmīkaroṣi*/⁷⁶ The delineation of the Sun as the power of generation in the Purāṇas is indeed the replication of the Vedic tradition of worshipping the Sun as the generative force in the Vedas.

Sūrya, the Time:

Sūrya is mentioned as the soul of the time in the Purāṇas, i.e. $k\bar{a}l\bar{a}tman$. As soon as the Sun rises and becomes visible to all, it is called the day and as it sets, night befalls. In the *Matsyapurāṇa*, a beautiful narration of it is found: *udite tu punaḥ sūrye ūṣmāgnestu samāviśat/ pādena tejasaścāgnestasmāt santapate divā// prākāśyam ca tathauṣṇyam ca sauryāgneye tu tejasī/ parasparānupraveśādāpyāyete divāniśam//*⁷⁸ Sūrya is eulogized as the cause of the day and night who possesses the celestial fire in his body. With his rising, a fourth of the heat of that fire enters into the earth; and as a result of that, heat is also created in the day time along with the lustre. Again, at sunset, the day enters into the water and brightness and shine are observed in the water during the night. Thus, Sūrya stands as the divider of the day and night and determines the

⁷⁴ Ibid., 103.3

⁷⁵ TS., 5.5.2.5

⁷⁶ Mār. P., 104.26

⁷⁷ Mat.P., 97.11

⁷⁸ Ibid., 128.11,12

⁷⁹ cf., tasmāt tāmrā bhavantyāpo divārātripraveśanāt/ astam gate punah sūrye aho vai praviśatyapah// Ibid., 128.14 time. The Sun as the creator of the day and night is frequently mentioned in the Vedas, ⁸⁰ and from such idea of the Vedas, has developed the idea of worshipping the Sun-god as the creator of the day and night in the Purāṇas.

Again, in the Purāṇas, the Sun-god is observed as the creator of the direction: $uday\bar{a}stam\bar{a}bhy\bar{a}m$ ca smṛte $p\bar{u}rv\bar{a}pare$ tu $vai/^{81}$ The direction, in which the Sun rises, is called the east and the part opposite to it, where he sets, is called the west. Besides this, $muh\bar{u}rta$, ayana, $samkr\bar{a}nti$, etc., are the divisions of time, created by the Sun with its movement. All these ideas of worshipping the deity as the creator of $muh\bar{u}rta$, ayana, etc., originated in the Vedas which is already dealt with in detail in the second chapter under the subhead ' $S\bar{u}rya$, The Time'.

The Sun is eulogized as the creator of the seasons in the Purāṇas. Frequently in the Vedas, he is called as the creator of it. The *Vājasaneyisaṁhitā* refers the name of the six seasons along with its different characters, e.g. cold, heat, etc.⁸³ Following the same, the Sun-god is worshipped in the Purāṇas, for his different nature of creating excessive cold or heat, etc.: *yacca rūpaṁ tavātītaṁ himotsargādiśītalam*/⁸⁴ Again, the twelve months of the year are identified with the twelve Ādityas in the Purāṇas.⁸⁵ The identification of the Ādityas with the twelve months is indeed the continuation of the Vedic tradition of worshipping the deity connecting with the twelve months of the year.⁸⁶ The various parts of the Sun along with his chariot are regarded as the various

⁶⁰ RV., 1.50.7; 5.47.5; 6.58.1; TS., 3.2.2.2, AV., 11.6.21

⁸¹ Mat.P., 124.36

⁸² Brahmānda P., 2.24.60; 2.24.113-116; Bhā.P., 5.22.5-9; Vis. P., 2.8.64-67

⁸³ VS., 2.32

⁸⁴ Mār.P., 101.23

⁸⁵ Varā.P., 20.4,5; Sk.P.,7.101.60,61

⁸⁶ ŚB., 6.1.2.8; PB., 10.1.10 S

parts of the year.⁸⁷ For example, the day is regarded as the naves of the wheel of the chariot of the Sun-god; the years and six seasons are regarded as the spokes of the wheel and its peripheries respectively.

The Ādityas:

The twelve aspects of the Sun-god are worshipped in twelve different forms in the Purāṇas. As they are the children of Aditi, they are called the Ādityas: aditiḥ kāśyapājjajñe ādityāndvādaśaiva hi/⁸⁸ Right from the time of the Vedas the Ādityas are worshipped as the children of Aditi. It is believed that with his twelve forms, the Sun roams in the twelve months and by the movement he lightens the universe.⁸⁹ It is cited in the Purāṇas that the twelve Ādityas take their place in the heaven inside the solar orb.⁹⁰ Different Purāṇas give the names of Ādityas in different ways. The Bhāgavatapurāṇa mentions the twelve Ādityas as Indra, Dhātṛ, Bhaga, Tvaṣṭṛ, Mitra, Varuṇa, Yama, Vivasvat, Savitṛ, Pūṣan, Aṁśumat and Viṣṇu.⁹¹ The Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa has almost given the same list, but mentions the name of Aṁśu instead of Yama. Again, in the list of the twelve Ādityas in the Matsyapurāṇa, the names of Dhanada, Parjjanya, Ravi are included in place of Yama, Vivasvat and Aṁśumat.⁹²

The Purāṇas give the list of twelve Ādityas, associating them with the twelve months of the year. According to it, Indra is responsible for the Āśvina, Dhātṛ for the Kārtika, Parjanya for the Śrāvaṇa, Pūṣan for the Pauṣa, Tvaṣṭṛ for the Phālguna, Aryaman for the Vaiśākha, Bhaga for the Māgha, Vivasvat for the Jyeṣṭha, Aṁśu for

⁸⁷ Mat.P., 125.43,44

⁸⁸ Ibid., 171.55

⁸⁹ Agni P., 19.1-5; Bhā.P.,6.6.39; Vis. P., 2.10.3-17

⁹⁰ Bhā.P., 6.6.39; Mat.P., 171.55-57; Vis. P., 1.15.130-133

⁹¹ Bhā. P., 12.11.30-45

⁹² Mat.P., 171.56

the Āṣādha, Viṣṇu for the Caitra, Varuṇa for the Prauṣtha and Mitra for the Mārgaśīrṣa. 93 The depiction of the twelve Ādityas in the form of the twelve months can be traced its origin in the Vedas.

Sūrya, the Ultimate Reality:

The Sun-god is eulogized as the eternal soul in the Vedas, i.e. $viśv\bar{a}tman$. He is mentioned as the *paraḥ puruṣaḥ* which symbolizes the Supreme Soul. The worshipper, meditating upon him, desires final emancipation. In the Vedic texts, the meditation on the Sun is delineated as the best means of achieve the Brahman. The same idea of meditation on Brahman is repeated in the Purāṇas in his worship. As he is the very means of attaining the Brahman, the Ultimate Truth, he is mentioned in the Purāṇas as the destroyer of darkness and sin.

The soul of the Sun is Vedic, i.e. *vedātman*, He abides in the Vedas: *vedasansthitaḥ* and the Self that consists of with the Vedic knowledge. As he is consisted of the Vedic knowledge, he is regarded as the eternal. The same idea is delineated in the other Purāṇas and in the *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa*, the deity is mentioned as composed of *Rc* hymns, repository of *Yajus* and origin of the *Sāman* hymns: *ya ṛṅmayo yo yajuṣām nidhānam sāmnām ca yo yoniracintyaśaktih/ trayīmayaḥ stūlatayārdhamātrā parasvarūpo guṇapārayogyah.* He is the lord of all, i.e.

⁹³ Bhavi. P., 1. 74.8; Sk.P., 7.10.62-66

⁹⁴ Mat.P., 97.16

⁹⁵ Mār.P., 99.20

⁹⁶ Ibid.

⁹⁷ Chā. U., 3.19.4; Maitrī U., 6.3

⁹⁸ cf., kṣaṇamudayācalamaulimaṇiḥ suraṇamahitahito jagataḥ/ tvamu mayūkhasahasravapurjagati vibhāsi tamāmsi nudan// Ibid., 104.6

⁹⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid., 100.6

sarveśvara. 101 Due to his different forms, the deity is called *viśvarupa*. 102 Again, he is called *vogīśvara* as because he is the lord of Yogins. 103

The Depiction of Sūrya in the Anthropomorphic Form:

In the early Purāṇas, Sūrya is depicted in human form also. The legends of Satrājit, ¹⁰⁴ Aditi, ¹⁰⁵ Yājñavalkya ¹⁰⁶ and Rājyavardhana ¹⁰⁷ are very significant in this regard. Requested by the worshippers, Sūrya, the nature deity appears before them in human form.

Again, the family of Sūrya is narrated in the Purāṇic texts. The Sun is cited as the son of Aditi in the Purāṇas; Samjñā and Chāyā are the two wives of him. The *Viṣṇupurāṇa* holds Vaivasvata Manu, Yama and Yamī as the offspring of Samjñā, and Śanaiścara, Sāvarṇi Manu and Tapatī as the offspring of Chāyā. The Purāṇic legend shows that Samjñā, the daughter of Tvaṣṭṛ was married to Sun and gave birth to three children. But after that being unable to bear the lustre of the Sun left the figure in her place and started austerities in a dark forest taking the form of a mare. The Sun-god

¹⁰² Bhavi.P., 1. 67.18

¹⁰¹ Ibid., 100.10

¹⁰³ Mār.P., 106.65

¹⁰⁴ cf., āsītsatrājitaḥ sūryo bhaktasya paramaḥ sakhā/ prītastasmai maṇim prādātsūryastuṣṭaḥ syamantakam// Bhā.P., 10.56.3

¹⁰⁵ cf., aditerapi pitratvam sametya ravinandana/ eşa vişnuriti khyāta indrasyāvarajo vibhuḥ/ Mat.P., 172.5

¹⁰⁶ cf., ityevamādibhistena stūyamānaḥ stavai raviḥ/ vājirūpadharaḥ prāha vriyatāmiti vācchitam// Viş. P., 3.5.25

 $^{^{107}\,}$ cf., tataḥ sa maṇḍalādudyannijabimbasamaprabhaḥ/ avatīrya dadau tebhyo durdṛśo darśanam raviḥ// Mār. P.,106.76

¹⁰⁸ Bhā. P., 6.6.40-43; Mat. P., 11.34-38; Vis.P., 3.2;

¹⁰⁹ Ibid., 3.2.2.4

also went to the forest following her and taking the form of a horse stayed there, and as a result of their union, the Aśvinīkumāras and Revanta were born. 110

Thus, in the Purāṇas, the Sun-god is eulogized with his anthropomorphic character. In the Vedas, the connection of the deities with the other deities is commonly observed. References are found in the Vedic texts about the family members of the deity. Aditi is worshipped as the mother of the Sun along with the gods. Uşas, the dawn, is his wife, the Aśvins are the twin sons. Again, Yama, the shower of the path of many is mentioned as the son of Vivasvat, the Sun. In the *Nirukta*, Yāska mentions an old legend, stating the birth of the Aśvins, according to which Saraṇyu, the daughter of Trāṣtrī bore twins, Yama and Yamī to Vivasvat, the Sun. It shows that the marriage of the Sun-god Vivasvat to Samjñā in the Purāṇic period, is indeed the renovation of the Vedic tradition.

Mode of Worship:

In the Vedic period, the Sun was praised and worshipped, as a prominent deity. But Sun-worship as a cult and sect becomes established only in the Epic- Purāṇic age. In the Purāṇas, the deity is worshipped both in the *maṇḍala* form and the form of an image. The *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* contains the reference of worshipping the deity in his *maṇḍala* form. Rājyavardhana, in the *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa*, worships the deity in the

¹¹² Ibid., 12.7

¹¹⁰ Mat.P., 52; Mār.P., 80, 83; Vis.P.,3.2

¹¹¹ Nir., 4.22

¹¹³ Ibid., 12.1

¹¹⁴ Nir., 12.10

¹¹⁵ Bhavi. P., 1.47, 79

¹¹⁶ Ibid., 1.131.26

form of an orb. 117 The Sāmbapurāna has pointed out that, in early period, the image of the Sun did not exist. In his circular form, just as the disk of the Sun in the sky, the deity was worshipped: na purā pratimā hyāsīt pūjyate mandale ravih / yathaitān mandalam vyomni sthīyate savitustadā // evameva purā bhaktaih pūjyate mandalākṛtiḥ/... 118 The worshipping of the deity, in the mandala form, originated in the Vedic period. He was worshipped in a circle or its orb in the Vedas. 119 In the commentary of the *Āpastambadharmasūtra*, Haradatta refers to the worship of Āditya drawing maṇḍala ground: drāvidāhkanyāmeşasthe by on the savitaryādityapūjāmācaranti bhūmau mandalamālikhya.../¹²⁰ But, worshipping the deity in his human form, started after Viśvakarmā made the image of the Sun, as stated the Sāmbapurāṇa: ...yataḥ prabhṛti capyeṣā nirmitā viśvakarmaṇā // in sarvalokahitārthāya sūryasya purusākrtih//121

The worship of the Sun-god in human form was the later development in the Sun-cult in the Purāṇic period. He was worshipped in the form of the *maṇḍala* in the Vedas. In the Purāṇas, the same idea of worshipping the deity transforms to the worship of the Sun in the human form

The Gāyatrī or the *Sandhyopāsanā* is one of the modes of worshipping the deity in the Purāṇic period. Indeed, the worship of the deity with the recitation of *Gāyatrīmantra* is the continuation of the Vedic mode of worshipping the Sun. The *mantra* uttered in the *Sandhyopāsanā* goes as follows: *tatsaviturvareṇyaṁ bhargo*

¹¹⁷ Mār.P., 109.76

¹¹⁸ SP., 29.2,3

¹¹⁹ RV., 7.66.14

¹²⁰ Haradatta on Āp. DS., 2.11.29.16

¹²¹ SP., 29.3.4

devasya dhīmahi dhiyo yo naḥ pracodayāt, which is composed in the Gāyatrī metre. The praṇava, i.e. the om and the three vyāhṛtis, viz. bhūḥ, bhuvaḥ and svaḥ are additionally put in the beginning of the mantra. Again some mantras, e.g. bhāskarāya vidmahe sahasraraśmaye dhīmahi / tanno sūryaḥ pracodayāt, tound in the Purāṇas, are modelled on the Āditya Gāyatrī, found in the Taittirīyāraṇyaka. The Sun-god always has been invoked to impel human intellect with the utterance of it.

In the Purāṇic texts, the Gāyatrī is deified in the form of goddess Gāyatrī. The *Liṅgapurāṇa* utters the glory of the goddess Gāyatrī and refers her as the means to attain Brahman. ¹²⁶ In the *Padmapurāṇa* also, the deity is invoked by Rudra. ¹²⁷ The deity is found in the anthropomorphic form in the Purāṇas. She is described as having a fair, slim body with two hands holding the horns of a dear, i.e. *eṇaśṛṅga* in one and a Lotus in the other. She is mentioned as wearing silken garment with an upper red cloth and wearing a garland on her breast and having earrings. ¹²⁸ The representation of the Gāyatrī in anthropomorphic form is not the continuation of the Vedic tradition, but it is regarded as the innovation in the field of Purāṇic Sun-cult.

The *Nāradīyapurāṇa* advises the chanting of the Gāyatrī *mantra* at least for twenty-eight times. ¹²⁹ Again, the *Viṣṇupurāna*, prescribing the Gāyatrī mentions that

¹²³ Vide, Goyal, S. R., A Religious History of Ancient India, Vol. II, p. 329

¹²⁵ cf., bhāskarāya vidmahe mahādyutikarāya dhīmahi tanna ādityah pracodayāt/ TĀ., 10.1

¹²² RV., 3.62.10

¹²⁴ Padma P., 1.76.11

¹²⁶ Linga P., 23.50-57

¹²⁷ Padma P., 1.17

¹²⁸ Ibid.

¹²⁹ Nā. P., 66

nobody should neglect the Sandhyopāsānā, if anyone does that, he would be the murderer of the deity: sa hanti Sūryaṁ sandhyayā nopāstiṁ kurute tu yaḥ/130

In different symbols, Sūrya is worshipped in the Purāṇas. The deity is worshipped in the form of the wheel or disc.¹³¹ Indeed, the worship of the deity in the form of wheel or disc originates in the Vedas.¹³² In the *Śatapathabrāhmaṇa*, a disc of gold is placed on the Sun as the representative of the deity.¹³³

Again, the worship of the deity in the Purāṇas in the form of the Lotus is the continuation of the Vedic tradition of worshipping the deity on Lotus. ¹³⁴ The *Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇa* contains the reference of worshipping the deity on an eight-petalled Lotus flower that is drawn on the ground. ¹³⁵ The *Brahmapurāṇa* also refers to the worship of the Sun-god on an eight-petalled Lotus flower. ¹³⁶ Due to the life giving aspect of the Sun, the deity may be worshipped in that form. It is cited in the *Rgvedasaṃhitā* that the honey from the heavenly wheel is dripped into the Lotus-abhyāramidadrayo niṣkitam puṣkare madhu avatasya visarjane. ¹³⁷ Again, as the Lotus flower blooms during the day time when the Sun shines, the deity may be worshipped in the form of the Lotus flower from the Vedic to the Purāṇic period.

