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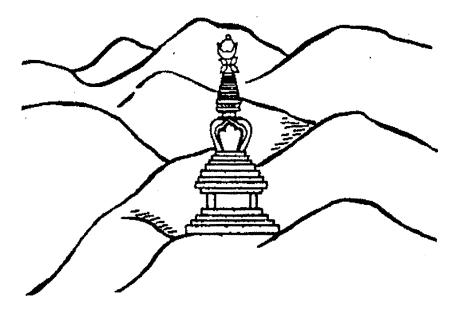
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NAMGYAL INSTITUTE OF TIBETOLOGY GANGTOK, SIKKIM

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[The Bulletin of Tibetology seeks to serve the specialist as well as the general reader with an interest in this field of study. The motif portraying the Stupa on the mountains suggests the dimensions of the field.]

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(TIBETAN VERSION)

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I

Reincarnation and Politics in Tibet

The concept of reincarnation, based upon the Buddhist belief in the transmigration of soul has a special significance among the Tibetan Buddhists. According to this theory of reincarnation, the great mind or the soul, which is reappearing in a new embodiment has already attained Buddhahood or Nirvana and has voluntarily decided to come back for the benefit of the other human beings. The departed soul not only decides the place of its rebirth and parentage according to the need of the moment, it can also reincarnate itself into as many different forms as it likes and at as many different places at the same time. The mind, speech and the body of the souls can also be reincarnated separately into three bodies- as used to be the practice among the Mahayana Buddhists of Bhutan. This practice, however, was not so common in Tibet.

There is ecclesiastical hierarchy among the reincarnations i.e. the tulkus of the mystic Buddhas, Bodhisattvas (the Dalai and Panchen Lamas), Dorje Phagmo etc. Lower in rank but belonging to the same category are the tulkus of some autochthonous gods like Pekar. There are also the tulkus of gods, demons and fairies which appear mostly in mythological stories and are not reckoned amongst the Lamaist aristocracy. The largest number of tulkus, however, are the reincarnations of saintly departed souls like those of Indian or Tibetan saints who fill up the higher posts of abbots in the monasteries. This institution of reincarnations, essentially religious in character, has political significance as well. This was reflected in the peculiar characteristic of the traditional Tibetan Government which used to be headed by the Dalai Lama, a tulku himself of the highest ecclesiastical hierarchy. Reincarnate monks also headed various other departments of the Government. This unique characteristic of the Tibetan Government is described as Rule by Incarnation. The Tibetans themselves have made practical use of the concept for solving the problem of succession in certain sects of Tibetan Buddhism that practised celibacy and tried to institutionalise the charisma of some individual lamas with extraordinary achievement through the concept of reincarnation. The peculiar form of Government headed by these lamas have also complicated Tibet's relation with China and China in its turn has tried to manipulate the identification of the reincarnations in order to retain control over the state and the Government of Tibet. The political use of the concept reached its height with the present political uncertainty over the future of Tibet. The objective of this paper is to probe into this mundane and secular aspect of reincarnation-to see how considerations other religion often influenced the identification of the reincarnation as well as to see how this concept has been used by both Tibet and China to derive political mileage out of it. In this paper we have tried to trace the history of the origin and spread of the theory of reincarnation and its gradual politicisation which has culminated into the recent conflict between China and Tibet.

ORIGIN AND SPREAD OF THE CONCEPT

It is not easy to get real facts regarding the origin and development of this theory. Waddell thinks that the whole question has been purposely obscured in order to give it the appearance of antiquity Alexander David Neel mentions that as early as the 11th century the Tibetans believed in tulkus. She refers to a biography of Milarepa in which it is mentioned that one of his disciples, called Bhiraja, convinced that a divine being was incarnated in his master, asked him to disclose his name. Milarepa himself believed that his own master, lama Marpa was the tulku of Dorje Chang. He called him repeatedly by that name-not only in his poems but when addressing him directly. The first historical reference to a reincarnated being comes from the Karmapa sect in the 13th century. On the eve of his death, Karma Pakshi, the head of the sect, prophesied his reincarnation and indicated a specific place and a specific family where he would reappear as a newly born child. This example of the Karmapa reincarnation was soon followed by the Gelugpas and the others in order to glorify their monks and within a short period of time the identification and installation of reincarnations became a common practice among all the Buddhist sects of Tibet. Even though they did not assume political or administrative power, the Karmapa lamas became involved in politics during the period of political uncertainty and infighting in Tibet during the 16th-17th centuries when they backed the Tsang kings of Tibet.⁷ It was in the mid 17th century that open political power passed on to these reincarnations but it was the Gelugpas and not the Karmapas who finally managed to rise to the position of

political supremacy in Tibet to wield total political authority over the country through the institution of the Dalai Lamas. The Gelugpas, which was basically a reformist sect was founded by the great scholarly monk Tsong Khapa in the 14th century. In order to check corruption and moral degeneration in the sect, he insisted on the practice of celibacy for the monks. He himself was succeeded by Gedun Truppa, his senior disciple and it was after the latter's death that the problem of succession was solved by the ingenious use of the concept of reincarnation. It was from Gedun Truppa that the line of reincarnated monks started. Even though the general impression is that the system came into force immediately upon Gedun Truppa's death, Charles Bell points out that it was not so. In fact, he refers to a biography of Gedun Truppa where the latter says nothing about his spirit passing then or afterwards into a baby successor but describes the measures taken in the ordinary way to choose the next occupant of the chair. He, according to Charles Bell does not appear to have envisaged a return to Drepung or Tashilhunpo monasteries. Rather, he said that he and the great saint would be reborn in China to work there as teacher and pupil respectively. Charles Bell further points out that the system became firmly established seventy years later with the notion that it was originated by Gedun Truppa. This is brought out in a biography of Sonam Gyatso (c. 1542) who was the third head of the sect of the Gelugpas. What Charles Bell says gives one the impression that there was something else other than mere philosophy that lay behind the application of the theory of reincarnation for the purpose of succession to the highest post in the Gelugpa sect. This religious concept was ultimately picked up for the practical purpose it served in a religious order that insisted on celibacy and thus ruled out the possibility of biological inheritors. At the same time, the insistence on the identification of the reincarnation ensured that there were no rival claimants for the particular post. Once, rationalised, the system of succession by reincarnation became the tradition. Gedun Truppa, the first reincarnated head of the Gelugpa sect was succeeded by Gedun Gyatso, who, in his turn, was followed by Sonam Gyatso. Even though he was the first to receive the title of Dalai Lama from the Mongols, he came to be known as the third Dalai Lama by the logic that it was the same soul of Gedun Truppa that was continuing in the person of Sonam Gyatso, the third in line of the Gelugpa sect, hence it was the latter who deserved to be the first in the line of the Dalai Lamas. Birth of the fourth Dalai Lama in a Mongol family as a great grandson of Chengis Khan guaranteed renewed patronage of the Mongols and ensured further Mongol assistance at the time of the fifth Dalai Lama. Ultimately, it was the Mongols who, in 1542 defeated the Tsang kings backed by the Karmapas and handed over the charge of administration of Tibet to the Fifth Dalai Lama making the religious head of the Gelugpas also the temporal head of the country. This was the beginning of the tradition of the 'Rule by Incarnation'- commonly known as the rule by monk kings over Tibet. The identification of the Dalai Lama with Chenrezig i.e. Bodhisattva Avalokiteswara who is also the founder deity of Lhasa further attached unquestionable authority to his person. A Dalai Lama therefore is a monk, a deity and a king in one.¹⁰

IDENTIFICATION OF REINCARNATION

As a rule, it is about two years after the death of an incarnation that the search for the reincarnation begins. The process of identification-long and complicated-pass through several stages. Sometimes the lamas themselves leave directions regarding rebirth in order to help the fellow monks to pursue their search. In the absence of such directions they resort either to astrologers or an oracles, who points out in vague and obscure terms, the direction and the place where investigations must be made as well as the various signs by which the child must be identified. Signs are also found in the waters of some sacred lakes which are interpreted as guidelines. When a child, who nearly answers the prescribed conditions is discovered, a lama clairvoyant is again consulted and if he pronounces in favour of the child, the final test is applied. At this stage, the child is expected to prove his identity by recognising his rosary, bell and other religious implements as well as servants, ponies etc., that were with him in his previous existence. He is expected to do it though just a child, two or three years old and the belief is universal that he does so. The system of identification, however, did not always prove to be full proof and often there used to be several candidates for the same post. Equally convincing signs were noticed concerning each of them and they all correctly picked up the objects of the deceased lama. Rival candidates were often put up by interested parents because becoming a tulku not only assured a revered position in the society but property as well. The tulkus of high ranks not only held high post in his monastery but owned mansions and estates in other parts of Tibet as well as in Mongolia. Even the near relatives of these lamas were provided with comfortable lodging and were plentifully supplied with all their needs. The close relatives of the Dalai Lama were raised to positions of high nobility. All this naturally led to a lot of politics and intrigues over the question of succession of a high incarnate lama. Amidst the warlike folks of Kham or of the Northern borderland, even bloody, feuds sprang from such passionate competition.¹¹ That the trend continues till now is indicated by the recent disturbances in the Rumtek monastery of Sikkim over the question of the identification of the 17th Karmapa. It is an example of intra-sect rivalry that often broke out among the sects over the question of installing the heads of the sects and the monasteries. Since the death of the 16th Gyawla Karmapa in 1981, the Rumtek Monastery, the headquarters of the Karmapas and considered to be the richest in the world, remained without a head. The responsibility of looking after the monastery and searching for the chosen one was entrusted to four senior monks. However, in 1992, the group split into two, over the identification of actual reincarnation. One group identified nine year old Tibet born Ogyen Thinley Dorjee as the reincarnation while the other faction insisted that the eleven year old India born Thinley Thai Dorjee was the rightful heir to the coveted post. According to Tibetan Buddhist traditions, the Gyalwa Karmapa leaves behind a letter of prediction about his own reincarnation. After his death the letter is traced and deciphered and the new Karmapa tracked down and identified. Then a report is sent to the Dalai Lama for approval. This approval was obtained in April 1992 for Tibet born Ogyen Thinley Dorjee and eventually the Chinese authorities also proclaimed him as the 17th Karmapa. However, the rival group rejected the candidature of Ogyen Thinley. There was a vertical split among the followers of the sect over the issue. The supporters of the two rival camps clashed and a case was registered with the police. The clashes reached such an extent that the State Government deployed security forces. Petitions were sent by both the factions to the Central and State Governments for appropriate actions to restore peace and normalcy in the monastery. The issue subsequently gave rise to questions of far reaching significance of international ramifications relating to the credential of the Dalai Lama under the changed political condition when he is no longer the king of Tibet and also regarding Beijing's intentions. Chinese recognition of the Dalai Lama selected candidate as the Karmapa was interpreted as a Chinese plan to prop him up against the Dalai Lama himself as a parallel head of Tibetan Buddhists.¹² To the general public however, it appeared to be a feud between the two groups of monks for the rights over the wealth and religious sway of the monastery and the sect through their proteges.¹³ Politics around the identification of the reincarnate lamas took place at another level where China wanted to control the final selection of the lamas in order to exercise political control over Tibet through them. In fact, the Chinese interference in the identification of the high lamas which has become a major issue of her confrontation with Tibet had become evident from as early as the 17th century, i.e. from the time of the 9th Dalai Lama whose death was followed by five candidates out of which two were finally short-listed as probable reincarnations. At this stage, the Manchu Ambans insisted on a solution by drawing lots from the Golden Urn. Drawing of lots from an urn is an ancient Tibetan system long predating the Manchu empire. The method involves encasing the names of candidates in dough balls of equal size and weight. The balls are put into a container which is then rotated until one of them falls out. The name of the candidate inscribed on the ejected ball is declared the successful candidate. Certain other Buddhist elements such as saying prayers of Buddha and other deities and shaking the urn in a clockwise direction were added in course of time. Emperor Chienlung presented a golden

urn to replace the old one.¹⁴ Despite initial hesitations and objections, the Tibetans finally gave in to the Chinese demands and the lottery method was employed.¹⁵ This happened again at the time of the selection of the 11th Dalai Lama when there were two candidates. Even though no details are available in this regard, the Chinese claim that he was chosen by drawing of lots.¹⁶ Similar claims are made regarding the selection of the 12th Dalai Lama while controversy shrouds the selection of the 13th Dalai Lama.¹⁷ Even though the Chinese insistence on the drawing of lots implies an indirect Chinese control on the method of selection, the Tibetans claim that this had never been the decisive test but was applied in addition to the traditional tests. Moreover, the results, they claim, were always identical. Yet, in retrospect it seems to have been a wrong and short-sighted step taken by the Tibetans because the Chinese now claim that the Amban supervised drawing of lots is indeed a proof of their sovereignty over Tibet.¹⁸

POLITICISATION OF THE REINCARNATIONS A Trend Since the 17th century

The unusual mode of Governance in Tibet- through the reincarnations did provide an opportunity to the outsiders to manipulate the identification and the installation of these high profile reincarnations. High lamas, sometimes knowingly, sometimes under manipulation by their ambitious entourage got entangled in the mundane world of power struggle. In this, they were often encouraged by their dominant neighbours. Because the high lamas wielded enormous influence, they often acted as instruments of the great powers and tended to toe the line so long as their political patrons did not interfere in their religious sphere. The Chinese interference in the identification of the high incarnations and their attempted control over Tibetan Government through these lamas has been the major cause of the strain in Sino Tibetan relations and the consequent confusion over the political status of Tibet. The first Sino-Tibetan entanglement over the Dalai Lama took place as early as 16th/17th century. The pretext was provided by the unmonklike behaviour of the 6th Dalai Lama who led a frivolous life, wrote romantic and lyrical verses and eventually renounced his Getsul vows. This Dalai Lama was initially supported by Lhazang Khan, the leader of the Oosot Mongols. In course of time, Lhazang became critical of the Lama and decided to take him to the Mongol military camp near Lhalu in 1706. The Dalai Lama died on the way. After his death, Lhazang Khan declared him to be an impostor and enthroned a young monk (said to be his own son) as the 'real' Dalai Lama. A few years later, reports came in of an extraordinary child believed to be the reincarnation of the 6th Dalai Lama. Since the child was accepted by the Tibetans as the authentic incarnation it was found advisable to remove the boy to a safer place in Kumbum. At this points,

recognition and protection was offered to him by the Dzungar tribe of the Mongols. They escorted the boy to the Kokonor region, out of sight of Lhazang Khan. In this, they were helped by the Manchu Emperors of China. Later, the Dzungars attacked Lhasa and killed Lhazang Khan, deposed the latter's prot g_, the so called 6th Dalai Lama and sent him to China where he reportedly died in 1725. The Dzungars themselves became unpopular in Tibet in a short period of time. This gave the Manchus an opportunity to extend their influence to Tibet. The Emperor sent an army to escort the 7th Dalai Lama from Kumbum as well as to drive away the Dzungars. In the war that followed, the Chinese, assisted by the Tibetans, finally drove away the Dzungars and installed the 7th Dalai Lama.19 What is more significant, this also provided the Manchus with the opportunity to 'conquer' Tibet over which they considerably increased their influence in the following decades. The Chinese attempts to control Tibet through the high incarnate lamas intensified in the 20th century. This was the period when the Chinese were trying to introduce socialist reforms in Tibet in order to prepare ground for the unification of Tibet with the motherland i.e. China. There was widespread resentment and discontent against the Chinese measures. The Chinese on one hand tried to reduce the administrative powers of the Dalai Lama by projecting him as a Chinese official and on the other hand wanted him to exercise his influence on the people to make them accept the Chinese reforms. Since the Dalai Lama was not very pliable to the Chinese demands, Beijing picked up the Panchen Lama and projected him as an alternative to the Dalai Lama He was endowed with a political status that he had never enjoyed before. The history of the pervious Panchen Lama's disagreements with the 13th Dalai Lama provided the Chinese with the opportunity to create a rift between the two high lamas. The process started with the question of the installation of the 10th Panchen Lama.20 After the death of the 9th Panchen Lama, two candidates, one from Amdo and the other from Kham were short-listed for final identification of which the former was preferred and declared as the 10th Panchen Lama by the pro-Chinese section of the previous Panchen Lama's court. However, considerable complications preceded his formal recognition. The Dalai Lama was still a minor and a reincarnation of Panchen Lama's stature could not be universally accepted unless the authenticity was publicly confirmed by the Dalai Lama. At the time of the signing of the 17 Point Agreement in 1951 the Chinese delegates insisted that the Tibetan Government accept and recognise the 'Chinese candidate' as the true incarnation. Given the fact that his predecessor had revolted against the 13th Dalai Lama's Government and sought China's support and the Communists supported his candidature, the young 10th Panchen Lama was popularly perceived as pro-Chinese throughout the 1950s. As a result, he was, from the time of his identification caught up in the politics of China's political ambition towards Tibet. The Communist regime tried to use him

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as a rival to the Dalai Lama-a counterforce of Tibetan nationalism and indeed as the Tibetan spokesman of Chinese politics in Tibet. These roles were well publicised by the Chinese Communists in the 1950s and the Tibetans of that generation still remember him as pro Chinese .²¹ It is altogether a different story that contrary to the popular impression he turned out to be a great patriot and was subjected to severe punishments by the Communist Government of China for his criticism of Chinese policy towards Tibet and the excesses of the Cultural Revolution.²² After the Chinese occupation of Tibet in 1959 the right to identify the reincarnations of the high lamas became a major issue of confrontation between the Communist Government of Beijing and the Tibetan government in exile. While Dalai Lama, as the head of this Government claims to retain the traditional right of identifying and legitimising the reincarnations, Beijing claims that the right has passed on to the Communist Government by virtue of its sovereignty over Tibet. The struggle between the two reached its climax over the issue of identification of the 10th Panchen Lama's reincarnation after his death in 1989. China appointed Chadral Rimpoche, acting Abbot of Tashi Lhunpo monastery as the Chairman of the Search Committee to whom they gave considerable freedom and power. However, Chadral Rimpoche is said to have maintained considerable connection with Dalai lama as he could not totally brush aside the traditional belief and sentiment that no Panchen Lama would be accepted by the Tibetans if not formally approved by the Dalai Lama. The Dalai Lama's repeated offers to initiate the identification process either remained unanswered or were turned down by the Chinese. This prompted him to act on his own and he announced Gedun Choekyi Nyima as the true incarnation on May 14, 1995. This was perceived by China as an indirect challenge to its sovereignty. They acted swiftly by taking direct political action and by completely ignoring the Search Committee. Chadral Rimpoche was detained on 17th May on charges of colluding with Dalai Lama. The boy identified as Panchen Lama was taken to China along with his family and his whereabouts has since then remained unknown. Forty eight Tibetans were arrested between May and August 1995 on suspicion of helping Chadral Rimpoche who sent messages about the child to the Dalai Lama in India. Then China embarked upon a policy of enthroning a candidate of their own choice as the Panchen Lama. Instructions was issued to 300 senior lamas in Central Tibet to condemn Chadral Rimpoche and to support the Chinese decision to use the Golden Urn method to select their own Panchen Lama. The Chinese imposition was opposed by all the monks and lamas of Tashi Lhunpo, who, in a special meeting in June 1995, expressed their conviction in the authenticity of the reincarnation identified by the Dalai Lama because they had experienced many supernatural events. Specific demand by some lamas that the boy recognised by the Dalai Lama also be included in the list of candidates was categorically rejected by the Chinese authorities. They finally got Gaincain Norbu

from Nagchu in Northern Tibet recognised as the 11th Panchen Lama. The method used for this was not the traditional Tibetan rituals but drawing of lots which had never before been used for the selection of the Panchen Lama. Interestingly, the boy is said to have come from a family of a cadre of the Communist Party. Earlier, on August 4, 1994, the CPC's TAR's Discipline Inspection Committee had issued a Nine Point Document (Doc. No. 58 of 1994) signed into a law by TAR leader Buchung instructing the Party members and cadres to refrain from accepting any recognition of their children as reincarnation by the "Dalai clique". Since the Chinese Central authorities realised that their political action would be opposed by the Tibetans inside Tibet, a de facto martial law was imposed on Shigatse and Tashi Lhunpo which remained closed to the tourists. The Chinese acclamation rituals at Jokhang temple at Lhasa and the enthronement ceremony at Tashi Lhunpo were conducted amidst heavy armed police forces around the two places.²³ In spite of all the Chinese efforts, Gyaltsen Norbu, the 11th Panchen Lama remains a suspect in Tibetan and Buddhist eyes without the Dalai Lama's sanctification and legitimisation. After the controversy over the identification of the Panchen Lama, both the Tibetans and the Chinese are already reported to be preparing for the eventuality of the Dalai Lama's death and the selection of his reincarnation. The issue started taking shape from 1995 when he turned 60 and Beijing started a press campaign highlight his advanced age.²⁴ On the occasion of his 64th birthday in July, 1999, the Dalai Lama reacted to this by making the following statement: "...should people prefer the old system of choosing a reincarnation, the Dalai Lama's reincarnation will appear in a free country and not in Chinese hand as the purpose of reincarnation is to carry the work started by the previous life and yet not fulfilled." ²⁵ Earlier in May 1997 also, he is reported to have said that " If I die in exile and if the Tibetan people wish to continue the institution of Dalai Lama, my reincarnation will not be born under Chinese control, it will be outside, in the free world.....²⁶ Thus, he has already prepared the ground for the search of his reincarnation outside China. No candidate, it is expected, will henceforth be accepted as an authentic one by the Tibetans, if picked up by the Chinese from China itself. That the Chinese too are making some game plan for the eventuality is indicated by the unconfirmed reports that the Chinese Government has already established a committee to oversee the selection of the Dalai Lama's reincarnation. The committee will lay the groundwork for an eventuality when Beijing might have to dispute the Exile Tibetan Government's choice of the present Dalai Lama's reincarnation within its own candidate.²⁷ If unable to do so, China may even try to unilaterally terminate the institution of Dalai Lamas. This is indicated by a pronouncement of Ma Chongving -Deputy Director of the Minority and Religious Affairs Bureau in Tibet that 'when Dalai Lama dies, he dies. There will be no replacement.' Earlier, in 1994, a slogan, "Crush the serpent's head"- was raised in a meeting on Tibet in Beijing. The serpent was a reference to the Tibetan freedom struggle and its head-His Holiness the Dalai Lama.²⁸ Thus, by refusing to recognise the Dalai Lama's reincarnation (if he is put up by the exiled Tibetans) China may try to bring an end to the institution altogether, which they hope, will crush the Tibetan freedom movement for good.

CONCLUSION

The concept of reincarnation, basically a religious one, had assumed political significance in Tibet. Not only was the concept used by certain sects of Tibetan Buddhists to solve the problem of succession in the sects but in the Government as well. Eventually, Tibet became the only country of the world which came to be headed by a monk who happens to be the reincarnation of the previous ruler. This particular practice has created problems for Tibet as a country and even undermined its sovereignty. Even though the Tibetans claim that the method of identification is a full proof one there have sometimes been more than one candidate for certain particular posts. This has often created feuds and factionalisms in the sects and monasteries. This, in its turn has given scope to certain neighbouring countries-China being the most important of them- to interfere into the mode of selection. By manipulating the selections and putting up its own candidates for the high Government posts China has tried to indirectly subordinate Tibet and make claims to sovereignty over her. This trend, that had set in the 18th century intensified in the 20th century after the Communists came to power in China. The recent controversy over the identification of the Panchen Lama and the reported gameplan about the selection of the reincarnation of the Dalai Lama in case of his death in exile indicate the culmination of this power struggle between China and Tibet. The Tibetan experience is a case in example of how a religious concept degenerates into an issue of political contention of international ramifications when it is used for extra religious purposes.

REINCARNATION AND POLITICS IN TIBET

(Summary)

The concept of reincarnation, based on the Buddhist belief in the transmigration of soul has assumed a political significance in Tibet. The concept was used by certain sects of Tibetan Buddhists like the Karmapas and the Gelugpas to solve the problem of succession in the sects. In course of time, the reincarnated monks, occupying high posts in the monasteries became involved in politics as well. Eventually, Tibet became the only country of the world that was headed by a monk who happened to be the reincarnation of the previous ruler. The Dalai Lama, the head of the Gelugpa sect was also the head of the Government of Tibet.

This particular practice has created certain problems for Tibet and undermined her sovereignty. Even though the Tibetans claimed that the method of identification of these incarnations is full proof, there have been more than one candidate for certain particular posts. This has created feuds and factionalism in the sects and the monasteries and invited interference from certain neighbouring countries, China being the most important of them.

By putting up its own candidates for high government posts or manipulating their selection, China has indirectly subordinated Tibet and made claims of sovereignty over her. The trend that had started in the 18th century intensified in the 20th after the communists came to power in China and ultimately occupied Tibet in 1956.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

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- 2. Alexandra David-Neel: *Magic and Mystery in Tibet* (originally in French, Paris 1929) Dover Publications, New York, 1971, pp. 116-117. She thinks that the concept of this category of tulkus originated not in Lamaism but in the old religion of Tibet.
- 3. This expression is coined by Franz Michael. The title of his book is *Rule by Incarnation-Tibetan Buddhism and its Role in Society and State*. Westview Press, Boulder, 1982.
- 4. L.A. Waddell: *The Buddhism of Tibet or Lamaism*, (1893), Reprint Manjusri Publications, New Delhi, 1978, p. 229.
- 5. Alexandra David-Neel, op cit. p. 115
- 6. Franz Michael, op cit. pp. 37-39.
- 7. For details, W.D. Shakabpa, *Tibet: A Political History*, Vol. 1, Yale University Press, New Haven, 1967, pp. 73-99.
- 8. Charles Bell: *The Religion of Tibet* (1931) Reprint, The Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1968, pp. 108-109.
- 9. L.A.Waddell expresses more or less the same opinion. "It seems to me that it arose no earlier than the 15th century, and that at first it was simply a scheme to secure stability for the succession to the headship of the state against electioneering intrigues of a crafty lama." The Buddhism of Tibet or Lamaism, op cit. p. 229.
- 10. Charles Bell: Portrait of a Dalai Lama: The Life and Times of the Great

Thirteenth (1946) Reprint, Wisdom Publications, London, 1987, p. 38.

- 11. Alexandra David-Neel, op cit, p. 125.
- 12. The issue has come into focus again after the flight of the Karmapa Ogyen Thinley Dorjee from Tsurphu monastery in Tibet and his taking up of asylum in Dharamsala, the headquarters of the Tibetan Government in Exile in January 2000.
- 13. For details of the Karmapa controversy see Amrita Bazar Patrika 4.6.94, *The Statesman* (Calcutta) 17.11.94,
- 14. Dawa Norbu, *Tibet : The Road Ahead*; Harper Collins Publishers India, 1997, p. 309-310.
- 15. W.D.Shakabpa, however, denies that the Golden Urn system was used for selection of the IXth Dalai Lama. op cit. p.172
- 16. Ibid. p.176
- 17. Ibid. p.176
- 18. The Communists claim that a presentation of a golden urn by the Manchu Emperor in 1792 marked the height of Manchu influence over Tibet. This was so mainly for two reasons Tibet during this period was invaded four times by the Gorkhas of Nepal and each time the Lhasa Government requested the Chinese Emperor Chien Lung to send Manchu troops to repulse the Gorkha forces. Secondly, Emperor Chein-ling was perhaps the most expansionist of Manchu emperors and this affected Tibet too. This is the reason why the Communists takes the golden urn presentation in 1792 as the historic basis of its claim to 'confirm' the reincarnations of the Dalai and the Panchen Lamas. Dawa Norbu, op cit.p.309.
- For detailed account of the course of events of this period, ibid .pp. 129-139
- 20. For details of Chinese policy and Tibetan reaction see Michael Harris Goodman : *The Last Dalai Lama : A Biography*, (1986) Rupa Paperback, Calcutta 1996, pp..115-277.
- 21. Ibid.
- 22. Dawa Norbu, op cit. pp. 300-308.
- 23. The Panchen Lama Lineage : How Reincarnation is being used as a Political Tool, Department of Information and International Relations, Gangchen Kyishong, Dharamsala, 1996. For further details of selection procedure and analysis of the Dalai Lama's actions, Dawa Norbu, op cit, pp.310-319. 24. As early as February 1995, China's Tibet, an official magazine carried an article under the headline " the Dalai Lama is getting old on in years and worries". The article signalled the onset of Beijing's interference in the reincarnation issue of the Dalai Lama. It predicted that the exile movement would disintegrate once the leader died. The same magazine

had accused the Dalai Lama of nursing a yearning for longevity in an article a year before. Tibetan Bulletin, Dharmasala, January-February, p. 21. 25. This was quoted in the Tibetan Review, New Delhi, August 1999, p.7 from *The Indian Express*, 6.7.1999.

- 26. Tibetan Bulletin, op cit, p.21.
- 27. Seth Faison, New York Times, New York, 25.11.1998.
- 28. Ibid.

