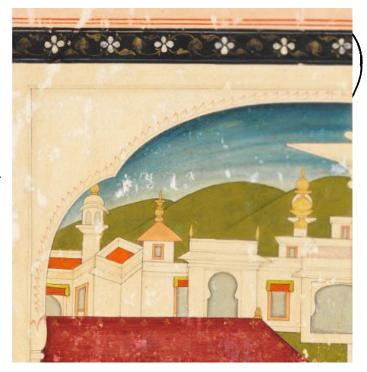
M. R. Gautam Evolution of Rāga and Tāla in Indian Music





Munshiram Manoharlal Publishers Pvt Ltd

dedicated my guru Thakur Jaideva Singh

ISBN 81-215-0442-2 This edition 1993 First published 1989 © 1989 Gautam, Madurai Ramaswami

Published and printed by Munshiram Manoharlal Publishers Pvt. Ltd., Post Box 5715, 54 Rani Jhansi Road, New Delhi 110 055

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Preface

I shall be ever indebted to my revered guru Thakur Jaideva Singh whose never failing guidance in preparing this work, mainly responsible for its completion. He gave me the full benefit of his vast scholarship in the fields of music and musicology, Sanskrit, occidental and oriental philosophies, yoga, philology, semantics, morphology, teleology, ontology, etc., and helped me to get a systematic vision of the various concepts of Indian music.

I also enjoyed the full benefit of his magnificent personal library. Most of my reference books were available in it.

A list of abbreviations, used in this work, is given in the beginning. A comprehensive chart showing the interpretation of the various Deśī-tāla-s mentioned in the different texts, namely, Sangīta Ratnākara, Sangīta Cūdāmaņi, Sangīta Sudhā, Sangīta Samayasāra, Bharatārnava, Bharatabhāsyam and Aumāpatyam, have been given with analytical observations.

Bibliography of the books used for reference in this work, is given at the end of it with an indication of the important concepts, technical terms and historical perspectives mentioned therein.

In the chapter on *tāla*, due to lack of better signs, capital S has been used to denote guru; capital I for *laghu* and zero for *drutam*.

7 June 1988 Calcutta

M.R. GAUTAM

Introduction

TNDIAN music, in its sojourn in space and time may be divided. in a historical perspective into three phases: ancient, medieval, and modern. These may be regarded as ending approximately in the 13th cent. AD, 18th cent. AD, and our own times respectively.

The chief relevance of history to any contemporary modality of life lies in the offer of objectivity, perspective and a method of evaluation of present trends and aspirations in the role of their shaping the future. A systematic, objective and critical study of the history of Indian music based on original source material is still, largely a desideratum.

The present work is a humble attempt in this direction. It endeavours to set forth the conceptual evolution of two foundational and differentiating elements of Indian music viz. $r\bar{a}ga$ and $t\bar{a}la$. Indian music rests on the tripod of $r\bar{a}ga$, $t\bar{a}la$ and prabandha. These represent respectively the sound, time and structural aspects of musical experience. Prabandha, in the sense of form, worded or otherwise, emerges from a matrix of $r\bar{a}ga$ and $t\bar{a}la$. These two characterise and differentiate Indian music from all its compeers. They obtain, in a vast and varying usage in this huge subcontinent, uniformity and continuity in space and time from a textual hierarchy. To trace their evolution in, and from the large treasure house of textual sources. is both necessary and fascinating; necessary because of the need of rewriting our cultural history and fascinating and humbling—because of both the vastness of scope and the nature of the problems involved.

The present volume deals with such an evolution during the first phase of Indian music viz. the ancient. It was originally written as a thesis for the degree of Ph.D. in the Banaras Hindu University under the guidance of that patriarch of contemporary Indian musicology, Padmabhushan Dr. Thakur Jaideva Singh, to whom the work is dedicated, with love and veneration. The book now

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appears substantially in its original form with but minor changes. It will be followed by a second volume in which the evolution of raga and tala in the second and third phases of Indian will be traced.

The work is divided into eight chapters. The first chapter gives a brief account of the history of our music from the available texts beginning from Nāradīya Šiksā upto the Sungīta Saroddhara in the 18th century AD. Many works on music apart from the Natyasästra. Brhaddeśi, and Sangita Rutnąkura, have been cited and an outline as to what they contain, has been given. For example, Sangita Kulpataru. Sarasvatī hrdavālamkāra or Bharatabhāsva by Nānvadeva, Sangita Sudhākara by Haripala Sangita Ratnāvalī by Somabhūpāla. Sangita Samayasāra by Pūrśvadeva, Śrngārakāra by the king of Sākainbari. Sangitopanisadasāru by Sudhākalaša and other texts beyond 14th century AD, have been mentioned because of the significant information they contain regarding raga and tala. From these texts, one gets an idea of the course of evolution of our music. For instance upto Bharata's time, i.e., 14 century AD, there were only five Margi tala-s but by the 13th century AD, tala had developed a great deal and we get the names of 130 tala-s in Śrngārahāra (13th cent.) Also one can see the gradual rise of gāna. i.e., Grāma and Deśi rāga-s replacing Jātis. We also get a clear picture of the development of the srutis, svaras (metodic) compositions, the connotations of technical terms of music like graha. amša, nyāsa, apanyāsa, vādī, samvādī, alpatva, bahutva and even raga from the study of the above texts. The emergence of the timetheory is significant. No reference to this is found in Bharata's time. Even later, this theory was prevalent only in respect of Grāma and Deśī rāga-s and never of Jāti-s.

The second chapter is on Vedic music. After surveying the origin and evolution of the sāma scale and the sāman (sāma music), the solid fivefold contribution of Sāmaveda to our classical music is explained with illustrations. The fivefold contribution is (1) the notes of the fundamental scale which later on became our primary tone-system, namely. Ṣad ja grāma; (2) the origin of our Mūrchanā system; (3) the rudiments of aesthetics of our music; (4) the concept of laya; (5) the earliest system of notation, namely, the cheironomic system.

The third chapter is devoted entirely to Bharata's Nāt yaśāstra. It deals with the music as described by Bharata. Bharata refers to

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Gandharva music, the music that was meant not only for the deva Gandharvas as distinct from nara Gandharvas but also the devasdivine beings themselves. He called it Marga or spiritual music. Bharata's Nätyašästra is the earliest comprehensive and authentic work of Indian music that gives a fairly clear picture of Gandharva music as it existed in about AD 100 to 400 Bharata, while he refers to and defines the fundamentals of Gandharva music in the above work, was mainly concerned with drama and his interest in music was only to the extent it could be applied to the former to augment the effect in different acts and scenes. Therefore it seems clear that his primary interest was not music as such but only applied music. In the context, he refers to particular Grāma rāga-s to be used in particular scenes. His stress on music has been predominantly in respect of its application to drama. The rasa s described by Bharata relate to drama as represented on the stage. Music to him was another beautiful, artistic, effective device to bolster up the moods of the various scenes of the drama through appropriate thematic tunes. In the light of these facts, it will be clear that there is misconception among some scholars who write on Indian music of reckoning the Natyasastra as a text primarily in music. It is just possible that Bharata may have left out those aspects of our music which to him were not useful or germane to his main subject of interest, namely, drama. This is perhaps the reason that out of the thirty-six chapters in his work, he has devoted only four chapters to music.

The two epics Rāmāyaņa and Mahābhārata also contain references to music. The former refers to Jati-s only while the latter refers to Gräma råga-s only. Similarly in the Harivamsa Purana, there are references only to Grāma rāga-s. And again in the śikşā texts, there is no mention of Jāti-s whereas Bharata deals with and describes Jāti, Mūrchanā and Grāma mainly in his work. Were there then two parallel streams of evolution in our music from ancient times which ultimately united in the present form of raga and mela? Why and how was the name Grama raga given? Could it be a natural evolute of Grāma as distinct from the Grāma-Mūrchanā Jāti cycle? Because Grāma rāga-s had some of the attributes of the present raga in respect of form and expression whereas in the term jāti-rāga, the suffix rāga seems more in the nature of emphasising the charming (ranjakatva) aspects of the Jāti than in the technical sense of the word as known at present. These issues are discussed. Also detailed analysis of the structure of Jäti-s, their

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characteristics, their intrinsic musicality or otherwise has been given.

Chapter four is on the second phase of the evolution of our music, namely, the gradual but steady transition from Jatl to Grāma-Deśī rāga-s. In other words from Gāndharva sangīta to gāna. This is clearly perceptible in the work Brhaddess by Matanga attributed to 7th-9th century AD. While Matanga describes Grama-Mūrchanā-Jāti briefly, he deals with Grāma and Deśi rāga-s, Bhāşā-s, Vibhāşā-s, Antarabhāsā-s. Gīti-s, Prabandha-s and certain aspects of our music which were omitted by Bharata. His interpretation of *sruti* is unique and he has given a more comprehensive analysis of it than Bharata. Unfortunately the chapter on tala is lost and there one is unable to get a clear picture of the state in which it was in his time.

The next chapter, i.e. Chapter five deals with the final phase of evolution of our music up to the 13th century AD. This is available in the Sangita Ratnäkara by Šarngadeva. This is a magnificent, exhaustive work giving a classic elucidation of the information given in both the Nātyaśāstra and Brhaddess. But for this work, it may have been difficult to understand the other texts fully. After explaining the Grāma-Mūrchanā-Jāti system. Śārngadeva takes the examples of Jāti-s given in notation by Matanga and provides them with suitable literary texts. Then he delineates on Grāma rāga-s, Deśī rāga-s, Bhāsā-s, Vibhāsā-s, Antarabhūsā-s. He also gives a list of pürvaprasiddha and adhunaprasiddha raga-s. Many raga-s are illustrated in notation. There are also Sanskrit compositions in notation. In this chapter, the five Giti-s, namely, Suddha, Bhinna, Vesarā, Gaudī and Sādhāriņī, the four Angas-Rāgānga, Baāşānga, Krivanga and Upanga are described and discussed. The aksiptika-s of the Grāma rāga-s belonging to both the Sadja and Madhyama Grāmas, have been given and their descriptions by Moksadeva. Kasyapa, Sarngadeva and others have been analysed from the point of view of melodiousness, feasibility in singing and in some cases the innate contradictions in the derivation between the Grama raga-s and their parent jati-s. Wherever possible the Grama and Deśl rāga-s have been compared with the rāga-s current at present both in Hindustani and Karnataka music.

The illuminating commentaries of Kallinatha and Simhabhūpala through a flood of light on the nature of music, musical instruments that existed around that period. But for their graphic explanations.

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this text also would have been unintelligible and its utility greatly reduced.

A separate chapter (Chapter six) on aesthetics has been provided on the practical devices as existed in the period of Sangita Ratnakara and before. It was also felt that the amazingly complex nomenclature of 96 sthäya-s. 6 käku-s and 15 gamaka-s with their subtle ramifications deserve elucidation as they dealt with both raga and tala, and gave a clear picture as to the high state of evolution of our music. But there is no escaping the fact that the highly codified sophisticated categorisations of the above devices undoubtedly inhibited the free play of imagination to a great extent. However the concept of improvisation was not unknown and special provision was made for this under the category of anibaddha gana (spontaneous as opposed to precomposed music). In the definitions of the various sthayas, kakus and gamakas, several texts have been cited, namely Sangita Ratnäkara, Sangita Sudhä, Sangita Samayasāra, Caturdandī Prakāsikā and Sangīta Rāja.

Also a separate chapter (Chapter seven) has been given to tala because the concept and evolution of tala is as significant as raga. The origin of the concept of tala from laya; the physical and psychological aspect of laya involving the concept of time and space in their absolute sense and the gradual scientific evolution of tala into the main five Margi varieties, namely, Cancatputa, Caccaputa, Satpitāputraka, Udghat ta and Sampakvestaka. The subsequent fade out of the Märgi täla-s along with the Jäti-s, the resurgence of gana with its Grama and Desi raga-s and the enormous expansion of new tala-s totalling more than 120 by 13th century AD. have all been dealt with in detail. The Margi and Desi tala systems have been critically analysed with illustrations. The subtle concept of time (kāla) itself in Bharata's period and as elucidated by Abhinavagupta have been discussed. The manner of marking the tala-s with the help of a taladhara and ghana, the subsequent doing away with ghana in the Desi tala-s, i.e., the two distinct stages of development of tala, one in the time of Nalyasastra and the other in the time of Sangita Ratnakara have been presented and discussed. The concept of graha and sannipäta has also been dealt with. The highly complex structure and system of our tala-s, the marga-s, the kala-s and their evolution have been given in detail.

The last chapter (Chapter' eight) under 'Conclusion' traces the evolution of our music and shows how our musical traditions, in

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spite of the several modifications and adjustments during the course of the centuries, have been maintained in essence throughout. How raga and tala have crystallised into their respective current forms, how Gandharva music, considered as celestial music in Bharata's time, faded out yielding to gana, how the very concept of MargI sangita changed from spiritual music to classical aesthetic music by 8th century AD, how Gandharva music has also continued, although its form has undergone tremendous changes have been discussed, analysed and inferences drawn.

Regarding gāna, a study of the 33rd Chapter of the Nāţyaśāstra¹ waş indeed revealing. Bharata has devoted an entire chapter on the state of gāna, which showed that another variety of music alongside Gāndharva music existed and was popular. The enlightening commentary of Abhinavagupta² throws a flood of light on the evolution of our music. Strangely most of the scholars of the Nāţyaśāstra appear to have missed this chapter and have taken Gāndharva music to be the only noteworthy music and have traced all subsequent evolution to it.

The evolution of our music has moved along different paths along by ways and highways, in a complicated fashion. It is difficult to disentangle the various influences that have gone into the making of our music as it exists today. An attempt has been made to give as scientific analysis of the main factors that have contributed to the evolution of our music as is possible on the basis of the available texts.

A study of the book will show that our present music is derived more from gana rather than from Gandharva music though the ten characteristics of the Jäti-s mentioned by Bharata are still retained in some form or the other.

Acknowledgements

CRATEFUL acknowledgement is made to the following:

Padmabhushana Dr. Thakur Jaideva Singh, my guru, for his paternal affection, free access to his wisdom, erudition and his vast library. He was a perennial source of inspiration and encouragement in my life.

My dear friend Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. R. Sathyanarayana, a renowned authority on Indian music and dance for his scholarly ideas and suggestions in the preparation of this volume.

The late Dr. R.K. Shringy for some suggestions on the chapter on *tala* in this work.

The Banares Hindu University for permission to publish the original doctoral thesis in the present form.

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List of Abbreviations

Nā. Śi.	Nâradīya Šikşä
Nā. Śā.	Näţyaśästra
Brhd.	Brhaddeśi
S. S.s.	Sangīta Samayasāra
S. R.	Sangīta Ratnākara
<i>S. S</i> .	Sangīta Sudhā
S. Rā.	Sangita Rāja
С. Р.	Caturdandī Prakāsikā
S. C.	Sangita Cūdāmaņi
B. B.	· Bharatabhās yam
B. A.	Bharalārnavam
M. U.	Mānasoliāsa ·
Bh. K.	Bharata Kośa
R. D.	Rāga Darpaņa
S. S.a.	Sangita Sārāmrta
P , ·	Pattilam

CHAPTER 1

A Brief Historical Survey of Indian Music up to the Thirteenth Century

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A ...

INDIAN music is ancient. Its origin is traced to Sāmaveda. But a brief historical survey will give us the important works on it, and thereby enlighten us in its evolution. But it is a melancholy fact that most of the works on Indian music are not available, and whatsoever available, in manuscripts, are in such dilapidated, precarious condition that it would be dangerous even to touch them. Many of them are available only in parts.

While Bharata's Natyasastra (Na. Sa.), is the most authentic and comprehensive work on Indian music, although its main subject of interest was drama, Nāradī ya Šikşā (Nā. Ši.), is considered an earlier work than Nä, Śā. While the Nä. Śā. is ascribed between the first cent. BC to third cent. AD, Nā. Śi. is attributed to 150 BC, or over a century earlier to $N\bar{a}$. $S\bar{a}$. In the latter, the main subject matter is Vedic music followed by Grāma rāgas. Strangely there is no reference to Jati. Whereas in the Na. Sa., there is a comprehensive description of the Grāma-Mürchanā-Jāti system, the system of evolving the 22 srutis etc., but hardly any description or discussion of Grāma rāga except as a mood-augmenting mode in particular scenes just before their commencement. This, in fact, appears to be more an interpolation than the work of Bharata. Na. Si. deals with the origin of the sāma-scale, krusta, prathama, dvitīya, tritīya, caturthä, mandra and attsvärya (detailed discussion on this topic is done in the chap. 2). The work also mentions the six Grāma rāgas namely Madhyama Grāma, Şadja Grāma, Sādhāritā, Pañcama, Kaiśika, Sädava and Kaiśikamadhvamā, But the structure and form of the ragas are not given, with the result one cannot get an idea of the svara-arrangement of the above ragas. But the real significant point is that the term rāga has been used, in its technical sense, whereas in the Nä. Sä. it has been used only in the literal sense of pleasing.

My contention is that this indeed is a very important landmark in

the history of Indian music. Because the general belief is that Jäti is the matrix of the raga which followed it. But the fact that Grama raga existed contemporaneously with Jati, shows that there were two parallel streams of evolution in Indian music i.e., Grāma rāga and Jāti. It appears that at different periods Jätl and Grāma rāga were alternately in vogue or comparatively more prominent. For instance, in the two epics, Rāmāyana and Mahābhārata, the former refers at several places to Jāti, with hardly any reference to Grāma raga whereas in the latter, there is hardly any mention of Jati but several references to Grāma rāgas. Therefore it is difficult to state which of the above two forms was earlier. These two streams alternately flowed smoothly for sometime and then fell into rough waters. We find that Bharata considered Jāti as Gāndharva SangIta, a music that pleased not only men of learning (aesthetes) but also the Gandharvas and gods. He apparently classified Grama raga under gana which he considered as inferior to Jati. Therefore he hardly says anything about Grāma rāgas. He called Jāti as Mārgī Sangita. But we find Grāma rāga gaining in prominence by about the eighth-ninth cent. AD when it came to be called Margi Sanglta i.e., in the time of Matanga. This means that the very connotation of the term Margi underwent a change. The term that earlier denoted spiritual. celestial music (in Bharata's time) later on-in the time of Matanga-came to mean more classical music as opposed to folk. Thus the evolution of our music shows such dramatic changes in concepts, composition and execution.