Horse is another Sun-symbol that has been used in the Purāṇas to worship the deity. In the *Viṣṇupurāṇa*, reference is found of worshipping the deity in the form of a horse: *ityeramādivistena stūyamānaḥ stavai raviḥ / vājirūpadharaḥ prāha vriyatāmiti*

¹³⁰ Vis.P., 2.8.53

¹³¹ Mār. P., 106. 76

¹³² RV., 1.175.4; 4.28.2; 30.4; 5.29.10

¹³³ ŚB., 7.4.1.10

¹³⁴ VS., 13.2; TS., 4.2.8

¹³⁵ Vi.Dh.P., 169

¹³⁶ Brahmānda P., 28.23

¹³⁷ RV., 8.72.11

vāñchitam / ¹³⁸ The deity appeared in front of Yājñavalkya in that form eulogized by him. It is indeed the Vedic continuation of worshipping the deity in the form of horse. In the *Bṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad*, the horse is employed as the Sun. ¹³⁹ Again in the Ṣoḍasīn sacrifice also, a horse is placed in the hands of the priest that is regarded as the symbol of the Sun. ¹⁴⁰ Thus, Sūrya is worshipped in the Purāṇas as the horse, the origin of which can be traced back to the Vedas. Due to the strength and swiftness, the Sungod might be worshipped in the Vedas and the Purāṇas in the form of the horse.

The *Sāmbapurāṇa* mentions about the Magas, the priest of the Sun. It was Sāmba, who brought them from Śākadvīpa.¹⁴¹ The Magas were the great follower of the Sun-cult, who helped a lot in the growth and development of the Sun-cult in the Purāṇic Period. The *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* records that the Magas were the descendants of Persian Magis.¹⁴² They wore the sacred waist girdle called *avyaṅga*, i.e. the Persian *aiviyaonghen*. They were the followers of the *Saura* cult.¹⁴³ The Magas were the masters of the Vedas and the Vedāṅgas.¹⁴⁴ They had four Vedas of their own, viz. Veda, Viśvamada, Vidvadvaṅhi and Rasa which were in contrary to the four Vedas of the Brāhmaṇas, viz, Rgveda, Yajurveda, Sāmaveda and Atharvaveda. As the Magas were against of the Vedic tradition, in contrary to the Brāhmaṇas, they worshipped the slough of a snake while the garland is worshipped by the Brāhmaṇas.¹⁴⁵

¹³⁸ Vis.P., 3.5.25

¹³⁹ cf., eşa ha vā aśramedho ya eşa tapati tasya samvatsara ātmā / Bṛ. U., 1.2.7

¹⁴⁰ AB., 8.20

¹⁴¹ SP., 26

¹⁴² Bhandarkar, R.G., Vaisnavism, Śaivism and Minor Religious Systems, pp. 153-154

¹⁴³ Bhavi.P., 1.140.55-61

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.,1.140.62

¹⁴⁵ Ibid., 1.140.39-45

Both the Sāmbapurāna and the Bhavisyapurāna contain the account narrating the origin of the Magas. According to the episode found in the Bhavisyapurāna, Niksubhā, the daughter of Sujihvā, a Śākadvīpī Brāhmana of the Mihira gotra gave birth to a son Jaraśabda or Jaraśasta by name through the Sun-god. Nikṣubhā, the beautiful lady, when was sporting herself in the fire the Sun-god saw her and fell in love. Then entering into the fire, the Sun became the son of the fire and by her he got a son. 146 The Jarasabda-Jarasasta was the son of the Sun by Niksubhā. This Jarasabda-Jarasasta was regarded as the ancestor of the Magas who worshipped the Sun-god. The Magas were regarded as fire-born and as belonging to the Agnijāti: agnijātyā magāh proktāh somajātyā dvijātayah / bhojakādityajātyā hi divyāste parikīrtitāh //¹⁴⁷ The Bhojakas are called as the Magas. 148 Besides this, the Bhojakas are called as the Yājakas. 149 They are mentioned in the Purānas as a set of Brāhmanas, those were employed as the installer and the consecrator of the images of the deity. 150 They are called as Magas, because they meditate on the syllable ma, that is regarded as the makāro parikīrtitah/ symbol for the Sun: bhagavāndevo bhāskaraḥ makāradhyānayogācca magā hyete prakīrtitah//¹⁵¹ In the Purāṇas, the Bhojakas are spoken of as the relatives of the Magas; sometimes, the daughter of Magas are mentioned as married to the Bhojakas, ¹⁵² or sometimes, the Magas are known as the Bhojakas as because they are born of the daughter of the Bhojakas. 153

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¹⁴⁶ Ibid., 1.139.33-43

¹⁴⁷ Ibid., 1.139.44

¹⁴⁸ SP., 27.3

¹⁴⁹ SP., 27

¹⁵⁰ Bhavi. P., 1.117, 135, 140, 144, 145, 146, 147

¹⁵¹ Ibid., 1.144.25

¹⁵² Ibid., 1.140.9

¹⁵³ Ibid., 1, 140, 35

The identification of the Bhojakas with the Magas is quite doubtful. The Magas were mentioned as the Sun-worshipping priests, those were brought by Sāmba to worship the deity after installing the image of the Sun-god that was found by Sāmba during his bath in the Candrabhāga river. The scholars consider them as the fire-worshipping Magis of Persia, who after arriving into India discovered a much more developed form of Sun-worship and as it was akin to their own faith, they adopted it as their means of livelihood. They started their working as the priests of the Sun-temples and wherever they went tried their best to popularise the Sun-worship. The Bhojakas are also mentioned as the priest of the Sun-god in a large number of inscriptions. After a careful study, R. C. Hazra records that the Bhojakas were another group of Persian fire worshippers, who entered into India after following the Magas. But the manner and customs of the Magas were different to a great extent from those of the members of the Vedic fold.

The Sun-god was worshipped in the Purāṇic period either in the form of an image or in the form of an orb. By means of invocation or the mantras, the deity was worshipped. Five types of mudrās, i.e. the holes, were made through the fingers, to see the solar orb, such as Añjali, Dhenukā, etc. The orb of the deity was drawn on the ground, and the devotees worshipped the deity there thrice in a day; morning, noon and evening. The worshipping of the deity with his orb on the ground is the continuation of Vedic tradition of worshipping the deity in the form of an orb. It was the new innovation of non-Vedic tradition in the field of Purānic Sun-cult.

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¹⁵⁴ Vide, Pandey, Lalta Prasad, Sun worship in Ancient India, p.167

¹⁵⁵ Vide, Hazra, R. C., Studies in the Upapurānas, Vol. I, pp. 97-98

¹⁵⁶ Bhavi.P., 1. 206

¹⁵⁷ Ibid., 1.48

¹⁵⁸ Ibid., 1.48, 52, 205

The images of the deity were worshipped with flowers, scents, red Sandal paste, clothes, covers, water, dhūpa, aguru, guggula, karpūra, naivedya, akṣata, lamps, honey, milk, etc.¹⁵⁹ Besides these, the Padmapurāṇa mentions the worshipping of the deity with mudrā, japa, namaskāra, etc.: tattvato gurupadiṣṭena vidhi / diṣṭena tattvataḥ / pūjayedbhaktāḥdrakta puṣpaiśca kadalyādiphalaiḥ śubhaiḥ / pūjayedyo ravim nitya sa yāti bhāskarālayam / puṣpam datvā jalam deyam jalānte ca vilepanam / pradīpānte ca naivedyam tato vāri nivedayet / tato jāpyam stutim mudrām namaskāram tu kārayet / añjaliḥ prathamā mudrā dvitīyā dhenukā smṛtā //...¹⁶⁰

References are found in the Purāṇas of worshipping the deity with $arghya^{161}$ along with the observance of fasts, 162 vows, 163 donation of gifts, 164 etc. The Brahmapurāṇa mentions about the donation of umbrella, flags, vitāna, patākā and $c\bar{a}mara$, etc., to the Sun. 165 Worshipping the deity with the arghya, donation of gifts, etc., is definitely the continuation of the Vedic tradition. The Vedic texts were familiar with the arghya, $d\bar{a}na$, etc; but unfamiliar with the tradition of fasts, vows, etc., though somewhere they were mentioned to denote some other senses.

The Purānic texts direct the worshipping of the Sun-god along with his family. 166 Samjñā, Chāyā, Tvāṣṭrī, Prabhā, Rājñī, Nikṣubhā and Pṛthvī are the consorts of the deity. Of these, Rājñī, Samjñā, Tvāṣṭrī and Prabhā are spoken of as one and the same one, where Chāyā, Nikṣubhā and Pṛthvī are identified as one: rājñī samjñā ca

¹⁵⁹ Ibid., 1.51.31, 32; Padma P., 1.76.12-15;

¹⁶⁰ Ibid., 76.12-15

¹⁶¹ Mār.P., 106.60, 61;107.26; Viş.P., 3.5.14

¹⁶² Varā. P., 1.130.7

¹⁶³ Mat P., 74

¹⁶⁴ Brahmāṇda. P., 29.58

¹⁶⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶⁶ Mat.P., 11; Bhavi.P., 1. 79.47

dyaustvāṣtrī prabhā saiva vibhāvyate / tasyāstu yā tanucchāyā nikṣubhā sa mahimayī//167 Samijñā and Chāyā are regarded as the representative of the Dyauḥ and Pṛthvī respectively. The Nikṣubhāvrata is observed in honour of Nikṣubhā in the Purāṇas, making the image of the deity. The Aśvinīkumāra, the divine doctor, Revanta, Śani, Sāvarṇī, Manu and Yama are the sons of the Sun as described in the Purāṇic texts, and Tapatī and Yamunā are mentioned as his daughters. Again, references are found of worshipping the grahas, that are related to the Sun. The attendants of the deity are mentioned as Daṇḍa, Pingala, Śrauta, two Kalmāṣa birds, i.e. Yama and Garuḍa respectively, Jāṇḍa, Kāma, Kubera, Vināyaka, Hara and Kārtikeya. Several figures, belonging to the solar family are seen worshipped along with the image of the deity in the iconographic forms. The worship of the deity along with his family is the continuation of the Vedic tradition of worshipping the Sun.

Different Purāṇas contain the references of the worshipping of the Sun-god with the Tāntric mode of worship of the Sun. ¹⁷² In Tāntric Sun-worship, some Tāntric diagrams are drawn and the deity is worshipped with some mantras like, *oṁ ghṛṇi sūrya ādityaḥ*, etc. The *Nāradīyapurāṇa* mentions the worship of the deity along with his wives and other planets on the diagram. ¹⁷³ *Aṅganyāsa* is another mode of worshipping the deity. In *Aṅganyāsa*, certain parts of the body are to be touched with the utterance of the certain names of the Sun-god. ¹⁷⁴ Besides these, some Tāntric

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¹⁶⁷ Ibid., 1.79.18

¹⁶⁸ Ibid., 1.79.4

¹⁶⁹ Ibid., 1.166.4

¹⁷⁰ Ibid., 1.206

¹⁷¹ SP., 16

¹⁷² Agni P., 73; Garuda P., 61; Nā.P., 69

¹⁷³ Nā.P., 69.25-36

¹⁷⁴ Ibid., 69.7-24

hymns are used in the Sun-worship. The $S\bar{a}mbapur\bar{a}na$ mentions that the Sun is worshipped with small diagrams of an eight-petalled Lotus applying mantras; and $Astapuspik\bar{a}$ worship and a large mandala called the $Sa\dot{m}vatsara$.

Iconographic Traces of Sūrya in the Purāṇas:

The Purāṇic records and archeological findings related to the Sun-worship throw light on the development of Sun-cult during the days of the Purāṇas. It was Viśvakarmā who had made the image of the deity for the first time. ¹⁷⁹ Prior to it the Sun-god was worshipped by his devotees in the form of an orb. The form of the deity was circular, just as there is the disc of the Sun in the sky. ¹⁸⁰

The iconographic features of the deity are well delineated in the Purāṇic texts. The image of the Sun is made either seated in the chariot or on the Lotus and holding a Lotus: *padmasthaṁ vāhanasthaṁ vā padmahastaṁ prakalpayet*. ¹⁸¹ In the image, the deity is seen holding a Lotus in one hand and the other hand is raised in the posture of giving blessings. ¹⁸² He is made as beautiful-eyed deity, i.e. *sulocana*. ¹⁸³ A different kind of coronet that beams red is placed on the head of the Sun. ¹⁸⁴ The deity is well decorated with ornaments, and both his hands, those lifted to the shoulders hold two

¹⁷⁷ Ibid., 54

¹⁷⁵ Padma P., 1.76

¹⁷⁶ SP., 53

¹⁷⁸ Ibid., 55

¹⁷⁹ cf., yataḥ prabhṛti cāpyevam nirmitā viśvakarmaṇā/ sarvalokahitārthāya sūryasya puruṣākṛtiḥ/ Ibid., 29.3

¹⁸⁰ cf., na purā pratimāhyāsī pūjyate maņḍale raviḥ/ yathaitanmaṇḍalaṁ vyomni sthīyate savitustadā// Ibid., 29.2

¹⁸¹ Mat.P., 261.8

¹⁸² Ibid., 94.1

¹⁸³ Ibid., 261.1

¹⁸⁴ mukutena vicitrena padmagarbhasamaprabham/ Ibid.,261.2

blue Lotuses. The body of the deity is covered with a coat, i.e. colaka or sometimes it is painted with two pieces of garments, i.e. vastrayugmasamopetam. 185

In his image, the deity is shown as seated in a chariot with seven horses and one cakra. 186 The Visnudharmottarapurāna mentions that the seven horses of the chariot of the Sun are the representative of the seven Vedic metres, viz. Gāyatrī, Uṣṇik, Anuṣṭup, Bṛhatī, Paṅkti, Triṣṭup, Jagatī. 187 Aruṇa is the charioteer of the deity who is resplendent like the Lotus leaves and in his both sides, with long necks, and well-decked horses are found. The seven horses yoked to the chariot of the Sun should be tied together with the string of the serpent. 188 Holding the reins with his hands, the deity sustains the entire universe.189

On the two sides of the deity, Dandī and Pingala should be placed as attendants along with their swords. 190 In other texts, Dandī is represented with holding a staff in his hand while Pingala is represented as holding pen in his right hand and ink-pot in the left. 191 But, in the *Matsyapurāna*, they are said to be holding daggers and a new attendant named Dhātṛ is introduced holding a pen in his hand: lekhanīkṛtahastaṁ ca pārśve dhātāramavyayam. 192 The Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇa mentions that Daṇḍī is to be placed on the left side of the Sun-image that is of handsome features like that of the Sun, and Pingala should be placed on the right side that is of tawny colour. He is shown

¹⁸⁵ Ibid., 261.4

¹⁸⁶ Mat.P., 261.4

¹⁸⁷ Vi.Dh.P., 3.67.12

¹⁸⁸ Mat. P., 261.8

¹⁸⁹ Vi.Dh.P., 3.67.4

¹⁹⁰ Mat.P., 261.5

¹⁹¹ Vide, Agrawala, V.S., Matsya Purāṇa- A Study, p.361

¹⁹² Mat.P., 261,6

holding a pen and paper in his hand. 193 The Sun-god is shown with his hands on their heads.

The *Agnipurāṇa* mentions two types of the Sun images. Firstly, it should be made as riding on a chariot of one wheel and seven horses holding two Lotuses, inkstand, pen and a staff with his right hand. Piṅgala, the attendant and gatekeeper of the Sun should be placed on the left side of the image of the deity with the mace in his hand. The deity should have female attendants bearing chowries and the pale looking consorts by his side. Again, secondly, the image of the Sun should be made as riding on a horse alone. ¹⁹⁴

The *Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇa* also gives some iconographic data relating to the Sun-cult. According to it, the image of the Sun-god is regarded as auspicious one. It should be of *sindu* colour. There are four arms of the deity in the image and it is well ornamented. The body of the deity is covered with armour and he possesses the girdle called as *aviyaṅga*. In his both hands, the rays of the deity should be shown. The deity with his hands holds the garlands of flowers. Besides Daṇḍī and Piṅgala on the left side of the image of the Sun, a lion should be placed, that is regarded as the representative of *Dharma*. The four sons of the Sun-god Revanta, Yama and the two Manus are placed on his sides. The four queens Rājñī, Rikṣubhā (Nikṣubhā), Chāyā and Suvarcasā are placed on the sides of Sun image. As the deity is regarded as supreme among the planets, the image of the Sun should be made as surrounded with the planets.