The Doctrine of Kaya (Trikaya)

-Prof. P.G.Yogi

The first point of difference between the Hinayana and Mahayana schools was noticed by the Sadharma Pundarika, viz. that the Buddha makes a show of his existence in the three dhatus and leads us to an examination of the question of the kayas of Buddha as conceived by the Hinayanists and Mahayanists. Of the Hinayana schools, the sthaviravadins had very little to do with the Kaya conceptions, as Buddha to them was an actual man living in this world like any human being and subject to all the frailties of a mortal body. Metaphorically, they sometimes spoke of Buddha as identical with Dhamma without any metaphysical implication but these remarks gave opportunity to the Sarvastivadins and the Mahayanists to put forth their theories of Dharmakaya . The Sarvastivadins commenced by speculating on the kaya of Buddha, but it was the school of the Mahasanghikas that took up the question of the Kaya in right earnest and paved the way for the speculations of the Mahayanists. The early Mahayanists, whose doctrines are mostly to be found in the Astasahasrika Prajna Paramita, along with the school of Nagarjuna had conceived two kayas:

i) *Rupa-* (or Nirmana) Kaya, which included bodies, gross and subtle, meant for beings in general, and (ii) *Dharmakaya*, which was used in two senses, one being the body of Dharma, (i.e, collection of practices) which makes a being a Buddha and the other the metaphysical principal underlying the universe, the Reality (Tathata).

The Yogacara School distinguished the gross Rupakaya from the subtle Rupakaya, calling the former Rupa as Nirmanakaya and the latter as Sambhogakaya. The Lankavatara, representing the earliest stage of the Yogacara conception, called the Sambhogakaya as Nisyanda-buddha or Dharmatma Nisyanda-buddha (the Buddha produced by the Dharmas). The Sutra Lankara (I, Sutra, pp. 45, 188) used the term Sambhogakaya for Nisyanda Buddha and Svabhavikakaya for Dharmakaya. In the Abhisamaya Lankara Karika and in the recast version of the Pancavimsati-Sahasrika Prajnaparamita, Sambhogakaya denotes the subtle body which the Buddhas had adopted for preaching their doctrines to Bodhisattvas and Dharmakaya denotes the body purified by the practice of the Bodhipaksika and other dharmas which constitute a Buddha. For the metaphysical Dharmakaya they use the term Svabhava or Svabhavika-kaya. The Vijnaptimatratasiddhi retains the conception of the Karika but adopts a new term, Svasambhoga Kaya, to denote the Dharmakaya of the Karika and distinguishes the Sambhogakaya by calling it Parasambhoga-kaya.

REALISTIC CONCEPTION OF BUDDHA IN THE NIKAYAS

In a land where the tendency to deify Saints is so strong, it goes to the credit of the early Hinayanists for being able to retain the human conception of Buddha even a century or two after his actual existence, when the scriptures may be regarded as having been put into a definite shape. They gave expression to their conception of Buddha in the following words:

"Bhagava araham Sammasambuddha Vittacaranasampanno Sugato Lokavidu anuttaro Purisadamma Sarathi Sattha devamanussanam buddhobhagava. So imam Lokam Sadivakam Samarakam Sabrahmakam Sassamana brahmanim pajam Sadevamanusassam Sayam abhinna Sacchikatva Pavedeti. So dhamam deseti adikalyanam etc". The Blessed one is an arhat, a fully awakened one, endowed with knowledge and good conduct, happy, a knower of the world, unsurpassed, a leader able to control men, a teacher of men and gods, the awakened, the blessed. He knows thoroughly the worlds of god, maras, recluses, brahmins and men, and having known them he makes his knowledge known to others. He preaches the dhamma (doctrine) which is excellent in the beginning, middle and end, (this passage occurs in many places of the Nikayas, see, eg. Digha, 1, pp. 87-88; et Lal vis, p. 3; sad p, pp. 144, 376) etc. A description like this does not suggest that Buddha was originally more than a man, a mortal. In the cosmology of the Buddhists, the gods of the various heavens, the highest of which is Brahmaloka, (In the Mahayanic works also, as for instance in the Dasa, it is stated that a Bodhisattva can become a Mahabrahman in the ninth bhumi if he so wishes) are only beings of Superior merit and power, but they are inferior, in the matter of spiritual attainments, to the saints or arhats. So in this description, the Hinayanists do not attribute any transcendental or theistic element to Buddha. All they say is that Sakyamuni, by pure and simple spiritual culture in this life and as a result of the accumulated merits of his previous lives, reached the highest stage of perfection and attained not only knowledge and power superior to any man or god but also the highest knowledge and power attainable. In the Majjhima Nikya, Ananda explains why Buddha should be considered superior to the Arhats as well, although both arrive at the same goal. He says that there is not a single bhikkhu who can be regarded as endowed with all the qualities in all their forms as possessed by Buddha. Moreover, a Buddha is the originator of the marga, which is only followed by the Savakas (Majjhima, III, P.8.).

NIKAYA PASSAGES ADMITTING A NON-REALISTIC CONCEPTION

In the face of such description of Buddha, it would have been difficult for the later Hinayana schools to sublimate the human elements in him, had it not been for certain expression in some of the earlier works of the Pitaka, which lend themselves to other interpretations. Some of these expressions are:-

1) Yo Vo Ananda mayadhammo cavinayo Ca desito Pannatto Sovo mam' accayena Sattha. Buddha said to ananda just before his Parinirvana 'the dhamma and Vinaya that have been preached by me will be your teacher after my death, (Digha 11,P.154,Mil,P.99). The Dhamma and Vinaya clearly refer to the collection of doctrines and disciplinary rules delivered by Buddha. This is also evident from the conversation of Ananda with Gopaka Mogallana, where the former explains why the monks after Buddha's death should not feel without refuge (appatisarana). He says that they have now a refuge in Dhamma (dhammapatisaana) which he points out are the doctrines and disciplinary rules, (Majjhima, Gopaka-Moggalttana Sutta (No-108). In Saddhama Sanghaha (f PTS, 1890), ch.x,65: Buddha says "84,000 dhammakkhandhas have been preached by me in 45 years. I alone will pass away while there are 84,000 dhammakkandhas which like 84,000 Buddhas (Buddha_ Sadhisa will admonish you)".

2) Bhagavato' mhi putto orasa mukhato tato dhammato, dhammanimmito, dhammadayado its, (Samyutta, 11, p.221: majjhimo, 111, p.29 has the identical passage with the addition "no a-misadayado" after" dhammadayado. "For the interpretation of "dhammatayado" see majjhima, 1.pp. 12). Tam kissa hetu 2, Tathagatassa h'etam adhivacamam. "dhammakayoitipi Dhammabhuto, (Majjhima, 11, p.84, Digha, 111, p.84, Majjhima, 111, pp.195, 224 has "Bhagavajanam janati passam passati Cakkhubhuto nana bhuto dhammabhu to"), iti piti.

Just as a brahmana would say that he is born of Brahma, through his mouth-Brahmúno putto oraso Mukhato fato brahmajo brahmanimmito brahmana yado-so a Sakya puttiya samana may say that he is born of Bhagava, through his mouth, born of his doctrine made of his doctrine, etc. Though in this passage Dhamma is equated with Brahma the context shows that there is no metaphysical sense in it; it is only to draw a parallel between a brahmana and a Sakyaputtya-samana that Dharmakaya is equated with Brahmakaya.

3) Vakkali on his death bed became very eager to see Buddha in person. So Bhagava came to him and said, 'Alam Vakkalikim to Putikayena ditthena. Yo kho vakkali dhammam passatiso mam passati, Yo mam passati so dhamma passati." Just after saying this Buddha referred to his dhamma of impermanence (anicca). There are in the Nikayas as many passages of this import which may be taken as precursors of the later Mahayanic conceptions and probably formed the basis of this speculation. But when read through the passage as they stand they do not appear to bear any metaphysical sense. In this passage Buddha refers to his body as putikaya (body of impure matter), and to lay stress on his doctrines he says that his dhamma should be looked upon with the same awe and reverence by his disciple as they regard his person, (Samyutta, 111.p.120, Majjhima, 1 PP. 190, 191 :-Yopaticca amuppadam passati so dhammam passati yo dhammam passati so Paticca sumuppadam Passati). For other references see Prof. Valle poussin article "Notes surless corpsdo Buddha" in Lemusion, 1913, PP. 259-290 compare the remarks in the later pali works,- samdhamma sangaha (Jpts 1890), P.61. Yome Passati saddhamam so mam passati Vakkali, Apassamano saddhammam mam passe pina passati, milinda, P.71. Yodhammam Passati so Bhagavantam passati, dhammo hi maharaja bhagavata desitoti. Ibid, P,73: Dhammakayena pana kho maharaja Sakka bhagava nidadsetum, dhammohi maharaja bhagavata desitoti.

4) The passage in the anguttara Nikaya, (Anguttara,11.P. 38), where Buddha says that he is neither a god nor a gandhabba, nor a man has been taken by Prof. Masson-Oursel, (Prof. Masson- oursel in his article " Less trosis carps du Buddha," J.A. 1913,PP. 581), as showing trace of the Mahayanic Kaya conception. It is not impossible to read some metaphysical ideas into the passage, though probably the compiler of the sutras did not mean to convey them. Dona bramana noticing the sign of the wheel in the feet of Buddha, enquired him whether he was a deva, a gandhabba, a Yakkha or a mortal. The Buddha replied that he was none of these beings as he had got rid of the asavas (impurities) which continuing of would make one remain a deva, gandhabba, Yakkha or mortal. Just as a lotus is born in water, grow in it but remains above and is apart from it, so also Buddha was born in the world, grew up in it but overcome it (abhibhuyya) and lived unaffected by the same. Therefore, he asked the brahmana not to regard him as anything but Buddha. There are other passages referring to the miraculous powers of Buddha viz, his ability to live a Kalpa or to assume different forms and perform such other miracles, but it should be noted that these powers were attributed not to Buddha alone but also to his disciple in general, who had been able to attain the higher stages of sanctification (See Kosa, ii, 10 also for references in the Nikayas).

KAYA CONCEPTION OF THERAVADINS REMAINED UNCHANGED

Even if it be assumed that the Mahayanic ideas are latent in the above mentioned expressions though not adequately expressed, the discussion in the Kathavatthu has made it amply clear that the Vetulyakas had referred to the passage cited above which says, "it is not right to say that the exalted Buddha lived in the world of mankind. The Theravadins did not agree with them. Buddhaghosa having pointed out how the passage should be interpreted to establish the historical existence of Buddha as against those who denied it and the manner in which references were made to the events of Buddha's life as depicted in the Nikayas had left no vestige of doubt about the opinion of theravadins regarding the kaya of Buddha, though the terms rupakaya and dharmakaya found their way into the later pali works, (see, eg. sad san. (JPTS, 1890) P.69:-

Sambuddhanam dve Kayarupakaya Siredharo, yo tehe desito dhammo dhammakayoti vuccati) in mahayana or in the semi mahayana works, they however did not bring with them any non realistic sense, Buddhaghosa, even as late as the fifth century A.D., refers thus to the Kayas:- Yopeso Bhagva asiti anuvyan janapatimandita-dvattim samaha puresa lakkhana vicitra rupakayo sabbakaraparasuddha silakkhandhadi gunaratanasamaddha dhammakayo yasamhatta punnamahatta appatipuggalo araham samma sambuddho.

That Bhagvan, who is possessed of a beautiful rupakaya, adorned with eighty minor signs and thirty-two major signs of a great man, and possessed of a dhammakaya purified in every way and glorified by sila, samadhi, (The five khandhas referred to here are sila samadhi, panna vimutti and vimuttinanadassana, see mil, p.98) etc, who is full of splendour and virtue, is incomparable and fully awakened (vis,m. p.234, jataka, i, p. 84:-Rupakayasire). Though Buddhaghosa's conception was realistic, he was not immune from the religious bias of attributing super human powers to Buddha. In the Atthasaline, (Attha, p.16), he says that during the three months of his absence from the world while Buddha was engaged in preaching Abhidhamma to his mother in the Tusita heaven, he created some Nimmita Buddha as exact replicas of himself. These Nimmita Buddhas could not be distinguished from the real Buddha in voice, words and even the rays of

light that issued forth from his body. The created Buddhas could be detected only by the gods of the higher classes and not by the ordinary gods or men of the world. In short, the early Hinayanists conceived Buddha's rupakaya as that of a human being, (see Prof. valle Poussin's Buddhisme. p.p. 232), and his dhammakaya as the collection of his dhammas, ie, doctrines and disciplinary rules collectively.

CONCEPTION OF THE SARVASTIVADINS

The other school such as the Sarvastivadins, who retained the realistic conception of Buddha, differed a little from the Theravadins. Unfortunately their original pitakasin sanskrit were lost beyond recovery and we have to depend for our information about them on the few fragmentary pieces of their literature discovered in central Asia, or on the Chinese translation of their Agamas, in which again very little spade-work has yet been done. Dr Chizen Akanuma (Eastern Buddhist, 11, p. 7) quotes some passages from the chinese Anguttara and Samyukta Agamas and shows that the dharmakaya of Budddha denoted the collection of dharmas teaching. Our main source of information at present is the Abhidharmakosa, made accessible to us from Chinese by the monumental French translation of Professor La Vallee Poussin. The Kosa, again, it should be noted, is the work of a system and the production of a time much later than that of the Agamas, to which it bears the same relation as the Visuddhimagga does to the Pali pitakas. As the present state of our knowledge indicates that the Divyavadana and the Lalitvistara, (Winternitz, Geschichte etc. 11, p. 194), originally belonged to this school, though they were recast by the Mahayanists, we must examine with caution some of the statements found in them regarding the Kaya conception.

Divyavadana :- There are a few passages in the Divyavadana throwing light on the rupakaya and dharmakaya of the Buddha and bearing the identical sense of the pali works. On one occasion Sronakotikarana said that through the grace of his teacher, he had seen the dharmakaya of the Buddha, but as he was anxious to see the rupakaya, he wanted to go to the place where the Buddha was living at the time, (Divya, p. 19). Upagupta once said to Mara that he had seen only dharmakaya and requested him to show him the rupakaya. Mara thereupon made an image (Vigraha) of the Buddha replete with all the major and minor signs of a great man, (Ibid, p.360). In the answer that king Rudrayana gave to Bimbisara it says, "na rajan Krpano Loke dharmakayena Samsprset" (Let not, o king, an irreligious person). Ibid, p.560. Krpana is defined thus:-

Yastu dharmaviragartham adharme niroto nrpala, sarajan krpano theyas tamasta mah parayanah, (attain(lit, touch) the dharmakaya). The word "dharmayana' may bear a metaphysical interpretation but the context does not

warrant it, (Ibid p. 560). The remark made by Asoka, after Upagupta had pointed out to him the stupa of Ananda, makes the sense of dharmakaya quite explicit. It runs thus :- That body which you all call pure, excellent and made of dharma (dharmatmano dharmamayo) was borne (dharitam) by him called Visoka (Ananda) and therefore his stupa deserves great honour. The lamp of Dharma, the dispeller of the darkness of afflictions that burnt still among men was due to the power of him, the son of Sugatendra and therefore should be worshipped with special reverence (Divva, PP. 396-7.Cf. Privluski, Asoka, P-408- In connection with the destruction of the law, Mahamaya exclaimed ceux quisortnesdu corps dela loi (dharmakaya), Ou Sont-ils alles). There are, however, Avadanas in the Divvavadana, which were not without some Mahavanic tint, for, we read in the Pudrayana Vadana, (Divya, xxxvii, p.568), as we usually find in the Mahayanic works, that rays of light issued forth from the Buddha's mouth when he smiled, irradiating, the beings of heaven and hell. It is noteworthy that the Atthasaline (Attha, p. 16), also speaks of rasmis (rays of light) of six colour issuing out of the Buddhas body. It seems that the Mahayanic ideas were percolating gradually into the rocky soil of the conservative Theravadins.

Lalitavistara: The lalitavistara gives us a picture of the Buddha more super human than human and yet far from the Mahavanic conceptions of the Sambhogakaya and Dharmakaya, though in the last two chapters it dwells on the doctrine of Tathata. In the Lalitavistara Buddha is defied but there are no trace of the Trikava conception. It says in many places that Buddha appears in the world of men for Lokanuvartana, (E. G mtu..1.pp.168, 170), i.e to follow the ways of the world), which, if he so desired, he could avoid by remaining in one of the heavens and attaining emancipation there. The running account of the Buddha's life is interrupted at times-probably they are afterthoughts of the compiler-by dialogues between Buddha and Ananda, in order to make the treatise appear Mahayanic and not Hinavanic. At one place Buddha explained to Ananda that, unlike human beings he did not stay in the filth of mother's womb but in a jewel-casket (ratnavyuha), [Lal vis.pp. 88,105, 106. This formed one of the points of contention of the Mahasanghikas. See Masuda, early origin etc. in the Asia Major, Vol.. II] placed in the womb, which was as hard as adamant but soft to the touch like the down of a Kacilindika bird, and that his birth and other events connected with it were all superhuman. At the same time he prophesied that there will be, in the future, men defiled in act, thought and speech, ignorant, faithless, proud, believing without deliberation what is heard by them who will not believe in the super human nature of the Buddha's birth (Lal. vis.pp.8766. This goes against the Sarvastivada and Theravada conceptions). One can perceive through the poetical exaggeration of the Lalitavistara that it has in view the historical Buddha endowed with major and minor sings of a human being who requires his past lives and his resolution to become a Buddha and rescue beings from misery, and who needs a stimulus to renounce the world in order to fulfil his resolution. (The descriptions gave opportunity to the Mahayanists to invent Upayakausalya paramita, the duties of Adhyesana, Yacana etc). In connection with the offer of houses which was made by the gods to the Bodhisattva when he was in the womb, it is said that in order to please all the gods who offered houses he caused the appearance of his pregnant mother Mayadevi in each of those house by means of the Mahayaha Samadhi. This does not clearly reflect any idea of Nirmanakaya Samadhi. This does not clearly reflect any idea of Nirmanakaya- it appears more like some of the miracles mentioned in the Nikayas.

In the last chapter of the Lalitavistara where the Buddhas attributes are mentioned, he is called the great tree (mahadruma) because he possesses a body of Dharmakaya janana (the knowledge of Dharmakaya) (Lal, vis 7.428). As this chapter is very likely a Mahayana addition, we may reasonably say that the Lalitavistara, in its original form as a treatise of the Sarvastivadin's, viewed Buddha as a human being with superhuman attributes.

Abhidharmakosa :- We may now consider the writing of Vasubandhu, the great exponent of the Sarvastivada school. In his Abhidharmakosa he imported a new meaning into the words Dharmakaya and Rupakaya. In examining the three saranas, he tried to bring out the real sense of Buddha, Dharma, and Sangha in which a devotee takes refuge. He said that those who take refuge in Buddhasatto, in fact, take refuge in the dharmas (qualities) which constitute a Buddha (Buddhakarak) ie. the dharmas by the acquisition of which a person understands all things. These dharmas are Kayajana (knowledge of the destruction of misery). Anutpadajana, kosa vi, 67, explain that Kasyanana with Anutpadajhana, makes Bodhi. On account of difference among Saints in the acquisition of these Inanas, bodhi is said to be three kinds:- Sravaka bodhi, Pratyika Buddha bodhi and Anuttara samyaksambodhi. By the above two jhanas one can completely abandon ignorance (Asesavidya Prahanat): by the first, one realise the truth that his task is accomplished (i.e. the dukha has been realised by him); by the second , one realises that his task is no more to be accomplished (i.e the dukha has been realised by him and he will not have to exert any more). The Samyagdrsti of the Asaikas is to see things as they really are and to know the true general character (Samanyalaksana) of dharmas. (See kosa, vi, 50 fn. For a note on the Ksavathana. see Masuda, Early origin etc, in Asia mator, vol. II, Fase. 1). knowledge of the further non-origination of misery, and Samyagdrsti (right view), of the Asaiksas together with the dharmas attendant on the jnana, viz. the five pure skandhas, are found to be the dharmas constituting Dharmakaya. In another place, while showing the sameness of the Dharmakayas of all Buddhas, he explained the Dharmakaya as a series of pure dharmas, or rather a renewal of the psycho-physical organism of the substratum (anasravadharmatana, asrayaparavrtti), (Kosa, VII, 34, for the sense of Asraya see ibid, VIII, 34 in cf asraya parisuddhi in sutra, p. 186). The Dharmakaya then signifies a new purified personality or substratum (asraya), but it is pointed out that such a dharmakaya is possessed also by an arhat (Kosa, IV, 56). In the Sutralamkara, (Huber, Sutralamkara, pp. 217, 390 quoted in the Kosa vii, 32 p. 81), such a dharmakaya is attributed to the mother of Sakyamuni or to an advance Upasaka. Thus we see that the Kosa has two interpretations of the Dharmakaya, one being the qualities adhering to a Buddha and the other the purified personality (asraya) possessed by him. The Kosa, in fact, replaces the concrete conceptions of the Dharmakaya found in the Nikaya and the Divyavadana by an abstract one. In the last two works, the Dharmakaya signified only the doctrines, viz, the Bodhipakkiya dharmas or Anicca, Dukkha and Anatta, together with the Vinaya rules contained in the Patimokkha, while to Vasubandhu it meant the qualities adhering to a Buddha as well as the purified personality (asraya).

Referring to the formula of the Saranas, Vasubandhu says that the physical body (rupakaya) of the Buddha does not undergo any modification due to the acquisition of the quality of the Buddha, one should not therefore take refuge in the rupakaya of Buddha, which is, in fact, the rupakaya of the Bodhisattva and hence sasrava (impure). Just as a man would respect a monk for the qualities adhering to him and not for his person, so a devotee should take refuge in Buddhatva and not in Buddha the person. In the same way Vasubandhu explains the two other Saranas, Viz, Dharma and Sangha, the former being explained as Nirvana or the three Truths - Dukkha, Samudaya and Marga, or Sukha, Dukkha and Asukkha-adukkha-and the latter as the qualities that a Sangha of monks is expected to possess (compare the formula of Sarana in the Nikayas, e.g. Digha, 111, p. 227).

The Vidhasa informs us that there are some who believe that to take refuge in the Buddha is to take refuge in the body constituted by the head, the neck, belly, back, hands and feet of the Tathagata. Some say that as the body is born of parents, it is impure (Sasrava) and therefore should not be a place of refuge. The refuge should be the Asaiksa dharmas, which make a Buddha, i.e. the Dharmakaya, (Kosa, vi, p. 32, ivp. 76, viii, p. 34). Apparently the Vibhasa refers in the first case to the earlier Hinayana Schools and in the second to the Sarvastivadins and their followers.

DHARMAKAYA CONCEPTION AMONG THE SATYASIDDHIS AND THE MAHAYANISTS

The Satyasiddhi school takes almost the similar view of the Dharmakaya as the Sarvastivadins. According to it, the Dharmakaya is made of Sila, samadhi, Prajna, Vimukti and Vimuktijnadarsana. Buddhaghosa, Nagarjuna and the author of the Milindapanha also refer to such a dharmakaya. It means that the body of the Buddha was purified by the practices of these five skandhas stated above, and hence it can be called Dharmakaya. But as these purifications are obtained by Arhats also, Harivarman, the propounder of the Satyasiddhi school distinguished the Dharmakaya of the Buddha by saying that his Dharmakaya consisted not only of the above five purifactory practices but also of ten powers (dasa bala), four proficiencies (vaisaradya) and the three recollections (smrtyupasthana), which the Arhats cannot obtain (Sogen, systems etc., pp-181,182).

The Abhisamaya Lankara Karika, (Karika, ch, VIII), and Pancavimsati Sahasrika-prajna-paramita, (panca,ASBS, leaf 224a), and important text-books of the Yogacara school, define the Dharmakaya in a similar sense. They stated that the various dharmas, viz, Bodhipaksika, Apramanas, Vimoksas, Samapattis and so forth, constitute Sarvajnata (omniscience) and sarvajnata is the Dharmakaya. It should be noted that the Karika and the Prajna-paramita use this expression in a sense different from that current in the Mahavana texts. They really mean the Svasambhogakaya of the later Vijnanavadins. The Prajna-paramitas also maintain the conception that the Dharmakaya is produced by dharmas, the highest of which is, according to them, the Prajna-paramita, i.e., the knowledge, which helps a person to realise the dharma-sunyata. The Astasahasrika takes up the question, whether the honour shown to the relics of the Tathagatakaya is more meritorious than the honour shown to the Prajnaparamita, e.g., by making a copy of it. The answer given is that the relics depend on the body purified by the Prajnaparamita, and therefore it is the source of Buddha. The source deserves more honour than the remnants of the fruit (i.e., relics of Buddha) produced therefrom, and therefore it is more meritorious to honour the Prajna-paramita than the relics, (Asta, ch.IV). It adds that all teachings of Buddha issue from the Prajnaparamita and the Dharmabhanakas should preserve and propagate them; so the Dharmabhanakas should also be respected. They are protected by the Dharmakaya developed from the Prajnaparamita. From Sarvajnata issues the body of Tathagata, the relics of whom are worshipped and hence prajnaparamita deserves greater honour (Ibid, P 99). It is from this conception that the Prajna-paramita is addressed as the mother of Buddhas.

HINAYANIC SPECULATIONS Whether Rupakaya is Vipakaja?

The kosa maintains that the Rupakaya of the Buddha endowed with the major and minor signs is the results of the excellent karmas of his previous lives. According to it, even the Buddhas cannot escape the effects of their karma. The

schism created by Devadatta in the sangha is attributed to a deed in one of the previous lives of Sakyamuni. The Vyakhya and the Vibhasa explain that it happened to Sakvamuni only, and not to the other Buddhas, because in one of his former lives he sowed dissensions among the disciples of an ascetic, possessed of five Abijnas, (Kos'a, VII,34, p. 8th, 84, IV, 102, p. 212 th. 2). That the Buddhas enjoy or suffer the effects of Karma is also maintained by the Divya Vadana, (DIVYA p. 416), and the Majjhima Nikaya, (Majjhima, III.p. 227). The Divya-Vadana refers to a saying of Sakyamuni that even the Jinas themselves are not free from their Karmas, while the Majjhima Nikaya says that a Tathagata performs good deeds in his previous lives, and as a result of these, he enjoys in the present, pure and pleasant sensations (Vedana) only. Tradition says that when Buddha was hurt by the splinter of stone thrown by Devadatta, he said that ninety-one Kalpas ago he had hurt a person by a spear, and as the result of which evil deed, he now received a wound. The Milindapanha, however, takes a different view of this matter. Admitting that Devadatta created a schism in the Sangha, it says that the schism was not created by any act of the Buddha's own, and as it was caused by an external influence, it should not be said that Buddha as the result his Karma had a divided assembly (Bhejjapariso). In a similar way, it explains away the wound or the illnesses, from which Buddha suffered. First it asserts that Buddha attained omniscient after uprooting all roots of evil (Akusalamulas) so that he could not have any more sufferings through Karma. It then says that apart from Karma, there are other cause like the three humours, seasons etc., which produce Vedana (feelings). According to it, the wound that Buddha received was due to Opakammika (accidental) cause and his illnesses to cause other than Karma (Mil, pp. 134 F).

WAS THE BUDDHA A JARAYUJA OR UPAPADUKA ?

In order to remove doubt from the mind of the people as to the nature of the birth of so great and meritorious a being as the Bodhisattva in his last existence-a doubt expressed also in the Lalitavistara, where a Ratnavyuha has been devised for the Bodhisattva's abode in his mother's womb- the Kosa, (Kosa, III. 9), proceeds to show that the Bodhisattvas possess the power of choosing the manner of their birth (Upapatti Vasitva), and that Sakyamuni chose birth in a womb (Jarayu) with two objectives:- One was to benefit the Sakya clan and at the same time not to give an opportunity to the people to consider him as a magician or a god or a demon, and the other was to leave some relics of his body, by worshipping which men and other beings would go to heaven by thousands, or attain deliverance. The Mahasanghikas and their followers (eg. the Vetulyakas) assert that Sakyamuni was an Upapaduka (self-born), and that even his son Rahula was also an Upapaduka for Bodhisattvas are possessed of 'Adhisthaniki rddhi' (i.e., the miraculous power

of appearing anywhere and in any form), and by that power Sakyamuni made a show of his existence in the womb of Maya. They considered Buddha as Lokottara (transcendental), and Sakyamuni as only a created body (Nirmanakaya). The transcendental Buddha has a Rupakaya, which is limitless, everlasting, and free from all Sasrava dharmas. He is always in Samadhi, (cf. Lanka, p.240 Sada Samahitas Catathagatah), never sleeps or dreams, and can know everything in an instant of thought. He knows neither fatigue nor rest, and is ever busy in enlight-ening sentient beings. His power and his life are limitless. For the benefit of sentient beings, he appears at will in any one of the six Gatis. Whatever he utters relates to the truth, though people may understand him differently. In short, the Mahasanghikas conceived Buddha as a totally supramundane being with illimitable powers and knowledge, who never desired to attain Nirvana, (see Mansuda's origin and Doctrines of Early Indian Buddhist schools, Asia Major, Vol.II.Fasc, 1; Anesaki's article in the ERE, SV Docetism Buddhist; suzuki's Outlines of Mahayana and Buddhism, pp. 249-251. See also Kosa, III, 9, referring to Mtu, 1.pp.145,154).