As Bharata's $N\bar{a}$. $S\bar{a}$ is discussed separately, I shall briefly review some of the other texts on Indian music. Several names are mentioned by Rāmakrishna Kavi, the great Savant, whose magnum opus *Bharata Koşa* has served one or two Sanskrit scholars to pass off, as scholars in music as well. But the information given in it about the contribution of many of the works is insignificant. For example, Višākhila is mentioned as the next great author after Bharata in the fourth cent. AD. Nothing is known about his work. Sārdula, Vişnudharmottara, were two other authors, the titles of their works are not known. They are believed to have been in fourth or fifth cent. AD, definitely earlier than Matanga. Rāhul, a Buddhist wrote on music in fifth cent. AD.

Then Matanga in ninth cent. AD wrote Bthaddesi which is available only in parts. His main contribution was the 12-tone Marchanä system, elaboration of the Jätis with notation, Grāma rāgas, A Brief Historical Survey of Indian Music up to the Thirteenth Century

Bhāsās, Vibhāsās and Antarabhāsās, description and examples of Desi rāgas and introduction of the Kinnarī viņā.

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Then we have Sarasvati Hrdyālankāra and Bharata Bhāşya by Nanyadeva attributed to AD 1080. It has 15 chaps. on music and has a commentary on the music portion of Nā. Sā., (chaps. 28-36). But it has a number of mistakes.

Sangīta Kalpataru is another text of the tenth cent. AD, because Raja Bhoja quotes from it and Raja Bhoja lived in tenth cent.

Sangīta Sudhākara of Haripala is well known. It was written in AD 1175.

Then Abhilâşitârtha Cintâmaņi by Someśvara contains a few chaps. on vocal, instrumental music and dance. His work extends to 1600 verses. His son Pratapa Cakravarty or Jagadeka Malla wrote Sangīta Cintâmaņi. Although this was a big work, only 1st, 2nd and 5th chaps. are available. Pārśvadeva, author of Sangīta Sumayasāra has bodily lifted many verses from this.

Sangīta Ratnāvalī is another text written in AD 1180, by Somabhūpāla.

Then comes Sangita Samayasāra of Pārśvadeva almost contemporary with Sangita Ratnākara of Sārngadeva. Of this work, the 1st chap. and half of the 2nd chap. are not available. It deals with gamakas more lucidly than Sangita Ratnākara.

Sangīta Ratnākara was written by Šārngadeva about AD 1230. His ancestors came from Kaśmīr and served the Yādavas of Devagiri. S.R. consists of seven chaps., i.e. (1) Svara, (2) Rāga, (3) Prakīrņaka, (4) Prabandha, (5) Tāla, (6) Vādya, and (7) Nŗtya.

Four commentaries have been written on it by Simhabhūpāla, Keśava, Kāllinātha and Viţtala. Of these the commentaries of only Simhabhūpāla and Kāllinātha are published. While Viţtala wrote his commentary in Telugu, Keśava's commentary is not available. Regarding other works of the thirteenth cent. AD, Srngārahāra written by the king of Šākambhari, is the most significant. It is supposed to have been written in AD 1300. The author has mentioned old rāgas. He has also given 15 Janaka rāgas and 20 Bhāsa rāgas as obtained and derived from Yastika. In addition '53 Deśī rāgas have also been mentioned. In the chap. on tāla, he has given 120 tālas.

It seems that between second and thirteenth cent. AD, there was a tremendous upsurge of $t\bar{a}la$ construction, because in the $N\bar{a}$. $S\bar{a}$., a total of five $t\bar{a}las$ is mentioned and by thirteenth cent. AD, 120

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tālas had developed.

In this work, the author refers to several vinās like Ekatantri, Nakulā, Kinnarī and Ālāpinī. There are also chaps on rasa, abhinaya and alamkāra.

Rasatatvasamuccaya by Allarāja is a work consisting of five chaps. of which four are devoted to music.

Mokşadeva is another writer of the thirteenth cent. AD who has written about Grāma rāgas. He has mentioned 50 rāgas that were in vogue in his period (*Pravartak rāgas*).

Another important work on music is by king Madana in AD 1375. He was king of Delhi; he was a Telugu prince and author of several works on *dharmaśāstras* and music. *Ananda-Sanjīvinī* a work of his was so scholarly that even Rāņā Kumbha has quoted from it in his *Nityaratna Kośa*. Madana has mentioned 130 *tālas* and has given their *prastāras*. Second chap. is on *rāga*, third chap. is devoted to *prabandha*, but it abruptly ends here which may be due to his death or loss of kingdom.

A Jain scholar Suddhakalasa wrote a book Sangītopanişadasāra wherein he has referred to rare $t\bar{a}las$ among which P_{f} thvikundala is one. The book was written around AD 1350.

Sangitacandra by Vipradāsa of the fourteenth cent. AD, has only one chap. on *nrtya*. His chap. on *nrtta* was commented upon by the Nepal king Jyotirmal in Nepalese in AD 1625. The author quotes Sārngadeva and hence must have been after him.

Devanabhatta and Devendra both lived in the fourtcenth cent. AD, and named their work *Sangīta Muktāvalī*. Both the authors deal mainly with *nrtta*. The latter was a disciple of Rudrācārya and probably lived in Gopācala (Gwalior).

Aumäpatam is a very significant work on music. It must have been a huge book as it consisted of 30 chaps. The author Umāpaty belonged to the Tamil region and appears to belong to some school other than Bharata. A study of this text may throw fresh light on the evolution of our music.

Viśvapradīp, written in AD 1350 is by a Mythila Brahmin Bhuvanānanda. The work exhaustively treats on musical topics. The chap. I is on nāda, chap. II is on rāga, III on tāla, IV on gīta, V on miscellaneous musical topics, and VI on musical instruments. There are a total of 2600 verses.

Another text written about AD 1350, is by Šrngārasekhara. The name of the text is Abhinayabhūşaņa. It treats incidentally on

music. Its main interest is dramatics and consists of 1000 verses. The commentary is in Tamil.

Alamkāra Samgraha by Amrtānanda probably written in the thirteenth-fourteenth cent. AD consists of 13 chaps., each one extending up to 100-50 verses.

Asokamalla was another well-known scholar whose book on music is not available and its title also not known. The only available section is on *abhinaya* consisting of 2000 verses. But he extensively quotes from Hanumān, Kirtidhara, Kohala, Abhinavagupta and later writers.

Sanglia Śiromani was a very valuable work, because it was the result of the joint effort of many scholars who were assembled at a place called Kada (near Allahabad), situated between Jamuna and Ganga in AD 1429 and was sponsored by king Sultan Shahi. He organised an All India Conference on music and invited scholars from all over the country. Hence the work that resulted was based on all the important texts on music up to that time. But unfortunately this work is completely lost.

Sangīta Dīpikā by Mādhava Bhatta about AD 1400, contains descriptions of rāgas based on the rāga-rāgini system. The author was a resident of Banaras and his work consists of 1000 verses.

Sangita Ratnāvalī containing about 1000 verses on music is attributed to AD 1200. This is also not available although other subsequent authors quote from it.

Sangīta Kalpavīksa, Tālārnava are two works of the fiftcenth cent. AD. The former has a commentary called Vistāra by Rai Gaņeša and the latter, as is evident from the title, was exclusively devoted to tāla but is not available.

An additional word about Sangīta Ratnākara appears necessary. Written by Śārngadeva about AD 1230, he was the third generation. His ancestors hailing from Kaśmīr settled down in Devagiri (Aurangabad) under the Yādavas. Śārngadeva's grandfather was Bhaskara, a great Sanskrit scholar who was invited by the Yādavas. Sārngadeva's father was Sodhala who was patronised by king Singhana of the Yādava dynasty who ruled between AD 1210-47. He was appointed Karagāgranī (accountant-general) by the same king. In this work, which is perhaps the most valuable after Nā. Sā. the chap. on svara especially, contains theories which are contradictory to the principles on which they are supposed to be based.

For instance Saragadeva, while acclaiming Bharata's 22-sruti

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arrangement in a saptaka, actually introduces fourteen notes within a saptaka. He mentions ten notes—five under nişāda and five under gāndhāra, namely nişāda (Pancaśruti, dha), kaiśika nişāda, kākalī nişāda, cyuta şadja, acyuta şadja, gāndhāra (Pancaśruti, rc), sādhāraņa gāndhāra, antara gāndhāra, cyuta madhyama, and acyuta madhyama. All the above svaras are at an interval of only one śruti whereas Bharata clearly states that the minimum difference of interval required between two svaras to be musically viable, is two śrutis. The strange consequence is that all subsequent scholars like Rāmāmātya. Somanātha, Pundarika, Tuljādhipa, Bhāvabhaṭla, have all blindly followed Śārṅgadeva while at the same time upholding the śruti-arrangement principle of Bharata. They have tried to establish fourteen svaras within twenty-two śrutis. Therefore either the number of śrutis within the saptaka has to be increased to at least twenty-cight or Bharata's entire svara-arrangement scrapped.

In this context, Matanga's understanding and definition of *śruti* seems most plausible. His *śruti-svara* relationship based on *āśraya-āśrayī bhāv.*¹ with two kinds of *śrutis* namely *antaḥśruti* and *sva-śruti* is most convincing.

A work entitled Bålabodhan of about AD 1330, is a valuable commentary on the Nä. Śā., because it quotes and refers to all the previous commentators on the Nā. Śā., like Udbhaţţa, Lollaţţa, Śankūka, Ghanţaka, Kīrtidhara, Abhinavagupta, Jagadekamalla and Śrirangarāja, Śrirangarāja's reference in the above work is found in Bhāşya Vākhyāla of Acyuta Rāya of Vijayanagar (AD 1530-44) Bālabodhan is not available now.

The next important text on music after S.R. is Sangita $R\bar{a}j$ (Sa. $R\bar{a}j$.) of Mahārāņa Kumbhakarņa of Citrakūta (now known as Chittoor). It was written in AD 1449. He was also a commentator of Gita Govinda. What is most amazing is how he found time to do so much creative work in the midst of fighting 30 battles and building nearly 40 fortresses.

Sa. Rāj closely adheres to S.R., but at many places there are supplemented commentaries with quotations from Abhinavagupta and Vipradāsa, Ašokamalla, Devendra, Madana and Sangīta Širomani (by Pandita Mandali). Sa. Raj and Gīta Govinda have been referred to by Mahārāņa Kumbha's son in his inscription of about AD 1480.

Brhaddeši, Trivandrum, p. 8.

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¹ Sangita Cintâmaņi, another unavailable work of about AD 1400, is by Vāmabhūpāla, king of Kondavīdu in Āndhra Pradeša.

SangIta Sarvasva, a work of about AD 1500, was by Jagaddhara who called himself Sarasvatidäsa. Only a portion of the manuscript is available. There are references to a king Udayavatsa, probably of Orissa or Bengal.

Sangita Dāmodara of Šubhankara is on music, poetics and dramatics. There is a description of the status of different schools of music prevalent then. There are references to Sangita Cintāmani.

Kohala's work is unavailable and it is known through quotations given by Abhinavagupta.

Sangīta Súryodayu is another important work of the sixteenth cent. AD. The author Laxminārāyaņa wrote this under the auspices and behest of king Krsņadeva Rāya who ruled Vijayanagar from AD 1509 to 1530. He deals with tāla, prabandha and nrtta. He altogether omits rāga. He has mentioned the names of 100 new tālas. He says that, his father wrote a commentary in Telugu on S.R. He also mentions that his father received 3000 tolās of gold from Ghiazuddin, Sultan of Mândoa in Gujarat.

Tālakalāvardhi, an exhaustive work on tālas. unfortunately not available now, is very valuable as it contains references to almost all the important texts on music. The author Acyuta Rāya, was the brother of king Kṛṣṇadeva Rāya. He discusses everything on tāla that was current then quoting from Sangīta Chandrodaya, Maṇidarpuṇa, Vidyāvinoda, Catursabha Vilāsa. Tālakalā Vilāsa, Nṛtya Cūdāmaṇī, Kātyāyaṇa, Sangītārnava and Rangarāja's Bharata Bhāşya. Unfortunately not a single work cited above is available today.

Svaramelakalānidhi by Rāmāmātya is available, and quite well known. It was written in AD 1550. He was the father of melā system of classification of rāgas, later followed by Pt. Venkatamakhin. He refers to svayamblu antara gāndhāra and suddha dhaivata. He deals mainly with Karņāțaka music and describes various vīnās.

Amātya means minister and hence there is a controversy as to his identity whether he was the same person who died in the battle Tallikotta or Aliya Rūmāmātya.

Pundarika Vittala wrote several books on music. He also dealt mainly with Karnāţaka music. He belonged to a village called Śivaganga in Karnāţa. The books were written between AD 1560-70.

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They were Sadrāga Candrodaya, Nartana Nirnaya, Rāga Mālā, and Rāga Manjarī. He was also an adherent of the melā system. The significant aspect of this contribution is his reference to Persian maqāms which had, by then, come into vogue in this country. But he mentions their origin in Indian rāgas. For example, he mentions the names of 15 maqāms derived from Indian rāgas. They are as follows:

Persian Maqām	rsian Maqām . Indian Rāga			
1. Rahāvi	derived from	Devagāndhār		
2. Nişävar	derived from	Kānadā melā		
3. Mähür	derived from	Sārang melā		
4. Jangūlā	derived from	Bangal mela		
5. Åhang	derived from	Deśi räga		
6. Bārā	derived from	Malhār		
7. Sühvä	derived from	Kedāra		
8. Irāqya	derived from	Dhanāsri		
9. Hussaini	derived from	Jaijaivanti		
0. Muslik	derived from	Mālav		
1. Yaman	derived from	. Kalyāņ		
2. Sarparda	derived from	Bilaval		
3. Vakrez	derived from	Deśkār		
l4. Hijāz	derived from	Asāveri		
15. Muśk (पुषक)	derived from	Devagiri		

Rasakaumudī is another important work by Śrikantha who flourished in the court of Śatruśalya, a Jain dynasty which ruled over Jamnagar. This was written in AD 1583. The first five chapts. deal with various aspects of music and $n_f tya$. Three types of $v\bar{v}n\bar{a}s$ are described and $r\bar{a}gas$ are classified into 15 melās. He also refers to svayambhu svaras.

Rāga Vibodha by Somanātha written in AD 1609, contains also a commentary by the author. He has described the Rudra $v\bar{n}n\bar{a}$, Suddha and Madhya melā $v\bar{n}n\bar{a}s$ and given 23 melās as predominant. He has also followed Šārngadeva in establishing more than nine svaras. In fact where Šārngadeva has shown fourteen svaras in a saptaka, Somanātha has established seventeen.

Sangita Sudhā was by king Raghunātha of Thanjavur in AD 1620.

Some believe that it was actually written by Govinda Dixit. There are a few poems both in Sanskrit and Telugu, Karnātaka music was at its zenith under his patronage. Suddha and Madhya melā vīnās are described. As in Rasakaumudī, 15 melās are mentioned as predominant and details of 50 rāgas are given which were popular in his time. 264 rāgas as given but not explained by Sārngadeva, are defined in the chap. on rāgas.

Caturdandi Prakāšikā was written by Pandit Venkatamakhin in AD 1630. The author introduced 72 melās. He was the son of Govinda Dixit. He also has described the Šuddha and Madhya melā vīņās. He also introduced his own type of vīņā called the Venkaţādhvari vīņā which went into oblivion in his own lifetime. He criticises and abuses the author of Svaramelakalāntdhi, Rāmāmātya profusely. He deals mainly with gīta, prabandha and tāla.

Caturdandi consisted of thāya, gīta, prabandha and tāla. Sālagasūda prabandha was the only prabandha which was called gīta. The first person to introduce Caturdandi was Gopāl Nāyak.

Sangīta Darpaņa by Dāmodar Miśra was written in AD 1630. It contains five chaps. which deal with $g\bar{i}ta$, $t\bar{a}la$ and $n_{\bar{i}}tya$.

Sangīta Cūdāmanī by Govinda a work of the seventeenth century probably AD 1680, is very valuable because it was this author who made the various modifications on the $v\bar{n}n\bar{a}$, now in use and settled the controversy of the 72 melakartas. The new terms he coined and the construction of the $v\bar{n}n\bar{a}$ have survived to this day. His exact whereabouts and time are not known. He must have been somewhere in South India.

Sangīta Sārāmīta was written by king Tulaja in AD 1729-35 in Sanskrit. He has enumerated 29 melās beginning from Śrīrāga. In some places he has deviated from Caturdandi Prakāšikā.

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Sangīta Pārijāta by Pt: Ahobala was written in about AD 1650 and 1700. He followed the principle of *śrutis* and took $k\bar{a}f\bar{i}$ as the principle scale. He shows the method of establishing the *śuddha* and vikrta svaras on the sounding wire of the vīnā. In other words, he shows the method of expressing the *śuddha* and vikrta svaras in terms of the length of the speaking wire of the vīnā in exactly the same way as shown by Hrdayanārāyaŋadeva in his Hrdayaprakāša. He has also described several Hindustani music rāgas.

Sangīta Sāroddhara was a work composed by Ranganātha of Śrirangapaţnam in about AD 1750. He was a good Vedic scholar. His book is valuable in furnishing Vedic quotations.

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Parameśvara, an author, the title of whose work is not known, would be very useful to vina players as he has written six chaps. on the technique of vina playing. The work may have been written in about AD 1750.

Thus the history of Indian music shows that by and large most of the authors have followed two works mainly, namely $N\ddot{a}$. $S\ddot{a}$, and S.R. A survey of the course that our music has taken also indicates that the Grāma-Mūrchanā-Jāti system which Bharata extolled so much, practically faded out by the ninth cent. AD, and what Bharata considered as inferior music i.e., gāna, under which he classified Grāma rāgas, supplanted Jāti and assumed the primary form of classical music. Grāma rāga became so popular that the term Mārgī Sangīta which was used exclusively for Jāti gāna came to be used to denote Jāti, Grāma rāga, Bhāşā, Vibhāşā and Antarabhāşā. In other words, what was considered Deśī Sangīta in Bharata's time came to be reckoned as Mārgī Sangīta in Matanga's time (ninth cent. AD). In Matanga's time Deśī Sangīta was regional stylised music as opposed to unstylised folk music.

But by and large, up to the thirteenth cent. AD, especially the period between tenth and thirteenth cent. AD, there was a spate of scholarly works on music, but there was not much original contribution, in the works. There was repetition of the same theory of Grāma, Mūrchanā, Jāti, rāgas, tālas and nrtta, nrtya and musical instruments. Many have quoted Nā. Sā., and its commentators. Many of the works are not available at all, some of them which are available are only in parts.

But one regrettable fact is that none of the musicologists thought it necessary and desirable to give a detailed description of the classical music that was in vogue in their respective periods. We have names of several rāgas mentioned with their Bhāşās, Vibhāşās and Antarabhāşās but their actual musical forms are not given in notation. Similarly varieties of prabandhās are described but their musical structure is unintelligible. Similarly gamakas, sthāyas and other technical terms of music are described without clear examples.