The *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* mentions the icon of the Sun where the deity is found riding in a golden chariot having seven horses those regarded as the seven Vedic

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¹⁹³ Vi.Dh.P., 3.67.7

¹⁹⁴ Agni P., 51.1-3

¹⁹⁵ Vi.Dh.P., 3.67

metres.¹⁹⁶ The charioteer Aruṇa should be placed in the front, Rājñī and Nikṣubhā should be placed on the left and right side respectively.¹⁹⁷ Sometimes, the other wives of the deity are also placed on. The sons of the deity the Aśvinīkumāras are carved on his either sides. The two attendants of him, Piṅgala and Daṅḍa are placed on the right and left sides of the deity respectively.¹⁹⁸

The Purāṇas direct seven types of images of the deity, i.e. $arc\bar{a}$. They are divided on the basis of the material with which the images of the deity are made of. They are $K\bar{a}\bar{n}can\bar{i}$, $R\bar{a}jat\bar{i}$, $T\bar{a}mr\bar{i}$, $P\bar{a}rthiv\bar{i}$, $Sailaj\bar{a}$, $V\bar{a}rks\bar{i}$ and $Alekhy\bar{a}$: $k\bar{a}\bar{n}can\bar{i}$ $r\bar{a}jat\bar{i}$ $t\bar{a}mr\bar{i}$ $p\bar{a}rthiv\bar{i}$ $Sailaj\bar{a}$ $tath\bar{a}/v\bar{a}rks\bar{i}$ $v\bar{a}lekhy\bar{a}$ $g\bar{a}yanti$ $m\bar{u}rtisth\bar{a}n\bar{a}ni$ sapta vai. The image of the deity, made of gold, is called $K\bar{a}\bar{n}can\bar{i}$, the silver-made image is called $R\bar{a}jat\bar{i}$, the image made of copper is called as $T\bar{a}mr\bar{i}$, the image made of earth is $P\bar{a}rthiv\bar{i}$, $Sailaj\bar{a}$ is the stone-made image, $V\bar{a}rksh\bar{i}$ is the image made of tree, i.e. wood and $Alekhy\bar{a}$ is the image that is made drawing on paper or portrait. The images are named differently according to its size. The Sun images should be of one cubit, or of two cubits, or of three cubits or three and half cubits: $ekahast\bar{a}$ $dvihast\bar{a}$ ca $trihast\bar{a}$ $v\bar{a}$ $pram\bar{a}natah/tath\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}rdhatrihast\bar{a}$ $v\bar{a}$ savituh $pratim\bar{a}$ $subh\bar{a}$. The one cubit image is called $Saumy\bar{a}$, two cubits is $Dh\bar{a}nyad\bar{a}$, three cubits is $Sarvak\bar{a}maprad\bar{a}$, i.e. fulfiller of all desires and three and half cubit is called as $Ksemak\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$. Again, the image that is fine from all the sides, front, middle and downward is called $G\bar{a}ndharv\bar{i}$.

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¹⁹⁶ Bhavi.P., 1. 50.16-19

¹⁹⁷ Ibid., 1.76.9-13; 136.50

¹⁹⁸ Ibid., 1.76

¹⁹⁹ SP., 30.2

²⁰⁰ Ibid., 31.1,2

²⁰¹ cf., agre madhye ca mūle ca pratimā sarvataḥ śubhā/ gāndharvī sā tu vijñeyā bahudhānyadhanāvahā//
Ibid.,31.
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The measurement of the different parts of the body of the image of the Sun-god is discussed in the Purāṇas. The *Sāmbapurāṇa*²⁰² states that the length of the foot of the image of the Sun-god is fourteen aṅgulas while the Aṅguṣṭhas should be of three. The *pradeśinī* part should be of the same size of the Aṅguṣṭhas. Again, the fingers of the leg of the image should be carved lesser in size according to the proportion. The ankles of the image should be of four Aṅgulas.

The *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* deals with the iconography of the other gods in general and the Sun-god in particular. According to it, the image of the Sun-god should be in proportion to the door of the sanctum. It should be lower by one-eighth than the door. The *piṇḍikā* should be the three-fifth of the door. The length of the image should be of eighty-four aṅgulas of which the head should be of twelve aṅgulas; the chin, forehead and the nose respectively of one third of the face. The ears should be of the same size of the nose. The eyes of the image should be of two aṅgulas each. The length and height of the forehead should be equal. The distance between the neck and nose and the distance between the mouth and heart are equal. The navel of the image should be of the size of the mouth. The lower part of the image should be made carved. Again the breadth of the chest should be of the size of the head. The waist should be of its half. The thighs and hands should be of equal size. The feet should be of four aṅgulas and it should be below the ankles. The breadth of it should be six aṅgulas, toe being the three aṅgulas and *pradeśinī* should be of the same size. The remaining fingers should be of comparatively smaller in size.²⁰³

The Purāṇas deal with the merits that are to be obtained by different types of images, according to its materials. The image of wood gives glory, age, victory,

²⁰² Ibid., 31.6-14

²⁰³ Bhavi.P., 1. 132

strength, fame; image of clay is beneficial to the entire subjects. The golden image gives nutrition, the silver image gives fame. Again, the copper image is helpful in multiplication of the subjects and the stone image gives landed property to its worshippers. The images of iron or glass or any other metal are never appreciated. They are regarded as harmful or inauspicious.²⁰⁴

Temples and Pilgrimages for Worshipping the Sun-god in the Purānas:

The Purānic texts contain detailed discussion of installation of the Sun image in the temple. The image of the deity would be installed with the great show off on an auspicious day and at an auspicious place in the centre of the city: puramadhyam samāśritya kuryādāyatanam raveh/²⁰⁵ Prior to installation, it should be sprinkled with pure water that is brought from many rivers, from all the parts of the country. ²⁰⁶ The Agnipurāņa prescribes the installation of the image of the Sun-god with the utterance of sacred mantras devoted to the deity. 207 The Purāṇa glorifies the building of a temple, saying that a person who builds a temple is always blessed. Even if one merely thinks of building a temple, the sins of hundred lives are forgiven.²⁰⁸ The bliss of all kinds of sacrifices, pilgrimage, sacred bath, etc., is only obtained by establishing a temple: phalam yann"pyate tadāpyate/ devāgāre yajñairdhāma kṛtvā kṛte sarvatīrthasnānaphalam labhet//²⁰⁹

²⁰⁴ Ibid., 1.133

²⁰⁵ Ibid., 1.130.41

²⁰⁶ Ibid., 1.133

²⁰⁷ Agni P., 99.1-5

²⁰⁸ Ibid., 38.1,2

²⁰⁹ Ibid., 38.6

The Sāmbapurāna gives a detailed discussion of the arrangement of a temple dedicated to the Sun-god. 210 The temple should be established after proper examination of the ground: ādau bhūmim parīkset kuryāddevagrham tatah²¹¹ The Sun-god should be consecrated in the garbhagrha, i.e. the main sanctum of the temple. A door should be there on the eastern part and a bathroom of the Sun-god should be erected there in the southern part. A room should be constructed there for the Agnihotra or *Havana* in the northern part of the temple. The deities Sambhu along with Mātrkās, Brahmā and Visnu are to be installed in the shrines in the south, west and northern parts respectively: udunmukham bhavacchambhormātṛṇām ca gṛhottamam/ brahmā paścimatah sthāpyo visnuruttaratastathā//²¹² In front of the Sun image, the place of two Mahāśvetās should be made. The two Aśvins should be installed outside at the door of the shrine and they are to be worshipped there. The attendants of the Sun-god should be also placed on the temple. Rājña and Tosā, i.e. the Kārtikeya and the Hari respectively should be consecrated in the second shrine; two Kalmāsa birds, viz. Pretādhipa and Garuda should be consecrated in the third shrine. Jandaka, who is Citragupta and the Māṭhara, who is Yamarāja should be placed in the southern direction. Besides these, in the western, Prāpnuyān, the ocean and Ūkṣatās, should be placed and in the north Kubera and Soma should be kept and to the north of Kubera and Soma, should be placed Revanta and Vināyaka. 213 Two mandalas should be made on the ground to offer arghya to the Sun-god in the morning and evening hour. ²¹⁴ The Sāmbapurāna mentions

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²¹⁰ SP., 29

²¹¹ Ibid., 29.7

²¹² Ibid., 29.15,16

²¹³ Ibid.,29.17-21

²¹⁴ cf., arghāya mandale dve vai kārye savyāpasavyayoḥ/ dadyādudayavelāyāmardham sūryāya dakṣine// Ibid., 29.22

about a banner, i.e. *dhvaja* of the Sun with the representation of *vyoma* on it.²¹⁵ The *Bhavişyapurāṇa* specifies that the metal gold is to be used in the *dhvaja*.²¹⁶ In honour of the Sun-god, the *dhvaja* is to be erected and they are called as *dharmadhvaja* on account of the figure *dharma* on the banner.²¹⁷

The Magas and the Bhojakas are considered as the Sun-worshipping priests associated with the installation and worship of the Sun image. Following the advice of Nārada, Sāmba had brought them to the region from the Śākadvīpa. The Śākadvīpa is situated far from Jambudvīpa on the other side of salt-ocean and it is said to be surrounded with the sea of milk: ...lavanodātparepārekṣīrodenasamāvṛtam/jambudvīpātparamyasmācchākadvīp iti smṛtam...//219 One day Sāmba, the son of Lord Kṛṣṇa and Jāmbavantī, went to take his bath in the river Candrabhāgā, where he found a glowing image that is brought by the current of the river. The image had been carved by Viśvakarman. Sāmba installed the image on the bank of the river. As because all the Brāhmaṇas did not accept the offering of the gifts of the temple, Sāmba was advised by Nārada to go to Gauramukha, a priest of Ugrasena, who again advised Sāmba to bring Magas who had the right to accept the gifts presented to the temples of gods and to perform their worship: tasyādhikāo devānne devatānāñca pūjane/220 In the Sāmbapurāṇa, the image of the deity itself advises Sāmba to bring the Maga worshippers from Śākadvīpa to worship him. The sadvised by Nārada and Sūrya,

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²¹⁵ cf., ravervyoma smrtam dhvaje/ Ibid., 33.8

²¹⁶ Bhavi. P., 1.138.45

²¹⁷ Ibid., 1.138.37

²¹⁸ Ibid., 1.139

²¹⁹ Ibid.,1,139, 72-73

²²⁰ Ibid., 1.139.28

cf., vijñapte tvayyaśeṣeṇa pratimā tamuvāca ha/ na yogyaḥ paricaryyāyām jambudvīpe mamānagha// mama pūjāparā kṛtvā śākadīpāihānaya/ lavanodātpare pāre kṣīrodena samāvṛtam// SP., 26.27,28

Sāmba went to Śākadvīpa and brought the Magas from there. These Bhojakas are referred to in the *Bhavişyapurāṇa* as the installer and consecrator of the Sun images.²²²

The *Bhavisyapurāna* mentions about some important Sun temples. Vaśistha, the priest of Ikṣvāku dynasty had a Sun-temple that was constructed on the bank of the river Sarayū, ²²³ where he regularly worshipped the deity. By worshipping the Sun-god there on the month of Kārtika with the utterance of the names of the deity and lighting the light, people achieve everything; the merit of all the sacrifices, glory equal to the Sun-god and even the Sūryaloka. There is another Sun temple, constructed by the son of Priyavrata, the king of Śākadvīpa, in his territory. He had installed a golden image of the deity there.²²⁴ To worship the deity, the Bhojakas had been appointed. Besides these, the other temples of the Sun-god mentioned in the Bhavişyapurāṇa are the temples in Prayāga, Puşkara, Kurukşetra, Naimişa, Prthudaka, Kaśāvarta, Candrabhāgā, Sona, Gokarna, Brahmāvarta, Kuśāvarta, Bilvaka, Nīlaparvata hin Nīlagiri), Gaṅgādvāra, Gaṅgāsāgara, Mitravana, Cakratīrtha and Rāmatīrtha. 225 Among all the temples of the Sun-god, the temple of the Sāmbapura is regarded as the first abode of the Sun-god.²²⁶ The other major temples, devoted to the Sun-worship are the temples of Indravana, Muṇḍīra and Kālapriya. 227

The Purānas also mention about different Sun-temples located in different places. The Garudapurāṇa informs about three images of the Sun, established by Sāmba after relieving from his diseases. One of the images, he had established on the

²²² Bhavi P., 1.117, 135,140, 144, 145, 146, 147

²²³ Ibid.,1.118.19,20

²²⁴ Ibid., 1.117.8-10

²²⁵ Ibid., 1.55

²²⁶ Ibid., 1,72,7

²²⁷ Ibid., 1.72. 4-7

Udayācala, another at Kālapriya, to the south of Yamunā, and the third one he established at Mulasthāna, i.e. the present Multan.²²⁸ The *Purāṇa* also mentions that the devotee obtains greatest advantage, worshipping the rising Sun on the Udayācala, the midday Sun at Kālapriya and the setting Sun at Mulasthāna. It indicates the location of Udayācala in the east region, Kālapriya in the centre and Mulasthāna in the west part.

The Vāyupurāṇa mentions about Vāḍāditya, one of the forms of the Sun-god. The image of the Vāḍāditya was installed by Vāyu in the city of Vāyupura. The deity is regarded as endowed with great prowess. He bestows everything to his devotees and fulfils all the desires: vāḍādityaśca deveśaḥ sthāpito vāyunā tadā/ kāmadaḥ sarvadaḥ sūryo prabhurīṣaḥ pratāpavān/²²⁹

The *Brahmapurāṇa* mentions that to the south of the Bhāratavarṣa, in one of the shores of the great ocean, there is located the land named Oṇḍra and Utkala. In the Utkala, i.e. the Sūryakṣetra, the image of the Sun-god known as Koṇāditya is installed.²³⁰ The image of the deity is mentioned as auspicious, with the sight of which all sins of man is destroyed. The temple is surrounded with sand and trees. The best time for propitiating the deity is considered as the sunrise. The devotee, worshipping the deity according to the prescribed rites becomes free from the sins that acquired in the seven births.

The *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa* refers to many centres of the Sun-worship. According to it, Kāmarūpa is one of the places where the worship of the Sun-god was prevalent from very early period. The old King Rājyavardhana, propitiating the Sun-god here in

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²²⁸ Garuda P., 23.6

²²⁹ Vā.P., 59.120

²³⁰ Brahmānda P., 28.53,54

the region, regained his youth.²³¹ The *Kālikāpurāṇa* mentions two important places of Sun-worship. It refers to the holy place called Ravikṣetra that is located on a hill called Tattva to the west of the river Trisrotā.²³² The Ravikṣetra is now identified as the Śrī Sūrya mountain of the district in Goalpara, where the twelve identical figures, i.e. the twelve Ādityas, in the form of Lotus-petal are found arranged around the figure of Kāśyapa. The Citraśaila is another place of Sun-worship in the region where the Sungod is worshipped along with the nine planets.²³³ The Citraśaila is presently known as Navagraha hill in Guwahati, Assam.

The Sun-god is worshipped in the form of Lolārka in the Purāṇas. But the episode of Lolārka is found in variant ways in different Purāṇas. 234 According to the *Vāmanapurāṇa*, the deity achieved the form lolling between Varuṇa and the river Asī, due to some quarrels with the Asuras. He was restored to his place Lolārka, that in probably the Lolārka Kuṇḍa, near Badaini, in the district of Vārāṇasī. The Sun-god is worshipped there along with the other Brāhmaṇical deities. Again, according to the *Skandapurāṇa*, due to his eagerness, i.e. *lola*, the Sun-god acquired the name Lolārka. The temple of Lolārka is located in the southern direction of Kāśī at the confluence of Asi with Gaṅgā. Among all the holy tīrthas of the place, the Lolārka is considered as the first and foremost and other tīrthas are regarded as subsidiaries to it, those watered by its holy water. Due to the greatness of the deity, the inhabitants of Kāśī achieve and preserve good. The annual pilgrimage to the place on the seventh

²³¹ Mār.P., 111

²³² Kā. P., 78.41,42

²³³ Ibid.

²³⁴ Bhā.P., 7.18; Vāma. P., 76.41

²³⁵ Agrawala, V.S., *Vāmana Purāṇa-A Study*, p. 34

²³⁶ Sk.P., 4.1.46.48

²³⁷ Ibid., 4.1.46.59

lunar day in the month of Māgaśīrṣa, or on the sixth day that falls on a sunday makes man free from all types of sin. All the sins committed by man during the whole year are destroyed with the visit of Lolārka on the sixth lunar day that falls on Suday. The holy bath at the confluence of Asi and Gaṅgā, by propitiating the Pitṛs and the deities along with the performance of śrāddha on that place, one becomes free to the indebtedness to the Pitṛs. With the holy dip at the confluence of Gaṅgā and Asi on the seventh day in the bright half of Māgha called Rathasaptamī, one becomes free from the sins incurred in the course of seven births. Again, if anyone takes a visit to Lolārka on every Sunday observing the vows of cleanliness, he becomes free from all the miseries in the world. Along with the miseries, the people get rid of all the skindiseases, e.g. Pāma, Dadru or Vicarcikā, worshipping the Sun-god in the form of Lolārka located in the Vārānaśī.

The Sun-god has divided himself into twelve forms in the city of Kāśī to destroy all the sins of his devotees. These twelve forms of the Sun-god are, Lolārka, Uttarārka, Sāmbāditya, Drupadāditya, Mayūkhāditya, Khakholkāditya, Aruṇāditya, Vṛddhāditya, Keśavāditya, Vimalāditya, Gaṅgāditya and Yamāditya. The twelve shrines dedicated to the worship of these forms of the Sun are located in Kāśī.