KAYA CONCEPTION AT THE BEGINNING OF MAHAYANA

The Mahavanists incorporated the Nirmanakava conception of the Mahasanghikas into their Trikava Theory, adding the two others, Sambhogakava and Dharmakaya, the former approaching the Mahasanghika conception of the transcendental Buddha, and the latter being a new metaphysical conception of the Mahayanists. These new Kaya conception, it seems, did not make much of an appeal at the beginning of Mahayana. The Saddharma Pundarika and the Suvarnaprabhasa tried to erase from the minds of the people the lingering impression about the historical existence of Sakyamuni. In the Pundarika (Sad. p.pp. 311ff), we find Maitreya assuming the role of a sceptic and enquiring how Buddha could, within short space of forty years after the attainment of Bodhi at Gaya, perform the innumerable duties of a Tathagata and lead incalculable bodhisattvas to Buddhahood. It appears like the paradox of a man of twenty five years claiming centenarians as his sons and the latter calling him their father. Similarly Buddha's pointing to the Bodhisattvas, who had been performing the various duties conducive to Buddhahood for many millions of years, as his disciples, appears paradoxical. Maitreva says further that in the minds of those Bodhisattvas, who recently became Mahayanists (Navayanasamprasthitah), there may be doubts of this nature, so the Tathagata should explain the paradox for the welfare of the religion. The Buddha then asks his audience thrice to believe his words (Avakalpayadhyam Abhisraddaddham) and says " it is not to be considered (Naiva Drastavyam), that Bhagavan Sakyamuni having renounced his family life had attained Bodhi at Gaya". He again said "I attained Sambodhi in calculable ages ago, and since then I have

been preaching the dharma. All that I have said about the previous Tathagatas, Dipankara etc, and their Parinirvana were all my own creations. These were only my expedients for imparting the dharma (Upayakausalya-dharmadisanabhinirhanirmitane). All that I have said to the effect that I was young, recently born, left home, and attained Bodhi, was to appeal to a class of people, who otherwise would not have been convinced of the excellence of the religion and derived benefits therefrom. But all that I said was not untrue, as the Tathagatas know that what the three dhatus really are; they know that the dhatus are neither born nor non-existing; neither they are the same nor different, and they are neither true or false". All that the Tathagatas say is true, but people devoid of right knowledge construe different meaning out of it. "Though I have not attained Parinirvana, I say that I have attained it. In order to rouse curiosity in the minds of the people and in order to inculcate a desire to see Buddha, I say that the appearance of the Buddha is an exceedingly rare event. I made a show of Nirvana, but did not enter into it, but people with distorted views could not see my real self, and engaged themselves with the worship of my relics. But this also produced a good effect, for they thereby became righteous and gave up their passions. From among them I formed my Sravakasangha, and showed myself at Gradhrakuta, and explained to them how to attain the agrabodhi".

In the Suvarna Prabhasa (Suvarnaprabhasa, B.T.s.ed.pp.4-8), Ruciraketu and Kaundinya the brahmana play the role of sceptics. The former enquires why Sakyamuni, who performed so many meritorious deeds, should have a short span of life as eighty years. The latter sought a mustard-like relic of the Buddha's body to worship and thus went to heaven. Ruciraketu is told by the Buddhas of all lokadhatus that they did not know any man or god who could calculate the length of Sakyamuni's life. They said that it might be possible to count the drops of water in a sea but it would be impossible to ascertain the length of his life. Kaundinya brahmana, who only feigned ignorance, was told by Litsavikumara that, just as it is absurd to expect coconuts from a rose-apple tree, so it is absurd to expect a relic from the Buddha Kaya. The Tathagatas have no origin and they are ever existing and inconceivable. It is only the Nirminakaya that is shown by them. How can a baby, in which there is no bone or blood, leave a dhatu (relic)? The Buddhas have only Dharmakaya and there is only the Dharmadhatu.

Nirmanakya:- The Mahayanic texts tried to show, on the one hand, that the Hinayanists were wrong in their belief that Sakyamuni was really a man of flesh and blood and that relics of his body existed, while on the other hand, they introduced the two conceptions of Nirmanakaya and Buddhakaya. Whatever is said to have been done by Sakyamuni is accounted for by those texts as the apparent doing of a created body of the Buddhakaya, a shadowy image created to follow the ways of the world (Lokanu Vartana, of mtu, 1.pp. 168, 170) in order to bring

conviction in the hearts of the people that the attainment of Buddhahood was not an impossibility.

As the Buddhas possess the knowledge of all that is to be done (Krtyanusthana Jhana, one of the four jhanas peculiar to Buddha, see Mvyut. p.2), they can take any form they desire for the enlightenment of the various classes of beings. The Mahayanic conception of Nirmanakaya is essentially the same as that of the Mahasanghikas. The Prajna-Paramitas in their quaint way refer to the Nirmanakaya or Rupakaya. The Pancavimsati, says that a bodhisattva, after acquiring all the necessary dharmas and practising prajnaparamita, becomes a Sambuddha. He then renders service to beings of all Lokadhatus (worlds) of the ten corner at all times by Nirmanamegha (Nirmana clouds, panca, camber, MS.leaf 34 c). This is called the Nirmanika-kaya.

From the Chinese sources we are informed that Nagarjuna, in his commentary on the Prajna Paramita, names it as Maha Prajnaparamita sastra and speaks of two kayas, Rupakaya and Dharmakaya. The former is the body born of parents, possessing the qualities of sentient beings, and is subject to human frailties. It was born in Kosala while his dharmakaya was born at Rajagriha. The material body was necessary for "earthly truth". It was for the deliverance of beings that Buddha assumed different kayas, different names, birthplaces and ways of emancipation. This interpretation of Rupa and Dharma-Kayas is also followed in the Chinese Parinirvana sutra and Sandhinirmocanasutra, (E.B. 11.pp. 21 F), EB. 11. pp. 17 ff).

The Sutralankara (p. 45), explains the Nirmanakaya to be those forms, which are assumed by the Buddhas to render service to beings of the various worlds. It generally refers to the human form that Buddha takes in order to make a show of his acquiring the ordinary arts and crafts required by an average man, living a family life and than retiring from it, and ultimately attaining Nirvana by recourse to the ascetic practices.

The Vijnaptimatrata siddhi:- tells us that the Nirmanakaya is meant for Sravaskas, Pratyeka Buddhas, Prthagjanas (common men) and Bodhisattva, who are not yet in one of the ten bhumis. It may appear in all lands whether pure or impure. The Chinese commentaries on the Siddhi mention the various ways, in which Buddha can transform his body or another's body or voice, and his or other's mind, to suit his purpose.

Not only could he transform himself into Sakyamuni, or Sariputra into a young girl, but also could create an altogether new apparitional body, not, of course, a living thinking being. Often he assumed the voice of Brahma or expressed himself through the mouth of Sariputra or Subhuti, and it was for this reason that we find Sariputra or Subhuti explaining some of the abstruse Mahayana teachings which they themselves were not expected to understand, (Asta, pp. 14, 33, 414). The

third way in which he could transform his voice was to produce sounds from the sky. His thoughts were supramundane (Lokottra) and pure (Anasrava). He could produce in mind any thought he liked, in fact, he appeared in his Nirmitakaya as Sakyamuni with a mind (citta) suited to the way of the world. He could also impose his thought on the mind of others.

The Abhisamaya Lankarakarika states that there are four kayas, of which the Svabhavika-kaya is real, and the three others, viz, Dharmakaya (svasambhogakaya), sambhogakakaya (parasambhoga kaya) and Nirmanakaya are samvrta (i.e. unreal) and these are meant for Bodhisattvas and Sravaskas respectively. According to it, the Nirmanakaya was intended for Sravakas and Bodhisattvas who are not yet in one of the ten bhumis. It describes the Nirmanakaya as a body unsevered from the real kaya and as the action performed by it are similarly unsevered from the kava, they should be regarded as asamsara (transcendental, i.e. not worldly). Then it proceeds to show that the thirty-seven kinds of purificatory actions performed by the Nirmanakaya are really the actions of the Dharma-kaya. The thirtyseven actions, explained by it, are the thirty seven steps, through which a Nirmanakava passes after its inception. These are as follows :- A Nirmanakava (i) is unmindful of good or bad forms of existence; in other words, takes birth as an animal, human being or god as require is called Gatiprasama; (ii) practises the four Samgrahavastus (elements of popularity); (iii) enlightens himself about matter opposite and similar, good and evil, by the Srutamavi and such other means of knowledge, and than applies himself to the service of others, keeping himself unconcerned (i.e. having no Anunava, like a magician for the things made by him magically); (iv) Practises the six paramitas purified in three ways of Trimanda Lavisuddha); (v) performs, and persuades other's to perform the ten kusala Karmapathas (moral duties) and thus establish all in the path leading to Buddhahood; (vi) exerts for realising the non-existence in reality of all things; (vii) comprehends the non-duality of thing and the all-pervasiveness of the Dharmadhatu, and so on, until he reaches the Tathagatabhumi after realising the absence of difference between things constituted and unconstituted (Karika, ch. viii, J.A. 1913, pp. 599, 600). In short, the Karika wants to say that the whole course of life of a Bodhisattva, extending through incalculable births is nothing but the Nirmanakava, a thing not separate from the Dharmakaya, as in fact, according to the Mahayana philosophy, all creations are neither the same as, nor different from the Dharmadhatu.

The Lankavatara explains the relation of Nirmanakaya to Dharmakaya in the same way as the Karika. It states that Nirmitabuddhas are not produced by actions; the Tathagata is neither in them nor outside them (sarve hinirmita buddha na karmaprabhava na tesu tathagato na canyatratebhyatathagata) (Lanka. P.242, Ibid, P.73, Ibid, P.2no. Ibid, P.242, Ibid, P.57). It is only when the sons of the Jina

realise the visible world to have no existence apart from the citta that they obtain, the Nirmanakaya is free from Kriya and Samskara, and endowed with Bala, Abhijna and Vasita. Like the Siddhi, it says that the Tathagatas, by creating Nirmanakaya, perform the various duties of a Tathagata (Tathagata Krtya). It also gives an interesting information that Vajrapani had serves as an attendant on the Nirmitanirmana Buddhas, and not on the real Buddha. And that the function of such a Buddha is to preach and explain the characteristics of Dana, Sila,Dhyana, Samadhi, Citta, Prajna, Jnana, Skandha, Dhatu, Ayatana, Vimoksa, and Vijnana.

Sambhogakaya:- We have seen that the Rupakaya or Nirmanakaya was meant for the Sravakas, Pratyeka Buddhas, Prthagjanas and Bodhisattvas, who were not in one of ten Bhumis. So another kaya had to be devised which should be very suitable kaya for the benefit of all Bodhisattvas. This is called Parasambhogakaya, as distinguished from Svasmbhogakaya, a similar subtle body perceived by the Buddhas alone. It is this Parasambhogakaya, which plays the role of a preacher of the various Mahayana sutras being delivered either at Grdhrakuta, the only place in the three dhatus considered pure and suitable for the appearance of a Sambhogakaya, or at the Sukhavativyuha, or at one of the heavens. It will be observed from the description of the appearance of the Buddha and his manner of preaching the sutras that the Mahayanist were not yet able to forget or rise above the human conception of the Buddha of the Hinayanists.

They still gave Sakayamuni the role of the presiding Buddha of the universe, to whom flocked reverently with flower, incense, etc, all the Bodhisattvas, Sravakas and Grhapatis of the various lokadhatus of the ten directions, to hear from him the Prajna Paramita, the Saddharma Pundarika, or the Gandhavyuha.

These Bodhisattvas again had their own tutelary Buddhas, who according to the Mahayana metaphysics, possessed the same Dharmakaya as that of Sakyamuni. They also came or were sometimes sent by their Buddhas, with message of greetings and flowers as tokens of their regard to Sakyamuni Buddha, whose Buddhaksetra was then the Sahalokadhatu. Sometimes the descriptions go so far as to say that the Buddhas themselves came to hear discourse from Sakyamuni Buddha and the concourse of Buddhas and Bodhisattvas became so great that the Saha Lokadhatu had to be cleared of all oceans, mountains, seas, rivers, and cities as well as of gods, men and other beings. As we read in the Hinayana texts that monks used to come to meet Buddha, bringing with them one or two Samaneras, so also we read in the Saddharma Pundarika that on account of insufficiency of space the countless Buddhas could not have with them more than one or two Bodhisattvas as attendants (Upasthapakas, sad.p.pp.244-245).

Now let us see what was their conception of the Kaya of this Buddha. According to the Satasahasrika and the Pancavimsatisahasrika, (Sata pp.8-29, Panca, pp.6ff, Samadi rajasutra B.t.S.ed,p.. 10), it is an exceedingly refugent body, from

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every pore of which streamed forth countless brilliant rays of light, illuminating the Lokhadatus as innumerable rays of light issued forth from it, and on each ray of light was found a lotus of thousand petals on which was seated a Tathagata Vigraha (an image of the Tathagata, a sort of Nirmanakaya), preaching to Bodhisattvas, Grhasthas (householders), Pravarajitas (recluses) and other the dharma consisting of the six Paramitas.

After a Simhavikridita Samadhi his body illuminated the Trisahasra Mahasahasra Lokadhatu just as the bright clear sun or the full moon illuminates the World. The Buddha then showed his prakrtyatmabhava (real form) to all the Worlds. The several classes of gods as well as the men of the four continents, Jambudvipa, Aparagodana, etc. saw this Prakrtyatmabhava and thought that the Tathagata was sitting before them and preaching the doctrine. From this body again issue forth some rays of light, by which all beings of all Lokadhatus saw Sakyamuni Buddha Preaching the Prajnaparamita to his Sangha of monks and congregation of Bodhisattvas. Though this conception of the refulgent body of that Buddha had found currency in the prajnaparamitas, the expression Sambhogakaya was still unknown to them.

It was usually called by them as Prakrtyamabhava (natural body) or Asecanakaatmabhava (all-diffusing body). As a matter of fact, the Astasasrika is not even aware of the Prakrtyatmabhava or Ascanakaatmabhava, showing clearly its priority to the other Prajnaparamitas. It speaks only of Rupakaya and Dharmakaya, (Asta, pp.338, 497,513), and the long glorious description of Buddhakaya, which appears in the Sata and Pancavimsati-Sahasrika as Nidana, is totally absent from it. It is only in the recast version of the Pancavimsati that the expression Sambhogikakaya was introduced by way of giving a gist of the topic, (Panca, A.S.B Ms, Leaf, 359a; Iti Sambhogika-Kaya). In it the Sambhogakaya is described thus:- "Bodhisattvas, after attaining bodhi by means of the Prajnaparamita, take a body endowed with thirty-two major and eighty minor signs with a view to preach the doctrines of Mahayana to the Bodhisattvas and at the same time to arouse in their minds joy, delight and love for the excellent dharma ". The original Prajnaparamita regarded this refulgent Kaya as Nirmita (created) and as such it included in it Rupakaya and did not feel the necessity of introducing the conception of a third kaya, the Sambhogika. Acharya Nagarjuna was interested in giving an exposition of the real Kaya (i.e. Dharmakaya or Svabhavakaya only). To him the distinction of Sambhogakaya and Rupakaya was unimportant, as both of them were unreal (Eastern Buddhist, 11pp. 17ff,). The rupa of both the Sambbhogakaya is exceedingly subtle and expansive without limit, yet it is Sapratigha (possessed of the quality of obstruction). Nevertheless, the subtle bodies of countless Buddhas are interpretable . The recast version of the Pancavimsatti, (Panca ASB MS, Leaf 359 a, cf Siksa. p. 159, Bodhic pp. 1.4,

Mtu, iii pp, 344, 452), refers to the Sambhogakaya, and does not, like the karika, distinguish between Dharmakaya (Svasambhoga) and Parasambhogakaya, the reason being that in the original version of the Pancavimsatti, there must have been, as in the other Prajnaparamitas, the conceptions of only two kayas, and not of three or four. The Karika in fact, supports the Siddhi in regard to the conception of kava by using only somewhat different names. The conception of the Svasambhogakaya shows a tendency of the Yogacara school to posit something like the Isvara of the Upanishads behind the Phenomenal universe. The Dharmakaya corresponds to the impersonal absolute of the Vedanta of the Brahman, and the Sambhogakaya to the Isvara when Brahman assumes name and form. Every Buddha, it should however, be noted has his own Sambhogakaya but all Buddhas have one Dharmakaya. The Lankavatara also gives hints to this effect. It says that Abhara (absence of anything) is not Tathagata and again, as Tathagata is described as "Anutpada-anirodha", it has some meaning. It then describes the Manomayadharmakaya (For the definition of Manomaya Kaya and its three subdivisions see Lanka, p. 81, Suzuki, E.B. iv. pp 284-5).

It cannot be seen by the non-Buddhists, Sravakas, Pratyeka-Buddhas and even Bodhisattvas in one of the first seven bhumis. Just as different names of one things or one person like Hasta, Kara, Pani or Indra, Sakra, Purandara indicate different aspects of the same thing, so also the different name of Sakyamuni Buddha in the Sahalokadhatu, eg. Svayambhu, Nayaka, Trsabha, Visnu, Isvara, Pradhana, Kapila, Soma, Bhaskara, Rama, Vyasa or Sunyata, Tathata, Bhutakoti, Nirvana, Sarvajna, etc., indicate the different aspects of Sakyamuni Buddha (Lanka, pp. 192-3, ef Dasa p. 55). People being subjected to the conceptions of two extremes "is" or "is not" (Dvayantapatitaya) do not know that Buddha is like a reflection of the moon on water which neither appears nor disappears. In this passage there is a clear hint that this Manomaya Dharmakaya, existing in the Saha Lokadhatu, is the same as the Svasambhogakaya or the Siddhi and the Asecankaatmabhava or Prakrtyatmabhava of the Prajnaparamitas and it corresponds to the Upanisadic conception of Isvara.

Dharmakaya: The three Kayas of which we have so far spoken, belong strictly to the realm of Samvrti, worldly and transcendental and as such they were treated as Rupa or Nirmanakaya by the early Mahayanists including Nagarjuna. The only real Kaya of Buddha is the reality as conceived by the Mahayanists, and is not different from the things or beings of Universe (In a Buddhist inscription of Battambang, a stanza in salutation of Buddha brings out this idea, see le Museon, vol. vii). Though an attempt to define it by the current words and expressions is bound to be not only incorrect but misleading, the Mahayanic texts however tried to give an idea of it as far as the language permitted. The Karika and the Siddhi call it Svabhavika or Svabhavakaya. It is according to them, immeasurable and illimit-

able. It fills all space. It is the basis of the Sambhoga and Nirmanakaya. It is devoid of all marks (i.e. Mahapurusalaksanas) and is inexpressible (Nisprapanca). It is possessed of eternal, real and unlimited Gunas. It has neither Citta nor Rupa and again Dharmakaya Buddhas may have their individual Sambhogakayas but they have all one Dharmakaya, (c.f. vis. M.P. 508:Nirvana is one for all Buddhas). It can only be realised within one's own self (Pratyamavedya) and cannot be described, for that would be like the attempt of a blind man to describe the sun, which he has never seen (Masuda, op. cit. p. 59,- Suzuki, Awakening of Faith, p. 62). It is often questioned whether the conception of Dharmakaya can be traced in the Prajnaparamitas, and in the works of Nagarjuna, and whether the Prajnaparamitas and the works of Nagarjuna admit of such a reality or rather preach only pure and simple negativism. To put it in another way, was it the object of the World and worldly knowledge and avoid making any statement about the reality or the truth.

The Astasahasrika and other Prajnaparamitas though unrelenting in their negation of every possible statement about the reality, never assert that Tathata or Sunvata or Dharmakaya in its real sense is also non-existing. The statements like "Tathatavikara nirvikaravikalpa nirvikalpa", (Suchness is immutable, inchangeable, beyond concept and distinctions) show rather a positive conception of the Reality than a purely negative one (Asta, p. 307, cf, the passage :-Ya ca tathata ekaivaisa tathata dvava, dvidhikara dvvata thata na Kavacit tathata Yatah sa na Kasyacita tathata tatah sa tathata dvaya'dvaidhi Karavayata thata. That which is Tasthagata- tatha ta and that which is all things Tathata are non-dual, one and the same. Tathata is neither anywhere nor arises from anywhere, nor belongs to anything , hence as Tathata does not belong to anybody, it is non-dual and one. For other passage of similar import, see M.Vr.Ch xxii). In regard to the Dharmakava also the Astasahasrika makes similar statements. It says that he who knows that the dharmas, existing in the world or preached by the Tathagata, have no more existence than things seen in a dream and does not enquire when the Tathagata comes and where he goes or realises the tathagata through dharma, (ASTA. p. 514 the dharmatcaya tathagatam prajnati, cf. m. Vr. p. 448 dharmato buddha drastavyah). The Buddhakava, that people speak of, arises through cause and condition like the sound of flute; it involves really no appearance or disappearance,. Those, who run after the form and voice of the Tathagata and conceive of his appearance and disappearance are far from the Truth (Asta. p. 513). No further statements than this can be made about the reality, for that would be again Prapanca. When the Astasahasrika asserts that the Tathagata does not exist, it refers to that Tathagata as conceived by one on reading the Mahayana texts. Even the Bodhisattvas, unless and until they reach the tenth bhumi, cannot extricate themselves from a conception of the Tathagatakaya, however, subtle it may be(eg. the Svasambhogakaya). They are still under a delusion and it is this delusion that the Prajnaparamitas endeavour to remove by asserting that there is no Tathagata.

Nagarjuna by denying the existence of a so-called Tathagata does nothing more than what the Prajnaparamitas endeavour to establish. His point is that, if Bhvasantati (series of existence) be admitted then the existence of a tathagata should also be admitted for the Tathagata represents the ultimate state of this Bhavasantati. There is also no Tathagata of a being who is supposed to have become a Tathagata after practising Mahakaruna and other virtues of attaining omniscience. If the Tathagata had really existed, he would either be the same as five Skandhas or different from them, or the Skandhas would be in him or he in the Skandhas, but as he is none of these nor anyone of these is he, he cannot have any real existence.

By these and other similar arguments Nagarjuna asserts that there is no Tathagata. By such denial he only establishes that the Tathagata as the ultimate state of Bhavasantati does not exist, (Tathagato nihsvabhaavastat svabhavam idam jagat, Tathagato nihsvahavam-nihsvabhavam idam jagat).

Candrakirti, in support of Nagarjuna's arguments, quotes a passage from the Astasahasrika (p.472) in which Buddha and his dharma are compared to Maya or Syapna, but at the same time he says that they do not assert the nonexistence (Nastitva) of the Tathagata in every way, for then they would be guilty of Apavada (denial) and yet being desirous of describing the Tathagata by means of Vyavaharasatya (conventionally) and by taking recourse to super-impositions (Samaropa) they say that he is Sunya or Asunya, Sunyasunya or Naiva Sunya Nasunya. But he who endeavours to realise the true Tathagata by having recourse to statements and denial will never know him. Candrakirti, in support of the above, quotes the verses from the Vajrachedika, to which the Astasahasrika as well as the Bodhicarvava-tara (p. 42) refers to viz "he who endeavoured to see me through my form and voice could not see me because : dharmato buddha drastavya dharmakaya he nayakah, dharmata capy avijneyana sa sakya vijanitum. A Buddha is to be seen in the sense of dharmato (nature of dharmas), for the leaders (of men) have only Dharmakaya. That dharmata is unknownable so also is the Tathagata, (Vr. p. 448, cf. Asta, pp. 513-514, vajra, p. p.43). Nagarjuna concludes his examination of the Tathagata kaya by identifying Tathagata with the world (Jagat), (Tathagato vatsvabhavstat svabhavamidamjagat), or nature itself and asserting that the Tathagata, whom people or even Bodhisattvas have in view, is only a Bimba (image) of Kusala dharmas and is not the real Tathata or Tathagata, (m,Vr, pp. 448-9). A dialectician like Nagarjuna cannot go further than this to establish the reality, it is by denial of the existence of unreal things, including the so called Tathagata, that he points towards the reality-the real Tathagata kaya, the Dharmakaya (Prapancayantiye buddham prapancatitamavyayam, Te prapancahatah sarvenepasyante-Tathagatam. M. Vr, p. 534).

The conception of Dharmakaya was of special interest to the Yogacarins. The Lankavatara, pp. 57, 60, in describing it, says that (Dharmata) Buddha is without any substratum (Niralamba) and lies beyond the range of functioning of the organs of sense, proofs or signs and hence beyond the vision of Sravakas, Pratyeka Buddhas or the non-Mahayanists. It is to be realised only within one's own self. The Sutralankara sutra, p. 45, calls it Svabhavika dharmayakaya. It is one and the same kaya in all Buddhas, very subtle, unknownable and eternal.

The Trimsika, p. 44, explains the Dharmakaya as the transformed Asraya (substratum)-the alayavijnana-the transformation being effected by knowledge (Jnana) and the suppression of the two evils (Dausthulyas), viz, Klesavarana and Jheyavarana. The Aloka on the Abhisamayalankara Karika also explains the Dharmakaya in the similar way. According to it, there are two kinds of Dharmakaya, one being the Bodhipaksika and the other dharmas, which are themselves pure and productive of clear knowledge (nisprapancajnanatmana) and other the transformed Asraya of the same, which is then called Svabhavakaya. Professor Stcherbatsky, con of N.P. 185 n, supplies us with nearly the same information that we find in the Aloka of some sources which he does not mention. He says that "according to the early Yogacaras, the Dharmakaya is divided into Svabhavakaya and Jhanakaya of which the first is the motionless (Nitya) substance of the universe and the second is Anitya i.e., changing, living." Evidently, what the Professor means by Jhanakaya is the Dharmakaya, consisting of the Bodhipaksika and other dharmas of the Aloka. That the Svabhavakaya is the Nityakaya, as pointed out by him, is also supported by the Suvarnaprabhasa and other texts, (Suvarnaprabhasa B.T. S.P. 8, lanka, p. 78, Sutra, p. 46). The Chinese commentators on the Siddha state that Dharmakaya is the mataphysical principle of real Citta and Rupa of the Tathagata. It is the real nature of things, and can be equated with Tathata. Dharmadhatu or Tathagatagarbha, (Lanka, pp. 77,78). The goal of Bodhisattvas is to realise the Dharmakaya. Every being has the Dharmakaya, or the Dharmakaya comprises all beings of the World, but as they are blinded by Avidya, they do not realise this fact. What the Bodhisattva aims at is the removal of this Avidya and the realisation of the fact that he is the same as the Dharmakaya. The Aloka on the Karika enumerates the steps through which Bodhisattva passes and points out that the last step of a Bodhisattva is to realise the Dharmakaya (Dharmakayabhisambodhena bhavi syati), after which it becomes easy for him to assume any one of the four kayas. In the Lankavatara we notice that Mahamati is anxious to know how are Bodhisattvas, after completing the ten bhumis, can attain the Tathagatakaya or Dharmakaya and go to any one of the Buddhaksetras or heavens. The Lankavatara also describes in rosy colours the prospect of attaining the Mahadharmamegha of the ninth bhumi, who is adorned with many jewels, and sits on a lotus in a jewelled palace surrounded by Bodhisattvas of his status. He comprehends there the illusory nature of all things. He is anointed (Abhiseka) by Vajrapani and a son of Buddha. He then goes beyond the bhumi of Buddhasutas by realising within himself the Dharma Nairatmaya and confronts the Dharmakaya (Lanka, pp. 51, 70). The Trimsika says that just as Vimuktikaya is the goal of the Arhats, so Dharmaklya is the goal of the Bodhidattvas. It shows that as the Arhats by getting rid of Klesavarana obtain a purified kaya, so also a Buddha by getting rid of both Klesavarana and Jheyavarana obtains the Dharmakaya (Trimsika, p. 44). The world of experience is phenomenal. It may be compared to a magical illusion or dream. In the Astasahasrika Prajnaparamita (R. Mitra's edition p. 39) the following passage appears:-

Ayusman Subhutih tan devaputran etad avocat. mayapamas te Sattvah. Svapnopamas te Sattvah Iti he mayaca Sattcas ca advaya advidhikara. Evam Sakrdagamim pi arhattam pi Samyaksambuddham pi mayopama Svapnopamah. Ayusman Subhuti said to the Devaputras that all worldly beings are illusion or dream. Illusion and worldly beings are one and the same. It should be noted that not only worldly beings but also saints like the Once-returners (Sakrdagami) and the perfect Arhat and even the worldly figure of Gautama Buddha are illusion or dream. The absolute, i.e. the Dharmakaya of Buddha, is indescribable. It is the only reality that Buddha realised at Bodhgaya. All things of the world has three aspects: viz, (i) quintessence, (ii) attributes and (iii) activity. Take for instance, an earthen jar. It is subject to origination and disintegration, while the earth is indestructible, i.e. unconditioned. Another simile may be useful. Take for instance, an ocean and the waves of the ocean. The latter may be high or low, according to the force of wind of ignorance but the water of the ocean, neither increases nor decreases. It is unfathomable and immeasurable, i.e. unconditioned. The whole Universe has two aspects, i.e. changed and unchanged. The latter is known as the Bhuta-tathata, the absolute. It persists through all space and time as the basis of all, and as the universal and eternal substratum. It corresponds to the conception of Brahman of the Upanisads. This is identical with the Dharmakaya of Buddha. Dharma is the supreme principle of life. Adi-Buddha happens to be the first conception of the personification of Dharma. It is a metaphysical conception. It is not in active touch with the world.

The leaders of men possess true body or nature, which is unknownable. It cannot be known except within one's own self (Pratyatmavedya). In the Astasahasrika-Prajnaparamita (R. mitra's ed. p. 94) appears the following passage:- Makhalu imam bhiksavah satkayam kayam manyadhvam. Dharmakaya Parinispattito mam bhiksavo draks yanti : O monks, you should not think that this individual body is my body. O monks, you should see me from the accomplish-

ment of the Dharma body.