Nevertheless one gets an idea of the evolution of $r\bar{a}ga$ and $t\bar{a}la$ in the course of the thirteenth cent. The word $r\bar{a}ga$ which was used in its literal sense in Bharata's time evolved into a highly stylised form and became the very foundation of our music. It took in all the *lakşanas* of its predecessor *Jati* and added a few more like anuvādī, vivādī, although the importance of gr ha, amša, alpatva, bahutva, lessened with the fading out of the Jāti-gāna.

The new feature in the evolution of the rāga was the introduction of the time-theory. Bharata does not mention this aspect at all but Śārngadeva while defining the Grāma rāgās clearly specifies the time-theory governing them. It has not been possible to trace its origin and exact period. But the significant point is that the musical structure and aesthetics forms began to be associated with the diurnal and nocturnal cycles, and some inscrutable relationship established between the intrinsic expressive quality of the svaras and the particular time of day and night This indicates the realisation of the integration of sound and light in nature and how it is correlated in music. This in itself may open out a new field of research. In this age of highly technological specialisation, it may not be difficult to scientifically investigate the exact correlation between the svara and varying degrees of light and shade.

The time-theory came and is still lingering in the North but has disappeared altogether in the South.

The other feature is regarding $t\bar{a}la$. There was tremendous progress in $t\bar{a}la$. Especially in the period between eleventh and fourteenth cent. there appears to have been great emphasis on $t\bar{a}la$. From the five $t\bar{a}las$ mentioned by Bharata and Matanga, one finds 108 $t\bar{a}las$ mentioned by Śārngadeva, Hammira, in his work Śringārahāra (AD 1300) also refers to 120 $t\bar{a}las$; Madana (AD 1375) has referred to 130 $t\bar{a}las$ in his work Änanda Sanjīvinī, Sangītopanişadsāra (AD 1350) gives several examples of rare $t\bar{a}las$; and later texts like Sangita Sūryodaya and Tālakalāvardhi have devoted special attention to $t\bar{a}las$. But the earlier five $t\bar{a}las$ —cācatpuļa, cancatpuļa, satpitāputraka, udghatta and sampakvestaka were reckoned as Mārgī $t\bar{a}las$ and subsequent expansion of $t\bar{a}las$ was is Deśī $t\bar{a}las$. But in the marking of these $t\bar{a}las$, there was a steady rationalisation of the details of procedure. The earlier intricacies were lessened considerably in later Dcśī $t\bar{a}las$. This is discussed in a separate chap.

As regards the evolution of composition, *prabandhas* held sway from Bharata's time up to about the eleventh-twelfth cent. But by the time, Sārngadeva wrote his book, *prabandha* appears to have gone out of vogue and its place taken by other forms notably $r\bar{u}pak\bar{a}lapt\bar{i}$. This was the model on which *khayal* evolved.

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content and the referent. This has a significant implication that the entire creation of the universe is the result of Divine Imagination or thought. In this state, thought, word and the thing are one. Parā means highest; vak means thought-vibration. Paśyanti is a state where a vision of the configuration of nāda starts. Madhyamā is that state where thought-feeling prevails without verbal expression. Vaikharī is the state of the senses where experience is had through the direct employment of the five senses of hearing, seeing, touching, smelling and tasting and verbalization starts. Brahma means mantra or word. Bhāhmanā is the text that explains the Vedas. The Āraņ akā pertains to the knowledge developed through meditation in the forest i.e., the text in which truths mentioned in the Vedas are given as experienced by man. Upanişada deals with fundamental metaphysics and the path of spiritualisation as expounded in the Vedas.

As stated earlier the earliest form of musical chant began with one svara known as *ārcikā*. S.R mentions in verse 39, p. 120 in vol. I as follows:

> आर्चिको गाथिकश्चा च सामिको च स्वरान्तरः । एक स्वरादितानानां चतुर्णामभिधा इंमाः ॥

As regards ārcikā, Kāllinātha clearly defines it as follows:

यज्ञप्रयोगेस्वुचामेकस्वराश्रयत्वान् तत्सम्बन्धादाचिकः ।

meaning that it was used in *yajñas* and on such other occasions involving repetition of *mantras* on a single note. For example the repetition of mantra Aum on Sadja.

Gāthā is any song in praise of someone. Usually it was in praise of the Yajamān or the person who gets the yajña performed by the yājñik (performer of the yajña). Gāthik pertains to gāthā and consists of two svaras.

Källinätha defines it as follows:

गाथासम्बन्धादगायिको द्विस्वरः ।

In Vedic times, the word *svara* was used only for vowels and not to denote musical notes. The word for musical notes was *Yama*. But we shall study the *sāma*-scale and its notes by using the

CHAPTER 2

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THAT our music originated from the Sāmaveda is now a matter of common knowledge. But it is very interesting when one studies the origin and evolution of the sāma-scale. The period of the Vedas is still a matter of controversy. According to Western scholars like Max Müller and Winternitz they came into existence about 2000 to 1500 BC whereas Lokmänya Tilak maintains according to the description given in the Rgveda of the position of the various planets then—that the Vedas were in vogue from 10,000 BC. Whatever it be, whether 2,000 or 10,000 BC, it still is the most ancient literature in human history. So our music was considerably developed in the time of Sāmaveda.

The Nāradīya Šiksā mentions the beginning of the sāma scale. S.R. also mentions it and Kāllinātha has given a description of the evolution of the svaras of the scale from a single svara to a saptaka.

The first music consisting of one svara was arcika from the Sanskrit root rica (यन) which means a Rgvedic hymn. The adjectival form of tk is अधिक which means pertaining to tk (खक्). In other words ārcikā denotes a musical chant chanted by Rgvedic reciters. Källinätha states it is repetition of one svara or chanting on one svara, e.g., aum, aum, aum on sa or any other svara. There is a great profundity in the content and significance of the word. Words are but the result of vibration. Indian Yoga and Tantra have expounded this aspect of nāda, marvellously. They describe four stages from the gross physical to the mental, then supramental and transcendental states. The gross physical is vaikhari, the second stage is madhyamā. The third is pasyanti and the fourth is parāvāk. In almost all the religions, the word has been referred to as the beginning of creation. In Hinduism it is AUM, Christianity also begins with the word. In other words in that state of nascent creation i.e., the state of parāvāk, the word is no other than the

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familiar term svara instead of Yama. Then there was an addition of one more svara which was known as sāmika. The svaras used were gāndhāra, rsabha and sadja. The scale was a descending one beginning with gāndhāra.

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साम्नां तु त्रिस्वरत्वं सप्तस्वरवत्त्वे पि मन्द्रादिस्थानत्रयविवक्षया ।

The above description of the sāmika svaras by Kāllinātha that the three svaras indicate the three saptakas or sthānas namely mandra, madhya and tāra does not seem plausible because it is well-nigh impossible to sing these svaras in different registers and call it sāmika. He seems to have presumed the existence of all the seven svaras of the saptaka at the time of sāmika svaras as is evident in his expression $\pi^{equerch}$ for "in spite of the seven-noteness" and thereafter ascribed the three svaras of sāmika to the three sthānas namely mandra, madhya and tāra. But it is obvious that when the three svaras of sāmika were described, only three svaras were then distinctly marked. Otherwise the evolution of the sāma-scale would have no relevance at all if all the seven svaras of it were known from the beginning.

Whereas Simhabhūpāla has not made this mistake but has quoted the *śloka* from Naradīya *Śikşā* without any additional elaboration or elucidation. The verse in Nāradīya Śikşā is as follows:

> श्राचिकं गाथिकं चैव सामिकं च स्वरान्तरम् । कृतान्ते स्वर शास्त्राणां प्रयोक्तव्यं विशेषतः ॥ (Chap. 1.V.2)

The next stage in the evolution of the sāma-grāma was the addition of one more svara to the sāmika. This new scale was called Svarāntara ($\pi\pi\pi\pi$). The svaras were ga. re, sa, ni. Here again the verse in S.R. seems to have been misinterpreted by Kāllinātha.

But before discussing svarāntara, it is interesting to investigate some matter regarding the sāntka music of the three svaras. Puspasūtra, an authentic text on Sāmavcda states as follows:

> पञ्च्चस्वेव तु गायन्ति भूयिष्ठानि स्वरेषुतु । सामानि षट् सु चान्यानि सप्तसु द्वेतु कोतुमाः ॥ (pp. 198-99)

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That is today the followers of Kuthuma school of sāma, sing most of the sāmans in five notes: a few in six and only two in seven. This was written much after the sāma music had been established and all the seven svaras of its scale had fully developed. Even then it is stated that only two.sāmans were sung in the seven svaras which means that the sampūrņa saptaka was not very much in vogue. Under the circumstances Kāllinātha's assumption of the pre-existence of all the seven svaras of sāma-scale from the beginning of the Sāmaveda seems untenable. Nāradīya Siksā also confirms the untenability of Kāllinātha's assumption.

Another noteworthy point is the very name samika. The fact that the scale consisting of three notes was given the name samikaor was known by it itself. is some proof that the sama-scale began with three notes. Otherwise the two-note scale preceding it namely gatha may also have been called samika. But when the scale attained three notes, it was then known as samika which means pertaining to saman. The name itself therefore seems to indicate the secret of the genesis of the sama-scale. Hence Källinätha's assumption of all the seven notes of the saptaka during the evolution of samascale seems untenable.

Now as regards *svarāntara*, it seems that the *sāma*-scale reached it second stage of evolution. Here again we get a glimpse of the evolution and transition from the very word *svarāntara*. Till then the music was confined to only three notes, but when an extra note was added, it was naturally *svarāntara*. But here again Kāllinātha has his own interpretation of the word *svarāntara*. He says in S.R. in elaboration of the word as follows:

> चतुःस्वर तानस्यैक स्वरादि सप्तविधतान— मध्यवतित्वारस्वरान्तर इति संज्ञा ॥ (Vol. 1, p. 120)

That is today a $t\bar{a}na$ is created with each note in successive and cumulative order i.e., a $t\bar{a}na$ with one note, then with two notes, then three notes, then four, five, six and finally seven notes. Källinätha implies that in all, there will be seven $t\bar{a}nas$. The $t\bar{a}na$ with four notes which is *svarā*. tara will be in the middle as four is the middle number of seven.

Källinätha's explanation that the *tana* containing four notes is *svarantara* because the fourth note is obviously in the middle of the seven-note scale does not seem plausible. This shows that he has

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interpreted the word antara in svaråntara as 'middle' or madhya. But his interpretation is not logical and his assumption of all the seven notes of the sāma-scale is unjustified. Sir Monier Williams Sanskrit-English Dictionary gives the following meanings of the word antara i.e., juxtapose, adjacent, in between, middle, additional etc. As the scale, then existent, had developed just one additional note to the already existing sāmika-scale, svarāntara has been referred to as consisting of four notes in the S.R. and Nā. SI, which clearly means the addition of an extra note to the sāmika. Therefore the connotation of adjacent, juxtapose or additional seems more justifiable and logical.

The notes of svarāntara were ga. re. sa. ni. The additional note was ni in modern terminology. According to Sāmavedic terminology, it was caturthā. A little study as to how it may have evolved reveals an interesting possibility. If one sings the sa or sad ja. one will notice that it will be extremely difficult if not well-nigh impossible to sing the sa without touching its preceding note nisāda. Therefore, it stands to reason to assume that the additional or continuous note nisāda or caturthā may have been discovered first as a grace-note of sad ja or $t_T t \bar{t} y \bar{a}$ which led to its isolation later on as a full-fiedged note. All evolution must have some sequence and logic except in the case of biological evol ution involving 'mutation'. So here also the extra note in the descending sāma series was caturthā which is nisāda.

The third stage in the evolution of the sāma-scale is very interesting. Up to now we have found that all the notes have two qualifications. One is that they are ascribed numbers or denoted by numerical terms like *prathama*, *dvitīya*, *trtīya* and *caturtha*. The second is that each additional note to the first one *prathama*, formed a group which became a type of music. That is to say, there was a one note, two-note, three-note, and four-note music, which were called ārcikā, gāthā, sāmika and avarāntara respectively.

But after this there is a sudden transition from numerical indices to descriptive ones. The subsequent three notes of the sāma-saptaka are descriptive namely mandra, atisvāra and krusta. This is clearly described in Nā. Si. as follows:

> प्रथमब्च द्वितीयब्च तृतीयो य चतुर्थंकः । मन्द्रः कृष्टोर्हितिस्वारः एतान् कुर्वन्ति सामगाः ।। (Chap. I, V.12, p. 13)

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Here again if we deliberate as to why the above names may have been given, we will find that they themselves give the clue to the development of the scale. The fifth note is called *mandra*. As the scale series was in descending order this note was lower than *caturtha* or modern *nisāda*. It is possible that to indicate that the note is lower, the word *mandra* was used. *Mandra* in Sanskrit, means lower. Lower than this was *atisvāra*, *ati* means very much but in this context it means extreme i.e., that which is the lowest extreme note to be sounded. *Svara* means to be sounded. *Ati* as already stated means *antim*, extreme or limit. So *atisvāra* became the modern *mandra pañcama*. It was felt then that no lower note than *atisvāra* was humanly possible to phonate.

As regards the last of the seven notes namely krusta there is some difference of opinion as to its etimology. Burnell, a Vedic scholar derives the word krusta from the root karsa which means to pull and hence he asserts that while playing the vinā in stretching the gāndhāra, a little excessive pull may have accidentally produced $\frac{1}{3}$ or madhyama note. Actually the word $\frac{1}{3}$ is the past participle of the root $\frac{1}{3}$ which means to speak loudly or 'articulate loudly'. The Sāma-gāna, the loudest note was $\frac{1}{3}$ being the highest and, therefore, had to be phonated with force and was naturally termed loudest. It is probable that this note also like svarāntara may have begun as a grace note ($\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ and later on became an independent full-fiedged note. So the full sāma-scale is $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ an

चतुरुचतुरुचतुरुचैव षड्ज मध्यमपञ्चमः । द्वै द्वै निषाद गान्धारौ तृस्त्री रिषभ धैवतो ।।

This was known as the *suddha* scale (*saptaka*). The *sruti* arrangement in the above *saptaka* is 4, 3, 2, 4, 4, 3, 2. But this word *suddha* has perhaps been mistaken by some great scholars like Pt. Vishnu Narayan Bhatkhande and Pt. Onkarnath Thakur to mean the Western music major scale whereas the word *suddha* as used in the Indian music texts like Nā. Sā., S.R., etc. only stands for a definite arrangement of notes with the *sruti* value as denoted above.

To go back a little, it is interesting to study how the terms audava came to be associated with live. The word audava is derived

from the word udu which means a star and since stars appear in the firmament or sky (\overline{u} (\overline{u} (\overline{u}) and since akasa is the fifth in order, of the five elements—earth, air, fire, water and akasa, according to Indian philosophy it indirectly suggests five and therefore audava has come to mean 'pertaining to five'. Audava is the adjective of udu. Sadava is derived from $\P\xi$ and means pertaining to six.

Up to svarāntara, there was merely chanting and thereafter Sāmagāna began. That is to say Sāma-gāna had a minimum of five notes. Of the four Vedas, excepting Sāma, all the other three had only chant whereas in Sāma there was both chant and gāna. Sāma-gāna as already stated was predominantly pentatonic (Puspa Sūtra, pp. 19 -99).

Having traced the gradual evolution of the notes of the sāmascale, let us now examine the scale itself. We have again the Nāradīya Šiksā which has clearly given the notes of the scale against successive numbers beginning from prathama (one) and going up to saptama (seven) based on the notes as produced on the flute. The relevant verse in the Nāradīya Šiksā is as follows:

> यः सामगानां प्रथमः स वेणोर्मध्यमः स्वरः । यो द्वितोयः संगाधारस्तृतीयस्त्वृषमः स्मृतः ॥ १ ॥ चतुर्थं: षड्ज इत्याहुः पंचमो घवतो भवत । षष्ठो निषादो विज्ञेयः सप्तमः पंचमः स्मृतः ॥ २ ॥ (1-5-1 and 2)

The flute or bānsurī is the most ancient musical instrument in the world. In the period of Nā. Si., as there was no static tonic there was only the Grāma rāgas which were sung on the Mūrchanā system. Hence it was obviously impossible to fix any note according to numerical indices through any stringed instrument like the vina. No stringed instrument would be used as base as no note had any fixed position on it. For instance the note ma could be on any string and therefore, may differ from individual to individual and thereby may even alter the sāma-scale. Whereas it is not the case with the flute. On the flute, with all the holes closed, it will always produce only one note. It is possible that this natural facility was understood by our ancient scholars, and therefore, they chose the flute as the basis for the demonstration of the sāma-scale. Strangely in the modern flute with seven holes, the note produced when all the holes are closed, is madhyama. So according to $N\bar{a}$. Si.

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Prathama svara	ma
Dvitiya svara	ga
Trtiya svara	re
Caturtha svara	SA
Pañcama svara	dha
Şaştha svara	ni
Saptama svara	pa

In other words the above scale in descending order would be ma, ga. re, sa, dha, ni, pa.

The flute was used then much in the same way as the pitch-pipe is used today. The note produced by closure of the five holes could be done even by a lay man as well as an expert almost in the same way as blowing into a pitch-pipe. But it would not have been possible to handle any stringed instrument likewise.

But in this description of Na. Si., of the sāma-scale, two problems arise. Firstly prathama is referred to as ma whereas in the initial sāma-scale it is ga. If we study the description given in the Na. Si., we will find that the scale all along from the beginning to the seventh svara mentions only numericals. If it indicated the numerical of the sāma-scale as known originally then logically after caturtha instead of stating pañcama and sastha, it would have mentioned mandra and atisvāra for dha and pa. Therefore it is clear that the numericals mentioned were not technical names but just denoted the numerical order. There are schools which believe that since ma is referred to as prathama, pañcama (pa) must be krusta. 'They have, therefore kept the scale from pa to lower pa. Some others while accepting prathama as ma have mentioned pa as krustatar.

In this connection, it will be interesting to mention Sāyaņa's description of the sāma-scale in Samavidhāna Brāhmanā;

लौकिके ए निषादादयः सप्तस्वराः प्रसिद्धाः । तस्व साम्नि कुष्टादयः सप्तस्वरा भवन्ति ॥

्तदयथा यो निषादः स ऋष्टः धैवतः प्रथमः । पंचमः द्वितीयः मध्यम-स्तृतीयः गान्धारस्चतुर्थः । ऋषभोमन्द्रः पडजो व्रतिस्वायः ।।

There are two points of significance in the above verse. Firstly that the scale was a direct descending series. Secondly that the *nişāda* was taken as the starting note of the scale on the basis of

the Madhyama Grāma i.e., by taking the ma of the Madhyama Grāma as the starting note which is nişāda. Then Sāyaņā's scale becomes clear.