The Sun-god is worshipped in the form of Uttarārka.²⁴³ The image of the Sun-god Uttarārka is installed on the Arkakuṇḍa, in the north side of the Viśveśvara temple in Vārāṇasī. The deity Uttarārka dispels the miseries of the people and flourishes the

²³⁹ Ibid., 4.1.46.52

²³⁸ Ibid., 4.1.46.50

²⁴⁰ Ibid., 4.1.46.55

²⁴¹ Ibid., 4, 1, 46, 57

²⁴² Ibid., 4.1.46.44

²⁴³ Ibid., 4.1.47.1

good people. The Arkakuṇḍa is also known as Bakariā Kuṇḍa. The annual pilgrimage of the lord Uttarārka should be performed on a Sunday in the month of Puṣyā, which bestows all the benefits of Kāśī.²⁴⁴

A small shrine of Sāmbāditya is found near Sūryakuṇḍa, near Godaulia. Sāmba, the son of Kṛṣṇa, worshipping the deity at the city of the Viśveśvara, i.e. Vārāṇasī got rid of leprosy. Due to the redemption and purity of the place, all the great sins committed by the people are removed, and all the diseases are cured at Vārāṇasī, if no remedy has been seen for, even by the sages. The deity Sāmbāditya, the dispeller of all ailments, bestows all the riches to his devotees there, making them free from evil and illness. No disease can afflict the devotee: if he takes a holy dip in Sāmbakuṇḍa, early at dawn on a Sunday and worships the deity Sāmbāditya. Widowhood never hits the woman if she worships the Sun-god in the form of Sāmba. The barren woman gives birth to a son, endowed with pure handsome features. In the month of Madhu, i.e. Caitra, on a Sunday, the annual pilgrimage and festivities take place at Vārāṇasī. After taking the holy bath in the Sāmbakuṇḍa, and worshipping the deity with Aśoka flowers according to the injunctions, the devotee becomes free from grief and all the sins he has committed throughout the year. As sunday the sambakuṇḍa.

The temple of the deity Draupadāditya is located under a tree on the west side of the Viśvanātha temple. The Sun-god occupying this form bestows supernatural powers to his devotees.²⁴⁹ Viśveśara had given a boon to Draupadāditya, satisfied with

²⁴⁴ Ibid., 4.1.47.57

²⁴⁵ Ibid., 4.1.48.39

²⁴⁶ Ibid., 4,1,48,41

²⁴⁷ Ibid., 4.1.48.49

²⁴⁸ Ibid., 4.1.48.54

²⁴⁹ Ibid., 4.1.48.58

his penance, that if a man visits Viśveśvara after worshipping the Sun in the form of Draupadāditya, he becomes free from the darkness of his miseries with the rays of the Sun.²⁵⁰ Due to this boon, the Sun-god dispels forever the sins of the creatures those stationed at Kāśī.

The temple of Mayūkhāditya is located there inside the Maṅgalā Devī temple.²⁵¹ The deity had achieved the name Mayūkhāditya as because at the time of his performance of penance only the rays of the deity were seen, not the body.²⁵² The Sungod called Mayūkhāditya had installed a great *liṅga* named Gabhastīśvara and Gaurī, named as Mangala. The *liṅga* gives all siddhis to the devotees.²⁵³ A person taking his holy bath in Pañcanada with the adoration of Gabhastīśvara, becomes rid of all his sins and becomes free from the cycle of rebirth. Propitiating the Sun-god there, people becomes free from sickness. If a person visits Mayūkhāditya on Sunday, no one will incur poverty.²⁵⁴

The image of the deity Khakholka is at present in the Kāmeśvara temple in Vārāṇasī. The Sun-god called Khakholkāditya destroys all the ailments. By unethical way, Vinatā, the mother of Garuḍa, was defeated by Kadru. Garuḍa released his mother from the slavery. After that, both Vinatā and Garuḍa had gone to Vārāṇasī to perform severe penance. Garuḍa installed there a *liṅga* of Śambhu and Vinatā installed the splendid one Khakholka, one of the forms of Āditya. The deity Khakholkāditya appeared in front of Vinatā and blessed her to become free from various sins, providing

²⁵⁰ Ibid., 4.1.49.17

²⁵¹ Ibid., 4.1.49.2

²⁵² Ibid., 4.1.49.93

²⁵³ Ibid., 4.1.49.78

²⁵⁴ Ibid., 4.1.49.95

²⁵⁵ Ibid., 4.1.50.9

her the knowledge of Śiva. The deity was also named as Vinatāditya after her name.²⁵⁶ Khalkholkāditya is believed to have destroyed the various sins of the resident of Kāśī.

The idol of Aruṇāditya is installed in Vārāṇasī to the north of the Mahādeva temple. Vinatā was cursed by her own son Aruṇa, who was born unfledged, due to the excessive eagerness of her under which she broke open the egg prematurely. Inquired by Vinatā, Aruṇa told her the way to get release from the curse. After that, he flew unto the sacred place called Ānandakānana at Vārāṇasī and performed penance there. He propitiated the Sun-god and the deity became known as Aruṇāditya after his name. The people, who worship the deity there in Vārāṇasī will have nothing to fear from anywhere. The worshippers become free from misery, poverty and sins. They become free from all ailments, no evil phenomena will attack them and no fire of grief can burn them.

The image of the Sun-god in the form of Vṛddhāditya is installed towards the south of Viśālākṣī in Vārāṇasī. The image carries all auspicious characteristics and was intended to bestow auspiciousness. The people attained supernatural powers propitiating the Sun-god in Vārāṇasī in the form of Vṛddhāditya. He destroys old age, wretchedness and ailments. A man would attain the desired benefit, by bowing down to Vṛddhāditya at Vārāṇasī on a Sunday.

The crystal *linga* of Lord Maheśvara made by the Sun was placed and worshipped to the north of Ādikeśvara in Vārāṇasī. It is known as Keśavāditya. The

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²⁵⁶ Ibid., 4.1.50.149

²⁵⁷ Ibid., 4.2.51.21

²⁵⁸ Ibid., 4.2.51.22

²⁵⁹ Ibid., 4.2.51.29

²⁶⁰ Ibid., 4.2.51.41

²⁶¹ Ibid., 4,2,51,43

Sun-god is known as Keśavāditya, attaining the spiritual knowledge, after associating with Keśava.²⁶² The deity destroys the darkness of the devotees and bestows them everything according to their desires.²⁶³ By propitiating Keśavāditya, at Vārāṇasī, a man acquires highest wisdom whereby he attains salvation too. People performing the ritualistic offerings of water to one's predecessors in the holy *tīrtha* called Pādodaka at the confluence of Gaṅgā and Vārāṇasī and visiting Keśavāditya, become liberated from inherited sins.²⁶⁴ Again, on the Rathasaptamī day, the seventh day of the bright half of Māgha, that falls on a Sunday, the devotee taking a bath early in the morning in the Pādodakatīrtha in front of Ādikeśvara, observing silence and worshipping Keśavāditya becomes free from the sins incurred in the course of seventh birth.²⁶⁵ The seven types of sins are—i. sins, committed in the current birth; ii. sins, acquired in the previous birth; iii. mental sins; iv. verbal sins; v. physical sins; vi. known sins and vii. unknown sins. The holy bath at Keśavāditya on the *saptamī* of Makara destroys the seven types of sins.

The temple of Vimalāditya, one of the forms of the Sun-god is placed on the beautiful forest of Harikeśvara in Vārāṇasī. As the Kṣatriya Vimala became free from the leprosy worshipping the Sun-god there in Vārāṇasī, people, visiting the deity there, becomes free from the foul disease of leprosy. The deity Vimalāditya is always regarded as the bestower of the boons on devotees and dispels all ailments and sins.

To the south of Viśveśvara in Vārāṇasī, the deity Gaṅgāditya is installed. By seeing Gaṅgāditya a man attains purity. Gaṅgā when arrived with Bhagīratha, leading

²⁶² Ibid., 4.2.51.44

²⁶³ Ibid., 4..2.51.73

²⁶⁴ Ibid., 4.2.51.75

²⁶⁵ Ibid., 4.2.51.76,77

²⁶⁶ Ibid., 4.2.51.99

her, the Sun-god placed himself there in order to eulogise Gaṅgā. The person who propitiates Gaṅgāditya in Vārāṇasī, never attains wretchedness at any place nor falls ill. 267

The Āditya that was installed by Yama to the west of Yameśa and to the east of Vīreśa is known as Yamāditya. Yamāditya removes the torture that arises from Yama. The devotee, worshipping Yameśa and Yamāditya and taking a holy dip in Yamatīrtha never sees the world of Yama. Taking a bath in Yamatīrta on Tuesday that falls on the fourteenth lunar day and a visit to Yameśvara makes man free from all sins. Again the performer performing libation and offerings of balls of rice in Yamatīrtha on the fourteenth day on a Tuesday with Bharaṇī constellation becomes free from indebtedness to Pitṛs. One becomes free from indebtedness to the Pitṛs by performing śrāddha in Yamatīrtha, adoring Yameśvara and bowing down to Yamāditya.

Yājñavalkya had installed twelve Sun-gods at different places in the Hātakeśvarakṣetra. He had installed a Sun-god called Śaṅkhāditya. The temple of the deity is known as Śaṅkhatīrtha. Śaṅkha had also resorted to a water tank, known as Śaṅkhakuṇḍa, near to the temple and performed his penance there. A person taking his holy bath there at sunrise on the eighth lunar day in the bright half in the month of Vaiśākha that falls on a Sunday, becomes free from all types of leprosy and becomes brilliant like the Sun. The deity fulfils all the desires of his worshippers and destructs

²⁶⁷ Ibid., 4.2.51.104

²⁶⁸ Ibid., 4.2.51.109

²⁶⁹ Ibid., 4.2.51.110

²⁷⁰ Ibid., 4,2,51,107

²⁷¹ Ibid., 6,209,43

²⁷² Ibid., 6.209.44,45

their sins. In the Hātakeśvara, the image of the Ratnāditya, one of the forms of the Sungod was installed by the King Ratnākşa. It destructs all sins of his worshippers. Without using any implement of digging, Viśvāmitra dug up a pit on the ground in Hātakeśvara with his own hands. He meditated and brought the river Jāhnavī from Pātāla there.²⁷³ All the sins of people destruct with the holy ablution into it. Later on King Ratnākṣa being freed from his diseases of leprosy worshipping the Sun-god there, installed the image of the deity. In the bright half of the Māgha that falls on a Sunday bowing down to Divākara there, a man becomes rid of leprous ailments and sins. To the northwestern side of it a water tank was created by Dhanvantari. With the holy bath into it man becomes free from all ailments. The devotee taking a holy bath there and visiting the deity on the Saptamī day in conjunction with a Sunday, shall be relieved of sins and go to the world of the Sun.²⁷⁴ The image of the Mārtanda was installed by Viśvāmitra in the Hātakeśvara. The deity destructs all the leprous ailments. On the seventh lunar day in the bright half of the month of Vaiśākha, that falls on a Sunday and constellation Pitradaivatya, the deity was worshipped by his devotee with hundred and eight circumambulations to become free from leprosy. 275 Sāmba, to get rid of his leprosy worshipped the Sun-god called Sāmbāditya after bathing in the auspicious water of Sindhu. He started slowly towards the holy spots beginning with the Puşkara worshipping lord Puşkarasvāmin. Sāmba took his holy bath there in the meritorious waters of the kunda and offered libation to the Pitrs and Devas. On a Sunday, coinciding with Saptami, he went to the temple of Kuharasvāmi, and worshipped the deity offering fruits and one hundred and eight circumambulations, repeating the

²⁷³ Ibid., 6,212.9

²⁷⁴ Ibid., 6.212.54

²⁷⁵ Ibid., 6.213

Sūryagāyatrī.²⁷⁶ The temple of Bakulārka, i.e. the lord of the forest groove, is placed on the west of the idol of Śambhu in the Ravikṣetra.²⁷⁷ A *kuṇḍa* occurred there with the hind leg of the horse, i.e. the disguised form of the Sun.²⁷⁸ Both the temple and the *kuṇḍa* are located in the Dharmāraṇya, in the northern Kurukṣetra. If a man takes his holy bath in the Ravikuṇḍa, he becomes free from sins, never afflicted with sickness, leprosy, etc.²⁷⁹ The manes become redeemed if fallen in great hells, with the bath to it.²⁸⁰ Taking the bath on the seventh lunar day in conjunction with Sunday, or at the time of lunar and solar eclipses, a bath in Ravikuṇḍa makes the people free from the cycle of rebirth.²⁸¹ The holy dip in the Ravikuṇḍa, on the day of the transit of the Sun, on *Vyatīpāta*, on Vaidhṛta, on the full moon day, on the new moon day, or on the fourteenth day of the dark and bright half of a month gives the benefit of ten million sacrifices to the devotees.²⁸²

Besides the temples, there are some centres of pilgrimage mentioned in the *Vaiṣṇavakhaṇḍa* of the *Skandapurāṇa*. The Dvādaśāditya is one of them, situated near Somakuṇḍa. The holy bath that is taken there on Sunday, Saptamī and Saṁkrānti is regarded as very auspicious, and people visited the place seeking blessings of the Sungod. There is a *tīrtha* called Arkatīrtha, situated to the west to Markaṭatīrtha, on the bank of the river Narmadā in Tripuri. King Gandharvarāja is said to have been cured of his leprosy by worshipping the Sun-god. The *tīrtha* is also known as Bhāskaratīrtha.

²⁷⁶ Ibid., 6.213. 108

²⁷⁷ Ibid., 3.2.13.1

²⁷⁸ Ibid., 3.2.13.51

²⁷⁹ Ibid., 3.2.13.53

²⁸⁰ Ibid., 3.2.13.59

²⁸¹ Ibid., 3,2,13,60

²⁸² Ibid., 3,2,13,62

²⁸³ Ibid., 2.2.7

²⁸⁴ Ibid., 5,3,9

Besides this, there is another *tīrtha* known as Sūryākṣatīrtha.²⁸⁵ The temple of the Ādityeśvara is situated to the north of the river Narmadā.²⁸⁶ It is considered as the great pilgrimage of Hindu, that is praised as better than even Kurukṣetra, Prayāga, Naimiṣa, Puṣkara, Kāśī and Kedāra. At the time of solar eclipse, people coming from different parts take their holy bath there and make different gifts. It is also known as Arkatīrtha and Sūryatīrtha.²⁸⁷

The Candrādityatīrtha is another centre of pilgrimage, which was installed by two Rākṣasas, the Caṇḍa and the Muṇḍa on the bank of the river Narmadā. 288 In the Avantīkhaṇḍa under the Revākhaṇḍa, a temple is mentioned, dedicated to the Sun-god Narāditya or Naradīpa which was built in Ujjayinī. The temple was known for its glory. The Narāditya temple is at present near the Kālabhairava temple in Ujjayinī. There is a tīrtha of Dvādaśārka which is situated on the south bank of the river Kṣiprā. The Sun-god was believed to be taken the human form in Prabhāsakṣetra and therefore it is also regarded as the place of pilgrimage. The place Prabhāsakṣetra is at Saurāṣṭra and also known as the Arkasthala. There is a Sūryakṣetra at the confluence of the rivers Brāhmī, Hiraṇya and the sea. Besides these, the shrines of the Sun-gods, Gopāditya, Sagarāditya, Nagarāditya, Nagarāditya, Nandāditya, etc., were installed on the

²⁸⁵ Ibid., 5.26.13,14

²⁸⁶ Ibid., 5.93

²⁸⁷ Ibid.,5, 93

²⁸⁸ Ibid., 5.106

²⁸⁹ Ibid., 5.3.43,44,47

²⁹⁰ Ibid., 5.1.83.50-53

²⁹¹ Ibid., 7.11

²⁹² Ibid., 7.14

²⁹³ Ibid., 7.124

²⁹⁴ Ibid. 7.124

²⁹⁵ Ibid., 7.230

²⁹⁶ Ibid., 7.242

bank of the river Māheśvarī in the Prabhāsaksvetra by the Gopīs of Krsna, Sagara, Janaka and Nanda respectively. Viśvāmitra installed the temple of the Sun-god Bālāditya by name at the distance of four krośas from Agastyāśrama and it became the centre of pilgrimage.²⁹⁷ Besides these, the Prabhāsaksetra refers to the shrine of the Sun-god Balukasvāmī, ²⁹⁸ Uttarārka, ²⁹⁹ Kṣemāditya, ³⁰⁰ Durgāditya, ³⁰¹ etc. The image of the Sun-god, called Citrāditya was installed by Citra, one of the sons of Mitra. The strotra devoted to the deity contains the names of all the important images of the Sungod, placed on different parts of India. All total sixty-three images of the Sun-god are mentioned along with its places in the specified strotra found in the Prabhāsakhaṇḍa of the Skandapurāna.

Thus, the Purāṇas glorify the building of a temple. They contain huge information relating to the different Sun-temples located in different parts of India. The Purānic texts narrate some legendary episodes connected with the origin of such temples. The Sun-god was worshipped under different names in the temples, appearing before his devotees, occupying different forms. Besides the temples, there were some centres of pilgrimage mentioned in the Purāṇic texts. With a view to getting relief from different diseases or sins or to fulfil different desires, the devotees went to the pilgrimage and took their sacred baths on different months and different constellations. His worship as the remover of diseases and reliever of sins is very much prominent in

²⁹⁷ Ibid., 7.266

²⁹⁸ Ibid., 7.282

²⁹⁹ Ibid., 7.283

³⁰⁰ Ibid., 7,284

³⁰¹ Ibid., 7,289

³⁰² Ibid., 7.133

the Vedas,303 and it has a direct impact on the Sun-worship in the pilgrimage and temples in Purāņas.

Thus, the Purāṇic literature stands as the great source of ancient Indian history containing information in it, relating to the religion, culture, geography, etc., of ancient India. From the study, is becomes clear that the Sun-worship in the Purāṇic period which is developed into the sectarianism is indeed fully influenced by the Vedic mode of worship of the Sun.

