CHAPTER XXXIV

LITERATURE OF SOUTHERN ŚAIVISM

The Literature and History of Southern Śaivism.

THE earliest Sanskrit philosophical literature in which we find a reference to Saivism is a bhāsya of Sankara (eighth century) on Brahma-sūtra 11. 2. 37. In the commentary on this sūtra, Šankara refers to the doctrines of the Siddhantas as having been written by Lord Maheśvara. The peculiarity of the teachings of the Siddhantas was that they regarded God as being only the instrumental cause of the world. Here and elsewhere Sankara has called the upholders of this view Isvara-kāranins. If Siva or God was regarded as both the instrumental and the material cause of the world, according to the different Siddhanta schools of thought, then there would be no point in introducing the sūtra under reference, for according to Sankara also, God is both the instrumental and the material cause of the world. Sankara seems to refer here to the Pasupata system which deals with the five categories, such as the cause (kāraņa), effect (kārya), communion (voga), rules of conduct (vidhi) and dissolution of sorrow (duhkhanta)1. According to him it also holds that Pāśupati (God) is the instrumental cause of the world. In this view the Naiyāvikas and the Vaiśesikas also attribute the same kind of causality to God, and offer the same kind of arguments, i.e. the inference of the cause from the effect.

Vācaspati Miśra (A.D. 840), in commenting on the *bhāṣya* of Śaṅkara, says that the Maheśvaras consist of the Śaivas, Pāśupatas, the Kāruṇika-siddhāntins and the Kāpālikas. Mādhava of the fourteenth century mentions the Śaivas as being Nakulīśapāśupatas who have been elsewhere mentioned as Lākulīśapāśupatas or Lakulīša-pāśupatas, and they have been discussed in another section of the present work. Mādhava also mentions the *Śaiva-darśana* in which he formulates the philosophical doctrines found in the *Śaivāgamas* and their cognate literature. In addition to this he devotes a section to *pratyabhijñā-darśana*, commonly

¹ The skeleton of this system has already been dealt with in another section as *Pāśupata-śāstras*.

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called Kāśmīr Śaivism. This system will also be dealt with in the present volume. Vācaspati mentions the Kāruņika-siddhāntins and the Kāpālikas. Rāmānuja in his bhāsya on Brahma-sūtra II. 2. 37 mentions the name of Kāpālikas and Kālamukhas as being Saiva sects of an anti-Vedic character. But in spite of my best efforts, I have been unable to discover any texts, published or unpublished, which deal with the special features of their systems of thought. We find some references to the Kāpālikas in literature like the Mālatī-mādhava of Bhavabhūti (A.D. 700-800) and also in some of the Purānas. Anandagiri, a contemporary of Sankara and a biographer, speaks of various sects of Saivas with various marks and signs on their bodies and with different kinds of robes to distinguish themselves from one another. He also speaks of two schools of Kāpālikas, one Brahmanic and the other non-Brahmanic. In the Atharva-veda we hear of the Vrātyas who were devotees of Rudra. The Vrātyas evidently did not observe the caste-rules and customs. But the Vrātyas of the Atharva-veda were otherwise held in high esteem. But the Kāpālikas, whether they were Brahmanic or non-Brahmanic, indulged in horrid practices of drinking and indulging in sex-appetite and living in an unclean manner. It is doubtful whether there is any kind of proper philosophy, excepting the fact that they were worshippers of Bhairava the destroyer, who also created the world and maintained it. They did not believe in karma. They thought that there are minor divinities who perform various functions in world creation and maintenance according to the will of Bhairava. The Sūdra Kāpālikas did not believe also in the castesystem and all these Kāpālikas ate meat and drank wine in skulls as part of their rituals. Sir R. G. Bhandarkar thinks on the authority of Siva-mahāpurāņa that the Kālamukhas were-the same as the Mahāvratadharas. But the present author has not been able to trace any such passage in the Siva-mahāpurāņa, and Bhandarkar does not give any exact reference to the Siva-mahāpurāna containing this identification. The Mahāvrata, meaning the great vow, consists in eating food placed in a human skull and smearing the body with the ashes of human carcasses and others, which are attributed to the Kālamukhas by Rāmānuja. Bhandarkar also refers to the commentary of Jagaddhara on the Mālatīmādhava, where the Kāpālika-vrata is called Mahāvrata. Bhandarkar further points out that the ascetics dwelling in the temple of