The Tathagatas cannot be seen in his form (rupa) i.e., material body. The Dharma bodies are the Tathagatas. There is no coming or going of Dharmata. Similarly, there is no coming or going of the Tathagatas. A sleeping man might see in his dream one Tathagata or two or three or upto one thousand or still more. On waking up, he would however, no longer see even one Tathagata or two or three or upto thousand or still more. These Tthagata do not come from anywhere nor go to anywhere. They are eternal and ever existing, (Ast. prajnapa p, 513). Bud-dha appears in this world with high intelligence and unlimited amity (maitri) and compassion (karuna) to rescue beings from their lives of misery on account of birth and death. In the saddharma-pundarika, (ch.III) appears an episode as to the ways and means (Upaya-kausalya-paramita) adopted by the Buddha. In fact, all the four Yanas were of one nature and the Buddha could not have told a lie by taking recourse to the expedients (Upaya-kausalya) of teaching his dharma in different ways, viz., Sravakayana, Pratyeka buddhayana and Bodhisattvayana.

Buddhahood, which fulfils the needs of others by manifesting itself to them, does not do so through the congnitive norm, the Dharma Kaya, but through the two operational ones, the Sambhogakaya and Nirmanakaya. In this respect the philosophical conviction of all Mahayanists, that the realization of the cognitive norm through intelligent appreciative of discrimination which intuitively apprehends the profound nature (nothingness) of all, i.e., the realization of the two operational norms, comes through unbounded activity and that insight and action must forever work together because they are unable to effect anything if they are divorced from each other. Intelligence which apprehends the profound nature of all that is, is the same in Mantrayana as it is in the two lower courses (Hinayana and Paramitayana), because without understanding existentiality it is impossible to cross the ocean of Samsara by exhausting our emotional reactions. Therefore, the special and prominent feature of the Mahayana path is the instrumentality of the two operational norms which manifest themselves to the prepared and serve as a protective guidance to sentient beings as long as Samsara lasts. Although, the followers of the Paramitayana attend to an inner course that corresponds to the ultimate cognitive norm by conceiving the nature of all that is beyond the judgements of reason and not existing in truth, they however have no such course of Mantrayana which is abound in operational modes. Therefore, because there is a great difference in the main feature of the path, the realization of operational norms for the sake of others is therefore divided into two courses. While the division into Hinayana and Mahayana is due to the means employed and not because of a difference in nature of intelligence through which nothingness is apprehended, the division of the Mahayana into Paramitayana and Mantrayana also is not due to a difference in the discriminative acumen which understands the

profound nature of all that is, but because of the techniques employed. The differentiating quality is the realization of operational norms and the transfigurational techniques which effects the realization of these norms is superior to all other techniques used in the other courses. From this it follows that the combination of Paramitayana and Mantrayana is more effective than any course pursued alone, although each course has its goal achievement. It has been said that one is liberated from Samsara when one knows properly both the Mantrayana and Paramitayana methods.Common to both is the idea that, failing to understand the nature of mind as not existing as a self, and by believing it to be a self. all other emotional upsets are generated, and through them, in turn, Karmic action are performed, and because of these actions they roams about in Samsara. The contemplation of nothingness in the first stage is a most important factor. Once the developing stage has become a stable experience and the necessary preliminary experience is present, the fulfilment stage can be entered upon. This passes through five steps, each of which is a purely psychological process even if it is described in terms of physical locations. After detachment from the preoccupation with the body has been established the first step (i) is one of an awareness of motive which is the cradle of cognizable mind. From this awareness develops an experience (ii) which is likened to an emptying of the mind and which is in itself not determined at all. It is not just nothing, but an intensive mode of existing and acting, which underlies all actual cognition. When it achieves determination, its objective pole (iii) is of the nature of an apparitional being, while its subjective pole (iv) is the cognition of its nothingness. The last step (v) is the unity of apparitional existence and nothingness. It is a means to realize Buddhahood which is the most sublime idea man can have of man.

"With Metta".

The Vedic and Buddhist concept of "Dharma"

-Prof. P. G. Yogi.

Meaning of Dharma : Dharma is one of those Sanskrit words that defy all attempts at an exact rendering in English or any other tongue. That word has passed through several vicissitudes. In the hymns of the Rig Veda the word appears to be used either as an adjective or a noun (in the form dharman, generally nature) and occurs at least fifty-six times therein. It is very difficult to say what the exact meaning of the word dharma was in the most ancient period of the Vedic language. The word is clearly derived from root dharma (to uphold, to support, to nourish). In a few passages, the word appears to be used in the sense of "upholder or supporter or sustainer" as in Rg, X 21 3, the word dharma is clearly masculine. In all other cases, the word is either obviously in the picture or in a form which may be either masculine or neuter. In most cases the meaning of dharma has "religious ordinances or rites" as in Rg.1.22.18, V.26.16, VIII, 43.24, IX.64.1 & C.

The reference 'tani dharmani prathamanyasan' occurs in Rg. 1. 164, 43 and 50, X 90 16. Similarly we have the words "Prathama dharma (the Primeval or first ordinances) in Rg.III.17.1. and X.56.3 and the words "sanata dharmani (ancient ordinances) occurs in Rg. III.3.1. In some passages this sense of "religious rites" would not suit the context, e.g. in IV. 53. 3.V. 63.7.VI.70.1,VII, 89.5. In these passages the meaning seems to be 'fixed principles or rules of conduct'. In the Vatasaneyasamhita the above senses of the word dharman are found and in 11.3 and V.27 we have the words 'dhruvena dharmana'. In the same samhita the form 'dharmah' (from dharma) becomes frequent, e.g.X.29. XX. 9. The Atharvaveda

contains many of those verses of the Rg veda in which the word dharma occurs, e.g.VI.51.3 (acittyachet tavadharma-yuyopima), vii, 5.1 (Yatnenayathamayatanta) VII, 27.5 (trine pada vicakrame). In XI. 9. 17 the word dharmah seems to be used in the sense of 'merit acquired by the performance of religious rites'. In the Aitareya-brahmana, the word dharma seems to be used in an abstract sense, viz. 'The whole body of religious duties'. In the chandagya-upanisad there is an important passage bearing on the meaning of the word dharma. According to it, there are three branches of dharma ; one is constituted by sacrifice, study and charity (i.e. the stage of house holder); the second is constituted by austerities (i.e. the stage of being a hermit); the third is the brahmacarin dwelling in house of his teacher and making himself stay with the family of his teacher till it last. All these pertain to the words of meritorious men who abides firmly in brahman and attains immortality. It will be seen that in this passage the word 'dharma' stands for the peculiar duties of the asramas. The foregoing brief discussion establishes how the word dharma has passed through several transitions of meaning and how ultimately its most significant meaning has come to be 'the privileges, duties and obligations of a man, his standard of conduct as a member of the Aryan Community, as a member of one of the castes as a person in a particular stage of life . It is in this sense that the word seems to be used in the well-known exhortation of the pupil contained in the Taittiriya-upanisad (I.II)-'Speak the Truth, Practise (Your Own) dharma & C. It is in the same sense that the Bhagavadgita uses the word dharma in the oft-quoted verse-'svadharme nidhanam sreyah'. The word is employed in this sense in the dharma sastra literature. The Manu Smrti (1-2) tell us that the sages requested Manu to impart instruction in the dharmas of all the varnas. The Yathvavalk-Smriti (1.1.) employs it in the same sense.

In the Tantra Vartika also, we are told that all the Dharma Sutras are concerned with imparting instruction in the dharmas of varnas and asramas. Medhatithi commenting on Manu says that the expounders of smrtis dwelt upon dharma as five-fold e.g. Varnadharma, Asrama-dharma, Varnasrama-Dharma, Nainittikadharma (such as Prayascitta) and Guna dharma (the duty of a crowned King, whether Ksatriya or not, to protect). It is in this sense that the word dharma will be taken in this work. Numerous topics are comprehended under the title dharnassastra, but in this work prominence will be given to works on acara and Vyavahara (law and administration of justice).

It would be interesting to recall a few other definitions of dharma. Jaimine defines dharma as'a desirable goal or result that is indicated by injunctive (Vedic) passages'. The word dharma would mean such rites as are conducive to happiness and are enjoined by vedic passages. The Vaisesikasutra defines dharma as 'that from which results happiness and final beautitude'. There are several other more or less one-sided definitions of dharma such as 'Ahimsa Paramo Dharmah'

(Anusasanaparka-us 1.)' 'AnrsamsyamParo dharmah' (Vanaparva, 373.76), 'Acarah Paramo dharmah' (Manu 1.108). Harita defined dharma as 'Srutipramanaka' (based on revelation). In the Buddhist sacred books, the word dharma has several meanings. It often means the whole teaching of the Buddha (S.E.Vol.X.P XXXIII).

Another meaning of dharma peculiar to the Buddhist system is an element of existence, i.e., of matter, mind and forces. The present work will deal with the sources of dharma, their contents, their chronology and other kindred matters. As the material is vast and the number of works is extremely large, only a few selected works and some important matter will be taken up for detailed treatment.

Sources of Dharma: The Gautamadharmasatra says, "the Veda is the source of dharma and the tradition and practice of those that know it (the Veda)". So Apastamba says, "the authority (for the dharmas) is the consensus of those that know dharma and the Vedas." Vide also the Vasisthadharma-sutra (1.4.6.). The Manusmrti lays down five different sources of dharma 'the whole Veda is (the foremost) source of dharma and (next) the tradition and the practice of those that know it (the Veda); and further the usages of virtuous men and self-satisfaction'. Yajnavalkya declares the sources in a similar strain 'the veda, traditional lore, the usages of good men, what is agreeable to one's self and desire born of due deliberation is traditionally recognised as the source of dharma'. These passages make it clear that the principal sources of dharma were conceived to be the Vedas, the Smrtis, and customs. The Vedas do not contain positive precepts (vidhis) on matters of dharma in a connected form, but they contain incidental references to various topics thet fall under the domain of dharmasastra as conceived in later times. Such information to be gathered from the Vedic literature is not quite as meagre as is commonly supposed. The foregoing brief discussion will make it clear that the later rules contained in the dharma sutras and other works on dharma sastra had their roots deep down in the most ancient Vedic tradition and that the authors of the dharmasutras were quite justified in looking up to the Vedas as a source of dharma. But the Vedas do not profess to be formal treatises on dharma; they contain only disconnected statements on the various aspects of dharma; we have to turn to the Smritis for a formal and connected treatment of the topics of the dharma sastra. When Dharmasaatra works were first composed, the important question is to find out when formal treatises on dharma began to be composed. It is not possible to give a definite answer to this question.

The Nirukta (III.4-5) shows that long before Yaska heated controversies has raged on various questions of inheritance, such as the exclusion of daughters by sons and the right of the appointed daughter (Putrika), it is very likely that these discussions had found their way in formal works and were not merely confined to

the meetings of the learned. The manner in which Yaska writes suggests that he is referring to works in which certain Vedic verses had been cited in support of particular doctrines about inheritance. It is further a remarkable thing that in connection with the topic of inheritance Yaska quotes a verse, call it a sloka and distinguishes it from a rk, (47). This makes it probable that works dealing with topics of dharma existed either in the sloka metre or contained slokas. Scholars like Buhler would say that the verses were part of the floating mass of mnemonic verses, the existence of which he postulated without very convincing or cogent arguments in his introduction to the manusmrtti (S.B.E.Vol.25, Intro, X c). If works dealing with topics of dharma existed before Yaska, a high antiquity will have to be predicated for them. The high antiquity of works on dharma sastra follows from other weighty consideration. It will be seen later on that the extant dharmasutras of Gautama,Budhayana and Apastamba certainly belong to the period between 600 to 300 B.C. Gautama ((48) speaks of dharma sastras and the word dharma sastra ocours in Baudhayana also (IV.5.9).

Baudhayana speaks of a dharma pathaka (1.1.9.). Besides Gautama quotes in numerous places the views of others in the words 'ityeke' (e.g. 11.15.11, 58. III.1, IV.21, VII.23). He refers to manu (49) in one place and to 'Acarvas' in several places (III, 36, IV, 18 and 23). Baudhavana mentions by name several writers on dharma, viz. Aupatanghani, Katya, Kasyapa, Gautama, Maudgolya and Harita. Apastamba also cites the views of numerous sages such as those of Eka, Kanva, Kautsa, Harita and others. There is a vartika which speaks of Dharmasastra. Jaimini speaks of the duties of a Sudra as laid down in the dharmasastra. Patanjali shows that in his days dharma sutras existed and that their authority was very high, being next to the commandments of God. He quotes verse and dogmas that have their counterparts in the dharmasutras. The foregoing discussion establishes that works on the dharma sastra existed prior to Yaska or at least prior to the period 600-300 B.C and in the 2nd century B.C. They had attained a position of supreme authority in regulating the conduct of men. The whole of the extant literature on dharma will be dealt with as follows: First come the dharmasutras, some of which like those of Apastamba, Hiranyakesin and Baudhayana form part of a larger Sutra collection, which there are other like-those of Gautama and Vasistha which do not form part of a larger collention; some dharmasutras like that of Visnu are in their extant form, are comparatively later in date than other sutra works. Some sutra works like those of Sankha-likhita and Paithinasi are known only from quotations. Early metrical smrtis like those of Manu and Yajhavalkya will be taken up for discussion, then later versified smrtis like that of Narada. There are many smrti works like those of Brhaspati and Katyayana that are known only from quotations. The two epics - the Mahabharata and the Ramayana, and the Puranas also have played a great part in the development of the Dharmasastra as well as the Dharma. The commentaries on the smrtis, such as those of Visvarupa, Medhatithi, Vijnanesvara, Apararka, Haradatta will be reviewed next. Thereafter, the works of such Hemadri, Todaramalla, Nelakantha and others will be treated.

It is very difficult to settle the chronology of the works on dharmasastra, particularly of the earlier ones. The present writer does not subscribe to the view of the Max Muller (H.A.S.L.P. 68) and others that works in continuous Anustubh metre followed sutra works. Our knowledge of the works of that Period is so meagre that such a generalisation is most unjustifiable. Some works in the continuous sloka metre like the Manusmrti are certainly older than the Visnudharmasutra and probably as old as, if not older than, the Vasisthadharmasutra. One of the earliest extant dharmasutras, that of Budhayana, contains long passage in the sloka metre, many of which are quotations and even Apastamba has a considerable number of verses in the sloke metre. This renders it highty probable that works in the sloke metre existed before them.Besides a large literature on dharma existed in the day of Apastamba and Baudhayana which has not come to us. In the absence of that literature it is futile to dogmatise on such a point.

The Dharmasutras: It seems that originally many, though not all, of the Dharmasutra formed part of the Kalpasutras and were studied in distinct sutracaranas. Some of the extant dharma Sutras here and there show unmistakable terms that presupposes the Grhyasutra of the carana to which they belong. Compare A.P.Dh.S.1.1.4.16 with Ap. Gr. SL. 12 and 11.5, and Baud.Dh.S.II 1.4. 16 with Baud. Gr.5.11.11.42 (and other sutras) 54. The Dharmasutras belonging to all Sutra caranas have not come down to us. There is no dharmasutra-completing the Asvalayana Srauta and Grhyasutras. No Manava dharma sutra has yet come to light, though the Manava sruta and Grhya sutras are extant. In the same way we have the Sankhayana dharma sutra. It is only in the case of the Apastamba, Hiranyakesin and Baudhayana sutra caranas that we have a complete Kalpa Tradition with its three components of Srauta, Grihya and Dharma Sutras. The Tantravartaka of Kumarila contains very interesting observations on this point. It tells us that Gautama dharmasutra and Gobhila Grhyasutra were studied by the chandogas Samavedine, Vasistha dharmasutra by the Rigvedine, the dharmasutra of sankha-likhita by the followeres of Vajasaneya-samhita and the Sutras of Apastamba and Baudhayana by the followers of the Taittiring Sakha. The Tantravartika (P.179), established itself as a siddhanta (on jaimini 1.3.II) and said that all the dharma and grhya sutras are authoritative for all Aryan people. From this it appears that although orginally all Sutracaranas might not have possessed dharmasutras composed by the founder of the carana, yet gradually certain dharmasutras were specially taken-over or appropriated by the certain caranas. As the dharmasutras were mostly concerned with rules about the conduct of men

as members of the Aryan community and did not deal with ritual of any kind, all dharama sutras gradually become authoritive in all schools. The dharamasutras were closely connected with grhyasutras in subjects and topics.

Most of the Grhyasutras treaties deal with the domestic fire, the division of Grhya Sacrifices on new and fullmoon, sacrifices of cookedfood, annual sacrifices, marriage, pumsavana, fatakarma, upanavana and other Sasmkaras, rules for students and snatakas and holidays, sraddha offerings, madhuparka. It most cases the Grihya sutras confine themselves principally to the various events of domestic life. They rarely give rules about the conduct of men, their rights duties and responsibilities. The dharmasutras also contain rules on some of the above topics such as marriage and the samskaras, rules for the Brahmacarya and Snatakas and holidays, on sraddha and madhuparka. It is therefore not surprising that in the Apastamba-grhyasutra the topic of the duties of the Brahmacarin and of the house-holder of atithis and of sraddha are meagrely treated as compared with the Apastamba dharmasutra. The dharmasutras very rarely describe the ritual of domestic life, they merely touch upon it, their Scope is Wider and more ambitious; their principal purpose is to dwell upon the rules of conduct, law and custom. Some sutras are common to both the Apastamba-grhya and the dharma sutra. Sometimes the grhyasutra appears to refer to the dharmasutra. There are certain points which distinguish the dharmasutras (the more ancient of them at least) from Smrtis: (a) Many dharmasutras are either part of the Kalpa belonging to each sutra carana or are intimately connected with the Grhyasutras; (b) the dharmasutras sometimes have a partiality for their Vedic quotations from the texts of the Veda to which they belong and for the caranas in which they are studie; (c) the authors of the (older) dharmasutras do not claimed to be inspired by seers or superhuman beings, while the other Smritis such as those of Manu and Yajnavalkya are ascribed to Gods like Brahma; (d) the dharmasutras are in prose or in mixed prose and Verse; the other smrtis are in Verse; (e) the language of the dharmasutras is generally more archaic than that of the other smrtis; (f) the dharmasutras do not proceed upon any orderly arrangement of topics, while the other smritis even the oldest of them, viz-manusmriti, arrange their contents and treat the subjects under three principal heads viz acara, Vyavahara, and Prayascitta; (g) most of the dharmasutras are older than most of the other Smrtis. " You, O Bhikkhus, are my own true sons, born of my word, born of dharma, formed by dharma, heirs of dhamma, not of compunded things".

What is dharma? It may be rendered as nature, essence, the state of things as they are, life, a living thing. Because it is life and a living thing, this dhamma is respected and revered even by the Buddhas. And how is it revered? By sinking the peripheral faculties to diaphragm-centre and impermeating the spheres of dhamma there. This is revering the dhamma. It as mundane aspect, dhamma is the emer-

gence of all component forms. In its supramundane aspect, it is the dhamma Kaya, or essence form. It as collective transcendental aspect, it is the Ideal, the uncaused, the always-so. Of dhamma, the contemporary of the Buddha has this to say:- "The Dhamma which can be expresed in words is not the eternal name. Without a name, it is the begining of heaven and earth. With a name, it is the mother of all things. Only one who is ever free from desire can apprehend its spiritual essence. He who is ever a slave to desire can see no more than its outer beings. These two things, the essential and the physical, though we call them by different names, in their origin are one and the same. This sameness is a mystery, the mystery of mysteries. It is the gate of all wonders. The Buddha in itself is vague, impalpable, how impalpable! how vague! Yet within it there is Form. How vague! how impalpable! How profound! How obscure! Yet within it there is a vital principle. This principle is the quintessence of reality and out of it comes Truth. All things under heaven are products of being, but being itself is the product of not being the Buddha produced unity, unity produced duality, duality produced trinity and trinity produced all existing things. Not visible to sight, not audible to ear, in its uses, it is inexhaustible. The Buddha lies hidden and cannot be named, yet it has the power of transmuting and perfecting all thing. The Buddha produces all things; its virtue nourishes them all; each formed according to its nature; and each perfected according to its strength. "Man takes his law from the earth, earth takes its law from heaven, heaven takes its law from the Buddha. But the law of the Buddha is its own spontaneity "o" which is formless, standing alone without change, reaching every where without incurring harm! It must be regarded as the mother of the universe. Its name I know not. To designate it, I call it Buddha Endeavouring to describe it, I call it Great." The ancient terms of Dhamma are universal representation of that which is not merely abstract and ideal, but also immediate and concrete. They are abstract and ideal in that they represent a collective potentiality which may be aspired to. Where as they are immediate and concrete in that they impermeate life as essential values, which gravitated into a specific field of personality being actualized.

The ineffability of dhamma, therefore is not something upon which to speculate, but to initiate. For as it is said:-"Even in this very body......is the world". In so far as dhamma may be gravitated into a specific field of personality, it has its culmination as consciousness, as thought, as word, and as deed. It is here that whiteheads' observation regarding temporality ('some eternal greatness incarnate in the passage of temporal fact') begins to take on a really effective ring, although whitehead himself would never have dreamed of the limits to which it might be pushed. The aim of life is indeed "the process of eliciting into actual being those factors in the universe which exist only in the mode of unrealized potentialities. The process of self-creation is the transformation of the potential into the actual, and the fact of such transformation includes the immediacy of self enjoyment" All things (dhamma) are the product of process and process in not something which is capable of being disassociated from the flow of temporal fact for it derives its very existence from the flow of that temporal fact, from the nature of its becoming. This becoming necessarily implies some sort of power as its face, or it would not flow and become at all. As plato says: "My suggestion would be that anything which possesses any sort of power to affect another, or to be affected by another even for a moment, however trifling the cause and however slight and momentary the effect, has real existence. And I hold that the defination of being (becomming) is simply power".

Now of all dhammas, the mind is the most active and potent. As it is said:-"Whensoever, Ananda, the Tathagata concentrates form in mind, and mind in form, and entering on awareness of buoyancy and ease abides therein, at that time, Ananda, the Tathagata's form is more buoyant, softer, more pliable, and radiant.

With little effort it rises from the earth into the sky, and in diverse ways enjoys supernormal powers, to wit: "being one he become many, being many be becomes one. And so forth." However if the mind is to attain the real potency, the first thing it has to do is to stop. That the mind is the most difficult of things to 'stop'cannot be too often stressed, for unless it stop jumping from one thing to the next it is a thing devoid of strength. To stop, however, is not to be confused with inactivity but the capacity to harness energy so as to penetrate anything at which it is aimed at. Experience reveals that motionlessness is an impossibility insofar as life is concerned. And yet it is said:- "I stand still, Angulimala. do you likewise". This utterance to the bandit of the name is as simple as it is profound. It is the third Noble Truth. For to stop is to put an end (nirodha) to pain. When mind, itself a Product of time, has 'stopped', then it attains to ascendancy overtime. And how? Past time is recollected, future time unrolled. It is in control. In consequence of this facility the Buddhas are regarded as timeless. Howerver, the Buddhas themselves are products of time, without which there would be no arising of Buddhas, since Buddhahood implies resolve initiated, effort applied, experience accumulated, enlightenment realized, and release attained. All of which has basis in time, impermeated in temporal fact. Without which nothing has ever been known to arise. To 'stop' is the most difficult of things to do. This in itself is a paradox. A paradox which issues in release.

Insofar as 'stopping' is concerned, it can be achieved only under the process of another frequency altogether than that by which consciousness is normally perpetuated. Namely, the concentrated absorption of Jhana.

And why? Because it has peculiar and far-reaching attributes. We might say, transcendental attributes. 'Stopping' implies either of two possibilities. Namely, consciousness (the quantity to be stopped) must be a potentially capable of mo-

tionlessness, or possessed of an immense velocity. In the first instance, only something which is motionless can penetrate the flux around. On the other hand, a higher degree of vibrative intensity is capable of penetrating a lower degree. This is true of Jhana. For although Jhana may possess a deceptive- appearance of inactivity, it vibrates at a higher degree of intensity than the most rapid of phenomena. It must be classified as activity in equilibrium. In that the Jhanic consciousness vibrates at a higher degree of intensity than its objective field, and it possesses the capacity to apprehend the flux in things, for aflux (Jhana being also a flux) to apprehend a flux is a debatable affair. However. That is how things function, and the Jhanic consciousness is not only capable of apprehending the flux in things, but its own flux as well, a technique whereby the mind abstracts itself from its environmental supports and absorbs itself. It is as plato suggests for the mind:-"To withdraw from all contact with the body and concentrate itself by itself, and to have its dwelling, so far as it can, both now and in the future, alone by itself. freed from the shackles of the body". If the mind depends constantly on externalities for its support, then it will never be able to free itself, from subjection thereto, without detachment of mind no lasting happiness can ensue, since such happiness cannot depend upon the whim and fancy of every incident that springs up.

Consciousness, or the mind, necessitates a specific field of containment, and is not just lossely dispersed in space without a centre of gravitation. Consciousness being a product of occasion, of unification process, vibrates in field, and does not exist otherwise. Since they are developed from the five sense-door field as the base, the aggregates of personality, no matter how they may be processed, must still partake of the nature of aggregates in a specific field. Nothing can be processed to its ultimate refinement unless based on antecedent material. Thus, as we have already abserved from the previous chapter, the five sense-door field of human personality is capable of being pushed (bhavana) by concentrated technique to translucent limits, culminating in what is called the Dhamma kaya. This Dhammakaya is a composite impermeation and fusion of element (dhatu) and essence (dhamma). Commencing with the five sense door field of human personality, the aggregates are pushed (magga) until they change their lineage (gotrabhu) from mundane to supramundane, emerging (Phala) as essence aggregates (dhammakkhandha). The specific field of personality is still there, only its quality has been changed, transmuted into the next, until the most translucent qualities have emerged. This is the perfection of consciousness through concentration, and the attainment of the transcendent mind (adhicitta).

It is this transcendent mind, purged of all mundane residue, which the Emancipated ones take with them (as bird its wings) in final withdrawal. And how is this transcedent mind of the Dhamma Kaya attained? "There are three factors, o Bhikkhus, necessary for one intent on the attainment of higher consciousness (adhicitta). Namely, the factors of concentration, the energy, and of equanimity."

By the potential of these three factors, the elemental dhatu portion of the human aggregate is processed, until it emerges in pure form. The essence (dhamma) portion is processed, until it emerges in pure form. The esence (dshamma) portion is processed, until it emerges in perfect qualities of consciousness (Parami). The elemental portion is the ultimate resultant of the cognitive (Vannana) base. The essence portion is the fusion of experience into the specific field of personality as signified by the cognitive base. Element and essence are fuse in a specific field, to issue in the establishment of the Dhammakava. Now when it is said that to reverse the dhamma one sinks the peripheral faculties. commencing with the potential faculty of vision (cakkhindriya), to the diapharagm centre, it is to be understood that this form of penetration sinks consciousness deeper and deeper into space, and as a consequence accomplishes ascendancy over external supports. In so far spatiality is concerned it is to be understood that the space which present itself to the five sense door field of apprehension is a compounded element, inextricably fused on to the four basic principles of elemental solicity (Pathavi dhaty), and fluxive liquidity (apodhatu). Pure space, uncompounded and underived, exists in primal state only as the Nibbanic element (Nibbana Dhatu), and is congnized through introverted technique by the pure mind (Vinnanam) of the Dhammakaya.

What normally pass for space is not an absolute essence. Although space is a category of experience, its extensibility is indefinite and amorphous, to say the least. The more refined consciousness become, the greater penetration it attains over the five sense door field of spatiality, which as a consequence becomes more elastic. It is said to be 'elastic' because it is not merely a subjective phenomenon, but also in the trancendental sense objective. Due to this facility of expansion and contraction peculiar to pure mind, it is able to investigate phenomena in detail, revealing as a consequence that all component things are void at core. Much has been said of this void centre, or core inherent in things but the mystery remains, "Thirty spokes unite in one nave. The utility of the cart depends on the hollow centre in which the axle turns. Clay is moulded into pot. The utility of the pot depends upon the hollow inside. Doors and windows are cut in order to make a house. The utility of the house depends on the empty space within. Th excellence of a dwelling is its site, the excellence of a mind is its profoundity". Voidness is the centre from which all things emerge, have their momentary existence and utility and become void again. Whensoever pure mind is established in this voidness freed of elemenal tension, it becomes deep, immeasurable, profound . As it is said: "A Tathagata released from what is called bodily form, feeling, perception, aggreagtes and consciousness(Mundane) is profound, immeasurable, hard to plumb, like the great ocean. It is not fitting to state that he is reborn, not reborn,

both reborn and reborn, neither reborn nor not reborn". Due to the fact that the mind is clouded by the aggregates (Sankharas) of peripheral personality, it is unable to penetrate and comprehend the void core of things, to pass beyond the delusive dreams of its subjective world, endless in its self-creativity. As Shakespeare observes: "We are such a stuff as dreams are made of, and our little life is rounded with a sleep". It is the purpose of right insight to purge the life principal of delusive dreams and to attain to purity of essence. As it is said: "Mud I do not call dirt". Delusion (Moha), hate (dosa), and greed (Lobha), I call dirt". The technique, therefore, is one of transmutation when the consistences of Earth, Water Fire and Air are purged from consciousness, it becomes bright, lucent, pure. As it is said: "Both the personal and external elements are to be regarded as they really are by perfect insight. This not mine, not this am I, herein is not the self of me. So regarding them, one is repelled by them and cleanses one's heart thereof." The elemental bonds of temporal personality are something to be purged. For although the mind develops and fructifys through a temporal process, traversed in compounded spatiality, it nevertheless eventually reaches a stage or sphere of experience, where to paraphrase Buddha:- "Ther is neither earth, water, fire, nor wind. Nor the formless states of the Arupa Brahmas (akasananca, etc).