³⁰³ RV., 1.50.10

CHAPTER-V

RITUALS RELATED TO THE SUN-WORSHIP IN THE PURĀŅAS

The idea of sectarianism is fully developed in the Purāṇic religion from the simplest mode of worshipping the Sun-god as a deified form of the nature in the Vedic pantheon. The worship of the deity has given rise to different ritualistic performances. The term ritual defines a sequence of activities, including gesture, words, etc., practised among a particular class of people or place. It involves all the worship, rites and sacraments, purificatory rites and different organized actions of common people. The rituals in the Purāṇic period find its expression with numerous vratas, pūjās, festivals, etc., related to the particular deity or cult. Along with the vratas and pūjās, etc., there are found the sacrificial and household ceremonies and customary laws, etc., those closely follow the Vedas. For every householder, the worship of the Sun is prescribed as daily obligations in the Purāṇas that involves the *ācamana*, *arghya* of water and recitation of a hymn invoking the Sun-god under various names such as Vivasvat, Bhāskara, Savitr, Visnu, etc.¹

The Sacrifices Related to the Sun-god Dealt with in the Purāṇas:

The Purāṇic texts do not have thoroughly dealt with the rites and customs of any Vedic sacrifices. But they refer to the performance of the sacrifices following the Vedic order. The sacrifices devoted to the Sun-worship, mentioned here and there in the Purāṇas, are briefly noted here—

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¹ Viş P., 3.11.39,40

The Purāṇas contain the references of the performance of the Agnihotra.² The householders are directed to perform it.³ In Agnihotra, in the morning period, the oblation of milk is given in honour to the Sun, and, after that to Prajāpati. Again, in the evening, Agni and Prajāpati are worshipped. The Āśvalāyanagṛhyasūtra contains the reference of worshipping the Sun in the morning sacrifice.⁴ The performer of Agnihotra, consuming purified eatables, only once in a day performs homa.⁵ The Agnihotra is personified as one of the sons of deity Savitṛ by his wife in the Bhāgavatapurāṇa: pṛśnistu patnī savituḥ sāvitrīm vyāhṛtim trayīm/ agnihotram paśum somam cāturmāsyam mahāmakhān/⁶ Sāvitrī, Vyāhṛti, Trayī, Agnihotra, Paśu, Soma, etc., are mentioned in the relevant context as the offspring of Savitā and Pṛśni.

The Mitravaruṇayoriṣṭi was performed in the Purāṇic period, in worship of the two Vedic solar deities, Mitra and Varuṇa. With a view to achieving progeny, the worshipper worships Mitra and Varuṇa, the two forms of the Sun-god, offering a sacrifice. With a view to achieving son, Manu performed the Mitrāvaruṇa sacrifice: iṣṭiśca mitrāvaruṇayormmanu putrakāmaścakāra/9 But due to the occurrences of some irregularities in the performance, a daughter Ilā was born, as a result of the sacrifice.

The Samskāras, Referred to in the Purāṇas:

The Samskāras are the religious purificatory rites and ceremonies; those are associated with the individual, from the moment, when he was conceived in the womb

² Bhā.P., 5.7.5; Mat.P., 25.34;107.16

³ cf., vaitānikena vidhinā agnihotrādinā yajed// Bhā.P., 7.14.16

⁴ cf., ... "sūryāya svāhā" iti prātastūsnīm dvitīye ubhayatra/ Aś.GS., 1.9.8

⁵ cf., hutvāgnim vidhivatsamyakpavitrīkṛtabhojanā/ agnihotrakrameṇaiva sā suṣvāpa mahāvratā// Mat.P., 50.18

⁶ Bhā.P., 6.18.1

⁷ Vā.P., 85.6,7

⁸ Bhā.P., 9.1.13

⁹ Vis.P., 4.1.6

up to the cremation for sanctifying the body, mind and intellect so that he may become a full-fledged member of the community. The Dharmasūtras contain a great deal on the topic. According to Gautama, there are all total forty Samskāras. Among all the Samskāras, the following are regarded as very prominent, e.g. Garbhādhāna, Pumsavana, Sīmantonnayana, Jātakarmana, Nāmakaraṇa, Niṣkarmaṇa, Annaprāśana, Cūḍākaraṇa, Upanayana and Vivāha.

The Nişkarmaṇa is one of the Saṃskāras, in which the Sun-god is propitiated. According to the Gṛḥyasūtras, the procedure of the ritual consisted in taking the child out by the father and making it look at the Sun with the recitation of the particular verse sūryamudīkṣayati taccakṣuriti/¹² Different texts have given different times for the performance of the Niṣkarmaṇa. The Purāṇas contain the reference of the performance of it. According to the Bhaviṣyapurāṇa, the Niṣkarmaṇa should be performed on the twelfth day or on the fourth month after the child-birth. He Gṛḥyasūtras mention about the performance of the ritual by the father and the mother, while in the Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇa, reference is found of taking the child out by the solicitous nurse. On the respective day of its performance, a square portion of the courtyard is plastered with cowdung and clay from where the Sun-god could be seen. The sign of the Svastikā is to be made thereon and rice-grains are to be scattered by the mother of the child. After decorating it well, he or she is taken outside the home. The family deity of the house is worshipped with the instrumental music along with the guardians of the

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¹⁰ Vide, Pandey, Raj Bali., *Hindu Saṁskāras*, p.27

¹¹ GDS., 1.8.14-22

¹² PGS., 1.17.5,6

Bhavi.P.; Vi.Dh.P.

¹⁴ Bhavi.P., 1.3

Vide, Pandey, Raj Bali., Op.cit., p.148, fn.7

eight directions, the Sun, the Moon, Vāsudeva and the sky. The father of the child worships the deities for the protection of the child. After that, the child is taken to the temple and after bowing to the deity and achieving the blessings of the Brāhmaṇas, he or she was taken out of the temple to the lap of the maternal uncle and brought to the home.

Again, the Upanayana is one of the important Samskāras, in which, Sāvitrī is worshipped. The Purāṇas contain the references to it.¹⁷ The worship of the Gāyatrī or Sandhyā is indeed, the worship of the Sun. The *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* says that at the time of acquiring the *yajñopavīta*, Gāyatrī becomes the mother of individual, and Ācārya becomes the father.¹⁸

The Vratas Observed and the Sun-worship:

The fasting, resorting to severe penances, etc., in honour of respective gods was not observed in an organized scale in the days of the Vedas and the Epics. They have developed on an organized scale as a part of a religious faith, indeed in the Purāṇas. The references to sacrificial oblations towards the Sun-god are occasionally met with in the earlier Purāṇas, like the *Matsyapurāṇa*, ¹⁹ the *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa*, ²⁰ etc. Again, the rituals like, the *japa*, the *arghya*, the *ācamana*, etc., have Vedic survivals. Besides these, the later Vedic elements, like *bhakti*, *pūjā*, etc., are also found here and there in the Purāṇic Sun-worship.

¹⁷ Bhavi.P.,1.3; Agni P., 215; Padma P., 1.16

¹⁶ Vide, Ibid., p.149, fn.9

¹⁸ Bhavi.P., 1.4

cf., kīrtayetsūryadevatyam saptarcam ca ghṛtāhutīḥ/ Mat.P., 68.17

²⁰ cf., Mār.P., 106.61

Several times, in the Purāṇas, the deity is worshipped in the form of Lotus which indeed is the continuation of the Vedic tradition of worshipping the Sun. The worship of the Sun in general is prescribed on Sunday by drawing a twelve-petalled Lotus with red Sandal in the forepart of which the horses of Sūrya should be inscribed.²¹ It is said that one who observes these rituals and keeps up this *vrata* for a year, becomes free from all sins and goes to the solar region fanned by the *cāmara*.²²

The solar vows, discussed in detail in the *Matsyapurāṇa* are, Kalyānasaptamī, Viśokasaptamī, Phalasaptamī, Śarkarasaptamī, Kamalasaptamī, Mandārasaptamī and Śubhasaptamī. The *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* also mentions of forty-two solar vratas, of which Śakasaptamī, Rathasaptamī, Sarṣapasaptamī, Vijayasaptamī, Nandākhyasaptamī, Saptasaptamī, Mārīcisaptamī, etc., are very famous. Besides these, the different Purāṇas mention the vratas called Ārogyasaptamī, ²⁴ Dvādaśādityavrata, ²⁵ etc.

A brief note on some of the vratas related to the Sun-worship in the Purāṇas along with their procedures is presented below—

Aparājitāsaptamī: The Sun-god is worshipped on the seventh day of the bright fortnight on the month of the Bhādrapada and this day is called as Aparājitāsaptamī or simply Aparājitā. The reference of its observation is found in the *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa*. By the observance of this *vrata*, the worshipper becomes free from all types of the great sins, and achieves victory in the war. On the fourth day, the worshipper should remain

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²¹ Ibid., 97.5,8

cf., ityanena vidhinā samācaredabdamekamiha yastu mānavaḥ/ so'dhirohati vinaṣṭakalmaṣaḥ sūryadhāma dhutacāmarāvaliḥ// Mat.P., 97.17

²³ Ibid., 74-80

²⁴ Varā.P., 62

²⁵ Vi.Dh.P., 3.182

²⁶ Bhavi.P., 1.98

ekabhakta, i.e. having his meal once a day, on the fifth-day, he should remain *nakta*, i.e. having his meal at night, and fast on the sixth. On the seventh, he should worship the Sun-god with the Karavīra flower, Sandal, incense made of Guggula, *apūpa*, etc. The deity should be worshipped with different materials in each group of three months.

Arkasaptamī: The Arkasaptamīvrata is performed for two years. It is started on a Sunday in the period of Uttarāyaṇa of any bright fortnight. The deity Sun is worshipped with it. On the fifth day, the worshipper observes *ekabhakta*, on the sixth day *nakta*, and observes fast on the seventh day and $p\bar{a}ran\bar{a}$ on the eighth. During the days of its observance, he should drink from a cup made of the leaves of Arka plants.

Arkasampuṭasaptamī: On the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Phālguna, the Sun-god Divākara is worshipped with the Arkasampuṭasaptamīvrata. The *vrata* lasts for a year. The worshipper should worship Bhānu on the daytime and at night, he should stay without sleep and worship the deity with the recitation of the *Sauragāyatrī* devoted to the Sun: *bhāskarāya vidmahe sahasraraśmim dhīmahi/ tannaḥ sūryaḥ pracodayāt/* The Brāhmaṇas should fed with *apūpa*, milk, curd, etc. The Arka tree should be worshipped with the recitation of the *mantra*, *aum khalkholkāya namaḥ* and after taking the bath the devotee should worship the Sun-god with the Arka flower. He should recite a mantra dedicated to the deity without touching his teeth with the tongue. With the observance of this *vrata* the worshipper becomes free from leprosy, sin, etc.²⁷

Ādityavāranaktavrata: The Ādityavāranaktavrata is observed on the Sunday remaining *nakta*. If it falls on the Hastā constellation, the worshipper should remain *ekabhakta* on Saturday: *yadā hastena saṃyuktamādityasya ca vāsaram/ tadā śanidine*

²⁷ Bhavi.P., 1.210

kuryādekabhaktam vimatsaraļ/²⁸ After feeding the Brāhmaṇas on the Sunday night, he draws a twelve-petalled Lotus on the ground with red Sandalwood paste and one by one, the Sun-gods are placed thereon. After that, arghyas are offered to the flowers with Tila, Sandal, red flower, etc., with the recitation of mantra: kālātmā sarvabhūtātmā, etc.²⁹ The vrata lasts for a year. The worshipper observing this vrata becomes free from all sins and goes to the region of the Sun after death.

Ādityaśayana: The Ādityaśayanavrata is observed on the seventh day with a Sunday and Hastā constellation, or when there is *samkrānti* of the Sun on the seventh with the Sunday. Here, the image of the goddess Umā and Lord Śiva are worshipped and salutation is offered to the Sun, identifying his various limbs starting from the feet along with the constellation from Hastā onwards: *haste ca sūryāya namo'stu pādāvarkāya citrāya ca gulphadeśam/ svātīṣu jaṅghe puruṣottamāya/ dhātre viśākhāsu ca jānudeśam.../*³⁰ The worshipper also salutes different weapons of the deity. If someone owing to poor health or otherwise, unable to observe the fast on the specific day, he may take his meals at night abstaining from oil, flesh, green vegetables and salt and eating moderately. On the Punarvasu asterism, he should put some rice along with *ghṛta* in a vessel of Fig leaves and putting some gold on it, gives it to the Brāhmaṇa. Again, at the end of the *vrata* he should have to make various gifts along with the milching cow. ³¹ After that the worshipper prays the Sun-god. The worshipper never becomes bereft of their sons and other dear ones if he observes this *vrata*. He attains

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²⁸ Mat.P., 97.4

²⁹ Ibid., 97.11,12

³⁰ Ibid., 55.7-17

cf., ityevam dvija naktāni kṛtvā dadyātpunarvasau/ śāleyatandulaprasthamaudumbaramaye ghṛtm// sansthāpya pātre viprāya sahiranyam nivedayet/ saptame vastraygmam ca pārane tvadhikam bhavet// Ibid., 55.18,19

divine felicity and becomes free from all disease, grief and sufferings.³² The *Padmapurāṇa* also refers to this *vrata* elaborately.³³

Ānandasaphalasaptamī or Anantaphalasaptamī: The Ānandasaphalasaptamī or Anantaphalasaptamī falls on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Bhādrapada. The *vrata* lasts for a year. The deity Sun is worshipped with flower, incense, etc. After offering gifts to the Brāhmaṇas, the observer of the *vrata* should take his meal at night remaining silent. He should remember and utter the name of the deity in each and every movement up to one year.³⁴

Ārogyasaptamī: The Ārogyasaptamīvrata starts on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Mārgaśīrṣa. It lasts for a year and fast is observed on each Saptamī, in respect of the Sun, with the utterance of the names Āditya, Bhāskara, Ravi, Bhānu, Sūrya, etc. By the observance of it, the worshipper secures health and wealth and becomes free from all the sins.³⁵

Avyaṅgasaptamī: The Avyaṅgasaptamīvrata is observed in every year on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Śrāvaṇa. On this particular day, the Sungod is worshipped with flowers and incense and Avyaṅga should be offered. The Avyaṅga is a hollow strip made of fine white cotton thread that resembles to a serpent's slough. It is of one hundred and twenty-two, or one hundred and twenty, or one hundred and eight fingerbreadths long. The reference to this *vrata* is found in the

34 Bhavi.P., 1.110.1-8

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cf., na bandhuputreņa dhanairviyuktaḥ patnībhirānandakaraḥ surāṇām/ nābhyeti rogam na ca śokaduḥkham yā vā'tha nārī kurute'tibhaktyā// idam vasiṣṭhena purā'rjunena kṛtam kubereṇa purandareṇa// Ibid., 55.31,32

³³ Padma P., 5.24.64-96

³⁵ Varā.P., 62.1-5

Bhaviṣyapurāṇa³⁶ along with the legend of Avyaṅgotpatti.³⁷ The vrata lasts for a year and at the end, the Brāhmaṇas should be fed and offered fee, according to the capability of the worshipper. This Avyaṅgākhyavrata is also referred to in the Nāradīyapurāṇa,³⁸ where it is said that if the tithi conjoins to Hastā constellation, it becomes more fruitful, and all the sins of the worshipper is destroyed by it: yadi ceddhastayukteyaṁ tadā syātpāpanāśinī/³⁹

Ādityamaṇḍalavidhi: The Sun-god is worshipped with the Ādityamaṇḍalavidhi. The reference to it is found in the *Bhaviṣyottarapurāṇa*. A circle is made on the ground with red Sandalwood paste of Saffron. The *apūpa* that is made with white wheat or barley flour mixed with jaggery and ghee of cow milk is placed thereon and Sūrya is worshipped there with red flower. After worshipping the deity the *maṇḍala* should be gifted to the Brāhmaṇas along with raktavastras and fee with the citation of a particular *mantra*. By its observance people achieves kingship and heaven after death.

Ubhayasaptamīvrata: The Ubhayasaptamīvrata starts on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Pauṣa and is observed for one year in each *pakṣa* worshipping the Sun. The worshipper worships the deity taking the food prepared from rice and wheat at night, along with the milk and with the observance of three Sandhyās on the particular day. Again, according to another context, it begins on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Mārgaśīrṣa and lasts for a year. In every month the Sun-god is worshipped uttering his different names.