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Kāpāleśvara near Nasik are called the Mahāvratins¹. Be that as it may, we have no proof that the Kāpālikas and Kālamukhas had any distinct philosophical views which could be treated separately. Members of their sects bruised themselves in performing particular kinds of rituals, and could be distinguished from other Śaivas by their indulgence in wines, women, and meat and even human meat. Somehow these rituals passed into Tāntric forms of worship, and some parts of these kinds of worship are found among the adherents of the Tāntric form of worship even to this day. Tāntric initiation is thus different from the Vedic initiation.

Frazer in his article on Saivism in the Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics says that, in some well-known temples in South India, the ancient blood-rites and drunken orgies are permitted to be revived yearly as a compromise with the aboriginal worshippers, whose primitive shrines were annexed by Brahmin priests acting under the protection of local chieftains. These chieftains, in return for their patronage and countenance, obtained a rank as Kşatriyas with spurious pedigrees. Frazer further gives some instances in the same article in which non-Brahmins and outcastes performed the worship of Siva and also offered human sacrifices, and one of the places he mentions is Śrīśaila, the Kāpālika centre referred to by Bhavabhūti. These outcaste worshippers were ousted from the temple by some of the Buddhists, and thereafter the Buddhists were thrown out by the Brahmins. By the time of Sankara, the Kāpālikas developed a strong centre in Ujjain. We, of course, do not know whether the South Indian cult of blood-rites as performed by Brahmins and non-Brahmins could be identified with the Kāpālikas and Kālamukhas; but it is quite possible that they were the same people, for Śriśaila, mentioned by Bhavabūti, which is described as an important Kāpālika centre, is also known to us as a centre of bloody rites from the Sthala-māhātmya records of that place as mentioned by Frazer. The Kāpālikas and Kālamukhas were anti-Vedic according to the statement of Rāmānuja in Brahma-sūtra II. 2. 37. Šankara also, according to Anandagiri, did not hold any discussion with the Kāpālikas, as their views were professedly anti-Vedic. He simply had them chastised and whipped. The Kāpālikas, however, continued in their primitive

¹ Vaisnavism, Śaivism and Minor Religious Systems, by Sir R. G. Bhandarkar (1913), p. 128.

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form and some of them were living even in Bengal, as is known to the present writer. The habit of smearing the body with ashes is probably very old in Saivism, since we find the practice described in the $P\bar{a}$ supata-sutra and in the bhāsya of Kaundinya.

The Kāruņika-siddhāntins mentioned by Vācaspati have not been referred to by Madhava (fourteenth century) in his Sarvadarsana-samgraha, and we do not find a reference to these in any of the Saivagamas. But from the statement of Saiva philosophy in the Vāyavīya-samhitā of the Siva-mahāpurāņa, as discussed in another section (pp. 106-29), it is not difficult for us to reconstruct the reasons which might have led to the formation of a special school of Saivism. We find that the doctrine of grace or karunā is not always found in the same sense in all the Agamas, or in the Vāyavīya-samhitā, which was in all probability based on the Agamas. Ordinarily the idea of grace or karunā would simply imply the extension of kindness or favour to one in distress. But in the Saivāgamas there is a distinct line of thought where karunā or grace is interpreted as a divine creative movement for supplying all souls with fields of experience in which they may enjoy pleasures and suffer from painful experiences. The karunā of God reveals the world to us in just the same manner as we ought to experience it. Grace, therefore, is not a work of favour in a general sense, but it is a movement in favour of our getting the right desires in accordance with our karma. Creative action of the world takes place in consonance with our good and bad deeds, in accordance with which the various types of experience unfold themselves to us. In this sense, grace may be compared with the view of Yoga philosophy, which admits of a permanent will of God operating in the orderliness of the evolutionary creation (parināmakramanivama) for the protection of the world, and supplying it as the basis of human experience in accordance with their individual karmas. It is again different from the doctrine of karunā of the Rāmānuja Vaisņavas, who introduce the concept of Mahālaksmī, one who intercedes on behalf of the sinners and persuades Nārāyaņa to extend His grace for the good of the devotees.