Now we come to some of the subtle changes in the structure of the texts before the actual singing of the Sāma-gāna. There were in all six such changes which were called sāma-vikāras. They were:

(1) Vikāra, (2) Viśleşaņa, (3) Vikarşaņa, (4) Abhyāsa, (5) Virāma, and (6) Stobha.

Sāma borrowed the text of its songs from Rgveda and adapted it to music. Sāma had no text of its own. Sāma means svara or musical tone according to Sāyaņā and Chāndogya Upanisad. This connotation is confirmed in the Chāndogya Upanisad (Ch. U., 1.8.4). It is clearly defined that the word sāma is interpreted as svara.

- 1. Vikāra means change in the letter of the text Rgveda e.g., 'agni' becomes ognāyī in Sāma-gāna.
- 2. Viśleşaņa means division of words and their transformation e.g., vitaye becomes voyitoya 2 yi (बोबिताया २ थि).
- 3. Vikarşana involves a specific stretching of a letter e.g., Ye (बे) becomes Ya 23 yi (बा २३ बि).
- 4. Virāma indicates a short-pause e.g., grุมฺนึกง-hvaya-dūtaye (ग्णानो ह्ययदातये) becomes grุมฺนิกoha-vyadātaye (ग्णानोह स्पदातये).
- 5. Stobha means any additional exclamatory words not in the original text just as auhoā (ধাইাগা) hāvu (রাড.) hāvu (রাড.) ctc.

Now let us examine the notation system of Sāma-gāna, Pt. Kailāš Candra Brhaspati has given a succinct description in his magnum opus Bharata Sangīta Siddhānta of the seven Mūrchanās of the Sadja Grāma (p. 38). When one studies the notation system of Sāma-gāna one is led to infer that the Mūrchanā system must have had its origin in Sāma-gāna because Laxmana Shankar Bhatta states clearly the practice that was in vogue while singing it. He says $\pi cdeine = \pi i a + \pi i a$ which means when the Sāma-gāna begins with any particular number-note, that note was made the tonic or in modern terms, sadja. For example, if a song began from note on. 2 then it meant that the tonic was gāndhāra.

The sama saptaka is as follows:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ma	Ga	Re	Sa	Ni	Dha	Pa

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It starts with Ma as one, two as gändhära, three as rsabha etc. The number placed on the top of the first letter of the hymn indicates the tonic.

There were several symbols and signs but all of them consisted of placements of numbers in different positions either on top or next to the letters of words of the song.

1. When two or more numbers are placed by the side of a word in addition to the number on top of it, then the side numbers would indicate the notes after or succeeding the tonic, e.g.,

haru 56. This means the tonic is no. 3 or rsabha and nos. 5 and 6 indicate mandra nisāda and dhaivata.

In this way, it becomes clear that the system of Mūrchanās had its foundations in Sāmavedic music. But such shifting scales could have been possible only with the help of the $v\bar{n}a$, the most prevalent instrument even then. The old name of the $v\bar{n}n\bar{a}$ was $v\bar{a}na$ as the early shape of the instrument was like a bow or dhanuşa.

2. Nos. 6 and 7 usually do not figure as tonic. This is corroborated by Kätyäyana Rşi when he states:

अतिस्वारेण ऋष्टे प्रारभ्यो न कदाचन: ।

 $\frac{1}{2}$ is the highest note and *atisvâra* is the lowest and hence do not figure as a tonic.

If sometimes no. 7 is used as tonic and found on the top of a letter, then it is to be construed as the next higher note to no. 1 namely pa. This may have been due to the fact that the lower pa may be too low a tonic.

3. If together with number 2, *ra* is placed on the letter, then it means that the note of that particular letter will be of two

2га

ra 3

mātrās, e.g., *Hāvu* and in terms of modern Indian music, it becomes Sa-Sa ha^s yu

4. If an avagraha (5) is placed next to a letter, then that indicates the prolongation of the letter to a duration of two mäträs c.g.,

Ka 5 Yā (#1 5 41). Taking no. 3, as the tonic (Sa), i.e.,

rşabha the avagraha next to the letter Ka indicates prolongation of it for two $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$; then the no. 5 indicates the third note from the tonic namely the lower dha. The letter ra placed on top of the letter Ya means that the note indicated by no. 5. is to be prolonged for two additional $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$.

- 5. The portion of a song between two parallel vertical lines at the beginning and at the end is known as *Parva*. Every Sāma or Sāma song is to be preceded by pranava or Om. मणव मान् प्रयुवोस which means every song is to be preceded by pranava or Om. Each parva has to be sung in one breath.
- 6. If there is one figure over a particular letter and another against or by the side of it. then that letter has to be sung in two different notes indicated by the two figures. For instance $\frac{2}{3}$

in $\exists i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if $\exists i$ is assumed to begin with \exists , then the figure 3 would indicate $\exists \exists$ and so $\exists i$ has to be sung as $\exists \neg \exists \exists$ and since the scale is in descending order, the figure 1 over \exists would indicate the srara \hat{z} . So $\exists i \exists \hat{z}$ would become $\exists \neg \neg \hat{z}$.

- 7. The letter $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ (vu) indicates high tone and letter $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ (ka) denotes low tone.
- 8. A dash (-) on a letter denotes trebling of a particular note.
- 9. A this sign joins the tune of the preceding letter with the avagraha (s).
- 10. \sim This sign indicates augmentation of the tune.

A few examples from $S\bar{a}mans$ would illustrate the above musical variations clearly. We shall take the Ajya doham $S\bar{a}man$. Actually for our purpose a portion of it would suffice. Hence we shall take a portion of it. The text of the mantra runs as follows:

2	1	2	3			3			3		
मू	र्घा	नं	दि व	री	স্ম	र	ति	Ţ	यि	व्यो ॥	

Certain changes are introduced in this Sāman for the purpose of singing. A stobha of $\overline{\epsilon}i\overline{\sigma}$ is added which is repeated thrice. Then there is abhyāsa or repetition of $\overline{u}_{1}\overline{\sigma}\overline{u}$ at $\overline{\epsilon}i\overline{\tau}$ (ājya doham) thrice. Next vikāra is introduced in $\overline{\epsilon}\overline{u}$) which becomes $\overline{c}\overline{u}\overline{\epsilon}\overline{u}$ and then there is virāma after $\overline{u}\overline{\tau}$ and $\overline{\epsilon}i$ is carried into the next phrase. Finally the numerical notation is added for singing. The mantra with all these changes would become as follows:

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३ र हाउ	ः र हाउ	² र हाउ ॥	2 र 3 आज्य	4ुर ऽ दोहम् ।	३ र ३ आज्य	्वर ऽ दोहम् ॥
३ र ३ अजिय		र ऽ हिम् ।			•	
2 र । र मूर्धानि		दा इ ॥	े 2 वा 33	तर2 ।	2 ति	ः ₄ः पृथिव्यो ।।

Let us now convert this ancient notation. Every Sāmavedic song begins with pranara or Om (प्रणव प्राक प्रमृन्भीत) which has to be introduced here.

ओं 3म	हाउ ह	ाउ हाउ।	। ओज्य	₄रऽ दोहम्॥ धृप्ः	आउय	दोहम् ।
ग्राज्य	क्षेहम् ॥	२२ । मूर्धानि सररे	दाइ ॥	२ । बा २ अ र स निृर रे	।ः ति	प्रथिव्या

It will be seen that the above sraras clearly indicate the RagaKulyan or according to modern nomenclature Raga Yaman. A point worthy of note is that only five svaras have been employed in this song. They are $t \in [\pi] = 1$. So this is a Audara Gita.

Let us take up another example. This mantra is known as $\pi i \epsilon i \pi$. The text of the $\pi \pi$ (rk) runs as follows:

त्य	३३ ३। मूषु वार्डि	्र ३ ।नंदेवः	13 3) जूतं से हो	३३ ३२.३ वान तरूतार	ा उ रथानाम् ।				
Thi	This text will be converted thus for singing								
ऽर त्यमू	3 षु॥ वा	र 3 जि॥ ना	φ 1 1 1 Λ 5 2 3 4 5	म् ।। देवजूता	ाा । । १				
₅ स हो	र ₃ र वा	2 1 नंता 1	2 रु ता	2 ∧ 3 ‼ र	३५ इ रथानाम् ॥				
In	modern no	tation the	above song w	ould get transfo	rmed thus:				
₅ को सऽ	् - 6म् निुर	5 र य मू षु स सऽ स	ार वाजि मऽम	ना∧ ऽ2 गऽमऽगऽ	1 1 1 3 4 5 म् रेऽ सऽ				

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२ र २ र ३ ा 1 देव ^जूता ∧ ऽ २ ३ 4 म्।। मऽमऽ मऽगऽ मऽ गऽ रेऽ	s र s र ₂ स ही वा न ता।। स सऽगऽमऽपऽ	
234 इता∧ऽ३॥ रँरथा सम ग मऽमऽरेऽ	s नाम् ॥ सऽ	

As this song contains six notes namely प म गरे च नि it is a Şādava . Gīta. According to modern rāga classification, it becomes Bilāval.

The third example that we shall take up is the famous $G\bar{a}yatr\bar{t}$ Mantra. The text of the mantra is as follows:

123:31 × 312 43 123 1.2 तत्सवितुवैरेण्यं भर्गी देवस्य धीमहि। धियों यों न: प्रचोदयात ॥

but with the changes introduced for making this *mantra* singable, it will become thus:

२ । ओऽ∧ 3म साऽ नि़रे	। तत्सवितुर्वरणि रेरेरेरेरेऽरे	र े यो म रेऽरें	भार्गो देवस्य रे रे ऽ रे रे
ार घीमाही 2 धि रेरेऽरेस रेरे	यो यो नः ऽ ऽरेऽरे रे	211 मचो 1—2 सऽरेऽस	
। हिम वा 2 ॥ द रेऽ रेऽ रेऽ स रे	ा 2 ो यो 11 आ ८ऽ रे सऽ 1	1 1 1 3 — 4 — 5 ने, ऽ घ, ऽ प्	5

The svaras that occur in this mantra are $\vec{\tau} \in [\eta, \eta, \eta]$. It is therefore again an Audava Gīta but the svaras according to rāga nomenclature may either be Kalyāņ (Yaman) or Bilāval.

The points that emerge out of these examples of sāmans are that irrespective of the variation of the figures in the beginning of each sāman, the melodic phrase of the Onkāra in each sāman remains the same namely, π if $\bar{\tau}$. The first and the third sāmans begin with the figure 2 and the second sāman with the figure 5, but the opening phrase in all the three is π if $\bar{\tau}$ in the Onkāra.

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Parts of the Sāma-gīta

The Sāma-gītas have also several parts. It is very interesting to study them. There are in all five parts and they are known as bhakti. They are: (1) Hinkāra or Humkāra, (2) Prastāva, (3) Udgīta, (4) Pratihāra. and (5) Nidhāna.

There was a special manner in singing the sāma. There were in all three singers. They were called *Prastotā*. Udgātā and *Pratihartā*. The main singer was the Udgātā. Prastotā and Pratihartā were his assistants.

The song began thus. In the beginning, all the three singers sang 'Hum' together as if to intone their tonic correctly and clearly. The 'Hum' which they sang was 'Hinkāra' bhak ti already referred to above. This was perhaps equivalent to the present day musicians singing the tonic or the sa before commencing their performance. The sa nowadays is usually in $\bar{a}k\bar{a}r$. Then the second part of the sāman prastāva is sung by the prastotā. Prastāva means introduction. This introductory part is sung with an Onkāra. Then this is followed up by Udgita or the main part of the song. This is sung by Udgāta or the main part of the song. This is sung by Udgāta. As the Udgāta sings the Udgāta, the pratihārtā waits for it to end but before it actually ends, he picks up its last word and continues with the pratihāra part of the song. In the end all the three join in singing the nidhāna or final part of the sāman in unison.

To illustrate the parts mentioned above, an example is given below:

Prastāva	Udgīta
म्रोग्नाई ॥	ग्रायाहि वोइ वोयाइ तोयाइ
Udgita (continued)	Pratihāra
गुणानो ह। व्यदा	तोयाई।। नाइ होता सा।
Pratihāra (continued	Nidhāna
त्सा इ वा ग्रौहोय	ा ॥ हिषि

Gātra vīņā

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In the Nāradīya Šikṣā there is a reference to two kinds of viņāi.e., Dārvī vīņā and Gātra vīņā. Dāru means wood, hence Dārvī vīņā is that vīņā which is made of wood, bamboo and gourd. Gātra means limb hence Gātra vīņā here means any part of the human body which could be made to act the part of the vīņā. Evolution of Räga and Täla in Indian Music



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Of all the various parts of the human body the palm of the hand is the easiest and most adaptible to serve as the $G\bar{a}tra v \bar{v}n\bar{a}$. The palm including the fingers were utilized thus:

Pañcama was represented by the top phalanx of the thumb.

Madhyama was represented by the middle phalanx of the thumb. Gândhâra was represented by the middle phalanx of the index finger.

Rşabha was represented by the middle phalanx of the middle finger.

Sailja was represented by the middle phalanx of the ring finger. Nişāda was represented by the middle phalanx of the last finger. Dhaivata was represented by the lower phalanx of the last finger.

The thumb moved over and above phalanxes of the different fingers and touched the particular svaras of the sāman as the singer sang them. In due course, the svaras of the song got associated with the particular phalanxes of the fingers. The singer in turn also visualised the notes of the song on his fingers as he heard it. In this way this type of learning was both audio and visual.

On further deliberation over this system, one is led to ponder if the creators of the modern staff notation may not have had the above system with the lines of the different phalanxes serving as the pitches of different notes, as the basis. Because there is a board similarity between the two systems in the different lines indicating pitches. There were also countries like Greece and Egypt which employed the same device like Gâtra vīņā and called it Cheironomy.

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Rhythm in Sāma-Gāna

Although one finds no names of tāta in Sāma-gāna, there were certainly rhythms. Hence tāta as was known later did not exist in Sāma-gāna but there were three types of rhythm. They were hrasva, dīrgha and pluta. Hrasva denoted one mātrā, dīrgha two mātrās and pluta three mātrās.

Sāma: The Root Concept of Mürchanās, Jāti and Rāga

It has already been demonstrated that the opening svara of every Sāma-gāna becomes the tonic or Amša svara of that particular gāna.

The sāma saptaka began from ma and descended up to pa. i.e. it was ma, ga re, sa ni, dha, pa. When each of these notes became the key-note or modern sa, it produced different scales producing notes of different intervals. In this way it contained the seed of the subsequent Mürchanās, Jātis and rāgas.

To illustrate this point, a chart is given below wherein the formation of the different $M\bar{u}rchan\bar{a}s$ or scales from different keynotes and the potentiality of $r\bar{a}gas$, is shown:

Key- note of <i>Sāma</i>	The scale of <i>Mürchanā</i> obtained from that kcy-note	The name of the Mürchanā accord- ing to Bharata's. Nātyašāstra	
1	2	3.	-4
pa	pa dhu ni sa re ga ma sa re ga ma pa d <u>ha ni</u>	i Śuddha Şadjā	Resembling Jaunpuri or Nața Bhairavi with pañcama of 12 śrutis.
ma	ma pa dha <u>ni</u> sa re pa sa re ga ma pa dha ni	Matsarikŗtā	Khamāj or Karņātaka Hariļ kāmboji.
ga	ga ma pa dha ni sa re sa re ga ma pa dha ni	Aśvakrāntā	Kalyāņ (Yaman) or Karņāţaka Kalyānī.

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1	2	3	4
re	re ga ma pa <u>dha ni</u> sa sa <u>re ga</u> ma pa <u>dha ni</u> a	Abhirudgatā	Bhairavī or Karņāţaka Hanumat Todī.
sa	sa re ga ma pa dha ni sa re ga ma pa dha ni	Uttarmandrā	Kāfī or Karņā- ţaka Kharahara- priya.
ni	ni sa re ga mu pa dha sa re ga ma pa dha ni F	Lajanī	Bilāval or Kar- ņāţaka Śankarā- bharanam with dha of 4 srutis.
dha	dha <u>ni</u> sa re <u>ga</u> ma pa sa regamamadhani 'U	Uttarāyatā	<i>Bhairar</i> i with two <i>madhyamas</i> and without <i>pañcama</i> .

It will be clear from all the illustrations hitherto that Sāma music had really the seeds of our classical music and the claims of our old scholars in their texts that it was the origin of our classical music was no mere fancy but a substantiable fact. There are two kinds of music basically—one is folk music and the other is classical, in the former, there is no rigid rule of intervals, rhythm etc., but whereas in the latter, there were definite rules laid down for strict adherence. Likewise Sāma music also had definite rules of procedure to be followed.

In Sāma music, the three Jātis—Audava, Sādava and Sampūrna have been mentioned which are in vogue even today.

In Sāma music, five parts are mentioned namely, hinkāra, prastāva, udgīta, pratihāra and nic.dhāna. In the Dhruvapada which came centuries later five parts were sung but they were given different names i.e., Tom-nom or ālāpa, sthāyī or udgrāha, antarā, sancārī and ābhoga.

The first note of the Sāma-gāna became its key-note. This gave rise to Mūrchanās, Melās, Jātis and later on rāgas.

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Sāma-gāna was a kind of group music with definite unison and responsorium.

As the key-note of each song shifted, Sāma was able to use svaras of various intervals known in modern musical parlance as komala, tīvra, etc.

There was no tāla in Sāma-gāna but there was precise rhythm based on Hrasva, Dīrgha and Pluta.

The Viśleşaņa of Sāma gave rise, in later music to bhanjani of Rupakālaptī and layabānța of the Dhruvapada.

And most significant Sāma music had its own notation which could be said to be the oldest in the world.

And now let us consider the next stage of evolution in Indian Music. We find after Vedic music, references to $Gr\bar{a}ma r\bar{a}ga$ and Jāti gāna in the Mahābhārata and Rāmāyaņa respectively. Rāmāyaņa is of course, the earlier epic. But there is no evidence of the process and manner of evolution between Vedic music and the Grāma-Mūrchanā-Jāti system. There is a huge hiatus between the two

Let us therefore take up Grāma. The word has two meanings the one primary and the other conventional. The primary meaning is $\pi \eta \Xi$ or collection. Any collection was known as Grāma It was, in other words a generic term just as $\pi \overline{r} \Xi q \cdot \pi \eta \eta$, $\eta q \cdot \pi \eta \eta$ (*indriyagrāma*, *bhūta grāma*) etc. Therefore the connotation of village given to the word Grāma was in the conventional sense of a place having a collection of people. A group of people living together was called a Grāma. An extension of this meaning was made in respect of the Indian musical svaras. Just as the members sof a family live together, even so in a Grāma, svaras live together (Bh. Ko., p. 189).