A state of existence wherein neither this world nor any other, sun or moon may infiltrate its gross materiality. A state such as this, where nothing comes or goes in rebirth process, which neither loiters in shackles of temporality nor passes away there from to again arise. Unsupported by random casuality of process or base, no deleterious repercussion may impinge upon its specific field". There are still some who labour under the misconception that Nibbana is a state bordering on extinction an annihilation of all residues, Consciousness inclusives. They arrive at this view through inference, with the Buddha word itself as reference:-"Since in this very life Tathagata is not to be regarded as existing, is it proper to speak of him thus:- the Tathagata comes to be after death, he come not to be after death, he both comes to be and comes not to be after death, he neither comes to be nor comes not to be after death". Due to the fact that even in this very life the Dharmakaya of the Buddha remains unperceived, whether the aggregates of human personality are present or disintegrated at death makes no difference at all. The term "afterdeath" in this instance has no significance at all and does not apply. Hence it is said:- "A Tathagata is not to be proclaimed in other than these four ways." Nowhere is it ever said that the supramundane consciousness (Lokuttara citta) is in any way rendered extinct, or that an emancipated one is beyond feeling (Vedana), happiness (Somanassa) or equanimity (Upekkha). As it is said-"Even here and now, O Bikkhus, in this present body (not to speak of after death thereof) the essential emancipated consciousness which is the Tathagata's remains unplumbed. And although this is what I teach, there are those who accuse me

falsely of proclaiming a doctrine which is annihilationist. As of old, so now proclaim only this; suffering, and the cessation of suffering ". Annihilations (ucchedaditthi) and eternalism (sassata ditthi) are both condemned out of hand. Extremes are to be deplored. The middle path, avoiding both extremes, is just the great fact of process. Where in cause and effect follow one another, begetting more causes and defects, and infinitum". The world, Kaccayana, is for the most part attached to two extremesEverything exists, that Kaccayana, is one extreme. Everything does not exist, that kaccayana, is the other extreme. Transcending these extremes, kaccayana, the Tathagata expounds dhamma by way of causes". Now, in so far as the attainment of Nibbana is concerned, what is rendered extinct is : (1) the mundane froms subject to decay (Upadana rupa), (2) the mundane feelings of attachments (Upadana vedana), (3) the mundane aggregate of grasping tendencies (Upadana Sankhara), (4) the mundane grasping consciousness (Upadana Vinnana).

The five aggregates of grasping personality (Pancupadanakkhandha) are rendered extinct before entry into final Nibbana. Perception and feeling as pertaining to the human residues is extinguished by Jhanic process(Sannavedayita nirodha). Having extinguished the human residues by this method, only the perception and feeling pertaining to the Dhammakaya remains. It is to be understood that the mundane consciousness is extinct and that which activates henceforth is the supramundane emancipated mind.

This will be better understood in the light of there being higher levels of consciousness than the mere mundane, which may be instigated by the adept at will, and that the lower levels of mundane contact become a hindrance once the highest level is in function, and are therefore put aside. The fivefold mundane aggragates is rendered extinct because it is this which imposes suffering, and since the goal is the cessation of suffering, it is rendered extinct. This however, in no way implies that the perfections of experience (paramis) accumulated through many an aeon also become extinct, because if they become extinct then it would render nonsense of the whole process, for it would be a process which renders its own fulfilment extinct. A contradiction in terms. The extinction of the fivefold mundane base is so often confused with complete oblivion because it is not understood that nature (dhamma) contains the possibility of an infinite refinement in its life process. The fivefold base of form, feeling perception, impressions and consciousness may be processed by integral involuted technique until it culminate in the highest refinement. Thus the Dhammakaya itself is possessed of form, feeling, perception, impressions and consciousness (dhammakkhandha), but they are so refined that they are devoid of connection with their original base. It is this Dhammakaya which attains release, and only this. What is this dhammakaya? It is a group or collection of essences. Form is a khandha, so is morality (silakkhandha),

concentration (samadhakkhandha) and wisdom (pannaddhandha). Anything which represents a collection or group is termed thus.

Thus the dhammakkhandha implied here is that collection of purified essencess which make the supramundane personality. What it is ? The Dhammakaya differs from the concept of an antecedent changeless and eternal soul in that it is not something given and readymade. It is something which through a strenous process of integral discipline, is finally built. And how is it built? By the accumulation of experience, for one thing and by the introverted technique of concentration, supported by morality, and wisdom, result in release. Established at diaphnagmpit, experience is smelted and pounded out of what it is not, processed in essence, to finally issue out in pristine state, as signified by the Dhammakaya. Because this Dhammakaya is a "release" (Vimutti) form it is not correct to say that it exist or does not exist. The central core of the idea does not signify annihilation of the life process as such, but develops and cultivates it to the most refined degress.

Suffering is reduced to zero, leaving only the perfections to stand. How abstract and yet concrete dhamma is, cannot be too often stressed. For although it arises through environmental contact, traversed in spatio-temporality, it is nevertheless transcendental in potentiality, ideal, pure, mind stuff. Although the supramundane consciousness is something which is developed and abstracted from the mundane as base, it finally outlives it, leaving it behind. As it is said :-"Man's eye, ear, nose, tongue,form,and mind,'O' Bhikkus, are as an ocean. Their motion is made up of shapes, of sounds, of smells, of tastes, of sensations, of ideas. He who conquers these, stands upon the other shore ... One who has reached the other shore 'O' Bhikkus, think thus : This raft has been of great use to me, resting on it have I crossed to the further shore. Suppose now I haul it up or sink it in the deep and go my ways! By so doing 'O' Bhikkhus, that man would have finished with the raft." It is implicit, therefore, that there is someone who finishes with the raft. The emancipated mind habitually dwells in either of two supports (arammana), happiness (Somanassa) and equanimity (upekkha). They are not considered as defilements (kilesa) because they do not grasp. It is grasping which defiles, and its impulsions are the motivating force which determine the arising of mundane form and the other aggregates.

Due to this, this factors of grasping is the very quality which is absent in the emancipated mind. Happiness, however, remains and release is classed as the greatest bliss (nibbanam paramamsukham). If Nibbana is the greatest bliss, then there must be some experiencing subject to appreciate the bliss, otherwise it render nonsense of the whole concept. Besides happiness and equanimity, the emancipated mind absorbs itself in another state of Cessation and attainment (nirodha samapatti) whensoever it wills. This cessation is not to be confused with unconsciousness in the normally accepted sense of the word. It is impossible for the layman to accomplish this cessation and attainment, because it belongs to the domain of only the emancipated mind. The mind of the Layman is never under control in the emancipated sense. The emancipated one, however, accomplishes cessation and attainment by an act of will by sinking consciousness down into the Dhammakaya and by stopping activity at the depths. It does not imply that the life flow or continum is rendered extinct, but merely that it sunk into substrate ineffectuality. When the emancipated mind is in nirodha samapatti of the Dhammakaya, it also covers and envolopes the life processes in the physical form. That is why fire or any other calamity is ineffectual against the body of the emancipated one so long as he is in cessation and attainment. The Psychic potential of the Dhammakaya encompasses (unseen) the body, rendering it impervious to externality. An unconscious human cannot control even his limbs, where as the emancipated one in cessation and attainment can in his elemental equilibrium. This cessation and attainment of the emancipated ones differs again from the jhana of unconsciousness as practiced by a species of Brahmas (asannastta). When such Yogis or Brahmas accomplish cessation it is only a mundane effort, and it is only the Brahma form which covers the physical from. It in no way destroys rebirth or the defilements, something which the emancipated one has already cut off at the root.

Nirodha samapatti, as its name implies, is a cessation and attainment and must be distinguished from the subject who accomplishes it as pleased. And this applies for all the other attainment of formlessness, the experiences of the infinity of space, of consciousness, of Voidness, and of a state which is neither perception nor-perception. They are experiences involving a distinct subject who volitionally instigates the states to immediacy of attainment whensoever he will. Indeed, the margin of distinction between subject (the percipient) and object (the experience of formlessness; etc) is not something involving space-time measurement. Neverthless, it is for clarity of defination that a margin between experiencer and experience is differentiated.

Thus the term Arupa Brahma may lead one to suppose that the deities who go by the name possess no form, when in reality what is implied is merely that possessing form that these deities absorb themselves in formless states of mind. Also that these so called formless states are not so formless as to be vague, but have a centre of one pointedness, which serves as an orientation base. Namely, the subject himself. This centre is basic, because if no centralization exists then equilibrium will immediately disappears. From this center the radius of experience (whether of the infinity of space,etc) is expanded out. The centre as dinstinct from the radius always remains otherwise Jhanic state would collapse and is no longer jhana but mere random and stupefied life flow (bhavanga), under no unified control. Sensorial aggregates and tendencies (sankharas) may then arise in the subject, and all manner of dreams may result. This is so because the lifeflow is not completely pure, and when the mind sinks into subconscious aspect these unpurged aggregates may come into play.

When it comes to Nibbana and those beings who have attained to it, the case is different. It is different because those beings have extinguished the aggregates of defilement, and therefore no delusive or deceptive dreams arise whensoever consciousness sinks into the subconscious aspect of bhavanga. Bhavanga, in the case of the completely emancipated one, flows on like a pure unadulterated stream. This in no way implies that these beings too are formless. Their is the form of the Dhammakaya, and it does not decay because it is made up of pure Nibbanic element. But transmuted from the mundane (Lokiya), Arupa Brahma form as base, become a supramundane (Lokuttara) form by virtue of process. Now when an emancipated one still inhabits a physical form in the sensual world, the mundane aggregates of personality are still in service, whereby contact with the world is made. It is because these mundane aggregates are not completely extinguished they are regarded something to be rendered extinct before final entry into Nibbana, as uses have been outworn. But when these residues are rendered extinct, it in no way implies that the emancipated one ceases to be conscious and no longer exists. It connot be too often repeated that, as in the case of the unconscious deities (asanna satta) of the Brahma plane, the cessation and attainment known as nirodha samapatti in no way implies extinction of selfhood, but merely the cessation of thought and feeling for temporary predetermined periods, after which thought and feeling would eventually returned to (supramundane) their normal forms. Since an emancipated one, while still in physical form accomplishes nirodhasamapatti at will, it is of no consequence whether he inhabits a physical form or not in sofar as Nibbana is concerned.

To distinguish them, however, an emancipated one, while still in physical form, is said to be in Nibbana with residue (saupadisesa Nibbana). Without residue it is termed Anupadisesa Nibbana. The Dhammakaya of the emancipated one is perpetually in Nibbana, and the Jhanic states it accomplishes from time to time are only a functional exercise. In Samma Samadhi, it was said that Nibbana is a sphere of establishment endowed with a specific size, abounding edge, and occupying a certain place. And that this (Ayatana) Nibbana is inhabited by Dhammakaya forms. It may be questioned why a sphered establishments, endowed with a specific size and a bounding edge, occupying a certain place.

It is a sphere because its specific field of influence is self contained and has a limit. It is an establishment because all things once manifested are to be established somewhere and not just float about without an orientation centre. It possesses specific size because it has extension and depth in proportion to the extent of Parami of the beings who inhabit it, and which is measured not by Yard-stick but by nana, the way by which all things are measured in Jhana. It has a bounding edge because internality of each Nibbana is distinct from externality, although the edge itself possesses no physicality but is lucent, and is not an obstacle to visibility or contact because of it being uncompounded and pristine.

It occupies a certain place because it is only amorphous abstractions without foundation in manifested fact which can be said to occupy-save in the mind which conceives them no place. It is to be understood that an Ayatana Nibbana is not somethings already given but something to be established. The Buddhas and their disciples who inhabit an Ayatana Nibbana inhabit an establishment which is the product of their collective essence. It does not exist ready made as something for a prospective Buddha to inhabit. He has to establish it for himself. Namely by the collective achievement of parami, by the magnitude of the aeonic travail, by the actuality of accomplishment which is Buddhahood itself. Without this accomplishment, Nibbana would be mere pure space, with no one to experience its purity. That is why although Nibbana is already existent as pure space, it is meaningless without beings to inhabit it. That is why it is to be specified that a 'separate' Ayatana Nibbana comes to be because a Buddha comes to be, and not otherwise. Nor does one Buddha inhabit another Buddha's domain. As such, no readymade Nibbanas strewn about in space exist awaiting prospective Buddhas. And it is said that each Buddha's Nibbana is not standard as to size, because each varies in proportion to the extent of his field of Parami. The varying degrees of effulgence pertaining to these Nibbanic beings are the external symbol of the extent of their accumulated Parami or accomplishment which some have more and others have less.

An Ayatana Nibbana, therefore, is to be understood as the end-result of an aeonic effort. Effort instigated in this temporal world would result in the acumulated potential of a transcendent sphere (ayatana) of release. The Buddha characterizes Nibbana as that 'which is unborn, unmade, uncompounded, and unbecome' in that it is the attainment of a primal purity which is essential in its universality. And that this primal purity is something which is to be fashioned into a specific field of consciousness as a status to be achieved through an aeonic effort traversed in temporal fact, being the only method by which it may be so realized. A process of gravitating the perfections of experience through the medium of the sense-door would lead to the unification of personality. Which is how the dhamma becomes personified. Nibbana, therefore, is unborn, unmade, uncompounded, unbecome in the aspect of pure spatiality which always existed to be realized. But it is realized at all only because of a conscious entity which does the realizing. Namely, the Dhammakava consciousness. when such an entity presents itself to realize this primal purity, then what was implicit as a potentiality to be experienced becomes explicit. A specific field of personality would be absorbed in a state of pure mentality. It is apparent that there are two aspects of Nibbana as

psychological and as spatial aspects. At one time the psychological aspect is presented to the fore:- "The cessation of the defilements (asavas) is Nibbana". And at other time, as spatial aspect it says:- "There is, 'O' Bhikkhus, a sphere (ayatana) where there is neither earth, etc".

It has already been cited that the only way to the attainment of this uncompounded spatiality and sphere of establishment is through an integral process and technique, which delimits random phenomenal form encroaching into the individual field of apprehension. That this involves not only a physical but a psychical penetration of residues, and a purging thereof first of all through a moral (sila) sphere of experience which delimits impurity from encroaching into its bounds. That this purity is not sufficient in itself, but has to be channelled again into a concentrated (Samadhi) sphere of intensification. Which again is to be channelled into a sphere of intelligence (Panna) and thus achieve its release (Vimutti) as well as perceive its release (Vimutti nana dassana). This is the therapeutic value of the Noble Path as practiced by the Noble ones. The path so practiced is no dead formula but a living thing, a process of initiation and penetration into layers of becoming and the qualities of experience, a warding off of the superfluous and cultivating the potentials (indriva) latent in the organic psyche. The ultimate attainment of which is the last of the twenty-two potential faculties. Namely, the supramundane faculty (annataindrity) which sets the mind free. Some consider that the emancipated one is absorbed like a drop in the ocean of Nibbana, and therefore is formless, possessing no identity what soever. This view is widely prevalent because in the scriptures it is given that once the five aggregates of grasping personality have been cut off at the root, the mind would become free from the body, and would become 'profound, measureless, unfathomable, even like unto the great ocean'.

It is not taken into account that the emancipated mind can be profound like the great ocean but not the ocean itself as such, and that an analogy is an analogy, to aid the understanding but not to confuse it. If the emanicipated mind is absorbed into the ocean of Nibbana and loses its identity altogether, then it is only another name for extinction. This, however is a contradiction in terms, and renders nonsense of the whole process of psychic evolution, whereby a stream of life, starting from scratch, builds itself up aeon after aeon to culminate in the perfection of experience. Why all the build-up is only to end in an oean of nonentity? Truly, indeed, an 'emancipated one is to be proclaimed in other than these four ways'. Others, again, uphold that there is no such thing as 'temporary release', and that once emancipation of mind is attained there is no falling from that state. But this is in direct opposition to the texts which are never weary of repeating that all thing are impermanent, and therefore to be vigilant up to the end is of the essence. This is made clear enough in the case of Godhika who having attained temporary emancipation of mind for six times, but because of some ailment couldn't uphold it, thus fell there from. Just, as when a man is dying in such a state and the destiny is uncertain, he will then decided to cut his life short by his own volition, so as to attain Nibbana in full vigilance of mind which Godhika did and which was comfirmed by the Buddha in his discourse. This is only to illustrate that temporary release is not only possible but inevitable, so long as the physical body remains, and that there is no such thing as permanent release except once the physical body has been completely abandoned for good.

That is way we oberve Buddha going through all the gymnastic of Jhana before his final passing away, just to rid himself of the body for good, for that is the only way whereby in full presence of mind the supramundane consciousness is extricated from mundane residues. This is by no means championing suicide, because, for the ordinary unemancipated mind, suicide would unleashed undesirable results right up to the end in which death's door is the most crucial moment of all. Also it is generally understood that there is no death, and the consequent attaining of Nibbana, when in Jhana. This applies only to the Jhana of cessation and attainment (nirodha sa-ma patti), where in the mental impulsions and concomitants are temporarily extinguished, and when in such state death is an impossibility, because there is no life-continunm chain. But it is obvious from the parinibbana sutta that it is in Jhana that Buddha took off when in the fourth Jhana to be precise. The implication is that the attainment of Nibbana signifies direction and purpose, of mental impulses, and therefore those who uphold the Nibbana as tantamount to extinction of identity do not know what they are talking about. That the attainment of Nibbana is impossible without Jhana is too obvious to need further mention. It is to be gathered from this, that there are various levels of truth, and he who only strikes the surface level, which is truth but only the surface truth, thinks that is all there is to it, when as a matter of fact there is much more to delve below.

For as it has been said over and over again:- this dhamma is hard to understand, rare, excellent, beyond the sphere of logic, to be understood only by the wise. Verily, as has been said, the one who know merely the written word is like unto a man who keeps cows for hire. Whereas the one who practices and understands the path is as the owner himself, enjoying the five products of the cow. An emancipated one may be viewed as carrying his Nibbanic horizon with him wherever he goes (like a bird its wings) and cannot be separated thereform. And if in this temporal world he lives, then in this temporal world his Nibbana is. When, however, at the dissolution of the residues he departs beyond, then he departs taking his specific field of effulgent spatiality (like a bird to its wings) therewith. Due to this integrated centrality, the specific field of effulgent spatiality which is the emancipated one's is said to be beyond elemental reach:- "Where do earth, water, fire and air find their footings? It is like the state of consciousness (vinnanam) which is unseen, unbounded, accessible from every side". This is reminiscent of the Buddha who says, "without moving you shall know, without looking you shall see, without doing you shall achieve". For whensoever he wishes to apprehend a certain quarter from that quarter apprehension does arise. Thus wisdom itself is a kind of purge. To achieve such a purge, a special path (magga) of temporal intensification is a requisite means, so as to culminate into fruition (phala) in a specific field of release.

Therefore, in conclusion, the temporal world (lokiya dhamma) may be viewed as a manifestation of reality in fluctuation, in contrast to the Nibbanic state (Lokuttara dhamma) as a reality which endures. Buddhism is a living religion not only a living religion, but one that gives signs of a fresh vitality and (realia) impulse. The interest it arouses in the west is not merely scientific, but also spiritual. It appears that Buddhism has something to say in these troubled times when so many moral and religious values are collapsing.

• And, lastly, but not least, the Buddha said, "As of old, 'O' Bhikkhus, so now I proclaim only this-suffering and the ceasing of suffering ".

With Metta!!!

TIBETAN VERSION

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99 นา้งั่งๆญาติหาสิสารกาทกิหาผสามสณารๆาสุญานุธาลิสาวามาณารกา ๆกาญา २९्वार्यरे क्रिंग्वम्। २९८८ साधुवादयुषा वर्षटा रुपविवे करा वर्हे वक्षाय दे से นี้อ่างเอิ้มเพิ่งเยี่งเอิ่นไ ที่แนะเริ่ะใวญระบัญญหญิเป็นระบูบระบุ พิเพซพฟ พลามๆาวฐาราาซุลามนาวุราชินาพฮิรารา ซูาพิริษามีพา ૡ૽૽૱ૡૹ૾ૡૻૻૡ૽ૺૡઙ૱ૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૺઙૻ૱ૡૢૻૡ૽ૻૹૢૻૹૡૻૡૢૼૼૼૼૼઽૺ૱૾ૡૡૡ૱ૡ૽ૡૡ૾ૡૡ૱ ๅ੶ਗ਼੶ੑ੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ਗ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ੑਗ਼ੑ੶ੑੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ਗ਼ਗ਼ੑ੶੶ਗ਼ ঀ ঀড়য়৾৾য়৾৽য়৾ৼৼয়ৣৼ৾ঀ৾৽য়৾৾য়৾৾য়ঀ৾৾ঀ৾য়য়৾৾ঀ৾৾য়য়৾য়৾য়য়য়৾য়৾য়৾য়য়৾য়য়৾য় ารามควารที่าวาราวิจาริราพีรายๆ ริจารับมัรมรีสายระสูสามส์เลี้รารอา

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<u>ଞ୍</u>ଳ पदुंब के ब भें ज स स विव पर ह का स से द है।

ଞ୍ଚຽ 'યર 'ઠရ' છે 'ઘડ્ડ દ 'ઘે' વયેદ 'ઘ'રે સાયર 'વશુ 5 'વલે સુંથ) આપે દેંદ 'ઘુ દ ઘુ अ'र्ध्रेम'क्षे'वर्दन् च'र्डक्ष'व'यहेन। दे'दुक्ष'वरुक्ष'यशुक्ष'वर्षिर'यवित्र'यहिक'र्छ्रुव'व्य' <u></u>ᡜ`在゙゙゙ヸヸ゚゚ヺ`ਖ਼ੵੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੑ੶ਸ਼ੵ੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੵਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ ਸ਼੶ਞੵ੶Ŵ੶**ੑਸ਼**ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼ਜ਼ੑੑਗ਼ੵਖ਼ੵਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਫ਼ੑਖ਼ੵਗ਼ੵਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑ੶ਫ਼ੵ੶ਫ਼ੵ੶ਫ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ વૉર્સઽૺઌ૽૿ૺ૽૱ૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ખેષા નુહેષા યત્ર 'યસુદયા દે' કૃષા ખુવા છુ 'યક, હુંક ' ફે અથા યુ. વર્સુદ ' કુ શ 'વેદ ' ! ધર્મ ॳॱॺॖऻॺॱऀ॓ऒऀॸॱॼॊ॔ॸॴॱ ॴॱॸॸॱॸॖ॔ॸॴॎॱॾॖऀॱॺॖऻॺॱॴऀॺॖ॔ॺ॑ॱऄ॔ऀॸॱख़ऀॾऻॱड़ॆॺॱऀॻॖॱॶॎॖॸॱॼय़ऻ ਸ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼ੑਖ਼ੵਸ਼ੵੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੵਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ รุโตา มารุณสูตายมพาชรารูาณาชิมพาสิตา เมรานาร์ตั้งสุมาร์ที่เพิ่ง เป็นการ์ เป็น เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็น เป็นการ์ เป็น เป็น เป็นการ์ เป็น เป็น เป็น เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็น เป็น เป็นการ์ เป็นการ์ เป็น เป็น เป็น เปนนาร เปนการ เป็น เปนนการ์ เปนนา เปนนการ เป็น เป็น เปนนการ เปนก र्षे अते सुरु महिनया मृत्यमा हु स्था हो मान मु हिंद हु मुथा वया में यो थी थ **ઇ**'ન| હોસબાવર્દિયાસેવ'વવે'વાવસે'સું સેવ¦ હ્યુબાદેન સિંન સાસુર લિંદ 'ક્રે સા હ્યં યતે ય સંસંગ્ તે શહાર છુ. સુદ છિ સ વડા ય વડે વા બાદ કા યે વે સાથા સુધા શા ૬૩૨ સ્કર છે ૬ પૈબા ૬ શુક્ષ જ્ઞવાય છે ૬ પૈબા ૬ છે ૬ વણવા ૬ પૈલા

તેન્દ્રચા અજે વર્ષે ગ્રા દે દે સ્લેચ ગાંતેના કું એ એ અજ અ અન્ય બાળવા ગાં ગાંચા ગ ગાંચા ગાં

สาคมพาๆผูมาวดีราวราวศูมพาวามีๆพาวดีราววิวริพารมิๆพาวพมาสุพา ૹૢ૽ૢૼૼઌૻૻૻૻૻૻૢૢૼૼઌૻૻૡ૾ૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡ૽ૻઌૡૻ૾ૡૻૻૡૡૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾૾ૡૻ૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૾૽ૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ าลมานาวลีราสฤขมรานารูราฤสูรลา ฮิลามีราสิามนิวัติจานาสานีรารูลาสุมา นระพิรุๅ รุ ลิ เฉลิ เฉ หิ์ ๆ เข เนนน พ. เบ เรา สาย เน เรา พ. เบ เรา พ. โล้ราชุๆาณสามรารารูญา ชาพูญารราสิราตราวริาสมพาณาธิตุฬาวิโ ฮิลีพ ฏิเลศ สพาสิ ลิพาลธุศาทา หาลีราสิสามาชิทามิาฏิราหา สีพามสุล ฏิเลลลา છુ: છુ દ ન સા માં દેવા જ છે. આ પણ સા આ ঀঀঀয়৾৾৾ড়৾৸৾৾ৼ৾৽ঀ৾৽ঀ৾য়৾৾৾৽ৼ৾ঀ৾য়৾৾৾ৠ৾৾য়৾ঀয়৾৾৾৾ঢ়৾৾য়৾য়৾৾ঀ

ารที่สามสิ้ๆ เขากกา ยิราฐารมาสีมาขมามรายาลิๆ ระา สิรามาสาริง ซ๙ารุณซูฮิฤฟานาศุริศาฏณริสามาอูกา นิกพานณิสุกาษ์เพิ่งรูการูากุลุฤพ มามสสากรามสิญามาผู้สาติรา จริงจริงตุญารามราวังมรุรา มพาราวสิง コネ・ちゃぶ、ほう、ぎょ、いいかいとうの、は、この、しょう、しょう、しょう、 ลิ่าสุขุ ชุมายาระา จมเซพาษสายุวิวร์จิพาธาสมพามายิจพาจรายุกพา พย้า ๆคลาพรานี้ๆคิสามารา ราราวิๆพามีๆพาญรามกลามรานนา ગનિશ્વગૃીશ સુરુશ્વયાયે અરે માર્ગ્સ દેવ્યાયો દેવ્દેન્ડ ગોર્ગ્યુગશાયાન દેવ્દેશ્વયાવે છે. र्भामुनार्भुप्तेः इस्रायादे हर्म्रा भग्वे सामायरा कुर्मिन रयना मुग्भना निल्ला. म अहे भार में मार में मार मार कि मा कि में मार में मार मार में मार मार में मार मार में मार मार में में मार मार ารมาซิลาริสารสุลารสารเลิงสุมาสิจาลารา เสามาราที่รารีนิงเนูญาานานอา યર્ને મે.ર્સુટો બર્ફે ર.ર્સ્વરાય રે. સુરાય રે શે શાળા સુરાય સાથ છે. ๆนี้ๆาวับรูญ สี่งานรู้การารูญนายัฐาวชิย สี่งานว่ายารูญบารสิจามา สีวา เพาพยวงสการ์รับเวลิพพเก่นูเวลาสาย เริงเพาพวงส์พเกท

୫ୖ୕୴ୖଽ୕ଽ୕ୠୄ୶୩୶୴ଽ୕୵ୄ୲୕ୄ୲ୠ୕୴୶୶ଡ଼ୄୖଊ୴୶ୖଈ୶ଽ୶୶୶ଽ୵୶ଵୄୡ୕୴ଽ୵୵ୄ୲ୖ୲୴ ર્ચા દેલેનગ્રથાવરી સંગણથા અસાર્વવયાસેનગુરાયથા વ્યવિવર્તા શિવા ૱ૹ੶੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਫ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑ੶ਸ਼ੑਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼ ૬ૻ૬ૼ`ૅફૅઍઍ'ઌ૽૾ૢૺૼ૱ૡ૱ૡૢૢૢૺૺૹ૾૾ઌ૽ૢ૿ૺ૽ઌઽઌૹૢ૿ઌૣૢૢૢૢ૾ઌૢૢૢૢૢૢઌ૽૱૱૱૱ૡૢૢૢૢૺ૱ૢૺ૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૢૺ૱ૢ ଞ୍ଜି'ଦ୍ୟଟ'ଦାଁ ୬ ଅଟିମା ନିଂନ୍ଟ ନିଂକୃଦି'ଦ୍ୟୁଟ'ଦା ଶୁକ'ରି'ଦନ୍ତି କା 🏾 🗛 รูณนั้นิ में श भुं हे भा । भित्र भु में छे दु द अ र मार्थ या या में या । मिय द द या ଦୟମ୍ ଔ'ଦଶ୍ମୁନ୍ । ମୁଞ୍ଚି 'ନରି' ମକ୍ଷମ'ସ୍ଥି 'ଦନ୍ଧି 'ଶିକ୍ଷ 'ଶ୍ୱାଷ୍ଟର୍ୟା' ମୁକ୍ଷର' ସୁନ୍ଦି 'ଶ' ସୁକ୍ର IANIANIANIELE (12) เป็นการสารา (12) เป็นการสารา (12) เป็นการสารา (12) เป็นการสารา (12) เป็นการสารา (12) เป็นการ ปลาลัยา (มีราชุมพาน) (รางธารมัยวามัยาามาอองาฏธาวอัย) (มาชิราชีนคมพ ๛ฐณาฉุโคร เฉลิาๆที่ระ รู เคียาอรอาสุณ เอรีบบูล เธียานที่ผมผานใจ รู ผามิ ୢୖୠ୕ୖ୵ୖୄଽ୕ୄୠ୕୵ୄ୲୕ୗ୶୲ଊ୲ଡ଼ୄଽୄ୷୲୰୲ୡୄ୶୶୲୷ୄ୲୶୶ୠୄୡୄ୰୶ୠ୲୶ ᡪᢌ᠄ᢩᢡᡎᢂᢄ᠂ᢆᠣᢋᠮᠴᢆ᠆ᡎᢅᢤᡆᡃᠴᡱᢅᡄ᠋ᢩ᠋ᡰ᠋ᠴᡪᡨᢆᢪᡅ᠙ᢆᡃᢋᢂ᠙ᢋᢍᢌᢋ᠈ᠴᢌᡄᡪ ଦର୍ଯ୍ୟାଞ୍ଚ୍ୟାହିଁକ୍ ଅଂସଞ୍ଚମ କାଷ୍ଟ୍ରମାଞ୍ଚ୍ୟାଥିବାଂସ୍ଟିଷାର୍ଟ୍ରା ସମ୍ଭର୍ଯ୍ୟା ସମ୍ଭର୍ଯ୍ୟା ସମ୍ଭର୍ଯ୍ୟା ସମ୍ଭର୍ଯ୍ୟ ସମ୍ଭର ସମ୍ଭର୍ଯ୍ୟ ସମ୍ଭର୍ଯ୍ ୶ୄଔଽୖୄୄଈ୕ୄଽ୵ୗ୕୕ୗୖ୕୕୕୕ୗୖୄ୶୲୶୷୰ୠୄୖୠୄଊ୷ୄୄୄୖୄୄୠ୲୰ଽ୵ୗୗ୶୶୕୶ୢୄୡ୶ୢୠ୰ୠୢୄୠ