The word '*siva*' is supposed to have been derived irregularly from the root '*vas' kāntan*'. This would mean that Siva always fulfils the desires of His devotees. This aspect of Siva as a merciful Lord who is always prepared to grant any boons for which prayers

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are offered to Him is very well depicted in the *Mahābhārata* and many other Purāṇas. This aspect of Śiva is to be distinguished from the aspect of Śiva as *rudra* or *śarva* or the god of destruction.

We have seen that we know practically nothing of any importance about the Kāpālikas and the Kālamukhas. The other doctrines of Saivism of the South are those of the Pāśupatas, the Saiva doctrines derived from the Agamas and the Vaisnavas. The other schools of Saivism that developed in Kāśmīr in the ninth and tenth centuries will be separately discussed. The Pāśupata-sūtra with the Pañcārtha bhāşya of Kaundinya was first published from Trivandrum in 1940, edited by Anantakrisna Sāstri. This bhāsya of Kaundinya is probably the same as the Rāśākara-bhāsya referred to by Madhava in his treatment of Nakuliśa-paśupata-darśana in Sarva-darsana-samgraha. Some of the lines found in Kaundinya's bhāsya have been identified by the present writer with the lines attributed to Rāśīkara by Mādhava in his treatment of the Nakulīśa-pāśupata system. Nakulīśa was the founder of the Pāsupata system. Aufrect in the Catalogus Catalogorum mentions the Pāśupata-sūtra¹. The Vāyavīya-samhitā 11. 24. 169, also mentions the Pāsupata-sāstra as the Pañcārtha-vidyā². Bhandarkar notes that in an inscription in the temple of Harsanātha which exists in the Sikar principality of the Jaipur State, a person of the name of Viśvarūpa is mentioned as the teacher of the Pañcārthalākulāmnāva. The inscription is dated V.E. 1013 = A.D. 957. From this Bhandarkar infers that the Pāśupata system was attributed to a human author named Lakulin and that the work composed by him was called *Pañcārtha*. This inference is not justifiable. We can only infer that in the middle of the tenth century Lakuliśa's doctrines were being taught by a teacher called Viśvarūpa, who was well reputed in Jaipur, and that Lakuliśa's teachings had attained such an authoritative position as to be called *āmnāya*, a term used to mean the Vedas.

In the *Pāśupata-sūtra* published in the Trivandrum series, the first *sūtra* as quoted by Kauņdinya is *athātaḥ paśupateh paśupataṃ*

¹ Bhandarkar notes it in his section on the Pāśupatas, op. cit. p. 121 n.

² The present writer could not find any such verse in the edition of *Siva-mahāpurāna* printed by the Venkateśvara Press, as 11. 24 contains only seventy-two stanzas.

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yogavidhim vyākhyāsyāmaķ. Here the yoga-vidhi is attributed to Pasupati or Siva. In the Sūtasamhitā IV. 43. 17, we hear of a place called Nakula and the Siva there is called Nakulīśa. The editor of the Pāśupata-sūtra mentions the names of eighteen teachers beginning with Nakulīśa¹. These names are (1) Nakulīśa, (2) Kauśika, (3) Gārgya, (4) Maitreya, (5) Kauruşa, (6) Īśāna, (7) Paragārgya, (8) Kapilāņda, (9) Manusyaka, (10) Kuśika, (11) Atri, (12) Pingalāksa, (13) Puspaka, (14) Brhadārya, (15) Agasti, (16) Santāna, (17) Kauņdinya or Rāśīkara, (18) Vidyāguru. The present writer is in agreement with the view of the editor of the Pāśupata-sūtra, that Kauņdinya the bhāsyakāra lived somewhere from the fourth to the sixth century A.D. The style of the bhāsva is quite archaic, and no references to the later system of thought can be found in Kaundinya's bhāşya. We have already seen that according to the Siva-mahāpurāņa there were twenty-eight yogācāryas and that each of them had four disciples so that there were 112 yogācāryas. Out of these twenty-eight yogācāryas the most prominent were Lokāksī, Jaigīsavya, Rsabha, Bhrgu, Atri and Gautama. The last and the twenty-eighth ācārya was Lakulīśa. born at Kāyā-vatarana-tīrtha. Among the 112 yogācāryas, Sanaka, Sanandana, Sanātana, Kapila, Āsuri, Pañcaśikha, Parāśara, Garga, Bhārgava, Angira, Śuka, Vaśistha, Brhaspati, Kuni, Vāmadeva, Śvetaketu, Devala, Śālihotra, Agniveśa, Akṣapāda, Kaṇāda, Kumāra and Ruru are the most prominent².