How did Grāma originate? On the basis of samvāda. The two main forms of samvāda were the sadja-pañcama and sadjamadhyama. The third one as mentioned in the Sangīta Samgraha Cūdāmaņi is Şadjāntar namely sadja-gāndhāra. How the Şadja Grāma was evolved is known to all students of music, Bharata in his Nāţyaśāstra has clearly described the process. He states that a nine-stringed, fretless vīņā (Navatantri vīņā) is to be taken. It is as follows:

- 1. The first string should be tuned at any low audible pitch. This should be construed as sad ja.
- 2. Then its corresponding fifth and sixth strings should be tuned

to madhyama and palicama respectively.

- 3. Then for the time being supposing the fifth string to be sadja, the eighth string from the original sadja (1st string) is to be tuned to the madhy ama of the new sadja on the fifth string. Then it will be seen that the new madhyama is the nisāda of the original sadja.
- 4. For the time being imagine the eighth string (nisāda) to be sadja and tune the third string to its descendent madhyama (avarohic ma). Then this svara will be gândhāra to the original sadja.
- 5. The fourth string is to be tuned to the pitch of antara-gandhāra to the original şadja 1st string.
- 6. Presume the fourth string (antara-gāndhāra) to be şādja and tune the ninth string to its pañcama. The ninth string will then be tuned to kākalī nişāda in relation to the original sadja. And finally presume for the time being the seventh string to be şadja and tune the second string to its lower madhyama. It will be found that the second string is tuned to the rşabha in relation to the original şadja.

If all the nine strings are now stroked in order then they will phonate the svaras of the Şadja Grāma namely şadja, rşabha, gāndhāra, antara-gāndhāra, madhyama, pañcama, dhaivata, nişāda and kākalī-nişāda. This type of deduction of svaras and establishing their respective pitches on the Navatantri viņā is quite old. Nānya Deva as quoted in Bharata Koşa mentions it.

विपंच्यां नवतन्त्रीषु स्वरास्सप्त तथापरी। काकल्यन्तरसंज्ञी च द्वौ स्वरावित्यमानि च ॥

(p. 628)

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If Madhyama Grāma also is to be heard on the Navatantri vīņā, then it could be done by plucking the 1st, 2nd, 4th, 5th, oth, 7th and 8th strings in that order. Then, the svaras would correspond to madhyama, triśrutik pañcama, catuhśrutik dhaivata, nisāda, sadja, rşabha and gāndhāra. The above svaras interpreted in terms of Şadja Grāma wili become sadja, triśrutik rşabha, antaragāndhāra madhyama, triśrutik pañcama, catuhśrutik dhaivata and nişāda.

As regards the discovery of *dhaivatu*, there is an opinion that it

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was automatically sounded when madhyama was played on the vlna; hence it was visualised as tain (self-begotten or self existent) svara. The etimology of the word dhaivata also enlightens this view dhi means buddhi and dhaivata means buddhiwāla or a wise person. It is only a sensitive and intelligent person who can discover an automatically phonated note. The svara madhyama is considered most important in the Indian musical scale because it is placed right in the middle and is directly responsible for the second tetrachord on the lines of the first. The intervals of the svaras of the second tetrachord are identical with those of the first; and the position of the madhyama svara is exactly in the middle of the saptaka. Hence, the Indian musical scale is not an octave. In the octave, the same notes cannot repeat in successive octaves whereas in the saptaka it will repeat identically with every eighth svara.

Grāma is generally defined as a scale. But it is something more than a scale. Mürchanā also is a scale. It can be termed as a fundamental scale, the base of all scales. Clements in his book Introduction to Study of Indian Music defines it thus. But the best definition seems to have been given by Mahārāņā Kumbha in his Sangītarāj;

व्यवस्थित श्रुतियुता यत्र संवादिनः स्वराः । मूर्छनापाश्रयो नाम स ग्राम इति साज्ञितः ॥ —कुम्भः

that is to say *Grāma* is that where there is a particular order of arrangement of *śrutis* and the *svaras* are determined by consonance. It is the base of *Mürchanā*. *Grāma* is the very base of the melodic form of Indian music. But by far the best English translation of the term *Grāma* is in the '*Dattilam*' as tone system.

What is the purpose of Grāma? Matanga clearly describes and clarifies this point:

स्वर श्रुति मर्छनातानजातिरागाणां व्यवस्थापनत्व नाम प्रयोजनम् । —वृहदेशी

What was the necessity for two Grāma? The necessity may have arisen in Bharata's time when it was found that in certain Jātis or musical modes, current then, there was a samvāda between pañcama

'This work is attributed to the 3rd cent. AD. See E. Wiersma-te Nijenhuis, Dattilam: A compendium on ancient Indian music.

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and rsabha whereas in the Sadja Grāma, there is no consonance (samvāda) between pañcama and rsabha. Bharata, therefore, had to accept another fundamental scale in which there was consonance between pa and re in order to have a base for the other Jātis (modes). This pa—re consonance was found in the Madhyama Grāma.

But why did Gandhara Grama fade out so early? Abhinavagupta gives reasons in his Abhinavabhārati thus:

द्वी ग्रामो भरतेनोक्ती ग्रामो गान्धारपूर्वकः । अतिताराति मन्द्रत्वाद्वैस्वर्यान्नोपर्दांशतः ।। (Bh. Ko., p. 189)

Sārngadeva has to say this regarding this Grāma:

रिमयोः श्रुतिमेकैकां गान्धारइचेत्समाश्रितः । पश्रुति घो निषादस्तु घश्रुतिं सश्रुतिः श्रितः ॥ ४ ॥ गान्धारग्राममाचष्ट तदा तं नारदा मुनिः । प्रवर्तते स्वर्गलोके ग्रामो सौ न महीतले ॥ ४ ॥ (S. R., p. 100)

In accordance with this statement, the Gåndhära Gråma will work out as follows: But in order to understand the specific difference between the Sa-Grāma and this one, we shall give the notesyllables of the former on top of their *śrutis* and the latter at the bottom of them:

			Sa			Re		Ga				Ма			
1 Ni	2	3	4 Sa	5	6 Re	7	8		10 Ga		12	13 Ma	14	15	16 Pa
					Pa			D	ıa	N	i				
					17	18	·19 Dh		0 21	2	2				

That is, the *śruti* intervals of the various *svaras* of *Ga-Grāma* are as follows:

Şadja is of three śrutis; rşabha is of two śrutis; gandhara is of four śrutis; madhyama is of three śrutis; pañcama is of three

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śrutis; ni şāda is of four *śrutis.* From this it will be clear that the intervals of the *svaras* of the *Grāma* are bound to be discordant (बैल्ब) as mentioned by Ācārya Abhinavagupta because of the irregular and disproportionate distribution of the *śrutis.*

Regarding the Grāmas and Mūrchanās, the point that is to be remembered is the graha svara or the keynote of the particular Grāma. This was later known as amśa svara and used in connection with Mūrchanās only. Many scholars have had difference of opinion regarding the meaning of the word amśa. Most of them seem to have taken the common meaning 'to divide'. But the other more significant meaning is 'to shine'. Amśa is also a synonym for sunbeam. This interpretation is found in Vedic Sanskrit, in the Rgveda (the sun is called wnnn). But from the definition of amśa svara (τ_{17} ; π_{47} d_{7} τ_{17} ; π_{47} d_{7} d_{7} and the seat of it. This meaning does not emerge from the meaning 'to divide' but from the other meaning 'to shine'. The secondary meaning 'to divide' is also applicable because the sun divides the day and night. But its primary quality is to shine.

Once again reverting to the *Grāmas*, most of the scholars refer of *Gāndhāra Grāma* as having passed to *svargalok* (heaven). This interpretation may also be taken in a implicatory sense as having been lost and dead. Because in Hindu custom, all people who pass away are consigned to *svargalok*; hence Nārada and others may have used the same expression to indicate that the *Gāndhāra Grāma* has completely gone out of vogue in the *lākṣanic* sense.

As regards Grama, there has been copious research. Taking into account modern scholars like Pt. V.N. Bhatkhande, Pt. K.C.D. Bihaspati and Pt. Omkäranäth Thäkur, one finds certain basic discrepancies in the very concept of the term and its structure. For instance Pt. Bhatkhande, in spite of his vast scholarship, seemed to have confused the *Suddha Grama* with the European Major Scale. Whereas the *Suddha Grama* was the name given to that 'tone system' which had a specific *śruti* arrangement. That is the *Sa-Grama* having the 4-3-2-4-4-3-2 arrangement. Neither *Grama* means scale nor *Suddha* means major. His second misconception seems to be the equidistance of all *śrutis*. This perhaps led him to imagine, that the *svaras* which were placed in the last *śruti* could just as well be placed on the 1st. It has now been definitely established that

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there are three types of *śrutis* having different values in terms of Savart: 5, 18 and 23. The 6 Savart *śruti* is the comma diesis i.e., 81/80. The 8 Savart *śruti* is the minor tone (Laghu ardha-svara according to Lalit Kishore Singh in his Dhwani and Sangita) and upamahati (as per Pt. K.C.D. Bihaspati) has the value 25/24 and the last variety having 23 Savarts is known as limma (Mahati according to Pt. K.C.D. Bihaspati) where the value is 256/243 (cf. Dhwani and Sangita, p. 173).

CHAPTER 3

Music as Depicted in Nātyaśāstra: Gāndharva Sangīta

BHARATA in his Nâtyasâstra refers to Gândharva Sangīta or the music for divine beings. But he lays certain conditions.¹ This was also called Mârgī Sangīta. Vedic Sangīta was also considered as Mârgī Sangīta or Gândharva Sangīta. The conditions are four:

- I. Gåndharva Sangita will always be to the accompaniment of several instruments—stringed, membranophonous and percussion.
- 2. Gändharva Sangīta must have the three essentials—svara. tāla, and pada, i.e., the music should have melody in a specific order and arrangement; it should have tāla or rhythm also well organised with suitable texts.
- 3. The music should be pleasing to the Goas.
- 4. The music should also please the Gandharvas—especially the deva-Gandharvas as opposed to Manusya Gandharvas.

But all this description is in the context of the drama. Jātis were also considered as $M\bar{a}rg\bar{i}$ Sangīta. Bharata describes the Jātis as they applied to drama. But there were obviously Jālís under different situations and circumstances. For example, the epic $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ was supposed to have been sung in the form of a ballad before Rāma by Lava and Kuša, his two sons in the different Jātis. The examples given in the S.R., of Jātis have no connection with drama. They are in praise of Śankara and are in fact Śankara-stuti. So it stands to reason that Jāti-gāna must have had other varieties of rendering. These forms appear to have remained in vogue till the time of Matanga who is ascribed to the 7th-8th century. This music is described at length m Matanga's work Brhaddeśī. But there was the other music which was prevalent. It was known as Deśi Sangīta. Deśī Sangīta was not folk music. It was regional music.

¹Na. Sa., Bombay edu., chap. 28, verses 8-9, pp. 5-6.

- Music as Depicted in Nāţyaśāstra: Gāndharva Sangita

Källinätha appears to contradict himself when he first states that Deśi Sangīta is almost free style music but immediately states that some of the characteristics of Märgī rāga are also found in some Deśi rāgas.¹ He seems to be searching for the rules of Jāti in Deśi rāgas which is obviously conflicting. The tāra-mandra range mentioned by him applies to Jātis and where this range was not clear, he says those Deśi rāgas tend to become anarchic (II-ii, pp. 98-99). He also states that where the Deśi rāgas have rules, it is not altogether different from Mārgī rāgas. Matanga gives more details than Bharata. He mentions the specific scene or act in which specific Jātis should be sung or played. He also mentions the different Mūrchanās from which Jātis are derived.

Grāma rāga is also mentioned by Matanga. Bharata refers to it at only one place as to which act or scene, it should be used. Grāma rāga is described in greater detail by Matanga but Jāti was still more popular and prevalent in his time. Jāti remained in vogue till the tenth century, and thereafter began to fade. S.R., describes both Jātis and Grāma rāgas but emphasises more on Deśī rāgas and Adhunā-Prasiddha rāgas.

What is Jāti? It has several meanings. It means caste, type, race and genus. Of these, which connotation is most appropriate to music? The root of the word Jāti in Sanskrit is Jan which means to produce. It is an extraordinary coincidence that the Latin root for the word genus is also gen (pronounced jan) which means exactly the same as the Sanskrit one. There is a difference of opinion as to the interpretation of the Jāti in terms of music. Most of the scholars have taken the meaning of giving birth to and have stated that Jāti is born under such and such conditions. But the other meanings of the word as caste, race or species are also worthy of consideration. Because when one studies the name of allerent Jātis, one feels that some of them have imbibed the es of regions. Even scholars like Matanga feel that the word birth, origin whereas it is not logical to assume its meaning in this narrow sense. Jāti in some form must have existed before its stylised version emerged. It, therefore, stands to reason that Jāti may have evolved from folk music and the word may have been used in the sense of genus. Jāti interpreted thus becomes genus of a certain arrangement of notes. They must have had an ethno-

⁴S.R., Adyar edn., vol. 11-ii, p. 15.

sociological origin. This itself could form a subject for separate research.

Matanga while defining Jāti does not seem to be sure of himself.¹ After giving various interpretations, he concedes the possibility of the word Jāti to be used in the sense of genus.

As stated earlier, the names of the Jātis suggest reference to certain regions. For example, the Vikrt Jātis Kaišikī, Şadjodīcyavā, Āndhrī indicate specific regions. Kaišikī, according to Monier Williams Dictionary represented the regions which pertains to the present Vidarbha. Şadjodīcyavā is referred to as a place in the North; Udīcyavā means northern region; Āndhrī straightaway denotes the region of Āndhra. So it seems justifiable to presume that Jātis like rāgas, which followed, may have evolved out of folk melodies. Because no form of music, especially classical can spring up without a base.

But the technical definition of *Jātis* is best given by Åcārya Abhinavagupta in his *Abhinavabhāratī*. He defines it thus:

तत्र केयं जातिर्नाम? उच्यते-स्वरा एवं विशिष्टसन्निवेशभाजो रवितमदृष्टाभ्युदयं च जनयन्तो जातिरित्युक्ताः । कोऽसौ सन्निवेश इति चेत, जातिलक्षणेन दशकेन भवति सन्निवेश: ।।²

which means:

When the notes are in a specific arrangement or pattern producing aesthetic enjoyment, giving rise both to material prosperity $(\mathfrak{Arg}(\mathfrak{A}))$ and unseen spiritual benefits (\mathfrak{Arg}) then it is called Jāti. The different (characteristics) between Desi and Gändharva Sangita is the capacity of the latter to produce \mathfrak{Arg} or spiritual fruit. The fruit which is the result of pleasing the gods or heavenly beings who are unseen or unperceivable. This benefit is not possible through Desi Sangita. The svara-sannivesa or specific pattern of svaras would have to incorporate the ten characteristics of the Jāti (Jāti laksaņas) as prescribed by Bharata.

There were a total of eighteen Jātis. The seven Jātis were based on Şadja Grāma and the eleven Jātis on Madhyama Grāma. The Jātis affiliated to Şadja Grāma were Şādjī. Ārşabhī, Dhaivatī, Nisādī, Şodjodīcyavatī, Şadjakaišikī and Şadjamadhyama. The Madhyama

¹Bha. Ko., p. 227. ³Abhinavabhāratī, p. 43. Grāma affiljates were Gāndhārī, Madhyamā, Gāndhārodicyava, Pañcamī, Raktagāndhārī, Gāndhārapoñcamī, Madhyamodīcyavā, Nandayantī, Kārmaravī, Āndhrī and Kaisikamadhyama:¹

Out of these eighteen Jātis seven were named after the seven svaras of the saptaka. They were of two kinds—Suddha and Yikpta—Under Şadja Grāma, there were four Suddha Jātis. They were Şādjī, Ārşabhī, Dhaivatī and Nişādavatī or (Naişādī). What was the definition of Suddha Jāti? Suddha Jātis were those in which there was no diminution of the seven notes and the svara on which it was named itself became the graha, amša and nyāsa svara of those Jātis. When a change takes place in the nyāsa svara and jn respect of the other lakşanas then the Jātis were termed Vikrta. In other words, the same Suddha Jātis can turn into Vikrta Jātis also.

The basic distinction between Suddha Jāti and Vikțta Jāti is that in the former the nyāsa svara is the mandra svara, i.e., the conclusion of the Suddha Jāti takes place in the mandra svara whereas in the latter, this rule is relaxed. Out of the eighteen Jātis, eleven are the result of the blend of two or more Jātis, and therefore become Viktla. In other words, Vikta Jātis are formed by the mutual combination of the above Jātis.²

For instance, the combination of Şādjī and Madhyamā produceed the Vikrta Jāti, Şadjamadhyamā, Gāndhārī and Dhaivatī resulted in Gāndhārodīcyavatī; Gāndhāri, Pañcamī, Madhyamā and Dhaivatī produced Madhyamodīcyavatī. Gāndhārī, Pañcamī and Saptamī (Naisādī) produced Raktagāndhārī; Gāndhārī and Ārşabhī produced Āndhrī; Ārşabhī, Pañcamī and Gāndhārī produced Nandayantī; Naisādī Ārşabhī and Paňcamī produced Kārmāravī; Gāndhārī and Pañcamī produced Gāndhārapañcami; and Šādji, Gāndhāri, Madhyamā, Paňcamī and Naisādi produced Kaisiki.³

Out of the above Jātis, four are septatonic, four hexatonic, and the remaining ten, pentatonic. There were no Jātis with less than five svaras.

Kārmāravi, Gāndhārapañcami, Šadjakaišiki and Madhyamodicyavā were always septatonic; and Āndhri, Nandayanti, Gāndhārodicyavati and Sādji were always hexatonic; the rest were pentatonic. But the

^aNa. Sa., Bombay edn., p. 439. ^aIbid., p. 441. ^aIbid., p. 441. most significant point was that the hexatonic $(s\bar{a}dava)$ and pentatonic (audava) Jātis could naturally be converted into the other with the reduction or addition of a note and yet be considered the same Jāti. This strange latitude of conversion cannot be applied in the case of $r\bar{a}ga$ as it will change the entire character and structure of the new convert. This is completely out of vogue now.