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สญ ฤษิสาสพาพิศพาณานิศพาริรารศิพาน พธิราส์โศพารศาสพาพิศพา ଶ୍ରି'ๅଈ'୰ଈ'ଦଶଐୖୣ୶୴ୖୖୄୖୠ୴ଅୖୖଈୖୖ୴ୖୖୄଈୢ୷ୖୄଌ୕୶ୄୖ୴ୄୖୢୄ୷ୠ୶ୡ୲ୖ୰ୠ୰୷ୠୖ୶

৾৾য়৾ঀ৾৾য়৽ঢ়ৢ৾৾ঢ়৾৾য়৾য়য়৾৾ৼ৾ঀৢ৾য়৾৾য়৾ ฺฐาฺพาฉ์ๅ๛๛๛๗ฺพาฺซุ๛ๅ ๔ๅ ซุๅ ซิ ๛ี ๛อฺ๚ ๅ๚๎ๅ๛

ચસ્રાઝ્ક બાદ ન પ્રેસ્ટ અને આ ગામ આ આ ગામ આ ગા આ ગામ આ ગ <u>ક્ષેન્રયાદે છે</u>ન પર્ક સુરાય છે. સુરાય સ ઌઽૡૢઽ૽ૡ૾ૺઽૻૣ૾૾૾૾ૹ૽ૺૡૢૻઽ૽ૡ૽૿ૺૻૹૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૢઽૻૻઌૻઌૻૡ૽૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻઌૹૻૻઌૻૡૻૹૻૹૻૡૹ มธิวมารีการีขางหายสาย รู้มีลาร์บินารรู้ราร์รียมเมืองรารีมีการได้ ୶ୡୖ୶ୄୖୄ୰ୠ୶ୡୄ୵୲ୖୣୠ୶୶୲ଈୖୖୢଌୠ୵୕୕୵୵ୢ୕ୖ୕୴୕ୖ୶୲୰୰୰ୖୠ୷୶ୖ୶୵ୠୄ୵ୣଵ୲୰୶୲ୄୖଢ଼୲୲ୖୣୠୠ୶ୖୄଽ୕ଽ୶୲ୡ୶୶୲ ละพ มธราทุราวสะาสมาฐณารูาที่มัณา รายารณ์ที่สิ่งเช่มาณา สามา วู नगवन्कुन न्वेन्सावनुष कें क्षुनर्हे हेवे खेनान क्रुंहें रायेगयनन् મુ અર્દે યન દેન્દ્ર પ્રસ્વેશયા દે દે જ છા સમયનન મુ અનુન ખેન પ્રતેવન <u></u>ୡୡ୳ୄୖୄ୷ୄୗ୶୲ୡୖଵଽୄୖୢୠୡ୲ୖଌ୩୲୩୕୵ୄଽୄୠ୵ୡ୲୩୕୵୲୵ଌ୕ଌ୶ୡ୲୩ୖୄ୶ୖ୵୷୲୵୲ୖଵ୵ୡ୲ୄୖୡୣ୰୲୷୲

हेंगल। हुर द्वस भेंटल हेंगल। सें घर झेंर। वगव वहुर जलत य धर युद्र <u>दि</u>त् पार्शुक्ष च्च प्य दु पांकिक्ष प्य र पालि प्य प्य दे पा के पाल प्र हि था <u>वकु</u>त घदे जनिमना अद्रुषा घर्येत 'यहु जनिषा प्वटा प्यहुत 'मनिषा' ग्रि प्रदि ' यक्षेष्ठायहेंर्वात्रवर्षा दुराञ्चयाचुगश्ची क्षेटाँग वगायायकुरायदेजानेगला वर्तुभाय। देवायहेंबासकेंगासुयांयेकायां सुबाचायुतातु। यहांग्लीतायवे सेंभा छक्र'ये'न्नूत फट' समय' नुय' हिंर'सेसंश| क्षेत मिषा' हेंपांश'छेक् सावत'वर्त्ते' . 19 19 र्ये झ'षार्थुक्षा क्रुंत पहुं यदु क' था केंग्वि भा युक्ष या न टेंट्रि र खु था तु मिया हिं मुक्ष स्व र्के अन्द्रित अन्तरां में के के राजने पित्र के में के के के कि जाता के कि के कि के कि के कि के के के के के के क र्द्धअर्भ्नेर सेंजवाया विषाय स्थारि स्वर्धि स्वर्ट सिंह से हिंग विषार्य भ्रित य। घुणभाळेक भट घेण गुक दर्षा दर्मेट भाव हु भा कु दिया वया न वया मुख र्हेनाथ। दर्मित्सावरुष। अर्हेंदावरुत। क्षेत्र विनाभायविषामुष्टित्वामुखादवत **盘ҁ**ॱ₦ॱ**ऄॱ**འॖॖॖ॔ज़ॖॱय़ॺॺॱड़ॺऻॖॖॖक़ॖऻॖॸॱय़ॕऻऀढ़ॱॶऀऀऀऀॵख़ॱक़ॖॏॾॱॸ॔ॾॵख़ॱॼॖऀॼॱऀॾऀॼॱ वर्षेतृ नुस्रक्षा नृत्रदा युर्धि यो दुर पु यठर नृषा व्व सामद मिना वय से मद तेम वयर्रेका के विंत्तित्वीत्रकाया रत्तां क्षेत्र यां मो राष्ट्री आता खुम हिम छि क्षेर नेमा गुयर्वियक्ष येंट दे हिये यत्र विद्या दिर्माटक व कि जि हो दिवट ผดินัชชีรุระรูๅ ๆส.ลิเจยูระรุยธ.ติษูณนี้ดิเดุฉพรูธารูๅ สร้ารุยธารุรา अव्रिक् अर्हित यद्वि। ध्रमार्हत्र डेमाथायागुरु पदुष्य। ह्वा क्वांत्र सुकु अर्छे। माकृत યવે હિંષા ભ્રેન રિવાવદેવ અર્ઠેવા સુવા કુશ છુ વા છે કુલ દે દિ વલેલ કુવા.કુ\\\\ કુવા.કુ\\\\ કુવા.કુ\\\ કુવા. ક્રચ. કુવા. કુવા. ક્રચ. કુવા. ક્રચ. ક્ર. ક્ર. ક્ર. ક્ર.

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รู บร มิร ซิล มีรา มรีราวรูล มิร ยิๆ พาลิ มักมายิว ยางพา พะพ.ฺษิพ.ฺฏิ.สี่๗.๚๊.ะ๗.เปนะ.ฉฮึ่ป.มี.บละ.ภู.๗๗ ปฏะพ.ก.ละพ.ย๗ ๆระนวิเลอาซิลาลีราทุผลา มนราวาริทาวริสาวสลาลีรรมราวราวิเงผา ઘ૮ ર્ફ્રેન્ટ શ્વ સુવ અંદ સવા વર્તુ રા છે સુવ સુવ સુવ મેં દેવ તા બાળ તા કે તે છે. સુવ સુવ સુવ સુવ સુવ સુવ સુવ સ ୩ୡ୷୶୶୵ଢ଼୶୷ଽ୶୷୶ୖଢ଼୶୵ଽ୷୶୲ଌ୶୲ୢୖ୶୷୷ଡ଼୶୲ ठेगाणमा के झुन हे हे येत न में नमा मामना झमा में सुवा मुर्हे र मु कुम परे लगमा ॻॕॱॺऻॖॸॖॖ॔ॸॱक़ॖॖॖऺॸॱॸऀक़ॱख़ॱॹऒॻॕक़ॴॻक़ॖॖॖॸॱॻय़॓ॱक़ॕॴऄॣॸॱऒॱॶऺऒऄ॔ॻऻॾऻॱऄॗ॔ॱऄॕऒ রিদেশবিশাদিস কর্মা এই রিদেশ। এই রিদেশ। এলমা কর্ম রিদেশ। স্ফু ิ่ฏ่ราย พิ.ซิจ.มีราย พร้าธีปลงมีราย มีส.ซีร.มีราย รี.พร.ซิจ.รู้ ट्रे.ग्रेन्.ग्रुंब्रन्गयाश्वरत्यनगर्भरा गुरुष्ययुर्वे सुग्रान्वरः น์ มีว.ฮุว.ฮุร.ส.มีว.ปส์ชา กรี.สพ.เวฮิก จิ.ษ.เป็น ยู.ซะเม केशी चात्तार्जन्तु मेशी रेट.क्र.प्याता बहेर.क्रुंथ.यात्तार्क्रक्रेग्राज्जरी ये.र.

त प्र यगादायुक्ष। अर्द्धुदक्षफोर ग्रुषायां में हिते यगादायुक्ष। क्षे खक्ष प्रहा नगुर यिते हेंष्, मुपाज्रषाप्ट्रवासुस्कार्हेत्ययोस्यावरायुका म्रामावरादेवर्यसेवे यागव 剐षव`ॾॖॕॖॖॖ॔ॖॖॖ॔ॖॖड़ॾॾॱऀॻऀऀॺ॓ॱॻॵॺॱख़ड़ॖॖॴ<u>ॖ</u>ॾॱऀॱख़ऀऀक़ॵऄॖऀऀऀॴक़ॱॾॎऀॱ अर्घेत् 'घ'दित'ष्ट्रेत 'घु'यगांव'ल्युस। ≧'र्सेंब''<u>ण</u>्रेनां थां सिंदे'यां वि' हे'से' र्ये छ। भ्रींट खेब अब टवा क्षेट विवा क्षेंत्र चति। वदे खेब ग्रींट या विवा ये ग्रींट या गबित ਘट 'रेमा'वहेंत्र'छेत्र' 'ग्रे' वियानीरा दिमा'वहेंत्र 'र्मेत' 'हेस'ठत। र्छि आ ¤**હુ**'म¢ૈא| અ`ને`ॅॅंग्न'**સુ**अ'&ु| વ**નુ**વ'च'યુ**⊏'**ફે'¤લે| નૅર્મેક'¤**કે'**म%'ર્યેં**ડ**'કુम कुु५'व्युअ'र्य५'वर्षु'वर्तुष'र्सेंगुभ'गृषत्र| गृसर'थुगृभ'थ। त्र'र्से'यह`छेत्र'हेस' <u></u>व्व≺ि अरू'र्येते'नग|व'दवुक्ष| क्रे'वदे'क्रेक्ष'वर क्षणुर 'दवुक्ष| रूक्ष'कुर 'यग|त' दवुस्र। दृषाक्ष'र्येवे'चगाव'वदुस्र। क्षटक्ष'मुक्ष'र्दास्त्र। वेंग्'र्नक्ष'ग्रु'चगाव'वदुस्र। **५**धथाखषाभ्युवे घगवरवद्युषा भ्रि**ट** र कायवे घगवर वद्युषा क्रु र कायवे यगाव **७७**'रे '६७'हे से साचर। कुथ'घ'पट' अर्मे|५'धेरे'यगीव'वदुक। हे'ववत'र 'घते' यगाव'वतुका É'र्वे'हेवे'यगाव'ग**ुरका'ग्लेगक'ये**का'र्ये'हेंका तु' णुट 'दर्मिटर्षा'मुठेम' 'दे'र्सेक्ष'क्र्रेन 'मुखुर्घा हे'देव'छेव'खुर्वासेग्री'हुर्घ'घट। घट' ध'देव`र्ये'कें'यत्र'नेबा'न्यु'यनाव'व्युह्य| क्रु'हूँब'र्केब'ग्रे'यत्रद्रयाव'व्युह्य| य्तुक। केॅिरॉटर्यगवरत्तुक। अषथायुवार्छे'मुवर्वरेक्षियवे'क्षेयांवरी हेंगेषा≌्व गांक'ध'दुष'मांशुक'कटिंब'घवे'घगेव'वदुष। गाँक'घ'घनी केंदे'घगोव'वदुष। गुर्ब મુવારે કૉ હે કો ગ્રી દ પા શુ સું હે હા દ્વારા ગ્રી દ હે કો ગ્રી વ સુકા વર્સ ચે દ व्युका वि'रूष'र्स्नेअ'कुट'। क्वैंज'य'व्हेष'हेब''लेखुरा'अपेंबि'ख़ी' हे स' खर।

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दयुव'ग्रे'घगव'द्युआ दर्र्त्र,रू'क'रू'स्'ये' 'स्याभ' खुर'र्म्वेच। मालुरु'र्धर'गश्वर' ષ્ટ્રવાષાવાય કેંદ્ર વો સૂવ ઘવષ વેક ૬ અદ વ વાષકા દેવાષ રે અ છુ કુ અ ગ્રુદ્ર જ รุนะ รูเยลานรุก ยิส.สินพารุก นนิณา สุล สูร ขิรุณา รูลพาน **म**ดिषायषाप्तरार्या यष्ठेावर्षेषावतांग्री सर्वस्रक्षां ह्येत्रां वार्रे स्वि हुम ૡ૽ૼૺૻૺૼૼૺૼૺૺ૽ઌૺઌૡૻૡૢ૿ઌૻૻૡૢઌૢૡૢૡૢઌૺૡૢ૾ઌૺૡૢ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૺઌૻૡૻૺૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૢૡૢૡૢૡૢૡૢૡૢૡૡૡ य। यरे अर्केण' ग्रें ईंर। जलट प्दुल। घुट य त्वा दवट ख़ेले दिंत चुय ग्रे विय्या⊊्रा, गभित`हेर्मिन्छुरुपा'र्ह्यूराभियाधिय। व्वांधान्रुपारायाद्रा, व्व त्रमेथ।
र्येंक क्रैंघ ने व क्रिया व किर्णे क्रैंग क्षे मिना गुरु के का रवत 'व शा यगातय्वेत्। घ्राक्षान्तेषांकेष्ठिषांचेषायषा वर्तुतंक्षेयुक्षायाद्रेक्षार्केषार्के। देासुर २े जबा घट पुर्वे बायते र्देत्। कुर्येंद ग्री सामका चुन द्र र्धेंद के यें हे सब ग्री Ҿ्रतेॱचฑqः वदुआ हुत्र'य`र्केअ'य≡तरिं,'अवे''चฑqः'वदुआ ह्यु'अरुति'कुय'क्षुत्र ક્રંઘ પવે 'સે અપ્ય∣ શુત્ર સેંદ '૬ દ શુત્ર 'સે તું 'સે 'સે 'સે 'સે 'સે ' સું દ ' દ ' વ સે વ બ પ્ય પ્ય પ્ય પ્ય પ્ **અ** સ્થ છે કે ગ બા વા સે વા સુધ વા પા બ સુધ સે બા બા સે સુધ મે સુધ વા સુધ પ્ ५४.१ भरः भुवान्वरः न्यमायस्वान्वरः न्यतः ख्वसः दुरः न्यतः मेरे स्वितः खेत ਜ਼ ਅ ਧ ਨੂ 'ਖ਼ ਗ 'ਧ ਨਿ ' ਸ ਨ ' ਸ ਨੂ ਕ ' ਸ ਨੇ ਕ

in ଧଂଧୠୠ୳ଧୖୠୄ୵ୠ୳ୠଋ୳୕ୠୄୗୄୄୄୄୄୢୄୢୄୄ୶୵୕୕ଽଋ୳୕୵ୄୖ୲ୄୖୄଽଽୄୄୄୄୄୄଽୠୄଌୄ୷୰ଽୄୢୄୠୄୖୄୢ୵ୠୄୖୄ୕୶ୄୗୄ୶ યથસ'ને। ઘદુદ'કે 'કુંદ લે। રહ્ય દ્વાં ઉંત્ર 'સ્વા કુંલુ કેં વ સેવૃત્ર વહુદ येन यायहेन। इ.स.दूमाशांग्री से विदादे राखेदाहे साथा याये हु था छ। ਨੇ**ך 'ਗ੍ਰੈ'ਬ** - ਪਧੇ' ਪਲਾ ਵਿੱਚ 'ਛੇ ਜ 'ਪੋਂ' ਜੂ ਘ'ਧ 'ਗੂ ' ਗ੍ਰੈ' ਬ੍ਰੈ' ਗ ਤੁ ਸ ਕਾ ' ਵੇ 'ਧ **ਲੁੱ ਜ 'ਹ ਕੇਂ** ' ਸ ਕੇ ਕ ਕਾ અઢૈવે ભ્રુ.હુદ છે સ્વ૬ '૬ 'ગવ એ૬' સુદ ' દે 'દુ ધ અ ને સે જ્ઞુદ 'ગૃં લે શ' દેવથા અ **ҕ**ᡆᡄ`र्ये'ҭݗॖॺॖॖऻॹॸॾॏॾॾॾॾॎऀख़ॺॾख़ऀख़ॺॖॾख़ऻॾॾॾॾऻॾॾॾॾॾ **६'**झच्चचचुख्रदांचीजन्दितेषुदुचलुनांश देविंगचुख्यार्थेच्रद्रत्विं विंत्राह्वदानुह्रा निंगद्रिद्यया यर्हें'च'र्भ्रेंज'यक्ष'यबट'येंवे'सर्स्रक्षा 'र्म्रेज'न्द्र 'त्रे 'तेष''यह्मदी ' ह्रु'दुक्ष'हेरुक्ष' <u> </u>कु.च'र्मेत्र| क्षेम'स'क्षेक्ष'स'क्षुं'यतृत्र| दहेम'हेब'ख'ङ्गे*द'*संसेन'यत्र 'दोक'म]क्ष **५८ 'रे 'र्वि५ इ**स्रां' सुव य' वि न 'य' वव ' योर्व।

in) विर र्धेनाक्ष केन तु स्कूव य न्दर वर्षे रिंत कहंदा अर खुद केव व्यम व स्न को दिल. युष्ट' विसः क्षेप्ट विषाद्यवदा वानिरण्याकार सेंदिका हिंगिका विदिका **द**र्द्र अर्येन प्वसु या क्रिंत विषाय प्यति सेगि वा सर्वे जी के मिया स्व हो के मिया के वि यन् खुष्प मु'दुते खुपायन् क्षेष देता हा खब्दा क्रिंत् वहा रहे किंग् वहा हुई. इ यते क्लिन यहा दे यतिन प्राय सुषाय भटा र्से महाय हु। युह्य महित्र छा यह सिंगुह्य ধ্ৰথা দাৰ্দ্ব অন দান অনুদ্বদাম ম'ৰ্ধ্ৰদাম ঘ্ৰমম ডন 'দ্ৰ'ন বিন উঁৰ্ম'শ্ৰী খ্ৰু ৰ ম' অন্ত লা णवित्र भट प्यक्षेत्र प्यमितविष्ठा भूना पुरदेशेमारा प्रविसद्दि पायन्नुदर्शा सुंयावे। र्हेस ध्रिर यक्षेष पर्योपे विष्ठा फेंगी अण्येष या दगुर खेछेर जठिंग वृष्ठ यहुर छे ग्रिंट खुव ෬**ॖॖॖॖक़ॱ**ॾॖ॓ॱॺॕऀऀऀऀग़ॺॵऀॱड़ॆॖक़ॱय़ॾॆॖऀॷॴॴॖॖॖॏॾॖॏॖॵॴॖॾॾॵक़॔ऀग़ऀऀॵख़ॱॵॻऀऀऀऀ रतुषाञ्चत स्थूय चंत्र यति। वतुषाय अर्रे पत्र देव से ही कुर यहु यतु भु पित्र य'नाकृत्र'। यु.खु.या ई.चुना र्रेजियंद्रिंदित्देविके चिनान्द्रयय के शु.ख़ित्र।

ๆ४८.३८.४.भेगसुग द्वर् हेटला छे जया रेजाय हमया हु। क्रुम क्रुम द्वरा रेजा สูอา จริงนางงูมารูเชมารกา รูปักงาวรูงารอกาญกาลรารการงงาน न्यायार्केकाग्रीयविंत्रायांकाकन्यानुकानुग्वम्यात्रकार्यात्राक्रम्या वानकारुकाः สมพาชาซิฤาร์สาวละนี้บูะๆ รุนุญาพมาพพาซูรูญาซมเดิญๆพัง ॸॾॖॖॣॆऀग़ॺॱॺॺॱॸ॓ॱढ़ऀग़ॱय़ॖॖऀॸॱऄॸॺऻ

สสมพารุณาขาวอณานรารศึกมาสมพรานี่อองๆ ร่างสมาร์ราสาๆผู้สานราวศณา ୖୄ୶ୖ୴ୢୡ୶୲ଌୄ୷ୡୄ୴ୄୡୄ୲ୡ୶ଌୖ୶୶ୖୄ୶ୄଌୄ୷ୢୖୄ୷ୄୠୄୄ୷ୄୖୠୄୄୄ୵ୄୠୄୖୄ୷ୄ୷ୄୄୖ୶ୄ୷ୄୄ ୕୶୶୕୵୵୰୶୶ୖ୶୶ୄୖୄ୷ୄ୵ୄୢୗୄୖୖୄ୷୷ୄୢୖଽ୶ୄଌୖ୶ୖୄଌୠୖୄୖ୷ଡ଼ୖ୶ୄୖ୵୲ୠ୶୶ୄ୵୶୶୵ୠ୶୳ୄୄ୵ୄ୰୶ୄଵ୶ র্বনমান্টাধ্বর ন্রেরা নে ব্রায়ান আন দ্রা আছা ন আমার মালী মার্দ্রা ক্রিয়া ব্যায়া বিশ্ব নার্দ্র বিশ্ব নার্দ্র প ยังชิ้ฉิจาจารอง อีราราชานาริเมิร์ชางารีรองการอาร์สาราราชาย ୳ୖ୕ୖ୳୶ୄୢୖ୰୶ୄୄଽୄୢୄୖୄୖ୶୰ୄ୷ୄୖୄ୰ୄୖୄୖ୷୰ୄ୷ୄୖ୰୷ୖ୶୰୷୰୷୷ୠୄ୰୷ଡ଼ୄ୵ୄୠୄ୶ୡୄ୲୵ୄୠୣୄୄ୰ୡ୲୶୶୲୶୶ ୳ଵୄ୩ୄୄ୶୳ୄୢ୶୵ୡ୲ୄ୲୴ୡ୶୲ଌୖୄୄ୶ୄୖୄୄ୰ୖୄଌ୕୩ୄୄୄ୶୶୶ୡୄ୷ୄୢୡୣ୰୲ୖ୳ୖୄ୵ୠୄ୵୵ୄୣଽ୷ୄୖଽ୶ୄୣୄ୶୲୵ୡୄଽୖ୶ୡ 20

 \hat{g} \hat{g}

ๆยู่เรลากิ ริส.ซิส.มีรานวิ.ประเอราสม รายามีสาวรัฐ ત્રલે પાયક વર્ષકે વાં કે 'રે 'રે વાય' મુવા મેં એક્રે 'ગલે તે કે ક્રે રે કે વય રે વા પે અ ગામ અ. ૡેૹઽઽ૾૱૽૽ૡૹ૱ઌૡૢઽ૾ૡ૽ૺૹઽૡૹૢ૱ઽ૱૾ઌ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ มळव उव गन्त लुर्ग हेनाय स्व स्रथायवर्ग्तव राषुय राषा होत. ૱ૡૻૻૡૹૻૻૡૹૻૻૡૹૻૡૹૻૡૹૻૡૹૻૡૹૻૡ૾ૡૡૻઌૹૻૡૻઌૡૻૡૡૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡૡૻૡ અદવર્ડવદ્દાવસું ર.વવે રેંજ ગો મુવ્ય પેં જે મુખ્ય પ્રાપ્ત કુર્ય પા ગાય છે જ છે છે. તે જ જ જ જ જ જ જ જ જ જ જ જ જ ๛๚ุณ๛๚๎๚๛ๅ ๛๛๛ๅ๚๛๚๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๚๛๛๚๛๛๚๛๛๚๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๚

อู่ เ- าสูาส์สิญหนึ่งสูาร์ นี้จามควรัฐา พายานวิรัฐกางว่า รมเจา กรุฐา વવે રેકે શંગુ મુવાયેં માસ્ય વસું તે રેકે તે પે શાં વસ્ય સામ સામ સામ સામ વ્યવસાય સામ સામ વ્યવસાય સામ સામ સામ સામ ૱ૢૢઽ૾ૻૢૢૢૢઽૺૻૢૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૺૻૡૻૹૺૡૢૻૡૢૼઽૻ૾ૼૡૢઽૡૡૡૡૢૡૻૹ૱ૢૻ૱ૡ૾ૢૡૻૹ૽૾૱ૼૡ૽૾ૡ क़ॖॖॖऺॖॖॵॸऺॖऀॸॱॼॖॱॸॶॖॕॖॺॱॾॺॺॱॺॻऀॺॱज़॑ऄऀऀऀॺॱॸॖॱॺऻऄ॔ऀॵॸॻॸज़ॸॺॱॷॸॱॷॸॱॿऻॸॿॱॺॱॷॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॵ ઽ୩ઃ૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡ[ૣ]ૡૢઽ૽ૹ૾૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૹ૽ૼૢ૾ૺૹૡ૱૽૽ૢ૽ૺૻ૱ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૺૡૡૺઌૡૡૺૼૼૼૼૡૻઌૺ૱૱ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻ૱૱ૻ रमम्हरुरे नम्दर्भरे ह्रगरे वयम्बेस्यहर्भ्य गरें में द्र ૱૬ૻઌૹૣૡૻૡૼૼૺૼૼૼૡ૽ૢૼૻઽઽ૾૾ૢૻ૱ૣઌ૽ૼૡ૽ૺૡૻઽૺૹઌૡૻૡૻઌૹૻૡ૾ૡૡ૾ૻૡૡૻૡૻૡૡ૽ૼ૱ૡ૽૽ૼૼૼ ગગ્ન મેંચ્યુ આયું છે. આ ગ્રેયુ આયું આ ગ્રેયુ આ ગ าสูสาวชั้งเพราวู พราๅ ๒๖ นราวู วาฏ วิลง ลิรงางเพลง เวิ้งเวลูง. ગભ્ભરા ક્ષેર્સર્સ્ફેર વાયુવાયર ગ્રા દેશ રેવા વદ્ય સેવા સુવગ્ર ગાયે જ વાયુવાય છે. ययांगुंग्वीवर्षा हेन्स्रायर हेवांश देन्स्रायरायवार्धी स्नयरा रेन्दुटरु खाळकार्या स्नयरा