The list of twenty-eight teachers given in the $Siva-mah\bar{a}pur\bar{a}na$ does not always tally with the list collected by other scholars, or with that which is found in the $\bar{A}tma$ samarpana by Visuddha Muni. It seems therefore that some of these names are quite mythical, and as their works are not available, their names are not much used. Visuddha Muni summarises the main items of selfcontrol, yama, from the $P\bar{a}supata-s\bar{a}stra$, which are more or less of the same nature as the yamas or measures of self-control as found in the Yogasāstra introduced by Patañjali. It is not out of place here to mention that the concept of God in Yogasāstra is of the same pattern as that of the Pasupati in the Pāsupata-sūtra and bhāsya.

¹ These names are taken from Rājašekhara's *Ṣaddarśana-samuccaya* composed during the middle of the fourteenth century. Almost the same names with slight variations are found in Gunaratna's commentary on *Ṣaddarśana-samuccaya*.

² See Śiva-mahāpurāņa, Vāyavīya Samhitā II. 9, and also Kūrma-purāna 1. 53. The Vāyu-purāņa describes in the twenty-third chapter the names of the four disciples of each of the twenty-eight ācāryas. Visuddha Muni mentions the name of Lakulisa in his work called Atma-samarpaņa. See also Introduction to the Pāsupata-sūtra, p. 3n.

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Mr Dalal in his introduction to Ganakārikā says that the Lākulīśa-pāśupata-darśana is so called from Lakulīśa, who originated the system. Lakulisa means "a lord of those bearing a staff". Lakuliśa is often regarded as an incarnation of God Śiva with a citron in the right hand and a staff in the left. The place of the incarnation is Kāyārohana in Bhrgu-ksetra which is the same as Kāravana, a town in the Dabhoi Taluka of the Baroda State. In the Kāravana-māhātmya it is said that a son of a Brahmin in the village Ulkāpurī appeared as Lakulīśa and explained the methods and merits of worshipping and tying a silken cloth to the image of the God Lakulīśa. This work is divided into four chapters; the first is from the Vāyu-purāna, the remaining three are from the Siva-mahāpurāna. At the commencement of the work, there is obeisance to Maheśvara, who incarnated himself as Lakuța-pāņīśa. There is a dialogue there between Siva and Pārvatī, in which the latter asks Siva of the merits of tying a silken cloth. Siva then relates the story of his incarnation between the Kali and Dvāpara yugas as a Brahmin named Viśvarāja in the family of the sage Atri. His mother was Sudarsana. Some miraculous myths relating to this child, who was an incarnation of Siva, are narrated in the Kāravana Māhātmya, but they may well be ignored here.

We have already mentioned the name of Atri as being one of the important teachers of the Pāśupata school. But according to the account of these teachers as given above, Nakulīśa should be regarded as the first founder of the system. We have seen also that by the middle of the tenth century there was a teacher of the Pañcārtha-lākulāmnāya, which must be the same as the doctrine propounded in the $P\bar{a}$ supata-su tra. It is difficult to say how early the concept of Pasupati might have evolved. From the Mohenjodaro excavations we have a statuette in which Siva is carved as sitting on a bull, with snakes and other animals surrounding Him. This is the representation in art of the concept of the lord of pasus or pasupati, which is found in pre-Vedic times. The concept of Siva may be traced through the Vedas and also through the Upanisads and particularly so in the Svetāśvatara Upanisad. The same idea can be traced in the Mahābhārata and many other Purāņas. The religious cult of Siva, which defines the concept of Siva in its various mythological bearings, has to be given up here, as the interest of the present work is definitely restricted to

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philosophical ideas and the ethical and social attitude of the followers of Siva¹.