Another peculiarity in the tradition of Bharata in the rendering of Jāti was the rule that the samvādī svara of the amśa svara can never be omitted. The strict observance of this rule consequently prevented several Jātis from having their şādava and audava forms. The amśa svara that stood in the way of the şadava or audava formation was known as Sādavadveşī or Auduvadveşī. For example, the Jāti Şadjamadhyamā obtains its şādava form by omitting nişāda but as nişāda itself is its amśa svara, its omission is impossible and hence its şādava form is equally impossible.¹

Similarly, Gāndhārī, Raktagāndhārī and Kaišikī Jātis are said to become sādava with the omission of rsabha but in the Madhyama Grāma there was rsabha-pañcama samvāda; therefore in these three Jātis, pañcama svara is never the amša svara because if it becomes amša svara, then the exclusion of its samvādī, rsabha, will be impossible.² Another example is Şādjī Jāti. The omission of nisāda engenders its sādava rūpa, but in its sādava state its amša svara being gāndhāra, its samvādī nisāda cannot be excluded. Therefore Şād jī Jāti cannot have its sādava state.³

One more peculiar feature of the Jätis is that although the exclusion of any svara was possible and permissible, the exclusion of madhyama svara was impossible. It was termed avināśi or indestructible. Even the Brāhmaņa singers of Sāma-gāna have stated in Gāndharva Kalpa in their reference to the madhyama svara that it is inerasable or indispensable and indestructible.⁴

The ten laksaņas of Jātis are as follows: amśa, graha, tāra, mandra, nyāsa; apanyāsa, alpatva, bahutva, sādava and audava.⁸ There is no reference to vādī or samvādī. The concept of vādīsamvādī was evidently a later development with the coming of the rāga.

¹Na. Ša., Bombay edn., p. 441. ²Ibid. ⁴Ibid. ⁴Na. Ša., Kāši edn., p. 324. ³Na. Ša., Bombay edn., p. 443.

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Of the ten laksangs of the Juli mentioned above, amia svara occupied a very important place. It itself had ten laksanas and it pervaded every aspect of the rendering of the Jatl. A study of the stimology of this word is equally interesting. The root of the word amia in Sanskrit is amia which means 'to shine' as used in Rgvedu, Amsuman is a synonym for the sun since amsu means rays. Therefore, it does not appear very appropriate to use this term exclusively in the sense of 'divide'. It also had this extended meaning because it was the sun which divided the day and the night: similarly it was the amsa svara which divided the saptaka into aroha-avaroha and mandra, madhya and tāra. In fact it was the cmśa svara as the keynote which brought life to the Mürchanā. But for this note, there would be no way to distinguish one Murchand from another. It is easily the most significant svara in the Mürchanä-Jätl system of music. It was the aesthetic nucleus and commander of the soptakas. Hence, the Vedic connotation appears more appropriate.

The ten attributes of the amsa svara are:

1. in which the raga(?) dwells,

2. from which the Jāti unfolds and in which it is established,

- 3. which is the leader, regulator and displayer of the tara and madhya, and
- 4. mendra saptakas,
- 5. which is used more than the other svaras,
- 6. which is used repeatedly with graha,
- 7. apanyāsa, 👘
- 8. vinyāsa,
- 9. sanyāsa, and
- 10. nyāsa, etc.¹.

In the eighteen Jātis, the number of svaras that had the position of the amia svara varied from one to all the seven svaras. For example, in Gāndhārapañcamī, the amia svara was pañcama whereas in Ṣādjī, the amia position was held by sadja, gāndhāra, madhyama, pañcama, and dhaivata. Similarly in Ṣadjamadhyamā all the seven svaras enjoyed amia-sthāna.³

Quoted by Källinätha in his commentary in S.R.; and ascribed to Bharata.

The total number of amśa svaras in all the eighteen Jātis is sixtythree.

All the different laksanas of the Jätl are well defined by Bharata Muni.

1. Graha svara: Graha svara is so called because all vocal or instrumental music commences from the *ansia svara* and therefore it is called the graha svara. Amsía svara is therefore the graha svara in all the Jätis. The term graha here may be taken in the sense of graha or beginning. When the *amsía svara* is on the position of the starting note, it is called graha svara.¹

2. Tāragati: According to Bharata's tradition, the rule laid down in respect of the extent of tāragati was one saptaka above the amśa svara, beyond this, it was considered undesirable because as the amśa svara was the basis and keynote of the Mürchenäs, any extension of the tāra suptaka beyond seven notes from the amśa svara was looked upon as being against the tradition of Bharata.² There is some sense in this concept because in the light of the situation where the tonic shifted higher and lower, one saptaka beyond the amśa svara was perhaps out of range of the human voice and any instrument.

3. Mandragati: There were three kinds of mandragati: one ending with amśa svara, one with nyāsa svara and the third with apanyāsa svara. In the descent (avaroha), the limit of mandragati was the amśa svara because the latter was the starting note of all the three saptakas. But there were sometimes instances when despite the establishment of the positions of the nyāsa and apanyāsa, the range of mandragati stretched beyond them. As an example, Kāllinātha quotes from Bharata, in his commentary in S.R., that in Nandayantī Jāti, in spite of the nyāsa svara being gāndhāra, in avaroha, mandragati extended to its succeeding svara, rşabha.³

4. Nyāsa svara: The svara on which the gīta or vādya-prabandha terminates, that is called nyāsa svara. The total number of nyāsa svaras in all the Jātis is twenty-one because the same svara becomes the nyāsa svara in several Jātis.⁴ The table given below will clarify

³Na. Śa., Bombay edn., p. 442 and Banaras edn., p. 324, ³S.R., Adyar edn., as quoted by Källinätha in his commentary. ³मन्द्रस्रवंगपरो नास्ति न्यासे जु हो व्यवस्थितो । गान्धारम्पासलिमेन हष्टामूषभक्षेत्रनम् ॥ (नाट्यशास्त्र) ⁴Na. Ša., Bomby edn., p. 443.

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the above statement.

Nyāsa svara	Jāti	Number
Şadja	Şādjî, Şadjamadhyamā	2
Rsabha	Ārsabhī	1
Gändhära	Gändhäri, Raktagändhäri, Şadjakaiśiki, Andhri, Kaiśiki, Nandayanti	6
Madhyama	Madhyamā, Şadjamadhyamā, Şadjodīcyavā, Gāndhārodīcyavā, Madhyamodīcyavā	5
Pañcama	Pañcami, Gandharapañcami, Kaiśiki,	
	Kārmāravi	4
Dhaivata	Dhaivatl	1
Nişāda	Kaiśiki, Naişādī	2
	Total	21

5. Apanyāsa svara. Translated literally from Bharata's Nā. Šā., it means the svara on which the middle of the composition (gita or vddya-prabandha) terminates,¹ but it could be interpreted to mean as that svara whose importance is second only to nyāsa. In other words apanyāsa svara is an important, inevitable punctuation point in the composition next in importance to nyāsa svara. It could be, therefore, termed 'secondary nyāsa' svara as appropriately done by Dr. Nijenhuis in Dattilam. As there are several apanyāsa svaras in the same Jātis and the same apanyāsa svara in several Jātis, the total number of apanyāsa svara in all the eighteen Jātis comes to fifty-six.² But Bharata states an exception when rşabha is sometimes taken as apanyāsa svara in Kaiśikī in addition to nişāda in which case the total number increases from fifty-six to fiftyseven.³ The table given below will illustrate the above statement.

6. Alpatva: There were two types of alpatva—one was by a slight touch or complete omission of the svaras and the other was by using the svara or svaras sparingly without repeating them. The Music as Depicted in Nätyasästra: Gändharva Sangita

Apanyāsa sve	ara Jāti	Number
Şadja	Şadjakaiśiki, Şadjodicyavā, Şadjamadhyamā,	
	Gändhari, Gandharodicyava, Madhyama	
	Madhyamodīcyavā, Kaišikī	8
Rşabha	Şadjamadhyamā, Ārşabhī, Gandhārapañ-	
	cami, Pañcami, Dhaivati, Naişādi, Kārmā-	
,	ravı, Madhymä, Ändhri	9
Gāndhāra	Şādjī, Şadjamadhyamā, Kaiśikī, Andhrī,	_
	Naişādī	5
Madhyama	Gändhārī Madhyamā, Şadjamadhyamā,	
	Dhaivati, Naişādi, Kaišiki	6
Pañcama	Şâdji, Gāndhāri, Madhyamā, Şadjamadhyama	ā,
	Gandharapañcami, Pañcami, Kaiśiki,	
	Andhri, Nandayanti, Kārmārāvi, Şadja-	
	kaiśiki	11
Dhaivata	Şadjodicyavā, Ārşabhi, Gāndhārodicyavā,	
	Madhyamodicyavā, Şadjamadhyamā, Ma-	
	dhyamā, Dhaivatī, Kaiśikī, Kārmāravī	9
Nişāda	Şadjakaiśiki, Arşabhi, Şadjamadhyamā,	
	Pañcamī, Naişādī, Kaišikī, Andhri, Kārmā-	-
	ravi	8
	Total	56

former was called *langhana* and the latter *anabhyāsa.*¹ In the *Jāti* system the practice of forming the *Şādava* and *Audava* varieties from the sampūrņa form, involved the omission of some svaras. These svaras even in the sampūrna state were used less and came under alpatva usage.³ The strange practice in those days was that even those svaras which were considered as anabhyāsa, anamša (not being the amśa svara) and lopya (eliminated) could still be used sparingly. Alpatva had special significance then in the context of the conversion of the sampūrņa Jātis into sādava and auduva varieties and was clearly defined and observed but in the case of the modern rāga, alpatva in this sense, is difficult to con-

¹Na. Ša., Bombay edn., p. 443. S.R., Adyar edn., Svarādhyāya, p. 190.

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ceive and perhaps even unnecessary.

7. Bahutva: In contrast to alpatva, here the svaras are used repeatedly and extensively and like alpatva there are two kinds of bahutva; the first is repetition and the second is non-omission of the notes. All the notes namely the amia, samvadi, anuvadi are used again and again both in the *āroha* and avaroha. Bahutva has not much significance because of a fixed sad ja and in the absence of graha and amis svara concepts. Because in the Marchanā system, with constant tonic-shifts, and conversation from septatonic to hexatonic and pentatonic, there was a necessity of graded emphasis on various notes. But in the rāga system, this has been substituted by vādī-samvādī. Hence the concept of alpatva and bahutva has changed.

The concept of vadi has also changed since the time of Bharata. In Bharata's system, it was synonymous with the amsa svara of the keynote (starting note) which changed with each Mürchanä. But a significant question arises here as to why the same svara was given two names i.e., amia and vādī. Amia had two connotations-one in a divisive sense (amsayati iti amsah) i.e., the svara which divided the registers into mandra, madhya and tāra. The other sense was that of keynote. Vādī meant that svara which was constantly sounded which invariably happened to be the amia svara. Then bahutva was the note used most often after the amsa svara. But with the fixing of the sadja, the concept of vadi as amsa svara underwent a change. Therefore, the distinction between amsa svara and bahutva does not have the old significance. This is a very important point. In the present day music, vādī as conceived by Bharata has gone. It has been replaced by vādī as melodic centre in the rāga in one tetrachord and samvadi in the other tetrachord as its consonant. The necessity of bahutva itself has disappeared. In Bharata's time. vädi-samvädi whether as separate notes or as used in the Jäti depended on the sruti relationship, i.e., sa-pa or sa-ma or saga. In his time, amśa svara was also the nyāsa svara. The modern nyäsa svara was the apanyäsa svara in his time. Bharata had a wonderfully worked out scheme of aesthetics with his nyasu. apanyāsa, vinyāsa and sanyāsa. They were like punctuations in language. The word nyāsa means final, full-stop; this was the old connotation; at present it is in the sense of frequent pause.

There are references to Jātis in the Rāmāyaņa, the earlier of the two epics and Mahābhārata. Vālmīki refers to seven Jātis, pro-

Music as Depicted in Nätyasastra: Gändharva Sangīta

sumably the seven Šuddha Jātis. The word tāla also occurs in Vālmiki's Rāmāyana. Therefore, it appears that between ihe Vedic and the Epic periods, Jāti and tāla must have developed. Whether there were Vikţta Jātis in Vālmiki's time, it is not possible to ass rt. Strangely there is no reference to Grāma rāgas, whereas Mahābhārata refers only to Grāma rāgas. There is hardly any mention of Jāti. Paradoxically Nāradīyā Šikşā, a text on music attributed to 150 BC, a couple of centuries priof to Nāţyašāstra, contains details and descriptions of Grāma rāgas and Sāma Vedic music but no description of Jāti. But Nāradīya Šikşā does not refer to Bhāşā, Vibhāşā and Antarabhāşā rāgas. Harivamša Purāna also mentions Grāma rāgas.

The final reduction of *Nāţyaśāstra*, according to Manmohan Ghosh was in AD 250. From the systematic and vivid description given by Bharata, it stands to reason that this form of music must have already been in vogue, a few centuries earlier.

But one interesting thing is that in the two important texts $N\bar{a}rad\bar{i}ya\ Siks\bar{a}$ and $N\bar{a}tyas\bar{a}stra$, while both refer to $M\bar{u}rchan\bar{a}s$, their names differ. Bharata mentions $J\bar{a}ii\ r\bar{a}ga$ also but it appears to reason that the word $r\bar{a}ga$ must have been used in the sense of $ra\bar{n}jakatva$ or pleasure giving rather than in the technical sense in which it came to be used later on. Bharata does not describe $Gr\bar{a}ma$ $r\bar{a}ga$ at all and it seems plausible that this may have been an interpolation. Matanga describes $M\bar{u}rchan\bar{a}$ -J $\bar{a}ti$ and $Gr\bar{a}ma\ r\bar{a}ga$ almost implying that $Gr\bar{a}ma\ r\bar{a}ga$ was an evolute of $J\bar{a}ti$. Sarngadeva also followed Matanga. If it is assumed that the word $r\bar{a}ga$ was used in both $J\bar{a}ti\ r\bar{a}ga$ and $Gr\bar{a}ma\ r\bar{a}ga$ in the technical sense as is understood now, then where was the necessity of $J\bar{a}ti$ or $Gr\bar{a}ma$?

8. Sādavita: 'Sat' means six and 'av' means to preserve. When the preservation of Jāti is done by six svaras it is called sādava (satava). The compositions restricted to six svaras are therefore called sādava. In this, the svaras, namely the 'langhana' and 'anabhyāsa' svaras which usually are not repeated more than once, produce the sādava or auduva form. Bharata states that there are, all told, forty-seven varieties of Sādava Jātis although the total number of amśa svaras in all the fourteen Jātis is fifty-four. Seven amśa svaras have to be deducted from the above total because those are Sādavadvesī. So Bharata says that out of the fourteen Jātis capable of having the hexatonic form, forty-seven varieties are possible

Evolution of Raga and Tala in Indian Music

out of them.¹

9. Auduvita: Pt. K.C.D. Brhaspati, in his Bharat ke Sangita Siddhānta has given a fine definition of the above term. He says 'udu' means stars, and 'va' means to move. That is the thing in which the stars move is called 'uduva'. Of the five elements earth, water, fire, air, and sky—sky is fifth in order and that which is fifth is called 'auduvi.' Also the sky is the container of the stars and the stars move in it. Apart from this, the state of eliminating two svaras from seven svaras and forming a five-svara Jāti is known as 'auduva'; and the process of converting the sampūrna to the auduva state is termed auduvita.²

Just as in $s\bar{a}davita$, here also, the total number of *amśa svaras* in the ten $J\bar{a}tis$ that are *auduvita* is forty-two but of them twelve are *Auduvadveşī* (inimical to *audava*) and hence the nett number is thirty. So of the ten *Audavita Jātis*, thirty subvarieties are possible.³ Thus the ten *lakşaņas* or characteristics of the *Jātis* are described by Bharata.

Šārngadeva has shown thirteen lakşaņas of the Jātis by including antaramārga, sanyāsa and vinyāsa whereas Bharata laid down only the above ten lakşaņas.

10. According to S.R, antaramārga is that peculiar usage when certain svaras—other than nyāsa, apanyāsa, vinyāsa, graha or amśa are employed to conjurc up some special effect in conjunction with amśa, graha, apanyāsa, vinyāsa and sanyāsa. Antaramārga is obviously possible only in Vikrta Jātis.

To explain this in modern parlance, it is akin to Bhāsānga rāgas. For instance, the use of komal nisāda in Rāga Kedāra or the judicious of komal dhairata in the Rāga Kāfī would be an antaramārga operation.

11. Sanyāsa: In understanding this, it is necessary to explain certain other technical terms like vidāri and sthāya. Vidāri is the natural syntactical division of a composition, both structural and textual whereas sthāya is a melodic phrase.

In this case, vidāri also means a part of both the text and structure of the composition. Sanyāsa is that svara which is the samwādī or anuvādī of the amśa svara on which the first vidāri of the com-

¹Na. Śa., Bombay edn., p. 444. ¹S.R., Svarädhyäya, p. 192. ³Na. Śa., Bombay edn., p. 444. position (gita) ends, i.e., the note on which the first phrase of the composition halts, it is the first important punctuation point in the composition. There is a limitation in this. The note on which the vidarl ends must be either the samvadī or anuvādī of the amsa svara of the Jāti to serve as the punctuation of that vidāri the last limitation is structural. By fixing both the note and word of the composition, Jāti-gāna had brought about hide-bound rigidity and destroyed the scope for improvisation. The rigidity of notestructure was further accentuated by rigidity in the textual composition.

12. Vinyāsa: The svara which ends on a word occurring in a part of the vidāri is called vinyāsa.¹ As has been explained earlier, by binding the composition with nyāsa, apanyāsa, sanyāsa and vinyāsa, the scope for free improvisation was considerably curbed. In fact there appeared to have been hardly any prospect or play of an artist's imagination as he perennially stood the danger of transgressing some rule or the other. It must have been considered quite an achievement if the artist conformed to all the manifold regulations and restrictions.

Another term which Bharata has defined and $\hat{Sarngadeva}$ and Källinätha have expatiated in some detail is sthäyi svara. Sthäyi means essentially that which is unchanging, stable, constant. In the context of the Jätis, it means amfa svara which is also the starting note or that note which is heard unceasingly.³ At present the sthäyi svara is obviously sadja. As is done today, the different svaras of the saptaka are taken with sadja as the base and the pitch of it well established. That is to say the determination of the arrangements or interval relationships of the various svaras are based on the keynote (sthäyi svara). Upoha means to produce, to bring about, to accumulate. A clear definition is in the Bharata Kosa.³ The singing of the 'dhruva' gita, the usage of meaningless words like 'jhantum' etc., based on the sthäyi svara to understand 'aghu and other varieties of tempo (laya) and täla also went under the name of Upohana. The Upohana operation was the starting operation of the

¹S.R., Adyar edn., Svarādhyāya, p. 189. ²S.R., Kāllinātha Adyar edn., Svarādhyāya, p. 189. ²वपीहारे स्वरो यस्माई सस्माद गीतं प्रवस्ति । सस्मादुपोहनं होयं स्वायिस्यरसमाध्ययम् ॥

-Bha. Ko., p. 83

song. Sārngadeva, while defining Upohana says that the sthäyä svara is the svara on which the räga dwells and it is the opening note of the saptaka.¹

From all this, it will not be difficult to see that the musicians and musicologists of the medieval and ancient periods were sparkling intellectuals. As in the field of Hindu mysticism and philosophy where one comes across razor-sharp subtleties in the definitions of *atman*. God etc., so also in the field of music, the intellect tual incisiveness of our old musicians and musicologists was fully manifested in the several subtle, 'tenuous, skilful definitions of the characteristics of Jātis and Jāti-gāna. While it is impossible not to admire their scintillating intellects from the purely musical and aesthetic points of view, it seems quite evident that they were rather carried away by the brilliant possibilities of subtleties, that they ignored the pragmatic aspect of the rendering. Music is a practical art and any amount of science or grammatical injunctions, if they tend to inhibit or stultify the performer or artist, will not, in the long run, contribute towards its creative efflorescence. And that unfortunately, apparently happened with our music. But it survived because of its innate strong artistic resilience and consequently its capacity to modify itself according to the various changing times and conditions and yet retain its original soul.