³⁶ Bhavi.P., 1.111

³⁷ Ibid., 1.142.1-29

³⁸ Nā.P., 1.116.29-31

³⁹ Ibid., 1.116.31

⁴⁰ Bhavi.P., 4. 44

⁴¹ Ibid., 1.165.1-45

¹² Ibid., 4, 47.1-25

Kamalasaptamīvrata: The Kamalasaptamīvrata starts on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Caitra and lasts for a year. Lord Divākara is worshipped by it. On the specific day of its observance, the worshipper completing his morning bath with water mixed with white mustard, makes a golden Lotus and places it in a golden vessel, full of Sesamum. After that, covering the Lotus with a pair of clothes, he worships the Sun-god there, with incense, flowers, etc., and utterance of the words, namaḥ kamalahastāya namaste viśvadhāriṇe/ divākara namastubhyaṁ prabhākara namo'stute/⁴³ On the evening hour, a cow is gifted to a Brāhmaṇa, ornamented with vastra, mālya and alaṁkāra, etc., along with a vessel full of water. 44 On the next day, food is given to the Brāhmaṇas. The worshipper should observe this vrata on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in each month, following the same rituals. As the merit of it, he achieves inexhaustible money and the region of the Sun after his death. The Kamalasaptamīvrata is also referred to in the Padmapurāṇa⁴⁵ and the Bhavisvottarapurāṇa. 46</sup>

Kalyānasaptamīvrata: The Kalyānasaptamīvrata is observed on the seventh day in the conjunction of bright fortnight and Sunday: yadā tu śuklasaptamyāmādityasya dinam bhavet/ sātu kalyāṇinīnāmā vijayāca nigadyate//⁴⁷ This vrata is also known by the name Vijayā. The Kalyānaptamīvrata lasts for a year. On the particular day of its observance, the worshipper bathes with cow's milk in the morning and after that, wearing white garments, i.e. śuklavastra, makes a circle or eight-petalled Lotus with

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⁴³ Mat.P., 77.3,4

⁴⁴ cf., viprāya dadyātsampūjya vastramālyavibhūṣaṇaiḥ/ śaktyācakapilāmdadyādalamkṛtyavidhānataḥ// Ibid., 77.5

⁴⁵ Padma P.,5.21.281-290

⁴⁶ Bhavi. P., 4.50.1-11

⁴⁷ Mat.P., 72.5

akṣatacūrṇa. After that, moving towards the east, one by one, worships the Sun-god with different names, e.g. Tapana, Mārtaṇḍa, Divākara, Vidhātṛ, Varuṇa, Bhāskara, Vikartana, Ravi, in the direction of East, Agni, South, Naiṛta, West, Vāyu, North and Iṣāna, respectively. At the end *tilapātra* and gold are offered to the Brāhmaṇa. On the thirteenth month, thirteen cows are gifted decorating with clothes and ornaments.⁴⁸

Kīrtivrata: The Kīrtivrata is a *samvatsaravrata* that lasts for a year. The worshipper worships Aśvattha tree, the Sun-god and the Ganges: *aśvatthaṁ bhāskaraṁ gaṅgāṁ praṇamyaikatra vāgyataḥ*/⁴⁹ He stays in one place restraining his senses, takes food only once in the noon for a year. At the end of the *vrata*, he honours a Brāhmaṇa and his wife, with the gifts of three cows and a golden tree. The *Matsyapurāṇa* refers to this *vrata* saying that it yields fame and land to the observer: ...*etatkīrtivrataṁ nāma bhūtikīrtiphalapradam*/⁵⁰

Guṇāvāptivrata: The Guṇāvāptivrata begins on the first day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Phālguṇa. It is a one year-*vrata*. Though lord Śiva is worshipped prominently, but the images of Āditya, Agni, Varuṇa and the moon are also worshipped during the days. The first two forms are the fierce form and the last two are the mild forms of Śiva. The worshipper bathes with different substances in each of the four days and subsists on the milk. On the fourth day of the worship, *homa* is done with wheat, Sesame, corn and barley.⁵¹

Gomayādisaptamīvrata: The Gomayādisaptamīvrata begins on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Caitra. It should be continued for twelve months with the observance of the *vrata* on each seventh day of the bright fortnight. The Sun-god is

⁵⁰ Ibid., 101.24

⁴⁸ Ibid., 72; Padma P., 1.21.216-235; Bhavi. P., 4.48,1-16

⁴⁹ Mat.P., 101.23

⁵¹ Vi.Dh.P., 3.137.1-13

worshipped under different names in every month, with the Lotus, incense, Sandal, Guggula, etc., and, the same objects should be offered to the honourable Brāhmaṇas, along with a fee. Again, the worshipper should subsist on the *gomaya* (cow dung), $y\bar{a}vaka$, or fallen leaves, or milk, or on grains, achieved by the alms. By observing this vrata one achieves the merit of great sacrifices and achieves great place in the region of the Sun. 52

Cakşurvrata: The Cakşurvrata is also called as the Netravrata. The second day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Caitra is observed as the Cakşurvrata, in which the twin deities, the Aśvins are worshipped. The Aśvins are regarded as the divine physicians, popularly identified with the Sun and the moon. It lasts for a year or twelve years. The performer subsists on curd and ghee on the specific day of its observance and worships the respective deities. Observing it for a year, the worshipper attains good observing and for twelve years becomes the king.⁵³

Candrovrata: The Candrovrata falls on the new moon day and lasts for a year. The images of the Sun and the moon are worshipped on two Lotuses in it.⁵⁴ According to another reference of the same *Purāṇa*, only the moon is worshipped by the Candrovrata on the full moon day, started in the month of Mārgaśīrṣa along with the fasting in devotion of the deity which yields great benefits towards the worshipper.⁵⁵ The *Matsyapurāṇa* refers to this *vrata* and prescribes the gift of golden image to the Brāhmaṇas, at the end of the *vrata*. ⁵⁶

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⁵² Bhavi.P., 1.209

⁵³ Vi.Dh.P., 3.130.1-7

⁵⁴ Ibid., 3.191.1-5

cf., mārgaśīrṣādathārabhya candramaṇḍala ke naraḥ/ sopavāsastu sampūjya pauṇḍrīkaphalam labhet// kṛtvā vratam vatsarametadiṣṭam prāpnoti lokam sa niśākarasya/ Ibid., 3.194.1,2

cf., cāndrāyaṇaṁ ca yaḥ kuryādhaimaṁ candraṁ nivedayet/ candravratamidaṁ proktaṁ candralokaphalapradam// Mat.P., 101.75

Citrabhānupadadvayavrata: This Ayanavrata lasts from the beginning to the end of the Uttarāyaṇa. On the day of its starting, the image of the Sun-god should be bathed with ghee and milk and after decorating with the *vastra*, *anulepana*, etc., to be worshipped. The Brāhmaṇas should be satisfied with food and gifts. After the performance of all these, for the whole period, the deity Citrabhānu is worshipped with the prayer, japa, and with the utterance of the words, *paramātmamayam brahma citrabhānumayam param/ yamante samsmariṣyāmi sa me bhānuḥ parā gatiḥ//⁵⁷* At the ending of the *vrata*, the Brāhmaṇas are to be fed. The worshipper becomes free from all the sins by grace of this *vrata*.

Trigatisaptamī: The Trigatisaptamī begins on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Phālguna and lasts for a year. The Sun-god is worshipped under the three names Hamsa, the Āśvins and Bhāskara. The whole year of the twelve months is divided into three divisions of four months. From Phālguṇa to Jyeṣṭha, Sūrya is worshipped as Hamsa, from Āṣāḍa to Aśvina as Mārtaṇḍa, and Kārtika to Māgha as Bhāskara. By the observance of this *vrata*, the worshipper secures earthly lordship, over lordship of the earth and pleasures of the Indraloka and residence of the Sūryaloka.⁵⁸

Triprāptisaptamīvrata: The Triprāptisaptamīvrata falls on the seventh day of the dark fortnight in the month of the Mārgaśīrṣa in conjunction with the Hastā constellation. It is a one-year *vrata*. The Sun-god is worshipped with incense, *naivedya*, gifts, etc. In every month, the performer should offer gifts of different things such as ghee, paddy, barley, gold etc. The performer himself subsists on corn and partake every month cow's

⁵⁷ Bhavi.P., 1.107.17

⁵⁸ Ibid., 1.104

urine, water, etc. With a view to achieving birth in a good family, for health and wealth the worshipper observes this *vrata*.⁵⁹

Dvādaśādityavrata: The Dvādaśādityavrata begins on the twelfth day of the bright fortnight in the month of Mārgaśīrṣa. It is also called the Kāmadevavrata. The worshipper worships the twelve forms of Adityas, viz. Dhātṛ, Mitra, Aryaman, Pūṣan, Śakra, Varuṇa, Bhaga, Tvaṣṭṛ, Vivasvat, Saviṭṛ with this *vrata*. 60

Dhāmavrata: The Dhāmavrata is observed on the full moon day of the month of Phālguna in devotion to the Sun. The worshipper observes fast for three days and donates a beautiful house at the end of the *vrata*: *trirātropoṣito dadyāt phālgunyām bhavanam śubham/ādityalokamāpnoti dhāmavratamidam smṛtam//*⁶¹ The reference to this Dvādaśādityavrata is also found in the *Garuḍapurāṇa*. According to it, observing this *vrata* on the month of Kārtika, the worshipper reaches to the world of the Sun by grace of it.⁶²

Nandāsaptamī: The Nandāsaptamīvrata is observed for the first time on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Mārgaśīrṣa. The *vrata* lasts for a year. The Sun-god is worshipped in his different forms, Viṣṇu, Bhaga and Dhātṛ in the three periods of four months with different flowers, *naivedya* and *dhūpa*. He remains *ekabhakta* on the fifth day, *nakta* on the sixth and observes fast on the seventh day and

⁵⁹ Ibid., 1.112.10-16

cf., dhātā mitroryamā pūṣā śakreśo varuṇo bhagaḥ/ tvaṣṭā vivasvānsavitā viṣṇurdvādaśakastathā// pūjayeddvādaśādityāñchuklapakṣe hyupoṣitaḥ/ mārgaśīrṣādathārabhya gandhamālyānnasampadā// Vi.Dh.P., 3.182.1-3

⁶¹ Mat.P., 101.79

cf., trirātropoşito dadyātkārtikyām bhavanam śubham/ sūryalokamavāpnoti dhāmavratamidam subham// Garuḍa P., 1.137.3

worships the Sun. The *vrata* gives its observer the ultimate pleasure in this world and also in the world of the Sun, after his death. ⁶³

Nāmasaptamīvrata or Rahasyasaptamīvrata: The Nāmasaptamīvrata or the Rahasyasaptamīvrata is observed on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Caitra. The worshipper worships the Sun-god for a year under different names like, Dhātṛ, Aryaman, etc., in every month; and on the particular day of its observance, should feed on Bhojakas with ghee and donation to be made of red clothes. There are too many restrictions ordained for the worshipper. He should not touch oil, should not wear dark blue garments, should not bathe with Āmalaka fruits, avoid quarrels, not to gamble, not to shed tears, etc., on the day of its observance.⁶⁴

Nikṣubhārkasaptamīvrata: This *vrata* starts on the sixth or the seventh day or on the *samkrānti* day or on the Sunday. It lasts for a year. The images of the Sun-god and his wife Nikṣubhā are made of gold or silver or wood, and should be bathed with ghee decorating with incense, garlands and clothes, should be placed on the temple. After that, it should be worshipped with the observance of fast and performance of the *homa*. The devotees of the Sun-god should be offered white clothes and they are to be fed. It is believed that the performer of this *vrata* secures the desired object and goes to the region of the Sun as a reward of the *vrata*. The woman achieves the son of good quality and lives happily with her husband in their domestic relationship.⁶⁵

Pāpanāśinīsaptamī: The seventh day of the bright fortnight on the month of the Phālguṇa, the Sun-god is worshipped with the observance of fast. On the eighth day, after rising at the early morning, taking the bath the worshipper worships the Sun-god

⁶³ Bhavi.P., 1.100.1-16

⁶⁴ Ibid., 1.65.1-7,19-34

⁶⁵ Ibid., 1.166.1-18

and offers the fee to the Brāhmaṇas. After that, he takes *haviṣyānna*. The Sun-god is worshipped following the same rituals on the following three months, i.e. on the month of Caitra, Vaiśākha and Jyeṣṭha, with the offering of the red Karavīra flower. These Saptamīs are regarded as very pious. The worshipper becomes free from all the sins by its observance and goes to the *devaloka*. 66

Putrasaptamīvrata: The Putrasaptamīvrata is observed on the seventh day in the month of the Mārgaśīrṣa, both in the bright and the dark fortnight. It is a one-year *vrata*. On the sixth day of the observance of the *vrata*, fast is observed in devotion to the Sun-god and *homa* is performed. By it, the worshipper secures son, wealth, fame and health. Again, on the month of Bhādrapada also, both in bright and dark fortnight, this *vrata* is observed, which involves the *saṅkalpa* on the sixth day and fast on the seventh. Lord Viṣṇu is worshipped with the Gopāla mantras and *homa* is done with the Sesame. At the end of the year a pair of dark cows is donated with a view to securing son and freedom from all sins.⁶⁷

Puṣpadvitīya: The Puṣpadvitīyāvrata starts on the second day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Kārtika and is observed for a year. The Aśvins are worshipped with it. The performer should subsist on flowers fit for divine worship on the day and at the end donates flowers made of gold along with a cow. The worshipper achieves beauty with the observance of this *vrata*, and enjoys happiness along with his wife and sons.⁶⁸

Phalaṣaṣthīvrata: The Phalaṣaṣthīvrata begins with the observance of niyamas on the fifth day of the bright fortnight of Mārgaśīṣa. On the sixth day, a golden Lotus is prepared along with a golden fruit. On that day at midday, he should place the Lotus

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⁶⁶ Ibid., 106.4-14

⁶⁷ Varā.P., 63.1-7

⁶⁸ Bhavi.P., 1.19.81-89

and the fruit with sugar on a vessel of clay or copper, and offer worship to the Sun with the flowers and observe fast for the day. On the seventh day, all these should be donated with the words: 'May the Sun be pleased with me.' One fruit he should give up till the next fifth of the dark half. This should be repeated for a year. In each month on the seventh day, one of the twelve names of the Sun are to be repeated. The performer with the performance of it, becomes free from all the sins and is hanoured in the world of the Sun.⁶⁹

Phalasaptamīvrata: The reference of the Phalasaptamīvrata is found in the Purāṇas, in worship of the Sun. 70 On the seventh day of the bright fortnight of the Bhādrapada, fast is observed and the deity Sun is worshipped. On the morning period of eighth day, the Sun-god is worshipped and donation is made towards the Brāhmaṇas with the coconut and Mātuluṅga fruits, etc., and the *mantra mārtaṇḍa prīyatām* is uttered. After that the observer eats one small fruit with the *mantra: sarve bhavantu saphalā mama kāmāḥ samantataḥ*/ The worshipper may take only fruits to his heart's content but nothing else. It should be done for a year. The *vrata* endows the worshipper with sons and grandsons. 71

According to another reference, on the fourth, fifth and sixth day of the bright fortnight of the Bhādrapada, the performer should respectively observe *ayācita*, *ekabhakta* and fast, and worship the Sun with incense. He should sleep at night in front of the altar, on which the image of Sun is placed. On the seventh day, after worshipping the Sun, he should offer *naivedya* of fruits, feed Brāhmaṇas and takes food or cooked flour of rice, or wheat mixed with ghee and jaggery, etc. It should be carried on up to

69 Ibid.,4.39.1-12

⁷⁰ Ibid., 1.64; 215; Mat.P.,76; Padma P., 5.21

⁷¹ Bhavi.P.,1.215.24-27

one year. At the end of the observance, if capable, the worshipper should donate golden fruits, a cow with calf, and so on.⁷²

Again, it is found that on the fifth day of the bright fortnight of Mārgaśīrsa, the observer observes niyamas, on sixth, he observes fast, donate a golden Lotus and a fruit with sugar with the utterance of the mantra. He should give up one kind of fruit from that day to the fifth day of dark fortnight. The worshipper continues the same for a year uttering different names of the Sun in each month. At the end of the year, he honours a Brāhmaṇa along with his wife with clothes, jar, sugar, golden Lotus and fruit. As a reward of it, the performer becomes free from sins and goes to the region of the Sun.⁷³ Mandārasaptamīvrata: The Mandārasaptamīvrata is observed on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Mārgaśīrṣa. On the fifth day, the worshipper should take the light meal, on the sixth day, fast is observed and at night mandāra flowers is offered to the deity. On the seventh day, Brāhmaṇas are made to partake of eight Mandara flowers. A golden image of the Sun-god is made with a Lotus in his hand and places it in a copper vessel containing Sesamum. An eight-petalled Lotus is made on the ground and the Sun-god is worshipped offering one Mandāra flower on each petal. The image of the male Purusa is placed on the pericarp of the Lotus, and the image should be put on the white cloth and offering eatables, flowers and fruits the mantra sarvātmane namaḥ is uttered. After it, all these should be offered to a Brāhmaṇa. The vrata lasts for a year. The worshipper becomes free from the sins with its observance and all his desires become fulfilled.⁷⁴

⁷² Ibid., 1.64.36-61

⁷³ Mat.P., 76; Padma P., 5.21.249-262

⁷⁴ Padma P., 5.21.292-306; Mat. P., 79.1-15

Mandāraṣaṣṭhīvrata: The Mandāraṣaṣṭhīvrata falls on the sixth day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Mārgaśīrṣa. On the fifth day, the performer takes light meal; on the sixth, he fasts and makes a prayer to the Mandāra tree. Next day, he should apply saffron to copper vessels with dark Sesame and worship the Sun under different names with Mandāra flowers in the eight directions, from the east, and worships Hari. The *vrata* lasts for a year and each month, on the seventh day of the bright fortnight, the same procedure is done.⁷⁵

Marīcasaptamīvrata: On the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Caitra, the Sun-god is worshipped with the observance of Marīcasaptamīvrata. The worshipper feeds Brāhmaṇas and makes them partake of hundred peppers with the utterance of the *mantra*, *aum khalkholkāya svāhā*, etc. As the performer observes this *vrata*, he never undergoes separation from his nearest and dearest ones and becomes free from all the diseases.⁷⁶