It must, however, be said that the Saiva philosophy and the worship of Siva had spread itself far and wide throughout the whole of the peninsula long before the eighth century A.D. We have the most sacred temples of Siva in the north in Badrikāśrama, in Nepal (Pasupati-nātha), in Kāsmīr, in Prabhāsa, in Kathiawar (the temple of Somanātha), in Benaras (the temple of Viśvanātha), the Nakulīśvara temple in Calcutta, and the temple of Rāmeśvaram in extreme South India. This is only to mention some of the most important places of Siva-worship. As a matter of fact, the worship of Siva is found prevalent almost in every part of India, and in most of the cities we find the temples of Siva either in ruins or as actual places of worship. Siva is worshipped generally in the form of the phallic symbol and generally men of every caste and women also may touch the symbol and offer worship. The Saiva forms of initiation and the Tantric forms of initiation are to be distinguished from the Vedic forms of initiation, which latter is reserved only for the three higher castes. But as the present work is intended to deal with the philosophy of Saivism and Tantricism, all relevant allusions to rituals and forms of worship will be dropped as far as possible.

The Jaina writer Rājaśekhara of the middle of the fourteenth century mentions the name of Śaiva philosophy in his *Ṣaḍdarśana-samuccaya* and calls it a *yoga-mata*². He describes the Śaiva ascetics as holding staves in their hands and wearing long loin cloths (*praudha-kaupīna-paridhāyinah*). They had also blankets for covering their bodies, matted locks of hair, and their bodies were smeared with ashes. They ate dry fruits, bore a vessel of gourd (*tumbaka*), and generally lived in forests. Some of them had wives, while others lived a lonely life. Rājaśekhara further says that the Śaivas admitted eighteen incarnations of Śiva, the Overlord, who creates and destroys the world. We have already mentioned the names of the teachers that are found in *Ṣaḍdarśanasamuccaya*. These teachers were particularly adored and among

¹ Those who are interested in the study of the evolution of the different aspects of God Siva, may consult Bhandarkar's Vaișnavism and Saivism, and also the article on Saivism by Frazer in the Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics.

^a atha yoga-matam brumah, śaivam-ity-aparā-bhidham. Rājaśekhara's Ṣaddarśana-samuccaya, p. 8 (2nd edition, Benares).

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them it was Aksapāda who enunciated a system of logic in which he discussed the pramānas, perception, inference, analogy and testimony and also described the sixteen categories that are found in the Nyāya-sūtra of Gautama or Akṣapāda. Rājaśekhara mentions the names of Jayanta, Udayana, and Bhāsarvajña. Thus according to Rājaśekhara the Naiyāyikas were regarded as Šaivas. It does not seem that Rājaśekhara had made any definite study of the Nyāya system, but based his remarks on the tradition of the time¹. He also regards the Vaiśeșikas as Pāśupatas. The Vaiśeșika saints wore the same kind of dress and the marks as the Naiyāyikas and admitted the same teachers, but they held that the perception and inference were the only two pramāņas and that the other pramāņas were included within them. He also mentions the six categories that we find in the Vaiśesika-sūtra. Rājaśekhara calls the Naiyayikas Yaugas. The Vaiśesika and the Nyāya are more or less of the same nature and both of them regard the dissolution of sorrow as ultimate liberation. Gunaratna, the commentator of Haribhadra Suri's Saddarsana-samuccaya was a Jaina writer like Rājasekhara and he was in all probability a later contemporary of him. Many of his descriptions of the Naiyāyikas or Yaugas seem to have been taken from Rājaśekhara's work, or it may also have been that Rājaśekhara borrowed it from Gunaratna, the descriptions being the same in many places. Gunaratna says that there were found kinds of Saivas such as the Saivas, Päsupatas, Mahāvratadharas and the Kālamukhas². In addition to these both Gunaratna and Rājaśekhara speak of those who take the vow (vratins) of service to Siva and they are called Bharatas and Bhaktas. Men of any caste

¹ śrutānusāratah proktam naiyāyika-matam mayā. Ibid. p. 10.