Bharata has laid down a general rule that the start of a $M\bar{u}r-chan\bar{a}$ will be from the madhya sthāna of the $v\bar{n}n\bar{a}$ so he has not gone into details of procedure of fixing the notes of the Jätis on the $v\bar{n}n\bar{a}$. Matanga, in accordance to his $Dv\bar{a}da\dot{s}a-svara-M\bar{u}rchan\bar{a}$ has given details of fixing the various notes of the Jāti. Whereas Matanga begins the Jāti from the seventh fret from the meru and establishes the madhya saptaka there; he has one whole saptaka as mandra and the tāra saptaka begins from the fourteenth fret. He has four svaras there and the balance, he states, could be obtained by stretching the wire. He had started using the twelve-svara-Mūrchanā and did not believe in the strict adherence to the rules of the mandra and tāra saptaka limits. He obtained the minimum twelve svaras needed for a Jāti from the seventh fret as he had eighteen frets.

The other features described by him in respect of the nyāsa, apanyāsa svaras, the sa-ga and sa-dha sangitis, the tālas etc. are

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¹S.R., Adyar edn., Vådyådhyåya, p. 283 and 296.

Music as Depicted in Näţyaśāstra: Gändharva Sangīta

the same as in Na. Sa., but Matanga states that the audava form can never be derived with the omission of sadja and dhaivata. He says the audava form will emerge only when rsabha-pañcama or nisāda-pañcama are deliberately weakened (alpatva). The Jāti is derived from Dhaivatādī Mūrchanā which is Uttarāyata.¹ It is sung in three different margas and in three different gliis. Here the term marga is used to denote the laya (tempo) of the tala and giti is the style of rendering (bani) of the same composition. It is stated by Matanga that this Jäli is sung in Chitrā, Vārtika and Daksinā mārgas. In the reverse order Daksinā may be taken to be vilambit, Vārtika as madhya laya and Chitrā as druta laya. The gītīs in all these margas were prthula giti, sambhavita and magadhi respectively and the layas of the tālā (Pañcapānī) was catuskalā, dvikalā and ekakalā respectively.⁹ Kalā is a technical term used with different connotations in different contexts. Here it denotes the time-measure or mātrās of the tālas. So Daksiņā mārga had four kalās (catuskalā) which was sometimes doubled and made into cight kalās for convenience (astakalā); Vārtikā mārga was of two (dvikalā) or four kalās (catuşkalā) and Citrā mūrga of one (ekakalā) or two kalās (dvikalā). These mātrās or kalās are for each section of the Pañcapäņī tāla,

But there are certain features of the $J\bar{a}tis$ which are in diametric opposition to the rules of the modern $r\bar{a}ga$ system.

Take for example the *Dhaivatī Jāti*. Bharata³ and Matanga⁴ and Sārngadeva⁵ state that this *Jāti* in its pentatonic form omits both sadja and pañcama. It may be argued that sadja and pañcama svaras earned their acala or immutable position only after the sadja became fixed. While that contention is valid and tenable, the structure of the Jāti as it emerges is also quite extrao: dinary. The Jāti in order to be sung must be transposed on to the sadja, In other words Dhaivatī Jāti is as follows. It is based on the Rşabhādī Mūrchanā which means the dhaivata svara would be on the fourth fret (parva). From the fourth fret, in Matanga's Kinnarī vīnā, the eleventh will be beginning of the madhya saptaka and the eight-

¹This Jāti's derivative Mürchanā is mentioned as Uttarāyata by Kāllinātha by interpreting Matanga in terms of Bharata, Dhaivatādi Mürchanā. But the Dhaivatādi Mūrchanā of Matanga was actually Bharata's Uttarmandrā.

³Bha. Ko., p. 690, ertr. from Matanga's Brhaddesi. ⁴Na. Sa., Bombay edn., p. 448. ⁴Bha. Ko., p. 299.

S.R., Adyar edn., Svarādhyāya, p. 217.

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eenth tāra saptaka. The Rşabhādī Mürchanā according to modern parlance takes the form of the raga Bhairavi with all the svaras re, ga, dha and ni komal with suddha madhyama. The Dhaivati Jati, with the sadja transposed in place of dhaivata which is its graha amsa and nyāsa svaras, takes all the svaras of the modern Bhairavī except that it has two madhyamas in chromatic order without the paficama. It is like this:

Dhaiyatī Jāti is: Sa re ga ma Ma dha ni sa. dha ni sa re ga ma pa dha.

It is stated that in this Jāti, in the sādava state, pañcama is omitted which means it would become:

ma dha or in terms of sadja: dha ni sa re ga Sa re ga ma Ma dha sa.

Now an interesting point emerges. If the Jati is sung with dhaivata as the tonic, then a raga very close to the modern raga Vagesri and exactly like the modern Karnātaka Rāga Śrīrañianī is formed. But in the practical field repetition of dhaivata as the tonic would inevitably change the complexion of the arrangement as it would begin sounding like sadja. With sadja transposed on dhaivata, the äroha-avaroha of the Jāti becomes: Sa re ga ma Ma dha Sa-Sa dha Ma ma ga re sa. This form does not sound very musically viable. Moreover, the significance of dhaivata being graha, amsa and nyāsa svaras becomes irrelevant if sadja is transposed on dhaivata. Also the modern musician and musicologist have the tendency to assess the structure and arrangement of the svaras of Jāti, establishing the position of sadja and intoning all the other svaras in relation to it; whereas in the days of the Jati, sadja was like any of the other svaras of the saptaka. Looked at in this way, every one of the seven svaras of the saptaka had an equally important place. Therefore, it stands to reason to presume that in singing the DhaivatI Jäti, there was no transposition of sadja; but the question of making it the graha, amśa and nyāsa svaras inevitably entails its constant repetition. Here again there appears another contradiction. If the dhaivata svara is retained as the tonic, then the omission of pañcama in the sādava state of the Dhaivatī Jāti gives a form very close to the modern raga Vagesri. In the audava state, with the omission of both sadja and pañcama, the form still remains close to Vägesri. It becomes: dha ni re ga ma dha. This can still be sung in his way in the Vägeśrī anga keeping dhaivata svara as graha and nyāsa. But it is stated that it is derived from Rşabhadī Mürchanā. This means

that this Jäll must have the form, complexion and structure of the modern raga Bhairavi; this in turn implies the transposition of the sadia on dhalvata. If that is done, then the singing of the Jāti takes quite a different and difficult form; the audava form becomes: Sa re ma Ma dha Sa. Now this possibility also seems improbable because of the other conditions stipulated in the sādava and audava states. For instance, it is stated that in the sampūrņa state, ga, ma, pa and ni are weak (alpa) or should not be taken much. What is more amazing is that these svaras continue to be weak even in the audava state. Which means the svaras that are strong or that could be taken again and again are dha, re and sa. But in the audara state, it is mentioned clearly, that both sa and pa are omitted. Matanga describes this Jati as above. Therefore, the inference as to the musicality and singability of the Dhaivatī Jāti can only be that it should have been extremely circumscribed and hedged on all sides with rules.

The retention of dhaivata as tonic reflects the Sad ji Jati as it was derived from the Dhaivatādī Mūrchanā. In this case, the Dhaivatī Jāti is shown as a derivative of the Risabhadi Mürchanā. A close study of both these Murchanas, transposing sadja as the tonic gives the same notes, the only difference being that in the former i.e., the Uttarāvata Mūrchanā the two madhyamas occur in chromatic order without pañcama, whereas, in the latter i.e., Abhirudgatā Műrchanā, there is only suddha madhyama and the notes are exactly like the modern Raga Bhairavi. Here also there is tremendous similarity between the two Jâtis.

Another tantalizing factor is that Matanga states that in the suddha or puranvastha i.e., in the heptatonic state gandhara. madhvama, pañcama and nisāda are alpa or weak. The remaining notes are sadja, rsabha and dhaivata. With four notes alpa, it really becomes difficult to construct the form of this Jāti. It is also stated by Matanga that in the Vikrta state, dhaivata, rsabha and madhvama or apanyasa svaras. What is even more confounding is the description given further on that the Dhairati Jāti, even in the audava state has all the above four notes in the alpatva condition! So we are left with only one note namely dhaivata because in the audava state both sadja and pañcama are varjya, and ga, ma, ni are alpa (weak)! Musically this seems quite a proposition to play or sing.

fui Similarly the Naişādi Jāti,¹ here too, as in Dhaivatī Jāti, four Ma. Sa., Bombay edn., p. 448. -

svaras in the pūrņāvasthā are alpa (weak). With four svaras weak, it is difficult to imagine any acsthetic expression with only three svaras. There are other perplexing things also. For instance according to all the three great authorities—Bharata, Matanga and Sarngadeva, in the Naisādī Jāti, three svaras namely, nisāda, rşabha and gāndhāra enjoy the status of amśa svara. They are also apanyāsa svaras. Şadja, madhyama, gāndhāra and pañcama are weak (alpa). The remaining svaras are nişāda, rşabha and dhaivata. But earlier, it is stated that gāndhāra is one of the amśa and apanyāsa svaras! The other confusing factors are:

1. that it resembles Dhaivati Jäti, and

2. it is derived from the gandhara or Asvakranta Murchana.

Let us take the first factor namely its resemblance to the Dhaivatī Jāti. With nisāda as amša svara, the Jāti becomes ni, sa, re. ga, ma, pa, dha, ni. With the transposition of Sa over Ni, the Jāti takes the form of the present-day Suddha Bilaval. With rsabha as amfa svara, the scale is exactly like modern Bhairavi with re. ga. dha and ni komal and ma śuddha. With gāndhāra as amśa svara, the scale takes the scale which is exactly like the present-day Yaman. In the first case, in all the three conditions namely, purnāvasthā (heptatonic), sādavāvasthā (hexatonic) and auduvāvasthā (pentatonic), it is nowhere near Dhaivatī Jāti as the the scale, in all the three cases, in the current context of raga structure, takes the following notes: Sa, Re, Ga, Ma, Pa, Dha, Ni resembling Śuddha Bilâval: Sa. Re, Ga, Ma, Pa, Ni with dhaivata svara omitted. (Pañcama svara is omitted in the sadava condition which becomes dhaivata when sa is transposed on Ni.) There is no known raga in Hindustānī music but there are two rāgas in Karņātaka Music which have identical āroha but, are different in the avaroha. The rāgas are Śuddha Vasanta and Ksapa. In the former the avaroha is vakra with dhaivata as the vakra (transilient) svara like this: Sa dha Ni Pa ma Ga Re Sa. In the latter, pañcama is omitted i.e., Sa Ni Ma Ga Re Sa.

In the audava condition, both sadja and pañcama are omitted, madhyama and dhaivata are weak. The audava form of this Jāti will be Ni Re ga ma dha. It is stated by Bharata and Śärngadeva that this Jāti is similar to the previous one namely Dhaivatī Jāti in the sādava and audava condition and also in taking the remaining Music as Depicted in Näţyaśāstra: Gändharva Sangīta

svaras in respect of alpatva and bahulya.

Naisādī Jāti is shown as a derivative of the Gāndhāra Mūrchanā. Gāndhāra Mūrchanā in modern parlance is the current rāga Yaman. But this is evident only with the transposition of şad ja on the svara gāndhāra. Otherwise it is the same 'Şad ja Grāma svaras similar to the Kāfī rāga. In this way all the Jātis would sound similar.

The other way in which any distinction could be brought about in the various Jātis with different svaras as tonic is to intone the sadja with the new svara as tonic. For example the Gândhārāmša Ṣādjī Jāti has the svara gāndhāra as amša or vādī or tonic. If the gândhāra is used in place of sadja and the svaras of Yaman produced with those of Kāfī, then that would become Gândhārāmša Ṣādjī. The following illustration will make the point clear.

Ga, Re ma ga, Re ma pa, Dha ma pa, ma pa Dha, ma pa, Re ma ga; ga, ga, ni ni, Sa, RiSa, Re, ma, ma pa Dha, pa, pa ma ga.

If sa is transposed on ga, then the same $\bar{a}l\bar{a}pa$ would sound as follows:

Sa, Ni Re Sa, Ni Re Ga, Ma Re Ga, Re Ga Ma, Re Ga, Ni Re Sa; Sa Sa, pa pa, Dha, Ni Dha, Ni Ga Ni Dha, Ni Re Re, Re Ga Ma, Ga, Ga Re Sa.

With ga as Sa, the *śruti* arrangement of Aśvakrāntā Mürchanā will be as follows and different from modern rāga Yaman.

2	4	4	3	.2	4	3	2
ga	mą	pa	dha	ni	Sa	Re	Ga
2	4	4	3	2	4	. 3	2
Sa	Re	ga	ma	pa	Dha	ni	Sa

Re and ga are of four *śrutis*; Ma which is $t\bar{t}vra$, is of three *śrutis* from Ga which is antara Ga and hence in the same position as in Yaman. But the antara Ga of Gāndhārāmša Sādjī is one *śruti* higher than that of Yaman; Dha is the same in both being four *śrutis* from Re; but it is only three *śrutis* from Dha and hence one *śruti* less than the Yaman, Ni. This means that the upper Sa is also one

śruti less than the Sa of Yaman.

In the same way, Madhyamāmśa Şādjī, Pañcamāmśa Şādji could be elaborated using madhyama, pañcama and dhaivata in place of sadja. A little ālāpa in each would illustrate the point better.

Madhyamāmsa Şād jī

According to the current rāga classification, a rāga similar to that of *Khamāj* of Hindustānī music or *Harikāmbodī* of Karņāţaka music would be the rāga that would be formed out of Sadjāmša Şādjī Jāti.

With ma as Tonic

ma, ma pa ma, pa Dha ma, ma Dha Dha ni, Dha ni Sa Re, ni Dha, ni Dha pa ma, ma Sa Sa, Re Ga Re, Sa, Re Ga, pa, pa, pa, Dha ni, Dha Dha, ma, ma, ma.

The Same with Sa as Tonic

Sa, Sa Re Sa, Re Ga ma, Sa Ga Ga Ma, Ga ma pa Dha, ma Ga, ma Ga Re Sa, Sa pa pa, Dha *ni* Dha, pa, Dha *ni*, Re, Re, Re, Ga ma, Ga Ga, Sa, Sa, Sa, Sa.

Pañcamāmsa Şādji

Similar to the modern Asāvarī thāţu with pañcama as tonic. Pa, Pa, Dha Sa Re ga Sa Re, ga ma pa, ga Re, Sa Re ga Sa Re, ni Dha pa; pa Re Re, Re-ga ma, Re ga ma Dha, Dha, Dha ni sa, ni ni, pa, pa, pa, pa.

With Şadja as Tonic

Sa, Sa, Re ma pa, *dha* ma pa, *dhi ni* Sa, Dha pa, ma pa *dha*, ma pa, *ga* Re Sa; Sa pa pa, pa-*dha ni*, pa, dha ni, Re, Re, Re *ga* ma, *ga ga* Sa Sa Sa Sa.

Dhaivatāmša Şādjī

Similar to modern Bhairavi of Hindustani music without pancome but with two madhyamas,

Music as Depicted in Nätyaśāstra: Gändharva Sangīta

With Dhaivata as Améa Svara or Tonic

Dha, Dha, Dha Sa ni Dha, Dha Sa Re, Sa Re, Sa, Dha, Sa Re, Sa ni Dha, Dha ga ga, ma pa, ga, ma pa, ni, ni, ni Sa Re, Sa Sa, Dha Dha, Dha.

With Sa as Tonic or Amsa

Sa, Sa, Sa ga re sa, Sa ga ma, Ga ma, ga, Sa, ga ma, ga re Sa; Sa, Ma Ma, dha ni Ma, dha ni, re, re, re ga ma, ga ga, Sa Sa, Sa.

In the above elaboration, the absence of *pañcama* makes the *Jāti* more complex and unmusical especially the latter half, but *âlâpa* could be done more melodiously.

Coming back to the Naisādī Jāti, it is stated by Bharata,¹ Matanga² and Sārngadeva³ that in this Jāti nişāda svara is the amša; also rsabha and gandhara are amisa svaras. They are also graha svaras; only nisāda is nyāsa, the other two are apanyāsa. In the sampūrna state, sa, ma, ga and pa are weak or are to be used sparingly. In the auduvita state dha and ma are weak. The point which is tantalising is that the svara namely gandhara which is both graha and amsa svara enjoys only (alpatva position in this Jäti in the sampurna state. Also it is stated that this Jati is similar to Dhaivati Jati in the use of strong and weak notes. Its derivation from Gandhāra Mūrchanā makes it more complicated and confounding. If nişāda svara is taken as graha and amša svara, then a rāga similar to modern Bilaval would be formed. In the Dhaivati Jati ga, ma, pa and ni are weak or alpa. In the Naisädi Jāti the alpa svaras are ga, ma, pa and sa. Analysing this musically, it seems quite evident that (no tangibly aesthetic form can emerge with the successive notes weak: The similarity between the two Jatis only accentuates the untenable musical position than anything else.

After illustrating the Šuddha Jäti Şädjī and its seven amśa variations, we shall now take up another major variety of the Jäti, namely a Vikrta Jäti.

We shall take up the Vikrta Jāti Şadjakaiśikī.

In this Jāti, six out of the seven svaras are amśa svaras. The exception is rsabha.

¹Na. Sa., Bombay edn., p. 448. ¹Bha. Ko. ²S.R., Adyar edn., Svarädhyäya, p. 220.

Music as Depicted in Nāţyašāstra: Gāndharva Sangīta

According to Bharata,¹ Matanga² and Šārngadeva³ and Dattila, this Jāti takes three forms namely sampūrnā sādava and audava. Sādava (hexatonic) state is obtained with the omission of rsabha and audava by omitting rsabha and dhaivata.