Mahāsaptamīvrata: The Mahāsaptamīvrata is observed on the seventh day on the bright fortnight in the month of Mārgaśīrṣa. On the fifth day, the worshipper should remain *ekabhakta*, on the sixth *nakta* and on the seventh, the fast should be observed. The Sun-god is worshipped with the Karavīra flowers and red Sandal wood paste. It lasts for one year and the whole year is divided into three groups of four months from Māgha. In each division of four months, flowers of different colour are offered, along with different naivedyas and different dhūpas. At the end of the *vrata*, a chariot made of gold is to be given as the gift.⁷⁷

⁷⁵ Bhavi. P.,4. 40.1-15

⁷⁶ Ibid., 1.214.40-47

⁷⁷ Ibid., 1.51.1-16

Mārtaṇdasaptamīvrata: It begins on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Pauṣa: pauṣe māse site pakṣe saptamyām samupoṣitaḥ// samyakpūjyam mārtaṇḍam mārtaṇḍa iti vai japet/⁷⁸ Fast is observed on the respective day and the Sun-god is worshipped with the muttering of the word mārtaṇḍa. The fee should be offered to the Brāhmaṇas according to his capability. Again, on the next day, the Sungod is worshipped under the name Ravi. Thus the *vrata* last for a year and as the reward of it, the worshipper attains desired objects.⁷⁹

Yajñasaptamī: On the Śuklasaptamītithi, where there is an eclipse and specially when there is a Samkrānti, the performer eats haviṣya for one time and bow to Varuṇa. He should lie down on a bed of Darbha grass on the ground on that particular day. Next day, in the beginning and end, he should sacrifice to Varuṇa. On the Śuklasaptamī of Māgha, the sacrifice is addressed to Varuṇa, on Phālguna to Sūrya, on Caitra to Amśuman and so on till Pauṣa. At the end of the year, a golden chariot is made of, to which the seven horses of the Sun-god are yoked, and at the midst of the chariot, a golden image of the deity is placed on, surrounded by twelve Brāhmaṇas, who represent the twelve names of the Sun in the twelve months. The chariot along with a cow is to be presented to the Ācārya. In case of poor man, copper chariot should be made of.⁸⁰

Raktasaptamīvrata: The Raktasaptamīvrata falls on the seventh day of the dark fortnight in the month of Mārgaśīrṣa. Fast is observed on the particular day and the Sun-god is worshipped with red Lotuses, or in an image of the Sun-god with white flowers and red Sandalwood paste, and with the round cake of pulse and *kṛṣara*, i.e.

⁷⁸ Ibid.,1.109.2,3

⁷⁹ Ibid., 1.109.1-13

80 Ibid., 1.50.1-42

dish of rice, peas and spices: ...sopavāsastu saptamyām kamale pūjayedravim//
ārcāyām vā sthale vāpi śuklaiḥ puṣpairyathāvidhi/ candanena tu raktena vaṭakaiḥ
kṛṣareṇa ca//⁸¹ At the end of the vrata, a pair of red garments are to be donated.

Rathasaptamīvrata: On the seventh day of the white fortnight, in the month of the Mārgaśīrṣa, the Rathasaptamīvrata is observed, in devotion of the Sun-god. On the sixth day, at night, saṅkalpa is made and on the seventh day, fast is observed. The performer prepares a golden or silver car with horses and charioteer and recites a hymn to the Sun. At midday, he should place that car in a maṇḍapa, surrounded by cloth. The car is worshipped with saffron, flowers, and an image of the Sun-god is placed on it. Both the Sun-god and the car are worshipped together along with the charioteer. The worshipper addressing the Sun in his mantras, states his desires. At night jāgara is done with songs and music. The performer should not close his eyes at night. Next day after bath, he makes gifts and donates the car to the Guru.⁸²

Rathāṅkasaptamīvrata: On the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Mārgaśīrṣa, the Rathāṅkasaptamīvrata is observed. On the sixth day, fast is observed and Sun-god is propitiated with incense, flowers, etc. The worshipper sleeps before the Sun-image that day. On seventh day, the Sun-god is worshipped and Brāhmaṇas are given a splendid meal. The same procedure should be carried on in all months and at the end of the year a car procession is arranged in devotion of the Sun.⁸³

Varuṇavrata: The Varuṇavrata is observed with a view to securing *Varuṇaloka*. This *vrata* is observed from the beginning of Bhādrapada to the full moon thereof. It is believed that if a man standing a whole night in water donates a cow in the next

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⁸¹ Vi.Dh.P., 3.170.2

⁸² Bhavi.P., 1.51.1-16

⁸³ Ibid., 1.59.1-26

morning, he secures *Varuṇaloka* by the grace of the deity: *niśi kṛtvā jale vāsaṁ* prabhāte goprado bhavet/ vāruṇaṁ lokamāpnoti varuṇavratamucyate//⁸⁴ At the end of the *vrata*, *jaladhenu* is donated together with umbrella, Sandals and two garments.

Vijayāsaptamīvrata: The Vijayāsaptamīvrata is observed on the seventh day of the bright fortnight with Sunday. On the respective day, fast is observed and Sun-god is worshipped with the repetition of one thousand names. The *vrata* lasts for a year. As a reward of the *vrata*, the performer becomes free from all the diseases and sins. According to another reference, the Vijayāsaptamīvrata is observed on seven saptamīs by fasting and forgoing wheat, *Māṣa*, *Yava*, etc.: ...abhyañjanāñjalatilāṁśca vivarjayedyaḥ tasyeṣitaṁ bhavati saptasu saptamīṣu/86 The worshipper achieves money, sons, etc., observing this *vrata*.

Viśokaṣaṣṭhīvrata: The Viśokaṣaṣṭhīvrata is observed on the sixth day of the bright fortnight in the month of Māgha. On the fifth day, the worshipper bathes with black Sesame and partake food made up of rice and Sesame. Then on the sixth day, he makes a golden Lotus and worships it as Sun with the red Karavīra flowers and two red garments. The worshipper prays for freedom from sorrow. After that, he should drink cow's urine and sleeps. On the seventh day, donation is made to the *Guru* and Brāhmaṇas. After that he takes food without oil and salt. He should observe silence and listen to the *Purāṇa* works.⁸⁷

Viśokasaptamīvrata: The Viśokasaptamīvrata is observed on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Māgha. On the sixth day, the worshipper, after brushing his teeth and rubbing black Sesamum on his body, takes bath and observes fast for the

⁸⁶ Garuda P., 1.130.8

⁸⁴ Mat.P., 101.74; Vi.Dh.P., 3.195.1-3

⁸⁵ Bhavi. P., 4.43.1-30

⁸⁷ Bhavi.P., 4.38.1-7

whole day. At night, again brushing his teeth, he takes *kṣarā* pudding that is prepared with rice, Sesamum and milk, with ghee. On the seventh day morning, after taking the bath and finishing his prayer he worships the Lotus, made of gold with the words *arkāya namaḥ*, etc.⁸⁸ The Brāhmaṇas are offered food in a vessel containing raw sugar and the golden Lotus is gifted to a Brāhmaṇa along with a pair of red clothes. The *vrata* lasts for a year. At the end of it, a pitcher of water along with golden Lotus should be given away along with bedstead, milch cow, etc.⁸⁹

Viṣṇutrimūrtivrata: The three forms of lord Viṣṇu, viz. the Vāyu, the Moon and the Sun are worshipped on the third day of bright fortnight of Jyeṣṭha. The *vrata* starts with the observance of a fast and lasts for a year. The three forms of Lord Viṣṇu, the Vāyu, the Moon and the Sun, protect all the three worlds. They are also present inside the human bodies in the form of $v\bar{a}ta$, pitta and kapha. On the respective day in the month of Jyeṣṭha, in early morning the Sun-god is worshipped, Vāyu is worshipped at midday with *homa* and with Yavas and Sesame and at sunset, the Moon is worshipped in the water. ⁹⁰

Viṣṇuvrata: The Purāṇic texts refer to a *vrata*, Viṣṇuvrata by name. According to some other references, Lord Viṣṇu is worshipped in it; but according to the *Viṣṇudharottarapurāṇa*, different groups constituting of four forms of deities, are worshipped during the observance of the *vrata*. Lord Hari appears in each and every group. One of the groups is constituted of Nara, Nārāyaṇa, Haya and Hamsa. Again, another group of deities is consisted of Mitra, Varuṇa, Indra and Viṣṇu. Each in the

³⁸ Mat.P.,75.3

⁹ cf., vratānte kalaśaṁ dadyātsuvarṇakamalānvitam/ śayyāṁ sopaskarāṁ dadyātkapilāṁ ca payasvinīm// Ibid., 75.9

⁹⁰ Vi.Dh.P., 3.136.1-26

⁹¹ Agni P., 17.15-20; Mat.P., 101.37, Vi.Dh.P., 3.151.1-8

groups, the first two forms are of the Sādhyas and the later two forms are of the Siddhas. The Viṣṇuvrata lasts for a year. 92

Sarkarāsaptamīvrata: On the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of the Caitra, the worshipper bathes in the morning, with water, mixed with white Sesame. After that, he draws a Lotus and pericarp with saffron on an altar and offers on it *dhūpa* and flowers with the utterance of the words *namḥ savitre*, etc. ⁹³ After that, he places a jar containing a gold piece, covers it with a plate containing sugar, and offers worship with the utterance of *paurāṇikamantra*. After that he drinks *pañcagavya* and lies on the ground near the jar and recites inaudibly *saura* hymns. ⁹⁴ On the eighth day, he donates all the above materials and feed Brāhmaṇas with sugar, ghee and *pāyasa* and himself partakes of food without salt and oil. The *vrata* lasts for a year and every month, the worshipper follows the same procedure. At the ending of the year, he donates a furnished bedstead with sugar and the gold, a cow and a house according to his capacity, and a golden Lotus made with, one to thousand niṣkas. It is believed that this *vrata* removes the sorrow and confers sons, long life, health, etc., to its observer. ⁹⁵

Śākasaptamīvrata: The Śakasaptamīvrata begins on the bright fortnight in the month of the Kārtika and lasts for a year. The whole year is divided into three periods of four months. On the fifth day of each bright fortnight, the worshipper remains *ekabhakta*, on the sixth day *nakta*, and on the seventh, observes fasts. He should feed the Brāhmaṇas with well spiced vegetables and should himself eat at night on the seventh day. The Śākasaptamīvrata lasts for a year. The Sun-god is worshipped in each period of four

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⁹² Vi.Dh.P., 3.151.1-8

⁹³ Mat.P., 77.3

⁹⁴ RV., 1.50

⁹⁵ Mat. P., 77.1-17; Padma P., 5.21.263-279; Bhavi. P., 4.49.1-18

months, with different flowers, like Agasti, fragrant flowers and Karavīra, with different unguents, e.g. Saffron, white Sandalwood, red Sandalwood, respectively, dhūpas, Aparājitā, Aguru and Guggula and *naivedya*, *pāyasa*, jaggery cake, boiled rice grains, respectively. At the end of the year, the dinner should be offered to the Brāhmaṇa and Purāṇas should be listened, read by the reader. 96

Śubhasaptamīvrata: The deity Aryaman is worshipped with Śubhasaptamīvrata. On the seventh day of the bright fortnight of Āśvina, the cow named Kapilā is worshipped. The worshipper donates a *prastha* of Sesame contained in a copper vessel and a golden bull with garments, flowers and jaggery with the utterance of the words, *aryamā prītayāmiti*/⁹⁷ For a complete year, the worshipper does the same in every month in devotion of the Sun.⁹⁸

Saptasaptamīkalpavrata: The Saptasaptamīkalpavrata is to be undertaken on a Sunday in bright fortnight after the Sun starts on his northward passage and on a constellation with male name. It lasts for a year. The worshipper should observe celibacy and subsist on *nakta* on all the seven saptamīs called Arkasampūṭa, Marica, Nimba, Phala, Anodanā, Vijayā, Kāmikī. He observes *ekabhakta* on the fifth day and avoids sexual intercourse on the sixth day, and give up honey and meat on that *tithi*. After writing the seven names on leaves, he should cast them in an unused jar and should ask a child.⁹⁹

Sarvāptisaptamīvrata: The Sarvāptisaptamīvrata is observed on the seventh day of the dark fortnight of Māgha and lasts for a year. The Sarvāptisaptamīvrata is devoted to the

⁹⁶ Bhvi.P., 1.47.47-72

⁹⁷ Mat.P., 80.5

⁹⁸ Mat.P., 80.1-14; Padma P., 5.21.307-321; Bhavi. P., 4.51.1-14

⁹⁹ Bhavi. P., 1.208.2-32

Sun-god. By the observance of this *vrata*, all the wishes of the worshippers become fulfilled. The whole year is divided into two periods of six months. In the first six months, the Sesame is to be used at bath, and dinner is taken. The names with which the Sun-god is to be invoked in the six months from the Mārgaśīrṣa are, Mārtaṇḍa, Arka, Citrabhānu, Vibhāvasu, Bhaga and Haṁsa. In the second period of the six months, *pañcagavya* is used at bath and meals. The performer takes the names of the Sun-god and eats at night excluding oil and salt. ¹⁰⁰

Sarṣapasaptamīvrata: On seven Saptamī tithis, the performer, sitting facing the Sun, should place *pañcagavya* or other liquids on his palm and one to seven mustard grains, in order, on first Saptamī, second Saptamī upto the seventh. After that, he should look at it, brings to his mind some desired object and should take the Mustard seed with water at once, without allowing the teeth to touch with. A *mantra* is also uttered: *siddhārthakastvam hi loke sarvatra śrūyase yathā/ tathā māmapi siddhārthamarthataḥ kurutām raviḥ/*102 The mustard is called *siddhārtha*, and therefore, this *vrata* is also called as the Siddhārthsaptamīvrata. After that, the *homa* and *japa* should be performed in devotion of the Sun. All the desires of the worshipper fulfil thereby with the observance of this *vrata*.

Siddhārthakādisaptamīvrata: The Siddhārthakādisaptamīvrata is observed on the seventh day of the bright fortnight in the month of Māgha or Mārgaśīrṣa, or any seventh *tithi* of any month in case of the person who is ill. The worshipper, brushing the teeth before the sunrise, with the twigs of certain trees, and observes the vow of Siddhārthakādisaptamī. Different twigs are used for different Saptamī. Again, each of

loo Ibid., 1.108.1-12

⁰¹ Ibid., 1.68.32-35

¹⁰² Ibid., 1.68.36

the twigs fulfils different purposes. e.g. Madhūka gives sons, Arjuna makes fortune firm, Nimba confers prosperity, Aśvattha gives fame. The first Saptamī is observed with Mustard grain, second with Arka buds, third with Marīca, fourth with Nimba, fifth and sixth with fruits and seventh with food, excluding boiled rice. *japa, homa*, etc., are to be performed and the Sun-god is worshipped. The worshipper sleeps before the image of the Sun and recites *Gāyatrīmantra*. The rewards of worshipping the Sun with various flowers are mentioned. Fame is achieved with the Lotuses, removal of all leprosy with Mandāra, success with Agastya, etc. The Brāhmaṇas should be offered the dinner and gifts to be given of coloured garments, scents, flowers, *haviṣya*, food, cow, etc. ¹⁰³

Sūryavrata: The Sun-god is worshipped with the observance of the Sūryavrata. The worshipper, on a Sunday in the month of Caitra, worships the Sun-god with cakes, mixed with jaggery and salt, after shaving his head. He observes *nakta* on the particular day and observes fast in devotion of the Sun on the sixth day of bright fortnight of the month. On the seventh day, the worshipper worships the Sun-god, making an altar with whitish clay and drawing there an eight-petalled Lotus with coloured powders. The image of the deity is placed on the pericarp, and drawn there in the eight quarters, from the eastern petal, certain demi-gods, goddesses and sages. After that, *homa* is performed with one hundred and eight āhutis of ghee to the Sun, and eight āhutis to each of them. This *vrata* lasts for a year. At the end of the *vrata* gift of a cow and gold is to be offered. The worshipper achieves the region of the Sun-god by observing this *vrata*.