śaivah pāśupataścaiva mahāvrata-dharas tathā,

turyāḥ kālamukhā mukhyā bhedā ete tapasvinām.

Gunaratna's commentary on Haribhadra's Saddarsana-samuccaya, p. 51 (Suali's edition, Calcutta, 1905).

According to Gunaratna, therefore, the Mahāvratadharas and the Kālamukhas are entirely different. The Kāpālikas are not mentioned by Gunaratna. These four classes of Saivas were originally Brahmins and they had the sacred thread. Their difference was largely due to their different kinds of rituals and behaviour ($\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$):

ādhāra-bhasma-kaupīna-jaṭā-yajñopavītinaḥ, sva-svācārādi-bhedena caturdhā syus tapasvinaḥ.

Rāmānuja mentions the names of Kāpālikas and Kālamukhas as being outside the pale of the Vedas (*veda-bāhya*). In *Sankara-vijaya* of Ānandagiri also the Kāpālikas are represented as being outside the pale of the Vedas. But the Kālamukhas are not mentioned there.

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could be included in the class of Bharațas (servants) and Bhaktas (devotees) of Śiva. The Naiyāyikas were always regarded as devotees of Śiva and they were called Śaivas. The Vaiśeşika philosophy was called Pāśupata¹. Haribhadra also says that the Vaiśeşikas admitted the same divinity as the Naiyāyikas².

Excluding the Kapalikas and the Kalamukhas, about whom we know very little except the traditional imputations against their rituals and non-Vedic conduct, we have the text of the Päśupata system and the Saiva philosophy as described in the Saiva Agamas. We have also the Pāśupata-śāstra as described in the Vāyavīya samhitā, the Saiva philosophy of Śrīkantha as elaborated by Appaya Diksita, and the Saiva philosophy as expounded by King Bhoja of Dhāra in his Tattva-prakāśa as explained by Śrīkumāra and Aghora-śivācārya. We have also the Vīra-śaivism which evolved at a later date and was explained in a commentary on Brahma-sūtra by Śrīpati Pandita who is generally placed in the fourteenth century³. Śrīpati Pandita was posterior to the Pāśupatas and Rāmānuja, and also to Ekorāma and the five ācāryas of the Vīra-śaiva religion. Śrīpati was also posterior to Mādhavācārya. But it is curious that Madhava seems to know nothing either of Vīraśaivism or of Śrīpati Pandita. He was of course posterior to Basava of the twelfth century, who is generally regarded as being the founder of Vira-saivism. As Hayavadana Rao points out, Śrīpati was posterior to Śrīkantha, who wrote a bhāsya on the Brahma-sūtra⁴. We have treated in a separate section the philosophy of Śrikantha. Śrikantha lived somewhere in the eleventh century and may have been a junior contemporary of Rāmānuja. Śrīkantha in his treatment of Brahma-sūtra 111. 3. 27-30, criticises the views of Rāmānuja and Nimbārka. Hayavadana Rao thinks on inscriptional grounds that Srīkantha was living in A.D. 1122⁵.

Meykandadeva, the most famous author of the Tamil translation of the Sanskrit work *Śiva-jñāna-bodha* belonged to Tiru-

¹ See Gunaratna's commentary, p. 51.

devatā-visayo bhedo nāsti naiyāyikaiḥ samam,

vaisesikāņām tattve tu vidyate'sau nidarsyate.

Haribhadra's Saddarsana-samuccaya, p. 266.

³ C. Hayavadana Rao's Śrikara-bhāşya, Vol. 1, p. 31.

⁴ Ibid. p. 36. ⁵ Ibid. p. 41.

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