ર્ધક યાદ વર્ષદ ' વસુદ ચલે યેં સ્થિંગ સ્થે વસ્ત્ર ચ કા વસુદ ચ કે છે. ચ સે ગ સ્થ વર્ષ થ मबिरि 'ग्री पटित हेब। घुट खुव खेब 'रेंपि सर्केंट हेन 'र्सेमका'हेन 'ट्रत्य हेन 'यर यह का य'यबेतमा स्रुव'स्ं'मघत'स्या'र्ह्त 'माहत' ह' आं हे'हुत' विंत्र'य रुपा युरा'यबेतमा <u>२</u>ॱङ्ग्रद[्]ष्ठीदर्ग्दर्ग् जींतप्तु के र्येक्ष स्नुप्तद विषा खेर स्वर यते ङ्ग्रद या दि रव गुत ઌૢૢૢૢૢૺૢૢૢૢૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢઌૢૢૢૡૢઌૢૢૢૡૢઌૢૡૢઌૢૡૢઌૢૡૢઌૢૡૢૡૢૡૢૡૢૡૢૡ <u></u>ᡜᡆ᠊ᢄᢅᢘᠬᠬᡄᡲ᠂ᡨᡪ᠕᠋ᠬᡄ᠊᠋ᡨᡃᡨ᠍᠍᠆ᡘᡆᢄᢅᢋ᠕ᠴᢂᢟᡜᠴ᠉ᡭᡆᢄᢅᡦᡨᢂ᠂ᡯᢂ᠂᠊ᡀᠴ યહ્ય[ો]ર્સા **મા**લક ખદ વ<u>્</u>યા વૈહ્ય સેદ હા ગુ યાવ હા વ્યું છે. આ દેવ સ્થે જે જે છે. अर्टन खुसप्ट यत्रता हिंसप्ट न ग्री दि यवट पहुया र्रेय सेते खुमा ग्री या से ग हे प्वत्वा गुरु गुर में अर्छन य दृर देवाय य छे , अर्घ ये थे य हो यह ୴**ट**ॱङेतेॱๆ४ंटॱpटॱ५२७ॱके दें`हे 'ग८्त '२। प्र' पहुट 'रे गथा गुर्धु अ' अंगेत 'रें। ਝੂਸ਼ 'ਚ'ਏੰਯੀਅ'ਬ**ស**ਕ' 55' 'ਧੀਸ 'ਚ| ਸ਼੍ਰੋਧਕ' ਨੇ 'ਗੁਭੁਗੈਕ' ਲੇਨ 'ਖ਼ਰੇ' ਸ਼ੂ' ਟੈਂਧੀਕ' ਲੇ' ਗੱਠੇ ਗ ݵ੶**ਸ਼**ਸ਼[੶]ਸ਼॔੶ਞੵਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ੑਸ਼ੵਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੵ੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ ह्रेंटॱणबुक्षॱष्ठक्षा छन्द'वर्षित्र यते क्षूट प्व क्षेणुक्ष जाक्षया क्षुट 'नृथण' मु केन 'य' चुन <u>ਕ</u>ਵ ਕ`**ਛੋ** 来` ਨ ਕ` ਨੂ` ਕ <u>ਯ</u>` ' ਕ । ' ਕ ਪ ' ਵੇ ਦ ਕ ' ਗੁ` ਚ ਗ' ਵੇ ' ਕ ਹੁ ਨ ਦੇ ਕ' ਹੈ ' ਦੇ ਕ' ਹੈ' ' ਦੇ ਕ व। द्रिषागुत्तसायतद्वनानुमुवण्यतकेरसासदिानुषुत्त्वा

ਥੇ'ਧ]ਜੇਣ'ਥ'ਨੂ 'ਬਰਿ'ਸ਼੍ਰੋਂ' कुष'ਧਨੂਨ 'ਤੇ 'ਝ਼ੂਕ' ਗੈ'ਸ਼੍ਰੋਧ'ਪ' ਅਵੱਨ। ਨੇ ਖਾਕਾਕੀ ਕੇ 'ਤੇ ਕ' ਗੁੈਕ' <u> अ'म| ५८' द</u>्रेरा अख्रद अर्केंद हे न'म' हे 'यते द अ'में द ' सूय' हे 'य र्दु मा था मा मा में दे ' से प वते 'वक्कुत' रहें न 'ने। अद्यत'तदुष'गुन' 'नु'ने अमिवे' न्नेर'र्सेन 'सेन 'में न भार से र' 'मेट हा 'ये थ वर्षायते।

सम. हॅन्न्याभ्रीट च अये विषय दुर पु च य य ही न मर्डर यें अमें दिनुर च य मेहेल। दुनृय < मेंनि दु चिययते। वद्युर सेंन यें मुठेम क्षेम क्षेय के पायये के या दु यें मुख्या षार पाद्र स.स.ह.य.य'येयस'न् स'पाद्र स.स.स.स.स.स. स. हे गांस य'सह य'टु स' ग्रेंगा स' <u> ५</u>र्सेट'। २े'वृक्ष'र्येत'खुव्ध'दुव्रिंख, वींट'क'ष्ट्र'य'केव'येन'क्षेत'श्रुं कें ਸ਼੶ੵਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੵਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਸ਼ਗ਼ੑਸ਼ੵਖ਼ੑੑਖ਼ਗ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼ੑਸ਼ਲ਼ੑਗ਼ਗ਼ੵਗ਼ੑਸ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਲ਼ੑਫ਼ੑਲ਼੶ सुव ध क्षेर धेंर जवर ह्या यतर । मुर्युर क्षेत टु ये जुर्या क्षेत चिंय यक्षेत देषःघारु र्येग्नीहेषाङ्गमारुषा मेंक्टिंट रेटि यनामु ब्रायनहिना झाँहित पु ब्रायने णघ्रयाहे गाद कांग्री र घर होया छेत्। कें कें में या र हु हि या व के खिट हु त्न'य'गीरेष। विंस'ईर्राट'तु'त्न'य'गीरेण यगाय'खेट'ष्ट्रेंसेंस'यर'यें'गीरेग'रु'क्षेय' <u></u>द्धेर.त्रु.घ'ष्ट्रभे भवायिषां होत्यां योद्धेया दिष्ट्रेत्र दिवा हु.त्रु.चा या विंट यि विंट तु'खुद`र्,'र्ये'मठिम <u>भ्र</u>ूष'अ्थ'र<u>न्र</u>्ष'र्ह्रेट्र रा'सु'ज्ञे'य'यत्र' यें'वहु'९६'त्र'व''वह्नेकु'स्रुव'सर्द''यर्ते। दे'क्ष'र्येगिष'सके९'वगृत'९८'मु' ਕ਼ਲੇ੮¦`ਦੇ ਚਾਪਥਾਛੱ੮¦ਪਥਾਬਾਙ, ਦੇ ਕਾਂਧੁੱ੮'। ਵੇ ਉਨ ਧਠਿਸਾਂਪਿੰਪੁਥਾਨੂ ਖਾੱਖੇਂ 'ਗੁੱਠ ਹੋ ਸ਼ੁੱਠਾ ਸ਼**ॸੑ**୩୮**ਜ਼ੵਸ਼**ਖ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼ੵ੶ਞ੶ਸ਼੶ਲ਼ੑਫ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ र्यरडे'पेर ज्ञिय दुषा' र्रेषा'र्हेन ५ ज्ञयापुर्धा यळवार्या देर्गन' जिप्त ज्ञादुषा'

੪ૢૺ૾ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਗ਼ੵੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑ੶ਫ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼ੵਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੵ੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑਫ਼ੑੑੑੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੵਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਖ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑਗ਼੶ ਘ**ស`ស័।| ਵਿੱਖੈ**5'ਗ੍ਰੈ'**ਬਰ'ਲੱ**ស'ਘ**ស**'ਗੂਰ'ਪਰੇ'ស'សਂਬੇੱੱੱ ਸ਼ੀਸੇਗ੍ਰੈਗੂਆਪ'ਲ5' ਸ਼ੁੱਟ'ਧੋ <u> </u> સ્પાંધેક પ્રતે [વિંદ સંસ્થે વું સ્થે વ્યું વ્યું વ્યું વું સુધ સંદે વ્યું પ્રત્યે વ્યું પ્ अमेनि इ क्वेंर्यर खेर पर यदा यही र दि है हैंप्य खिया से या या या या या या या ये या हि या है 'n **હે'**ખે'વਖ਼દ**ુ સે'**સઘુ**ક**'घर'छ**द'**'ખે**ષ'**લેપ્યુ ૬વુષ'ર્ધું વા સેં સ્પ્રે વ' વ' વે ડે त्यत्रः सुषार्भवायिः क्रुं आळं कार्यते सुरं रें। वराणविक्षां केंगिका सर्वेत वियक्षा खुः હ્યુવ્ય અવ્રરાદે છેન 'ਜ਼ੋਰ 'ਛે 'વારક્ષ'શું' ર પ્વર 'ગુદુ વા છુ ' દ્વા વદે વ 'છે તે 'છે શે બ વા પ્ र्मत्र महित अववर यवि अळंत ह वर्मे अमेत र्रेय थे थे ये ये ये ये वहे **न्दर्भ्यक्षेते य्वरक्तन्दर**्भ सिंग्लु वित्तु स्वासुम्रारम् हे यतुनर्भे निप् र्मभित्र ॥ तिषाः सूत्र न्यत्वोत्र "र्योत्र खाः स्याः स्टेत्र दित्र भिवा स्रुत भी स्वायः **ਲੁੱਖਾਂਕਤੂ**ਸਾਂਸੇ'ਖੇਂਾਪ'ਸੇਕਾ'ਤੁਸਾਂਸੀ'ਘਟ 'ਵੱਸਿੱਨ' ਨੂੰ 'ਸਮੇਸਾਨ 'ਛੁੱਕ' ਫ਼ੈੱਲ 'ਸ਼ੈੱਟ 'ਸ**ੇ**ਨ' ਦੋਨ 'ਸਾਂਨ੍ਹੇਟ' <u>ਐ</u>ਸ' ਨੇ ਸ' ਨ ਪ ਕ' ਸ਼੍ਰਿੱਧ ਦੀ ਗੁਰੀ ਅੰਡ ਹੈ ਕੇ ਲ ਸ ਕੀ ਕਾ ਨੇ ਸ਼ੇ ਲ ਦੇ ਸੋ ਨ ਦੇ ਸਾਲ ਕੇ ਦੀ ਸਾਲ ਕੇ ਸਾਲ ਨੇ ਸ ਸ਼ੂਕੇ ਧਸੱਨ ਧਾੱਛੇ ਆਂ ਹੈ '5 ਉਸ ਆਂ ਪੂਰ ਦੂ 'ਧ ਸ ਸਵੱਨ 'ਧੰਨੇ ਦ੍ਰਿੰਗ'ਧ ਝ੍ਹੇ ਕੇ ' ਕਨੂ ਥੀ तन्रुषाः सूरिका सिना के वा यो का यो कि या सिन।

99 યાઅદ્વરાવદ્વાપ્યુઆવક્ષેન્ન લેશપંદ્ર વર્શુદ્દ પાસાવસઅશ્વાપ્ય વ્યાધુવાશ્વાપ્રશાનુવાવસુદ્ สูรารีรารารีสีงาสุขามรายูญารรา สูารรา จายารีราจอยาฏิรฐานั่วมีสรา ଞ୍ଜ୍ୟୁଣ୍ ଅନ୍ମାର୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ମାର୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ମାର୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ମାର୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ମାର୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ମାର୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ମାର୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ମାର୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ମାର୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ ୄଵୄୄୖ୲ୄୄଈୣ୶ୢୢ୶୶୶ଵୄୖ୶୶ୖଌୄ୵ୖଌ୵ୖଈୣ୩୕୵ୣୢୣୣୣୣ୷ୡ୷୷ୢୄୡ୵୲ୣୄଽୣୄ୶୵ୖ୷ୄୄ୷ ณหินพ.พืนพ่า พิพ.ษ.พ.น.รูป.พ.น.พ.พ.พ.ภิพ.มิน.ภิน.รูป. า राह्य का स्वायन्त्र के के भाषा भाषा के से के के मुद्य के के मुद्य के के मुद्य के के के मुद्य के के के के के क ๆมั้ญ สีกา ราวสาทสุพารการ ภาษีราษีราวอสุทุพาริาสูานาริการ์

1401 - 1646

มद्र प्रत्या को स्र र प्र प्र के का र्ये प् सुका के मिल का भी पर दि का की

. ਜ 18 18 ૬'લ્વેવે'છુવા'જ્ઞેબ'ગૃહિંત'ઉ'વદે'વદા'દુ ર'કિંદા'દુ' ચલુગભાયા લેબ'સુપ્ટર્ન' 9ુબા ૬ 17વ' ष्ठ्रयास्रद्रायते'ज्ञनाषा'य'र्भ्रेनाषा'गुरु'तु'ष्ट्रिय'यथा। गुरु'दृदां'ये क्षेत्र'यगुर'छि थ गुन्यर छ९ ५ भीतभा के छेन हेन खेल यये रे जाङ्मय या या येवना झेवना ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ੑੑੵ੶ਜ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ੵਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼ੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਲ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਲ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑ গ্রুএ'উন্ ন্মিন জ্যু প্রবন্ধ থা यमिषायायुषा गरावुगुषाञ्चयम्बारायुषावेषाबुघायुषा गरार्झे९ देश य: अेंद 'या खुद का जे केंद 'हेंद 'वे का यदि 'देव 'यर 'ज्ञे'या दी 'सुव या 'या यवुग था' दे ଞ୍ଘୁଅ'ଅ'ଘ'ଘାଟ୍ରିମାଦା ଦି'କ୍ୱରା'ହିଦା'ନୁସ୍'କ୍ରରା'ତ୍ରର'ଥି'ଥ୍ରିବ'ହୁସ'ସର୍ଭର'ସ୍ଥେସ'୫ିସ' मुवाःअर्केमान्द्राः सहयायवाः वित्रांतुः यह्ने सायायसुवस्र। मावतः न्ने राकें सायादसः दुसः ક્વિં⊼ ય⊒ દ`ર્ધા વા દ્વી ક્વા વા વા સુસાય વા સુસાય વા દા દુધ છે. સુચારા વા દો સુચાર પ્ माकृतः। दिन्द्रभाभतत्त्वत्ताः समाधांग्रीयद्भुत् खेद्र विद्रार्थित् वायदे के बक्षा स्वायः ह्यत्य। ઽૡႚઌૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૡૹ૽ૺૡૢૼ૱ૡઌૢૺૡૺઌૹૡૺૢઌૢૡૺઌઌ૽ૢૢ૾ૺૡ૾ૺઌ૾૾ઌ૱ૡ૱ૡૢૺઽ૾ૡૺ૾૽ૡ૽ૢ૾૱ૡૢઽૡ૽ૺ សង្រិត'ଧ'ଋଁର୍ଗ'ଶୁଦ୍ୱ'୩ଜ୍ୱିଦ'ଔ୩ଷାଷା ଓଟ୍ 'ଷାଟ୍ରିର'ଅନ୍ 'ଅନ୍' ଅନ୍ତ୍ର' ଶ୍ରୁଦ୍ୟା ଶ୍ରୁଦ୍ୟ'ଦ୍ଦିଦ **મ**હ્નિ પ્વર્<u>ગ</u>ોવા વા ચાથા થાયા સુરાષ 'શું હા 'દુ કુ દ્વ પા વા સુરા 'શું વા બુ સાથ છે. ગાંધ વા પ્રાપ્ત પ્રો કુ શું આ वःष्ट्रुनाकःव्यःक्षेत्वर्द्तदर्द्ततित्तुख्रदःक्ष्रद्यव्यत् न्नवःक्ष्वे भुः मुद्युः मुद्युः भुः यसत्यायक्षेत्यातृत्यद्वत्यम्। सामोर्सेडतर्येर हिंदायर्हेल वि हेले हिल्हित खुम ৸ শিলম৸'লখ্ডম'ৰ্ট্ডম'শ্ৰী'শ্ৰুম'লাব্দম'দ্ৰবা'বনা'বিদা'বেম'ল্ল'ম'মে' নি মিন্দম নিৰ্মান নিৰ্মান নিৰ্দান নিৰ্দান নিৰ্মান নিৰ্মান নিৰ্মান নিৰ্দান নিৰ্দান নিৰ্দান নিৰ্দান নিৰ্দান নিৰ্দান ন মিন্দ নিৰ্দান নি **अ'मे्ब'यर ज़्युया क्रुय'य'** हुय'न का रुठ हो था से हि'या हु ह ' 5 द श। क'यबर'रस'. मुट'य'यहेन। इयेक'र्रमेन'सें सें से खर सें। चुन' मु'र्ये। **ฬรรรพ๚ ธุ**ัสุณชอลเลุนพ.ซู้นั้ร.ลูกฟ

ลิงเๆงูรงามจิญรายรูล สมงษ์ยๆ รูเวลินา วิเวลิสร รูเลนพรรราทสารุนร ব**ম**:ন্ট্রুবেই'বেম'বেশ্রুম'ন্ট্রিম'ন্যার্থ্যমিদ্যামান্য বিদিমান্টমান্দ্রমান্দ্রমান্দ্রমান্দ্রমান্দ্রমান্দ্রমান্দ্রমান ঝলা¦লন'ন্দ। প্রদায়েই,র'ট্রা,ই:অর্ট্রনামান্দর আঁর'ড়ে'ম'ন্দা প্রদায়ম'র্', মন্দ্রবি ଶ୍ରଦ୍ୟପ୍ତଟ ସିଂସ୍ଥାନ୍ତ୍ର ଅନୁସାନ୍ତ୍ର ଅନୁସାନ୍ତ୍ର ଅନ୍ମାନ୍ତ୍ର ଅନ୍ମାନ୍ତ୍ର ଅନ୍ମାନ୍ତ୍ର ଅନ୍ମାନ୍ତ୍ର ଅନ୍ମାନ୍ତ୍ର ଅନ୍ମାନ୍ତ୍ มลิจาพูภาพมาสีรายามิการาสุจงาพีราจุศีรุป สอามาของสายเป็น **᠘᠄ᢆ᠊**ᠣ᠄ᢂᢄ᠆ᠴᢙᢆᡨ᠂ᡃ᠋ᡨᠳᠺ᠉᠋ᡃᢆᢔ᠂ᡜᢅ᠂ᡨᡐ᠕ᡆᢅ᠊᠋ᠫᡆ᠂ᡏᠮᢄ᠍ᠴ᠊᠘᠊ᡀ᠆᠘ᡬ᠈ᢅ᠊ᠣᢂ᠋᠊᠋ᠬᢓᢐ᠕᠂ᡅ᠇᠋ᡨᠳᠺ বশাব অস্থ্যঁ ন প্রাথ প্রার্থনা এর প্রিয় এর এর প্রায় প্রায় প্রায় প্রায় প্রায় প্রায় প্রায় প্রায় প্রায় প ݞᠠ**ᡲ᠂ᡘᡆᢆ᠂ᡏᡪ᠊ᡘ᠍**ᡜ᠋ᠳᡐᢩᢍᠠ᠘ᡆ᠂ᢅᢅᠣᢂ᠂ᢅᡒ᠆ᡃᢓᡃᠬᡅ᠊᠍᠊᠊ᢖᡆᡃᠠᡆᠴ᠊ᡱᠲ᠈ᢅ᠋ᡗ᠇ᢆᡇᢩᢛᠬᢝᡨᡐᡊᢄ᠊᠋ᡨ᠊ᡲᡨ ᡜᠮᢆᠬᢂᢆ᠆ᡪᠴᡅᢆᠹᢋᡊᢩᢓᡄ᠊ᡅᠵ᠉᠋ᢩᡀᡄᢐᡅᢧᢡᠵ᠊ᢡᠴᠬᡷᢍᠬᡃᠫ᠊᠋ᡜᠯᡗᢆᠬᡅᡅᡓᠷᢋ᠂ᢋᢂ᠊ᢡ ॶॖॱॺ**ॸॱऀॻऻॻ**ॺॺॱॻऻऀॿॱख़ॻॺॱय़ऀय़ॱक़ॖॻॺॱॶॱऀऀॻऀॱॶॕॾॱॱऀ॓ॶॖॖॱॻॳॕक़ॱॻऻॸॖॖॾॱॻॷॖॕॖड़ॱॻऻऀऄॻॱॾॖॖॖऀॶ קאַראיניקרין צוציאַריגליאַריטריקאימיטליאיאריאאן מאַאיקקרא นบลุ่รุญ รรูชิรนุจาหระอะเลพ รพิษฐินนาริสานรูรมลรายล่ พี่ๆพลิลิราวฏาิจิพามัว ๆคลางมพมอสามสิวธๆพรีๆพมรายมรณ

র্ঘান্দা মধ্যমন্ত্র স্ক্রীর্বা প্রস্কুর প্রস্কুর প্রদেশ প্রধ্য দেশাব স্ ૡૢૻૣૻઽૡૻ૾ૼૼૼૼ૱ૹૻૻૡૺ૾ૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૻ૱ૻૡૻ૱ૻઌૻૼૡૻૻૹૻૻૡૻૻ૱ૻઌ૽ૻૡૻૻ૱ૻઌ૽ૻૡૻૻ૱ૻઌૻૡૼૻૻ૱ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૱ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૱ૻૡ૱ૻ ᠌᠋ᡸᢙ᠈᠋᠋᠊᠋ᡎᢒᡃᡆ᠋᠋ᡎᢁ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠆ᡄ᠄ᠴᡷ᠋᠋ᢋ᠃ᠴ᠋ᠵᠴ᠋ᢒ᠊ᡧ᠃ᠴ᠈ᠮ᠋ᢩ᠆᠄᠕ᢄ᠋᠆᠂ᡱᡷᢋ᠉ᠴᠴᢂ᠋ᢍ᠉ᠴ᠗ᠿ᠄᠕ᢄ᠆᠂ᡷ २नःगम् साम्याः मिसान् गादः हेस् हे निमान्स्य मुन्द्र भीः न्ययायायाय मामान्या साहरायम् मामन्यायम् ઌ૽ૢૺ૽ૣૼૺૼૢૼૼૼૼૡૢૻૡૢૻૡૢૻૡૢૻઌૻૹૢ૾૱ૡ૽૾૱ૡૢૻ૱ૻઌૺૼૡૻૢ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ૱ૡ૱ૡૻ૱ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽૾ૺૼૼૼૼૻૻ૱ૡ૽ૢૼ૱ૡૢૻ૱ૡૢ૱ ଌୖ୕୩ୡ୲୳୲ୄ୳୳୶୲୵ୢୖୠ୕୕୕ଽୄୠ୕ଽ୲ୡୖୖଌୄ୲ଢ଼୵ୄୠୡ୲ୖ୶୵ୄ୲ୖୖୖୖୖୖୄୣ୲ୖୢୠ୲୴ୡ୲ୖୢୡ୵ୖୖୖୠ୩ୖ୩୲୶୶୲ୖଽ नावन्न मामकेन् भोवान् गुर्म देवगुन् १७९५ वास्वरायन् स्रायत्र केवा र्यसामसेराविरास्यत्वार्सवालुसायेन्। मुहुनाव्यमायटानेरायक्षसावर्वेवियेवनसा *ે મેમ્રાસ*ન્યવઃ કેન્નુ મેં 'દેદેન વર્ષ્ટર' ગ્વલુવાય સુવય સુવય સુવય સાથ વાર્ટીન પવ ᢄᢅ᠄᠊᠋ᢩᡒ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡢᠯᡷ᠋᠋ᠺ᠄ᡆ᠋ᠯ᠋ᡲᢂ᠋᠂ᡅ᠂᠊᠋᠊ᢧ᠆᠂᠊᠍᠊᠍᠊᠍᠊ᡜ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡜ᠆᠋᠄ᡜᢆᠴ ณม คิฆาอธิรามยณาอรุสาขาที่มีณาอรุอามสรารูญ ระวัฐิสาวสฤญาย์วิ য়ৢঀয়৸য়য়য়৾য়য়য়৾৾ঀয়৾৾৾৾ঀ৾৾৾য়ৢ৾য়৾য়য়৾৾ঀয়৾৾য়৾৾য়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾য়৾৾য়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾৾য়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾৾য়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾৾য়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾৾ ୖଈ[੶]୕ୄୄୄ୶ୖ୳୰ଽୖ୳୵ୡ୶୰ୖ୶୶ୖ୶୲୶୵୲ୖୠ୶୲୰ୖୠ୵ୢ୲୷ୠୄ୰୳ୖୠ୶୲୰ୖ୵୷ୖ୶୶ୄ୴ୖୡ୲୰୲

ฐาราวุลรานีรารุญาวุฐีๆานรามฮรา ริเสพามรณาวุฤาพิมพารุมฉาธิสา র্মুমান্দ্রীপ ক্রীম্মারী এবধার্ট্রি উম্পর্ক ক্রিকার্য্র বিদ্যুদ্র বিষ্ণু বিষ্ণু বিষ্ণু বিষ্ণু বিষ্ণু বিষ্ণু বি aोर्वर र्नु वी बेनाबायायाय हे ब नाब का ग्री हे मा खना नगार म्या मे का हे र का य द्विया के न ॖॖॱऀऀ॔ॕॕॺॱय़ॾॕॺॱॸॖय़ख़ॱय़ॾॖॖॱय़ॺॖॺॺॱग़ॖॖॖॖॱॶ॒ॸॱॻॡॺॖख़ॺॖॺॱय़ॸॱॺऻऀॿ॓ॺऻॺॱॺॺॱय़ग़॒ॱ ૾ઌૺૹૻઽૡ૽ૺ૾ૺઌૻૡૹૡ૽ૺૹૻૻઌ૽૽ઌ૽ૻઽ૽ૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻઌ૽ૻૡ૽ૺઌૻૡ૽ૺઌૡ૽ૼૡૻૡ૽ૼૡૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽૿ઌૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽૿ઌૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽૿ઌ ळेखणब्धुयर्गेयरण्त्र खांत्रेयण्त्रेतिग्रीखण्वतुरण्यर यही झ्वायेक्रित्त. ૹૻૼૡૡૢૢ૱ૢૻૢ૱ૻૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૹઌૻૻૻૻૹૻૻૻૼૢઌૻૹ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૹઌ૽ૡ૽ઌ૱ૢ૽ૺૼૢૼઙ૽ૻૼઽૹ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹ૽ૼ૱ૻ૽ૼૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૻૡૡ૱ ૧૮ ન ક્ષુત્ર જીવા મારે સુધા સુવ રેંજે ન થા છે . ૨૮ મ કા છુવા ૧૮ જીવા માં સુવ રેંગ થા સુધા **૱**ਗ਼ਸ਼ਜ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ਗ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑ੶ਖ਼ੑੑ੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਲ਼ੑੑੑੑ੶੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑ สะาวดุฤผาฐณาวายผมานนาสูาระาฤสูรมานอานาที่สามหายนาวาร ญูนาน์นิ่ารูณาน์ฏิศารู ฟิลลงารนนาธิสานาริชิราริฏินิาริชามอิลงษูณาเพาลศิลานผลเ ૻૡ૾[ૣ]ઌૹઽૡ૱ૡૻૢૢ૱૾ૢ૽ૡૢૻૡૹૹૻૹ૽ૣ૾ૺૼૡૻૻૡ૱ૡ૽ૢૢૻઽ૾ૣ૾૾૾ૻ૽૾૾૾ૣૻઌૻ૽ૼૡૺૻ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૾ઌ૱ૢ૾ૢૼૼૢૡૢૻૡ૽ૢૼૡૻૻૻૼૡૻૡ૱ૻૻ૱૱ <u>घरः</u>हूरः। क्रुंग्वःश्रुवासःक्रुयःस्वरःस्रय्यःग्रीयःत्रक्षेत्रःतगुरःःयरःऽवाःविया নথ كَمَ يُهُمَّ الله عَلَى عَل *ลิ*ฉาดลามุฐมหาอี่≿.ซึ่ลเมิหาก×.¥ท.घ×.2...มหลง.ฉ.2... บล...ภูษล.