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¹⁰³ Ibid., 1.193.2-21; 194.1-25; 197.1-10

Sauravrata: The Sauravrata is observed with the observance of fast on the seventh *tithi*. The *vrata* lasts for a year, and the Sun-god is worshipped with it. At the end of the *vrata*, the devotee donates a golden Lotus, cows along with a jar full of food, according to his capability. It leads the worshipper to Sūryaloka: *yaścopavāsī saptamyāṁ samānte* haimapaṅkajam/ gāśca vai śaktito dadyāddhemānnaghaṭasaṁyutāḥ/ etat sauravrataṁ nāma sūryalokaphalapradam//¹⁰⁴

The Festivals Related to the Worship of Sun:

Different festivals are celebrated in honour of the Sun-god. It is difficult to find out the minute difference in between the two aspects, viz. vratas and festivals. P.V. Kane, in this regard, opines that it is difficult to draw a strict line between vratas and utsavas; what are called utsavas have also an element of religious rites and conversely, many vratas have some element of being a festival. Some festivals are recorded in the Purānas are discussed here—

Rathayātrā: The Rathayātrā is one of the festivals associated with the Sunworship. The *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* contains a great deliberation on this festival. As the part of the celebration, the chariot of the Sun-god is moved forward in a procession. The image of the Sun-god is placed on the chariot and the horses, fully decorated with cāmara, garland and kuṁkuma, etc., ¹⁰⁶ by three hundred and sixteen devotees and Brāhmaṇas, who are observing the fast. ¹⁰⁷ The two wives of the deity, viz. Rājñī and

Mat.P., 101.63

Kane, P.V., *History of Dharmaśāstra*, Vol. V, Part-I, p.57

cf., tasminrathavareśreṣṭḥekalpitesumanorame/ āropyapratimāmyatnādyojayedvājinaḥśubhān// harillakṣaṇasampannānsumukhānvaśavartinaḥ/

kumkume nasamālabdhāmścāmarasragvibhūṣitān// Bhavi.P., 1.55.62,63

cf., upavāsasthitairviprairdivyairbhaumaiścasuvrataḥ/ triṁśadbhiḥṣoḍaśairvāpipratimāṁ bhāskarasyatu// Ibid., 1.55.76

Nikṣubhā should be placed on the right and the left side of the Sun-god, respectively. ¹⁰⁸ The Sun-god is honoured with fully decorated umbrella and *daṇḍa*, made of gold. A figure of Garuḍa is also placed behind the main image of the Sun. ¹⁰⁹ The chariots of the other members of the solar family are also moved forward along with the main chariot of the deity. The procession passes along the main roads of the city with pomp and show, along with the continuous beating of the drums and sounding of conch and other musical instruments. ¹¹⁰ All the procedures of the festival is followed with fasts, gifts and donation in honour of the Sun-god. ¹¹¹

Makarasamkrānti: The Makarasamkrānti is one of the festivals celebrated in honour of the Sun. A bath is obligatory in Makarasamkrānti. Special gifts are made on the specific day. The transition of the Sun from one month to the other is called the *Samkrānti* day. On Makarasamkrānti day, the Sun-god enters into Capricorn. This *Samkrānti* day is regarded as very pious. Festivals are celebrated in different parts, all over the India, taking the holy bath in devotion of the Sun, specially in the Gangā.

Thus, in the Purāṇic texts, references are found of observances of different sacrifices, rituals, vratas and festivals, in devotion of the Sun-god. The immense power of the deity is well observed by the Purāṇic people and they propitiated the deity giving prominent place among the other deities of the Vedic pantheon.

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cf., ... rājñīcanikṣubhārudrabhāryetasyamahātmanaḥ// śanairāropayedrudraubhayoḥpārśvayorathe/ nikṣubhāmdakṣiṇepārśverājñīmcāpyuttaretathā// Ibid., 1.55.77,78

cf., garuḍaṁpṛṣṭhataścāsyavalgamānaṁprakalpayet/ Ibid., 1.55.80

¹¹⁰ Ibid., 1.55,44-47

¹¹¹ Ibid., 1.50.20,21

CHAPTER-VI

CONCLUSION

The present work entitled 'Vedic Influence on the Sun-Worship in the Purāṇas—A Study' deals with an analytical and comparative study on the worship of the Sun-god as revealed in the Vedas and the Purāṇas. The Sun-god is considered as one of the prominent deities in the Vedic pantheon. The great impact of the Sun-god on the universe is marked by the Vedic seers and he is appreciated as the soul of the entire world: ekaiva vā mahānātmā devatā tat sūrya ityācakṣate. (Sarvānukramaṇī, 2.14.20)

The Sun-god is worshipped with different names and epithets in the Vedas, Epics and the Purāṇas. Different aspects of the deity have given rise to independent forms of the god. The Sun-god, representative of the sun-beam, is called Viṣṇu, the god of wide space: atha yad viṣito bhavati tad viṣṇurbhavati (Nir., 12.18). Again, Pūṣan, a form of the Sun is the god of prosperity: ... atha yadraśmipoṣam puṣyati tatpūṣā bhavati (Nir., 12.16.). The preservative aspect of the deity is revealed by the form Mitra: mitraḥ pramūteḥ trāyate (Nir., 10.21). The multiple names and forms for one single deity occur due to the fact that different aspects of the Sun-god were worshipped in different period and positions of the day, giving rise to independent forms. The Sungod is called Āditya in the Vedas and the Purāṇas, as he is the son of Kāśyapa and Aditi (RV., 10.88.11). Along with Sūrya, Mitra, Varuṇa, Bhaga, Aryaman, Aṁśa, etc., are jointly invoked under the name Ādityas, both in the Vedas and the Purāṇas. Their names and numbers are quite uncertain. In the Vedas, generally they are enumerated as twelve, identified with the twelve months of the year, which continued up to the Purāṇas identifying the forms with the twelve months of the year.

The Sun-god is delineated as the ultimate source of light and heat, who, with immense power, bestows life on earth. He is the generative force of the universe. He stands as the remover of the diseases and the sins, and he is invoked, due to its power of magic and medicine. He is identified with the Supreme Brahman, in the Vedas and the Purāṇas. The worshippers, meditating on him, are united with Ultimate Truth or Reality.

Various Vedic contexts contain references to the *Sūryadarśana*, *Sūryanamaskāra*, *Sandhyopāsanā*, etc., in honour of the Sun-god. In the Purāṇas, the Vedic tradition of Sun-worship was given priority and it has been transformed into the Sun-cult with minor changes and additions. The significant innovation in the Sunworship in the Purāṇas is the installation of the images of the Sun in the temples. A number of modes and methods of worshipping the Sun-god is developed in the Purāṇic period.

The present study involves the Vedic scriptures as a whole, but only some relative Mahāpuāṇas are brought under the purview of the study, along with one of the minor Purāṇas, called the *Sāmbapurāṇa*, which is considered as the milestone in the field of Purāṇic Sun-cult. The materials are elaborated and analyzed through a comparative study of the various relevant texts.

The study comprises six chapters. The **Introductory Chapter** is captioned as **Vedic Concept of God and Religion**, which deals with the Vedic concept of god and religion, in particular, after a careful study on the origin and evolution of religion. At the very outset, the chapter contains a brief discussion on the Vedic literature, which is regarded as the pertinent source of socio-religious history of ancient India. The origin of the term religion is traced in the chapter, which is derived from the Latin word

religare or religere, that convey the similar sense, i.e. the sense of unity or harmony, as the outcome of the binding of the man to the god, or the man with the society, with the bond of piety, or any kind of rehearse, through which the unity or harmony can be maintained. The process of religion has two sides, i.e. the inner and the outer. From the inner point of view, it is the state of belief and feeling towards the supernatural power, and from the outer, it is the expression of subjective disposition, in the form of worship and service. The chapter contains some remarkable views regarding the religion that have been given by different renowned scholars from different parts of the world.

It is observed that here are two primary theories, relating to the origin of the religion, one is the theory of divine origin and the other is the theory of human origin. The theory of divine origin implies the god as the ultimate source of religion while the theory of human origin entails the human consideration or judgment as the ultimate cause. The theories, Animism, Naturalism or Animatism, Magic, Totemism are thoroughly discussed.

The religion is broadly divided into three groups, viz. the Tribal Religion, the National Religion and the Universal Religion. Again, according to the different theories, relating to the origin and evolution of it, religion can be categorized into the following groups: Primal Religion, Naturalistic Religion, Humanistic Religion and the Spiritual Religion. The Primal Religion comprises the Animism, Spiritism, Fetishism, Manaism or Ancestor worship and Totemism. The Naturalistic Religion involves the worship of the object of nature or the power of nature. The Humanistic and Spiritual Religion deal with the worship of the human and the spirits, beyond the world, respectively.

Then, the chapter discusses, in detail, the Vedic concept of religion. The term *dharma* is used in Sanskrit for religion, which is derived from root *dhṛñ*, *dhāraṇe*, meaning to support, or *dhṛṅ*, *avasthāne*, meaning to take a position. In different senses, the term *dharma* is used in the Vedas. It includes in it religion, duty, sacrifice, religious ordinance, moral order, fixed principles, or rules of conduct, virtue, etc. From the etymological point of view, the term gives the meaning of supporter, or sustainer, or upholder. Different gods are invoked as the protector, or the supporter, or the sustainer of the rituals and the individuals in the Vedic texts, which is rightly called as the *dharma*. The sacrifices are also called *dharma*, from sustaining the earth, causing the rain, purifying the entire vegetation and herbs and producing cereals for livelihood.

The Vedic religion is the naturalistic religion, which is ritualistic in nature. With the application of the mantras and the ritualistic activities, the divine powers are propitiated, so that they bestow the desired objects to the devotees along with the showers of blessings. A nearest and close relationship, in between the worshipper and the worshipped, are tried to be developed. The idea of unification of the deities in the Vedic pantheon is distinctly observed in the Vedic mantra: *ekain sad viprāḥ bahudhā vadantyagnim yamam mātariśvānamāhuḥ*/ The Vedic religion is the monotheistic one, though, in its first sight, it appears like the polytheistic one with the enumeration of a large number of gods.

According to the etymology, the term deva is derived from the root $d\bar{a}$, $d\bar{\imath}p$ or dyut. Due to the shining character, heavenly qualities and deeds of supremacy, the powerful aspects of the nature are regarded as the gods in the Vedic religion. The greatness and diversity of functions of a single deity has given rise to a large number of

divinities in the Vedic pantheon. The common characteristic features of the Vedic deities are also highlighted in the present chapter.

The Second Chapter is entitled Salient Traits of the Solar Divinities in the Veda. First of all, the chapter contains the detailed deliberation on the importance of the deity Sūrya, which is indeed the deified form of the atmospheric Sun. He is the most concrete form of the Solar divinities. Being the creator of the day and night, the deity provides heat and light towards the whole universe and stands as the ultimate cause of the food and nutrition. Sūrya is eulogized as the soul of universe. The immense power of the deity finds expression in the eulogy of the deity as the healer, remover of sin, evil dreams, etc. He is worshipped as the lord of the morality as well as the Utimate Reality in the Vedic texts.

Thereafter, the chapter deals with the salient traits of the other Solar divinities, viz. Savitṛ, Mitra, Pūṣan, Viṣṇu, Vivasvat and the Ādityas, along with Vena and Rohita. The stimulative aspect of the Sun is represented by the form Savitṛ in the Vedas. The deity Savitṛ is connected with the *Gāyatrīmantra*. The *Gāyatrīmantra* contains the notion that solar light is the symbol of ultimate knowledge and reality. Again, Mitra delineates the friendly aspect of the Sun. Pūṣan is the lord of prosperity as well as the pastoral deity. Thus, after delineating the salient traits of different solar gods, the chapter discusses the Sun-worship in the theriomorphic, fetishistic and symbolic forms. Different fetishes are identified as the Sun in the Vedic pantheon, e.g. horse, *Dadhikrā*, *Tārkṣya*, *Aja*, bird, lotus, etc.

Different rituals in the Vedic pantheon involve the worship of the Sun under different names and forms. The predominance of the Sun-worship is seen in the *Gṛhya* rituals like the Vivāha, Niṣkramaṇa, Upanayana, etc., along with the *Śrauta* rituals like

Agnihotra, and so on. The deity was worshipped in the Vedas, mainly with the prayer and praise. The best means of worshipping the deity was the recital of Gāyatrī or Sandhyopāsanā.

The **Third Chapter** of the work is entitled **General Characteristics of the Purāṇic Religion and Its Links with the Vedic Tradition.** At the very outset, the chapter deals with the meaning of the term *purāṇa*, its content and the characteristic features, and its close connectivity with the Vedas, chiefly with the Dharmaśāstras, the fivefold or the tenfold characteristics of the Purāṇic texts, and the threefold divisions of the Purāṇas according to the guṇas. The chapter also takes an overview on the Pre-Purāṇic religious systems which influence the religion of the Purāṇas.

The Purāṇic religion is fully influenced by the Vedas. With the downfall of the Buddhism and the declination of the Jainism, the Vedic faith with sectarianism was installed. Due to the growth and development of the sectarianism, most of the deities of the Vedic pantheon went to the backdrop, and five deities, viz. Viṣṇu, Śiva, Durgā (Śakti), Sūrya and Gaṇeśa were worshipped as the prominent deities in the Purāṇas. The worship of the personal gods, instead of the Vedic Brāhmaṇical community worship, is the new innovation in the field of the Purāṇic religion. The Purāṇic religion introduces some new ideas like *bhakti*, avatāras, image-worship, *pūjā*, *vrata*, *tīrtha*, etc., those are indeed innovated from the various Vedic religious practices.

The last part of the chapter contains a note on the growth of the Purāṇic texts, for propitiating the Sun. Though the Sun-god was worshipped in the Vedic period, yet the Sun-worship as cult and sect was established only in the Epic-Purāṇic age. In the growth of the Purāṇic Sun-cult, there was the influence of the Magian Sun-worshipper, who belonged to the Śākadvīpa. Numerous Purāṇic texts were composed in devotion of

the deity, but only some of them are available now. They are the pertinent source of the Purāṇic Sun-cult, dealing with the Sun-worship, Sun temples, vrata-culture, etc.

The Fourth Chapter of the thesis captioned The Vedic Influence on the Sun-Worship in the Purāṇas. At the very outset, it deals with the Saura-cult, the glimpses of which have been observed in the contents of the great Epics, the Rāmāyaṇa and the Mahābhārata. The chapter discusses, in detail, the eulogy of the Sun-god in the Purāṇas. Following the Vedic tradition, the deity is worshipped in the Purāṇas, due to his atmospheric aspect, power of creation or preservation, etc. He is identified with the Supreme Brahman. The twelve aspects of the deity are worshipped in twelve different forms in the Purāṇas under the title Āditya, which is derived from the Vedas. The anthropomorphic character of the deity is very prominent in the Purāṇas, which is influenced by the Vedas. As the deity fulfils the desires of his worshipper, he is worshipped with different modes of worship.

Viśvakarmā had made the image of the Sun for the first time. Prior to it, the deity was worshipped in his *maṇḍala* form. He is worshipped with the Gāyatrī or the Sandhyopāsanā. Again, the worship of the deity in his symbolic form is well described in the Purāṇic texts, as well as the Vedas. The lotus, horse, etc., are the symbols of the sun, which are profusely used in the worship of the deity. Different temples were built for his propitiation. The images of the deity were worshipped with flowers, scents, red sandal paste, clothes, water, *dhūpa*, *aguru*, *guggula*, *karpūra*, *naivedya*, *akṣata*, lamps, honey, milk, etc. Besides these, he was worshipped with the *mudrā*, *japa*, *namaskāra*, along with the *arghya*, observance of fasts, vows and so on and so forth. King Sāmba had brought the Magian priest from the Śākadvīpa to worship the sun, who occupied a prime role in the growth and development of the Purānic Sun-cult.

The iconographic features of the deity are recorded in the Purāṇic texts. The chapter contains discussion on the iconographic representation of the Sun along with the assistants and family members. Seven types of images of the Sun-god are found in the Purāṇas, They are Kāňcanī, Rājatī, Tāmrī, Pārthivī, Śailajā, Vārkṣī and Ālekhyā. All those images are divided on the basis of the material with which they are made of. The chapter contains a great deliberation on the size of the image of the deity. The procedure of installation of the Sun-image in the temples is also described.

The Purāṇas glorify the building of a temple. They contain huge information relating to the different Sun-temples located in different parts of India. The Purāṇic texts narrate some legendary episodes connected with the origin of such temples. The Sun-god was worshipped under different names in the temples, appearing before his devotees, occupying different forms. Besides the temples, there were some centres of pilgrimage mentioned in the Purāṇic texts. With a view to getting relief from different diseases or sins or to fulfil different desires the devotees went to the pilgrimage and took their sacred baths on different months and different constellations. His worship as the remover of diseases and reliever of sins is very much prominent in the Vedas and it has a direct impact on the Sun-worship in the pilgrimage and temples in Purāṇas.

The **Fifth Chapter** of the work entitled **Rituals Related to the Sun-Worship** in the **Purāṇas**. This chapter, first of all, deals with some sacrifices and saṁskāras, where the Sun-god is worshipped with great devotion right from the time of the Vedas. After that, it contains a long deliberation on different vratas, like, Kalyānasaptamī, Phalasaptamī, etc., narrating the rules and regulations to be performed during its observance. Besides this, the chapter contains discussion on some festivals related to the Sun.

The **Sixth Chapter** of the work presents an overall summary and conclusion of the study. After reviewing the earlier chapters, it can be concluded that, due to the beneficial impact, the Sun-god is worshipped by the people right from the time of the Vedas. The tradition of worshipping the deity is continued, following the Vedic order which involves in it, the practices of Sandhyā, offerings of oblations, etc. Again, the idea of vrata or austerities, etc., is developed among the people which indeed has developed on an organized scale, as a part and parcel of the Sun-cult, essentially in the Purāṇas. There is not a single reference of worshipping the deity, constructing some image, in the Vedic religion. It is the later development in the period of the Purāṇas which is practiced by the religious people in the present society also. With the development of the image-worship, there develops the effort of construction of the temples, in devotion of the Sun. From a keen observation, it can be deduced that the Purānic Sun-cult bears the direct influence of the Vedic Sun-worship. In the Vedic period the deity was worshipped as one of the simplest forms of the nature, which transforms into the sectarian worship of the Sun constituting the Sun-cult in the Purāņas.

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