मुरे. र्यसगुर ख्वस र्मिंग खुरा र्से जार्से पा थिया दे जिस सर में रि. सु यार्ये स ' दू ' द केबहुः भूं फेरदायदा हेब यचेव मेब फुरचेन का आर्केट सेंब फु खुर। ൬ഀൎ൬ഁ൳ൠൎ൨൚൚ൕൄ൜ഁ൳ຆ൚൴൜൴൳൶ൔൔ൹ൔൄഄൄ

मं ૱૽ૺૢૢૺઽૢઽૡૢૢ૱૽ૼਬૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૻ૱ૻૡૢૼૡૡૢૡૡૢ૾ૡૡૹૡૢૡૢૡૻૡઽૡ૱ઽ૾૾ૼઽૼ૱ૡૼૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢ૱ गमेग¶षावर∣ ऊँषाकुया<u>निर्</u>धेतासेषुउायठंबाक्षा भेकुमुावययेतेगा**द**क्षाय छे'ददेर 'ईंग्नूभ'घुट'ईंदा'दोरे'र्केंस'वेगु'लु'ले संतुर्भ'य' हुर। इद'र्के संसंस गु <u></u>अर 'रे ब खे ब 'ङ्क'यतु ब 'या ब खे के खेंग थ'ग्री 'सु 'या ब' युव प्रते 'तु स'य' वि म' द में ब'य' <u></u>द्धन | ॠ्रिनर्टीकरिति'ग्रैक'हु'व्युव्य'ग्रैक'गुव'धन स्थत्न का सुव'न्द्रि मुमोभ। **म**ुत्रसारत्यामुद्रसार मुजर्भे सेमिथा भुर्द्रिसायामुद्रता मुबि सां हे झूव झे य<u>ग</u>ी मेथा <u>ਵ</u>ੇੰਸ਼ א' ਗੁ'ਕ ਵੁੱਧੀ א' ਧਕੇ' 'ਝੂ' 'ਚ ਅੰਘੇ ' ਕ ਨੂੰ ਗ' ਤੁਸ ' ਗ੍ਰੇ ਕ ' ਹ ਗ੍ਰੇ ਕ ' ਹ ਗ੍ਰੇ ਕ ' ਹ ' ਦ ' ਦ ' ਦ ' ਦ ' ਦ <u>य</u>'न्द्र'| युक्ष'**र्छ'क्षे'यक्षेक्ष**'से'द्य'लेद'5े'यबट'दर्खि'य'र्सेंगेक्ष'खुरु'सुक्ष'र्सेंज'र्सेंगिक्ष' **छ**क्ष`र्यक्ष`र्यन् 'भुव'कुव'यङ्गक्षे'स'क्षर'मांशव'यर सह द'हेका हिं'कुव'ध्रेक्ष्युव' र्छस'कुव'ओ'मेस'सर्छे'' कुव'र्सेनस'य' वय'दवट' प्वत' स्वे हि कुव' ख्रेय' सुरु' हुव' **ੴ੶**੫ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑਜ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶ੑਸ਼ੑੑੑਜ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑ੶ਸ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ सुव'गरिकाय'देक'केक'ह्युट'यार'यसुवका गुषुकाय'भ्रेर'हीर'गे'गुरू'वर्टेस'टु'सर्ट्ट| हेव सेव द्यि **୴**त्तः वया द्युपाकाः देखे देंग्योत्तर यायका क्रेयां थे किंबा क्रेंत्र गार्खुत यत्र। <u>ব</u>ঠৰ`মিম'ঈ'যধুদ'যমৎ' কাম'দ্ববদ'ল্ৰথ'ঈথম'ট'দ্বদ'ৰ্দ্ৰীথ'য'দ'।

. MI बिषायवे. ਪੱਕੇ ਅਛੱ**ך '**हे न 'ਗੂ`੮ ਤ੍ਰੈ ਧਨਾ `ਤੇ 'ਚ ਅਧਿਕੇ ਅਬਿੰਨ ਆਬਾਨ ' ਅਤੇ ਸੂ ਅ 'ਧ' ਅਦ ਕਾ 'ਚ 'ਚ 'ਦੇ ' <u></u>ઞેવ'વલેબ'၅ရ'૬'ષ્ટ્રિવ'યર શુર વર્ોદ્વ પ્ટ લેલ'ય'એ' સ્વેબ'વેંબે સેલ'વર્સે જે કે દ્વ પ યક્સ તેંદ્ર 'ગ્રે'લેદ 'દુ' વા વેવાષા યવે 'દ્વેદ હ્ય'ય' વા દુ સું વા પ્રદાય છે. સું કુ પુ વા વેદ 'ચેત' ੑੑੑੑਖ਼ੵੵੵਜ਼ਗ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੵਜ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਫ਼੶ਫ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਫ਼੶ਜ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੵਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ੑ੶ਫ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਫ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼੶ਫ਼ੵਜ਼ਖ਼੶੶ਖ਼੶ਫ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼ੑੑਫ਼੶ਜ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ੑ੶ਫ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ र्दस'खु'छे'พमा' न'मुम्यायक्षेत्र'योत'छेन'मुख्यायम्'यहेन्न'मेंसि'नन'ग्रीक'लुक्ष। ਸ਼**ੑਫ਼ੑਫ਼ੵ੶**୴ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੵੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਲ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਫ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼ਸ਼੶ ต้ๅพ รรฐพ ฐ ริส ๅพ พัฬ รุนรรศ 'นายรพ 'บู พ . บู ธ : นรุ ส เนตร ๆ พ เช ฺ ๛ เ ะ ริ ณ ชิม พ ਐ਼ੱਨ ਸਟੇ ਦੇ ਛੱ ਛੱਟ ਵਿੱਧੀਆ ਖੁਆਰੇ ਦਿ ਕਰੂਆਂ ਦੂੰ ਨ ਆਰ ਕੁੱਖੇ ਕਹੇ ਹਿ ਦੇ ਨੂੰ 'ਚ ਕੁੱਟ 'ਚ 'ਆਰ। **મ**ષુદષ\ ઢૅષ'વર્કે'ૡ઼ેવે'લેન'**ગ**ુનુષાસુંર્હેંષ'સુર'વસુવાવે સુંવા'વક્ષેન\ દેવે' **के**५ॱ**क**्रसम्बदः यादग्रियाग्युदः सहर्षं क्रमनिम् काध्याद्वद् , दि मुत्रः यङ्गबार्यदेबायबर्टांग्रिंग क्षुविखंदुःक्षेतेयम्डुबायांदेबाक्षेवां कांग्रिंबा क्षेत्रि कांग्रिंबा स्वप्तायम मधुदॱअमुर`**र्ड्र| ह**`ਘव'ध5्न रेंदि'ग्रै'वेिंद'विक्षाले क्ष| ेरैमा'दद्देे 'ध5्न व्वुमुक्ष' ୡ**ୄ୶**୲ୖୖୖୖ୕୕ୖ୶୶୲ୖ୴ୄୡୖ୶୴ୖୖୖୖୖୖୖୠୠୄୄୄୄୄୖ୷ୢୄୖୄୖ୶୷୷ୠୄୖୄୄ୶୷୷ୖୄୖୄୖୡୄ୶୷୷ୄୖୄୄୢୄୄୢୄୄୖ **૬**'ਖ਼<u></u>`ਜ਼ੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਞੵ੶ਖ਼ੵੑ੶ ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼ੑੑਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਜ਼ੑ੶ਫ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑੑਖ਼੶ਫ਼ੵੑਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਜ਼ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ੑੑ੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑੑਗ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑਫ਼ੑੑੑਫ਼੶ र्दित'स्नेर्ना महुष'छ्रिन'युरु'य'हेस्रस'य'वृष्य'मुरिस्रस'ग्रु'रेमृत्र'खुक्ष'यर'युक्षेय केन.भु.गह्र म्युनुमाथ द्विमाथ नग्र आववि म्वम् यिवे माँथ ग्री था व झेया य म्ह

- আধদ দ্রুরাধ দ্রুদ মন দ্রমধ শ্রীন বি দ্রীন দ্রীন বি বে বি দ মাং দ্রুবা. ग्रेप्तनर भ्रुपः ग्रेप्ता गहेर हेट खगव में पता गहेर के नपुन वर्ष भेर ঀঀয়য়৾৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ঀ৾৾য়৾য়৾য়৾ঀ৾৾য়৾ঢ়ৢড়৾য়ৼ৾৾য়৾ঀ৾৾য়ঀ৾৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়ৼ৾৾ঀ गठॅ८-अञ्चर-प्रवेश-अह्ट्रिकेट-प्रवुगश-प्रवित-स्नयश रह्त्रिके-प्रोहर-प्रश યમ્ १ गुरुषाणी के जिस्ता के रियम के राजना के राज ૡૢઽૹઌ૱૬૱૱ૼૣૢૼ૱ૡૢૼૹૡઌૡૺૡૡૢૢ૱ૹૻૻઽ૾૱ૡ૽ૼૡ૱ૢૡઌૹ૱૱

ฑะฮิ์ขาฑูสารู นิสะานี สิ)

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र्केश्व कुवासुक के न अम्म० अम्बर न अम्म०

ૡૹ[ૣ]ઌૡૹ૱૽૽ૼૺૢૻૺૠૹૣૻૻ૾ઌ૽ૺઽ૽ૺૼૼૼૼૡૻઽૢૻ૿ૡૡૹ૽ૻૹ૾૽ૡૻૻ૽૽ૼૺૹ૽ૺઽૺૢૼૹ૾ૺઽૺૢૻૡઌૹૻૹૼૻૻૻઌૺૡૼૼૢૺૺ૾૱ૹ૽૾ૢ૾૾ ૡૹૢ૱ૡૹૻૹ૾ૼૹૻ૾ૡ૾ૢૼૡૻઽૢઽૻૡ૽ૼૡૹૺૻૻૡ૽ૺૺૼૺૻૻૻ૱ૻ૱ઽૡૻૡૺૼૡૼૡૹૻૹૻૺૻઌૡ૽ૺ૱ ૡૹૺ૱ૻ૱ૡૡૻૡૺૹૻૻ૱ૻૡૼૼૻૡૼૺૡૻઌૻઌૻૻૺૼૡૻૡૼઌૻૡૼૡૻૡૺૡૹૺૻૡૡૺઌૹૺૻૡૺૡૹ ઌૹ૾ૺૼૼૼૼૡ૱ઌ૽ૡૼૺૼૼૼૼૡ૱ઌ૽ૡૢૼઌ૾ૻૡૼ ઽૡૢ૿ઌૼઽૡૺૹઌ૾ૺૼ૿૾ૼૺ૱ૡ૱ઌૡૼઌ૾ૺૡ૾ૺઌઌૻઌ૱ઌ૽ૻૼૼૡ૾ૺૹઌ૱ઌૺ૱ૼ૱ઌૡૡ૱ૺઌ૽ૣૼૺૺૼૼૺ૱ র্মদামাশ্রন,রমমান্দ্রমান্দ্রমান্দ্রমানীমানপ্লমান মান্দ্রমাদিমেয়া દુકુ યોદેવા સ્વ પુ સુદ વહા દર્માને ધો સુ અર ચલવા દિ બ પ્યવહા છે ચવા સે સ ચલુ વા હ ଐ୕୕୷୕ୣ୵୲ୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୢୄୄୄୄୄୄୢୄୄଐୄ୶୴ୠ୶ୄୖୢୄୠୄୄୄୢୄୄୄୄୄୄ ଐ୕୷୕୵ୣ୕୲ୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄ ਧਕਿੇ ਖਿੰਤ ਦੇ ਦਾ ਪ੍ਰਧਾਨੂ ਪੈਂਧੀ ਨੇ ਧਾਪਾ ਕਿ ਸਾਨ ਦੇ यस्रुवक्ष'ने'ग्रु५'व्युक्ष'ग्रै'झ'र्खेष'येक'यर प्वतृत्त 'प्य'न्ने ' द'ङ्ग'उ<u>न</u>्रक्ष' **૬**੶<u>ਗ਼</u>ॕॲ॔੶ख़ॖ੶ɑय़ੈॸॱॸ॔॔॔॔ॾॱॿॴऄऀऀय़॓ॱॺॱॺॖॎॖॣॴऀऀॺऺॴॖॱ॔ॖऀऀड़ॆक़ऺॱख़ॴॺॱॾऺ ह्र्युब'**च्च्माक्ष'वक्ष'यद्युच'**झु'म्बर'यबेहरू। देर'अय'हे'**द्युह'**दु'मनेमिष। _{ह्यु}' ਸ਼ੵਸ਼ਜ਼**ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ਫ਼ੑਸ਼ੵਖ਼ੑਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶**ਸ਼ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ ऄ॔ॸ॔ऻ ॾॺॱऄॸॱॻॸड़ऀॻॺॖग़ॾॣॻक़ऻ ख़ॱॿऀऀऀऀख़ॖॸॱख़ॺॱऄ॔क़ॱॶख़ॱॸॖॖॱॻॖॱॸॖऀऀऀऀॡॖॵ दह्रेअ'येण|क्ष| के≍'र्य'तह्रुअ'र्से≂। **५**क्ष≍'र्य'ष्ट्रिण'वर्हणक्ष| केष'र्य'ष्ट्रिक'सेक' **સે'વ્વુ**સ'ગ્રે 'ર્ટ્ ન'ઉપ'ગ્રે પગ્ર વ્યુસ'વસ્ય થાય ' સાર્ક્ષે વા શ્રુવિ દે 'વર્સુ ન' वेते ५र्मेत भावे र। दे पात्रा धार्हे दा पी घु दा भाषि गु भाषि य कु र्से का स्रें र मि दे प ૡૺ૾ઌૺઽઽૢઽઽ૱ૡ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઽૼૼૼૡૡૡ૱૱૱૱ૡ૽ૺૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ૽ૼૡૢ૾ૡ૽૿ૡૢ૾૾ૡૢ૾ૺ૾૾૾ૺ૾ૢૡ૽૽ महुत्त न्द्र या हें वित्य सेंगवा धोत्र। दे का ग्रें सेंग् मुद सु र के वित्र या हु न અ`દેં.સેં.**નુ`દુ** વર્દુ કોર્સ ગ્વેક્ષા ટે લિવા અૠુર ગ્વલુવા શા દે કા સાગર 'રે સપ્વલે ક ৶ལ་₦ॱ**ਲ਼**ག₦ॱݵॱरॆᡪऻ ॆऀॱॺॆॺॱक़ॖॖऺॺऻॱऀऀ॓॓ऄ॓य़ॺॱड़ॺ॔ॱॸॕऻ॔क़॔ॱऀ॔ॻ॔ऀऄऀऀॵॱॾॏज़ऺॱ ਖ਼ੵੑਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼ਫ਼ੑਸ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਸ਼<u>ਗ਼ੑ੶</u>ਸ਼ੵੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੵੑਸ਼

क्षायाणीवे'छेक'र्ते'यतृता। डाकास्कुत'यायांमीत'यावेन'द्रेकायाथा डाका'कृका'तका दर्में यते झ ऱ भारता । मनुषा श्रुप्त खुया झ मनि यत्त्रा भारयत् य दुमा भा हिमा मिथा ग्रैकाहिंद स्नुर्में स्व विषार्थेंद जाबुदका है। यगाव यग्रैं का दित्य उक्ष खुवा से के से द <u>विषामधु</u>रुषा देखा<u>धुषाचरधायामें</u>रियवेवुग्यगृद<u>े</u> अहंदायर। <u>ध्र</u>ायका <u>त</u>ुषायाषा भव'ग्रीष'हिं**द**'ग्नद'र्के'स्व'तेष'र्येद'व'र्न्नेत'शेद'शेप'ग्रेण्युगष'गर्शुदर्ष' <u>विवायक्षे क्षेत्र क्षेत्रक्ष व्वक्षण</u>्चे क्ष्रह्र विद्यं व्यक्ष व्यव्सुव क्षेत्र ट र ट्रिंक ध'वे गॅन्द 'हेन'५ट र दें'गॅन्ट'ट ख'चु'च'चडि,ब'र्खेन,'घब, देब'<u>छ</u>ेन'ग्रु'हेब'उ देवि 'दचेन' ॲक 'झ'གང་ਘॅད་དཔང་དུ་བནག་ནས་རྲི་སྱིད་གནམ་ཀྱིས་འŘོར ་མོ་མ་ནིག་བར་ཕྲོ་མོན་ नकिषायत्रयाक्षेर भी समय छेन नां ये पिंट र्फेन निषाय राम् यमुवमा दिन माखा झेम्रा ยิ้ธัระะลาวรมารูนาฏิ'สู้ารุณานิธายนหาธิราราสาขู พิลาศิลาสูงานณ พนา **้**ธิร_้าลุณาะั้ราชู พิลาศิพาสูพายุณ พมาฏิลาชีรา สิทรุนัส รณาศิทาพีธ เดิรา <u>घ्रयक्ष मेक्ष यत्र युत्त य</u>ुत्त युत्र द्वि या यित्व यहे यहु व दि र वयः श्रु सैन क **૱ૺૼૼૼૼ**ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻ૱ઌૻૻઌ૱૽૽ૢ૾ૺૹ੶ૹૢૡ੶ૡੵ૱૾ૻ૱ૻૡૢ૽ૼૼૼૼઽૺ૽૽ૢૢ૾ૺૹૡૻૺ૾ૡ૰ૹૺૡૡ૰ઌૡૺઽૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૺૡૺ૽૽૽ૺ૱ૺ

นญ ดุรานี้ฉิามราวุตุรมานมาดุรมีารรายาดิมามราวุกุญ พราวิาริมา QALENIAL, ALENIA, ALE ૡૡૢઽૹૡૹ૽૾ૹૺૹૻૹ૾ૢઌૹૠૼૡૺૹૡૢઽૢૻ૾૾૾૾૾ૻઽ૽૱ૡૢૹ૾ૻૡ૾ઌ૱ૡૹ૱૱ ঀঀয়৽ঢ়য়৾৾ঀয়ড়ৢ৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ঀয়য়য়৽ঀঀৣৼয়ৼয়য়ঀৢ৾৾ৼৢ৾ঢ়য়৾৾ঀয়৾ঀয়ড়য়য়য়য়ঀ৾য়ঀ৾৾ঀ ઽ૽ૻ૽૽ૢૺ૾ૻૢૻૺઽૻઌૢ૾ૺૼૼૼૺૼૼૼૼઌૻૡ૱ૡ૾૾ૡૻઌ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ ૹુૹૄૢૻૢૢૻૻઙૢ૽ૺૡૻૻૼૢૹૻૺઌૢૻૡૢૻૻ૱ઌૻૻ૾ૡ૾ૺૡૡૻૡૻૹૻૺૡૻૡૻૼ૱ૡૡૡૻૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ୡୢୄୖୄ୶୷୵୳ଌୄୖ୲୶୴୴୴ୡ୲ୖ୵ୄଈ୵ୣୠୄ୷୵ୣଡ଼୶୶୶ୠୡ୶ୄୢୠ୶୲ୡୖୢ୵ୄୖୢୖ୷୲୶ୡ સ્વરતામાં સુવાયમાં મુંગ્રે તે દુર્શાય સુવાય સાથ તે ત્યાર સુવાય સ ગ્રનથા ના.ર.ન્ય..નુશ.ગ્રી.સે.ચૈંટ. થયા શયાદ.નુ. સૈયાયાની ડુલ. શયા છેળ.ત્ર. พายๆ ริวิาฐญาฐาวฐลาวริสาขาสุขารังพารราษิาขี้ 1606 ขายพา ૡઌઃઽૻૼૹઽૻૡૼૼૼૼૡૻૺૹ૾ઽૻઌૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૺૺૡૻૻ૾ૼઽૼૢૡૡૢઽૹૺૢઽૢૼૼૹૡ૾ૢૹ૽ૻૹ૾ૼૹ૽૾ૹ૽૽ૺૹ૾ૢઌૻ૽૱ૼૹઽૡૡ૽ૼૹૼઌ ୢ୶୵ୖ୳ୄୖଌ୕ଡ଼୲୶୕୶୶ୄ୴୶ୖଈଽୖ୲ଽ୶୲ୣ୵ୄୠୄ୵ୖ୲୶୶୷୰ୄଢ଼୵୕ଡ଼ୣ୵୲୵ୖୢ୩୵ୖ୶୶୲ୖ୶୶

ᡏᢆ᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋ᠭ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠭ᠖᠂ᢓᠴ᠂ᡍᢆ᠄ᢋᢩᡃ᠉ᢣ᠋᠋᠋ᡪᢩᡜ᠋ᠧ᠋ᠴ᠋ᡔᠵ᠄ᡜ᠋ᠴ᠋ᡧ᠈ᡬ᠋ᢆ᠊ᢍ᠈ᡬ᠋ᢆᢄ᠋ᠴ᠋᠋ᠵ᠋ᡘ᠆ᡘ᠊ᡃ᠍᠍ᡛᢩ᠋ᠳ᠈ᢅᡷᡎᢂ᠂ᢩᢞᡆ᠂ᠼᢂᢂ <u>୶</u>ଷ୲୰୷ୄୢୠ୲ଽ୶୶୷ୢୖୠୡ୲୶୵ୠୠୄୠୄ୵ୡୢୖୠ୵ୢଌୠୄୢୄୡୠୄ୲ୠୄୖ୶୷ୖୄୡ୷୰୷୷ୡୄୠ୰ୡୢୖୠ୰ ଞ୍ଚିଦଶଂଞ୍ଚିଶ୍ୱୀ'ମୁଂକ୍ରିଣୀ ବ୍ୟସ୍ୟାଶ୍ୟଣକ୍ଷ୍ୟଂଶ୍ରିଷଂକ୍ରିପ'ମୁଂଶ୍ୟୁସ୍ୟୁଦ୍ୟପ୍ରସଂସ୍ଥିୟୁ ଅଂକ୍ଷଣ୍ଟ ଅଂକ୍ଷଣ୍ଟ ୩୴୵ୣୠ୵୕୶୵୵୵୵ୖ୶୶୳୰୶ଌ୵ୖ୲ଵ୕୵୰ୖୖୖୖୖ୕ଈୖ୰୶୲୶ୖଌ୵ୖୄୡ୲୰୶୲୰୲୵୲ଌୖ୶୰ୖୖ୵୲ୖୄୡ୵ ઽૢૻૠ૾૾ૻૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ૱ૻૻૡૻૡૻૺૹ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૼૼ૾ૣૡ૽ૻ૱૱ૡૻ૽ૡૻૡૼ૱ૻૡ૱ૡૻ૱ૻ૽ૡૻૡૼ૱ ૾ૺ૱૾૽ૹ૽ૢ૾૱૱ૼ૱ૻૡ૾૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ୄୄୠ୶୲୶ଢ଼୶୶୲୶୳୶୵୳ୄୢଌ୵୵ୖ୳ଌ୵ୠ୶ୠୄ୷ୖୠ୲୶୲ଡ଼୲୵ୄୖୢଌ୵୵୳୶ୄୖୄୠ୲୵ୠ୶ યમ માન મુંચ સ્થુવ સ્થાય બેન પર્વે ને આ સાચન સેવાય છે બોવ માંચ સાથી છે. સાથ

ય'લેષ''વાશુદ્દષ'નેદ'| વવ'ય'કૈષ'યુદ'યથ\ વાર્ક્ષ'ત્વે, 'વરે' 'ક્ષેડ્ ' સુર્ક્ષ ' સૈવાર્ક્ષ' धःक्षे'भ्रेंतृःभुवान्दरंभक्षम् कुवार्येते मनु्दरंस्वभावर्रें चक्कुतृ रिघुत्ता हेशः मुषुत्रूकायादृता¦ [⊉]कुषायां व्याकेषां येषागुतार्रेका कुषाखुरार्रें मित्रा हुवा ᡅ`ख़ॖॕॱय़ॖऀॺॖॺॵॖॱख़ॖॺॱॶॖॺॱऄॖॖऀॸॱॻऄॱॾ॓ॱॻऀॾॸॴॻॾऺॖऀॸऻॱॻऀऄॱॴज़॒ॺॱॸॖॸॱऻ य़ वत्रत्रधिः भूतित्र 'ई्रत्र'त<u>न</u>्रस'सेंग्मुर्मृत्रस'ग्री खस्र'धेमा खायां सुयार्ये पुट्र स्तुव सेस्रस ଶ୍ୱୁଐଜ୍ୟକ୍ଷାର୍ଜ୍ୟୁକ୍ଟ ଅକ୍ୟୁକ୍ଟ ସୁହାର୍ଷ ଅନ୍ୟୁକ୍ଟ ଅନ୍ୟୁକ୍ଟ ଅନ୍ୟୁକ୍ଟ ଅନ୍ વર્ષે 'વૃદ્ધિ ર સેવ 'છે' વાસ' ખેવા વાયા કુવાર્ય 'વૃદ્ધ' વૃદ્ધ સાસભાય સાથા તે બુલ જે છે. वस। मनिर`र्चुत'मु'दुते'र्द्रोम'लु'न्दा' समुर'सुर। क्षु'र्ळंप'च्चे'स'अ'र्ग्रेट'र्सेमुभ' देब'घट'घ्रथ'घरे'कट'हेब'छि5'रक्षणुक्ष'णुक्र'द्वुणु। णुहेर'झेँब'मेक्ष'घर'के **៹੫**ਕੇ੶ਖ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਖ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼ੑਸ਼ਗ਼ੑਸ਼ੑੑਸ਼ੑਸ਼ੑੑਫ਼ੑਸ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑੑੑਫ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼ੑਸ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼ นหิ.พ.ศ.ร.นาชมาศิๆาวธราริาฉฏฉานาฉะธารมฉาษิาฐุณาวณี 3ณารุรา ୴**तॱ**धह्र'भ्रीतॱयक्ष| के'दयर अर्छें'वृक्ष'ड्रुक् 'द्रत्र्था यते'द्रद्र्या कें'मॉर्मेत्र्र्था'ग्रे' थक्ष **ખે**વાયેલુપ્વ**हु**' દ્વા'ધ'વ્ય&ા'ગુદ'ર્વેન્દ' વહુદ & પ્યાસ' કા વિશ્વ સે વ્યું દ & પ્

ୡ୕୶୶ୄଽୡ୶୶୰୷ୠ୵ୖ୶୶୵୷ୄଌ୶୶୰୷ୠୡ୵ୄୠୄ୵୰୶ୄୠୡ୲ୄୢୖୠ୶ୖୢୢୡ୲ୠ୶୲ୖ୰୷ୠ୶ ૹ૱ૻઌઽૻૹ૾ૢઌૻૹ૾ૺઽૻૹૻૣૻઌૼૢૼ૱ઌૻઌૻૻઌ૽ૺૺૼૹૻૻૻૼૹૻૹ૾ઌૹૻઌૼૹઌૻઌ૽ૻઌૡ૱ઌૡૢૼૹૻૻઽઽૻ ૡૡૢ૱૱ઽૡૢૻૢૻઃ૱ૡ૽ૻૡૺૹૡૡઽઽૻૻ૱૾ૡૼ૱૱૱ૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ <u>२.क</u>ेल.रचकार्थर.तक्र विंट.ट.वा.खुवा.तहीवा.तटी वा.तत् के.स.जू. जू.खुका.वालज. ૨ ભયા મારે આ મ ર્શું ન આ માર્ય છે. કું ન આ પર સાથવા સ ગર્સેવા અઢંત અંદ રેસ સુવાયુન ર્સેવયા સ્થા સુવાલે શ અઢંત શે દા દા સે દા ૾ૣ૽ૼૼૼઽૼૼૹૻ૾૽૽ૢૺૻૹૻૡૢઽ૽ૼઽૼૼૡૢઽૺૡૹૻૡૢૡૻૹ૱ૢૼૻ૽ઌૢ૿ઽૻૡૢ૾ઌૻૹ૽૾૾૾ૼૼઽ૽ૼૢ૽ૼ૱ઌૹૼ૾ૺ૱ૹ૽૾ૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡઌ૱ૻ मेवेटर्भा मेडेट्रस.जनेज.से.नर्देश.लस.सेज.से.च.मुड्रम.च.र.म्य.मेथ. **स्रत्रण**वि`र्डे'गषुकारे'वृष्यं'यविष्ठ'सर्ट्र'य'र्र्यायहेव`र्डे। 5्यट'यर्तुष'र्डे। हुम् <u>दुषःसर्ह्वनदुःणलेश्वः</u>ष्ट्रत्वायत्व्वत्यदुःणलेश्वःवर्ङ्ग्रिश| देःयवितृः दुःसुःसर्ततः ୴ઽ੶૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૡૺ૱ૡૡૺૡૡૹૡઌૢૢ૱૱ૡ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ૬ે ' છે સેંઘ એ ૬ ' યર ' છે ' યર ' યુર કે ' વર્દ સ' ગ્રે દ' પં' ગ્રે કે ' યરે ' છે ' સ' મે ર કે ' સે ચ' छेर यमर झूय भर में वे. ह्व. सुर रवे थड़ छे अप्तर । दे मा यहें हो में र हि से ये ये. ଐଌୢ୴ୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄ୶୲ଽୄୄୄୄୄୄଽଽୄୄୄ୶୲ୢୄୄୠୄ୷ୄଌୖ୷୷ୠୢୄୄୄ୷ୠୄୡୢଽଽୄ୕ୄଌ୵ୡୄୢୄୄ୷ <u>कोकाको तृ दि</u>णका का पक्ष ट ही ह वाय का या रो कि पा रा रा से हो हु हो का ষ্ণুঅমার্হণ জঝাইজিন্দ্রে আধ্রু উঁলাঝা হ্বমান্দ্র আর্দ্রী অনি উঁজা অদ্বাদ্য সাদে আ শিআ **&**"ਗੁਖ਼ੁਆਗਨਗ੍ਰ" ਕਿ ਇੱਕ ਦਿ ਇੱਕ ਸਿਲ ਕਿ ਇਸ ਦੇ ਇੱਕ ਦੇ ਦੇ ਇੱਕ ᠴᠵᡃ**᠊ᡃᠣᡶᢅ**ᢜᠯᡪᡃᢄᡘᡆᢂᢟᢋ᠖ᡃᡨᢓᡆ᠋ᡜᡆ᠉ᢋᢄ᠂ᠳ᠉ᡷᠯᢋᢄᢅᢄ᠆ᠴᢓᢩ᠂ᡏᠿᢂ᠂ᠴᢜᢂᢩᢂᠴ **अर्ह्ता रहूते**:मनिरचुट'वर्षा टे'झ्रर'फे'झुव'य'सळेट'यबे'फेष**इ म**नेब' ર્દ્ર , વસુદ યલેવે ખુષા સાર્યે સ્ય સાથવ સુંદ ૬ વર્યે યવ સું સુ પુષા વરે য়ৣᡆ৾য়৾য়ঽ৾য়৾য়৾ঀ৾ঀ৾ঀ৾ঀঀ৸৾৾ৠ৾ঀৢ৾৸৾৾য়৾৾ঀৢ৾৸৾৾য়৾য়ৢ৾ঀ৾৾য়৾য়৾ঀ৾৾৸৾ঢ়ঀৢ৾৾ঢ়৾৾৾৽৾৾ৣ৾য়ৢ৾৾ঀ৾৾৽ঢ়৾৾ঀ 2ਸ਼੍ਰੋਕੇ 'ਛਾ ਕਸ਼ੁੱ'ਧਕੇ 'ਸੈਂ ਕ' 'ਤੁੱ ਕ' ਪਾ ਬੁੱ ਕ' ਬੁ ਲਾ ਬੁ ਨਾ ਕ ਸ਼ੂ ਸਾ ' ਸ਼੍ਰੈ ' ਪੈਂ ਕੇ 'ਸ਼ੇਂ ਸ ' ਸ਼੍ਰੋ ਕ' ਕ ਸ਼ੁ ਸ **ने**`र्ह्रेष'से**न'ग्रै'यगाव'दवद'यया किंष'मु**व'सिंग्रेष'हेस'मुव'त्रेय'व्रे स'म्रे मनिरःघुदायका मनकादितःमर्डुमायमाष्टित्यदार्दनोयवेगमुकास्तर्धेयिषुत ५८१ स्र'वर्दुक'ळेक'र्ये'वय'र्से'त्रम'ङ्गर'यक्ष'घुर'यते'रेम'र्वहेक'र्छेम'स्रुय'ग्रे'र्न्वर'

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