T ere are certain apparent contradictions. For instance all the above scholars state that *rsabha* and *dhaivata* are weak and should be taken sparingly. Bharata is not specific but states that *rsabha* and *dhaivata* are the notes to be omitted. But he states *dhaivata* is also one of the *amśa svaras* and when *nis ida* and *dhaivata* become *amśa svaras*, then *pañcama* become *nyūsa svara*; in this state *rsabha* sometimes becomes *apanyūsa svara*.⁴

Dattila states that <u>rsabha</u> and <u>dhaivata</u> should be studiedly omitted but immediately thereafter states that <u>dhaivata</u> is one of the <u>amśa svaras</u>.

Šārngadeva also defines the same characteristics of Kaiśikī as Bharata and Matanga and Dattila have done but he gives a few additional details. He gives the Műrchanā of this Jāti as Gāndhārādī and the tāla as paīicapānī just as it is in Sādjī Jāti. The contradictory detail again is when he states that pañcama and dhaivata are sādara-audava virodhī, i.e. they are respectively inimical or opposed (allergic?) to the formation of the hexatonic and pentatonic states. Whereas all the scholars have mentioned the omission of dhaivata as the condition for the obtaining of Kaiśikī's pentatonic form.

The starting svara of this Jāti is gāndhāra. So its āroha and avaroha in the sampūrņa state will resemble modern Hindustānī Yaman (The charts given at the end of this thesis will give a clear picture of the different Jātis).

With the omission of r_sabha , the $s\bar{a}dava$ form will be as follows:

Sa Ga Ma pa Dha Ni Sa Sa Ni Dha pa Ma Ga Sa

There is no corresponding rāga in modern Hindustānī music. But Karņātaka music has exactly the same āroha-avaroha in its rāga (Kannadamāruva, a derivative of Karņātaka Melakarta Meca-

¹Nā. Šā, Bombay edn., p. 448. ²Bha. Ko., p 679. ²S.R., Adyar edn, Svarādhyāya, p. 224. ⁴History of South Indian (Carnatic) Music, Appendix IV, p. 121, 1940th Rāga. kalyānī, the equivalent of Yaman. But this is an extremely uncommon rāga in that music also. This scale is a musically tenable one and can be sung well as a $r\bar{a}ga$ if $pa\bar{n}cama$ is taken less in the *āroha* as usually done in Yaman.

The audava variation with the omission of rsabha and dhaivata also has no modern Hindustāni equivalent but Karņātaka music has a popular rāga Amrtavarsiņi which is an exact equivalent and very pleasing and sweet. The great composer-musician late G.N. Bālasubramaniam expounded this rāga beautifully. After him another extraordinarily talented musician Bālamuralt Krsņa sings this and other vakra rāgas with great finesse and command.

But as stated already, the *śruti* arrangement and value will be different between *Kaiśikī* and modern *Yaman*. *Gāndhāra* would be a *śruti* higher being of eight *śrutis*, *niṣāda* and *şadja* will be a *śruti* less than it is in *Yaman*.

Let us take up the different svarāmšas of Kaišikšī.

Gändhärämsa Kaisiki

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Ācārya Brhaspati in his book Bhārat ke Sangīta Siddhānta has suggested the tuning of Matanga's Kinnarī vīņā as follows:

The cikārī should be tuned to gāndhāra, then from the meru up to the seventh string will be mandra; from seventh to fourteenth string will be madhya; and from the fourteenth string onwards till the eighteenth, will be the tāra sthānas respectively. The balance of notes of the tāra sthāna namely, sa and re could be obtained by stretching nisāda on the eighteenth string.

But this does not indicate musically the *svarūpa* or form of the *Jāti*. It would be better understood if the note structure of the *Jāti* is translated into modern terms of $r\bar{a}ga$.

As already described Kaiśikī resembles raga Yaman, Gandharamśa Kaiśikī means to transpose sadja in the position of gandhara. This then will give rise to modern Asvāvarī Thāța of Hindustānī and Nața Bhairavī melā or rāga of Karņāţaka music.

The transposition is as follows:

Kaiśikī—Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Gändhārāmša Kaišikī—Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Re Ga (In terms of Sa as tonic)—Sa Re ga Ma Pa dha ni sa

But the *śruti* arrangement will be quite different. Firstly Kaiśiki

is a Jāti of Madhyama Grāma. Hence its pañcama is one śruti less than of that of the usual pañcama.

The sruti distribution of this Jāti will be as follows:

Ga to Ma will become Sa to Re when Sa is made the tonic. The Re will be four *śrutis*, ga will be of three *śrutis*, one *śruti* more than the usual *sādhāraņa* or *komal* ga i.e., it will be *antara gāndhāra*; ma will also be a *śruti* higher than the usual *śuddha* ma, but of four *śruti* is from ga; i.e., it will be *tīvra* ma, pa will be at a distance of two *śrutis* from ma and thirteen *śrutis* from sa.

With ga, one śruti above the uşual śruti figure of six i.e., antara gändhära and ma two śrutis above the usual tivra ma. Pa is in the normal position according to Şadja Grāma and one śruti more according to Madhyama Grāma; dha is at its right place from sa, but it is not komal dha but will be the catuhśrutika dhaivata from sa, being seventeen śrutis from it: nişāda is three śrutis from dha and is on the 2nd śruti and in the position of kākalī nişāda.

So this Jāti would actually sound very peculiar and it will be a misnomer to call it either $\overline{Asaveri}$ or Nata Bhairavi and compare it with both.

Madhyamāmša Kaišikī

With the shift of sa as tonic in the place of ma, the Jāti will be as follows:

ma	pa	dha	ni	sa	re	ga
4	3	4	4	2	3	2
5a	re	ga	ma	pa	dha	nı

If Kaiśikī is similar to Yaman, then, with its madhyama as şadja, the scale that will emerge will be that of Bhairavī with the difference that in place of pañcama, there will be tīvara madhyama, i.e., it will be Bhairavī with two madhyamas. But in the above transposition, the śruti division will be:

LÇ.		three	śrut is		triśrutika	IC
ga	_	four	Śrutis	—	antara	ga
ma	—	four	śrutis		tīvra	ma
ра					pañcama	
dha		three	ś rutis		triśrutika	dha
ni	—	two	ś rutis	—	dviśrutika	цi

From sa, ga will be at an interval of seven *śrutis*, i.e., one *śruti* more than *komal*, i.e. it will be (*antara*) ga; ma will be two *śrutis* from *śuddha madhyama*, i.e., it will be *tīvra* ma; *paīicama* will be exact and in perfect consonance with sa. Dha will be *triśrutika* and *nisāda* will be in the *śruti* lower than that of *Kaiśikī Nisāda*, i.e. four *śrutis* from sa; according to modern reckoning. *Paīicama* will be a *śruti* more than that in *Madhyama Grāma*. *Pūrvānga* of this *Jāti* will be somewhat like *Yaman*; *Uttarānga* will be like *Kāfī*. There is no *rāga* comparable in Hindustānī music but in Karnātaka music *rāga Vācaspati* will bear a distant resemblance. The *svara* structure of it is like *Yaman* in *pūrvānga* and *Kāfī* in *Uttarānga*.

Pañcama Kaiśiki

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With sa transposed in place of pañcama, the śruti distribution of the various svaras of the saptaka will be as follows:

4		3	2	4		4	3	: 2	4	
sa	r	e	ga	m	a	pa	dha	ni	sa	
				3	2		4	3	2	4
				ге	ga		ma	pa	dha	ni
i.c.,	5 8	_	four s	rutis						
·	IG.	—	three s	frutis		triśr	utika —	re		
	ga	_	two śr	utis		paño	aśrutika	ı · —	ga	
	ma	—	four s				e right p		- 93	
	ра	—	three a	frutis		righ	t positio		la Grām	
	dha		two <i>śr</i>	rutis		atika	omal dh			frutis
	ni	-	four s	rutis			t position ida — 1		iśiki (ko	

The śruti structure of this Jāti when interpreted in terms of current arrangement of note-intervals, would sound very odd because *sabha* (three śrutis), gändhära (two śrutis) and dhaivata (two śrutis) and pañcama (12 śrutis), will be mutually discordant and inconsonant. Especially pañcama one śruti less than normal and dhaivata of just one śruti from the normal śruti position of modern pañcama, namely, 13 śrutis. 1

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According to our $r\bar{a}ga$ nomenclature, this has the overall structure of $\bar{A}s\bar{a}veri$ that with rsabha, gandhara, pañcama and dhaivata all one *śruti* less than normal. It will be very difficult to maintain the *śruti* arrangement.

In this way, Dhaivatāmśa and Nisādāmśa Kaišikī can be taken and sadja transposed on *dhaivata* and *nisāda* and their respective *śruti* distribution shown.

The above illustrations have been given to impress the fact that the subtle *śruti* variations were productive of *upa-Jātis* but their singability according to modern understanding of *svara* arrangement, would be rather remote. But the illustrations have brought forth clearly the type of music that was in vogue then. This would help in assessing the evolution of our music.

CHAPTER 4

Brhaddesi of Matanga Showing the Second Stage of Evolution of Indian Music

H AVING discussed and delved into the $N\bar{a}tyas\bar{a}stra$, we shall now take up the next important text *Brhaddesī* by Matanga. This work is attributed variously to the seventh, eighth and ninth century by different scholars. Whatever the difference of opinion as to its period is, all scholars are agreed that it is a work not beyond ninth century AD. It is a very significant text on Indian music as it has thrown fresh light on several things that $N\bar{a}tyas\bar{a}stra$ had mentioned in brief. *Brhad* means comprehensive, *desī* refers to regions, provinces, zones. *Brhaddesī* means in this context a comprehensive treatment of *desī* music. Matanga himself states that he has dealt with that part of music not treated by Bharata. There is no reference to *Desī rāga* by Bharata. Does it mean that *Desī rāga* in any form did not exist in the time of *Nāţyašāstra*? This problem has been discussed in the sequel.

In his Brhaddeśi, Matanga has given the general characteristics of Śruti, Svara, Mūrchanā, Alamkāra, Gītīs, Grāma rāgas, Deśi rāgas, Bhāsā and Prabandha.

Bharata in his Nāţyaśāstra mentions the names of Jātis and their lakşaņas (characteristics), Gändharva Sangīta. But in the time of Matanga, Jāti, Grāma rāga, Bhāşā, Vibhāşā, Antarabhāşā came to be known as Mārga Sangīta i.e., any music that was stylised came to be known as Mārga Sangīta. In Bharata's time, Gāndharva Sangīta was considered Mārga Sangīta. All Jāti-gāna and Mārga-tālas were considered Gāndharva Sangīta.¹ This was called also Mārga Sangīta.

Källinätha, in his commentary on the Sangita Ratnäkara, while dealing with Deśi Sangita, has given a confused definition. He states that it is music liked by the people, which is without any rules. But if it is without rules, then how can it have such elabo-

¹N.S., vol. 1V, chap. I, verses 8-20, p. 6.

rate, sophisticated characteristics which he himself describes? We shall discuss this when we deal with the Sangīta Ratnākara.

Similarly Grāma rāga which Bharata refers to in passing as significant in enhancing the moods of certain Acts in the drama, has been dealt with by Matanga in greater detail. In fact there is some confusion regarding the very definition of Grāma.

Matanga defines Grāma as a group of samvādī svaras wherein there is a definite arrangement or order of *śrutis* and which is sustained by Mūrchanā, Tāna, Varna, Krama, Alamkāra etc, just as the different members of a village live together amicably and respectably.

Grāma rāgas and Gītīs

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Matanga mentions Grāma rāgas as being sung in different gītīs (styles of rendering), namely, Šuddha, Bhinna, Gaudi, Vesarā and Sādhāranī or in one or in some cases more than one.

There was a basic difference between $g\bar{i}t\bar{i}$ and $g\bar{i}ta$. $G\bar{i}t\bar{i}$ was the style of musical composition in which a song was rendered. $G\bar{i}ta$ meant any song that was sung.

Mahārāņā Kumbha gives the best definition of Grāma rāga.¹

Matanga mentions seven types of gitis. There were two broad divisions of gitis: *Padāśrita* and *Svarāśrita*, i.e.; style of composition based on poetic content or text of the song and composition based on musical structure.

Bharata mentions only Padāśrita gītis. Before we discuss gītīs, let us further investigate Grāma rāgas. Nāradīya Šikṣā, one of the earliest works on music ascribed to about 200 BC, has a definition of Grāma rāga as given by the commentator.²

Matanga has not given descriptions of the Grāma rāgas, he has described mostly Bhāşā, Vibhāşa, and Antarabhāşā. Nārada, Kaśyapa and Šārngadeva have, however, given description of these rāgas. We shall discuss Šārngadeva's description in a separate chapter. Here we shall take up the descriptions as given by Nārada and Kaśyapa.

There were seven Suddha Grāma rāgas of which three belong to

Suddhūdibhedasambhinno grāmarāga itīritab. — Bha. Ko., p. 190 ¹Yathā svarasannivesena grāmavaicitryam loukike gāne evam svarasannivesena vaicitryatā sāmagānam anantaprabhedam bhavati iti. — Nā. Si., p. 21

Brhaddesi of Matanga

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Şadja Grāma and four to Madhyama Grāma. They were as follows:

Şad ja Grāma1. Şadja Grāma rāga1.2. Sādhārita2.3. Kaišika Madhyama3.

Madhyama Grāma 1. Madhyama Grāma rāga 2. Pañcama (Šuddha Pañcama) 3. Kaišika 4. Şādava

Let us first take all the rågas of the Madhyama Grāma. The first rāga is Madhyama Grāma rāga. This is defined by Nārada¹ in which he states that in this rāga, there is predominance of gāndhāra; nişāda is also repeatedly taken and dhaivata is weak. The rest of the svaras, by implication, are of normal importance. In other . words, madhyama is the amśa svara; gāndhāra is predominant. nişāda is second in prominence and dhaivata is weak.

Kaśyapa's definition is different.² Since Nārada himself refers to Kaśyapa in some of his definitions of *Grāma rāgas*, it appears that Kaśyapa may have been even earlier than Nārada.

Kaśyapa states that the rāga called Madhyan a Grāma is born out of Gāndhārī, Madhyama and Pañcamī Jātis. Sadja is amša svara; madhyama is nyāsa svara.

In Gändhärī Jāti, according to Bharata, gändhära is the nyāsa svara; şadja and pañcama are apanyāsa svaras. In Madhyamā Jāti, madhyama svara is nyāsa and şadja, rsabha, pañcama and dhaivata are apanyāsa svaras. In Pañcamī Jāti, pañcama and rsabha are amša svaras, nisāda, pañcama and rsabha are apanyāsa svaras. At the same time, Bharata states that in this Jāti, şadja, gāndhāra and pañcama svaras are weak.³ This seems a contradiction in terms.

Studying all the above Jātis, one gets the impression that excepting Madhyamā Jāti, the other two Jātis have hardly made any contribution as the allocation of importance of the svaras in them is at variance with that in Madhyama Grāma rāga.

But if one analyses the reason for Kaśyapa's contention, one has

¹Gändhärasyadhipatyena nişädasya gatä gataib, Dhaivatasya ca dourbalyam madhyama gräma ucyate.

-Na. Śi., Mysore edn., p. 21

-Kaśyapa, Bha. Ko., p. 465.

^{*}Gändhārimadhyamājātyob Sapancamyob samutthitāb, Şadjāmšo madhyamagrāmo madhyamo nyāsa eva ca.

*NA. Sa., Banaras edn., p. 329.

¹Tatra grāmasamudbhūtaņ pañcagitisamūśrayūt,

to turn to Bharata's assertion that all melodic combinations that are sung in the world are all contained in the permutations of $J\bar{a}tis$.¹ It seems all the scholars after Bharata took this statement of Bharata almost as an axiom and tried to fit in their theories in consonance with it.

Kaśyapa, Mokşa, Nanyadeva and others have attempted to show that Grāma rāgas were all born of Jātis. Bharata whenever he used the word rāga, he did not use it in the technical sense as it was used later but mainly in the sense of rañjakatva or in the delightful aspect.²

If for a moment, we concede that Bharata did use the term $r\bar{a}ga$ in its technical sense, then it stands to reason that he should have called the $r\bar{a}gas$, $J\bar{a}ti r\bar{a}gas$. Why did he always mention $Gr\bar{a}ma$ $r\bar{a}ga$ distinctly and never $J\bar{a}ti r\bar{a}ga$? Does not this itself give a glimpse of the proof that $Gr\bar{a}ma r\bar{a}ga$ had a definite connection with the two $Gr\bar{a}mas$ and not with the $J\bar{a}tis$?

Sarngadeva has also defined Madhyama Grāma rāga exactly as Kasyapa has done it.

Let us take the next raga—Suddha Pañcama raga. The definition as given by Narada and others differ. Narada does not refer to any Jatis but merely describes the raga. He states that if pañcama is a free halting note, and antara gandhara, rsabha and nisāda are in it, then understand it is Pañcama raga.³

Kaśyapa says Śuddhu Puñcama rāga is derived from Madhyamā and Pañcamī Jātis and its puñcama svara is both amša and nyāsa and its gāndhāra and nisādu are seldom taken.⁴

The two Jātis—Madhyamā and Pañcamī are from Madhyama Grāma and hence do not involve any contradiction as in the case of Sadjagāma rāga. But there is a considerable change in its form as given in the Nāradiya Šiksā and by Kaśyapa, Moksa and Nānyadeva.

The interesting fact to be noted is that Narada never mentions

¹Yatkincidgiyate loke tatsarvam jätisu sthitam.

*Rägastu yasmin vasati yasmüccaiva pravartate.

^aYadi puñcamo virāmate gāndhāraścāntaro bhavati,

Rişabho nişādasahitastam pañcamamīdršam vidyāt.

"Madhyamapañcami jatyo isambhūtassud Jhapanca mah. Amšo 'sya pañcamo nyūsasvalpadvišrutikassvarāb.

-Kasyapa, Bha. Ko., p. 66

-Na. Śi., 1.4.6

-Bha. Sang. Sidh., p. 199,

-Na. Sa., Bombay edn., p. 433

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any Jätis with reference to the derivation of Grāma rāgas. In fact in the whole text of Nāradīya Śikşâ, there is no reference to Jātis. Nārada describes Grāma rāgas neither as Janaka nor Janya rāgas. As there were only seven Śuddha rāgas, he describes their structure and essential characteristics. Why do the subsequent scholars labour to ram the Grāma rāgas into Jātis? One reason may be that Bharata regarded Jātigāna as Gāndharva Sangīta and Grāma rāga as Gāna. The former according to him was Mārgī Sangīta and later Dcśī Sangīta. May be this approach of Bharata prompted the scholars of the succeeding centuries to correlate the two.

Another reason may also have been the gradual fade out of Jätigäna and the steady emergence into prominence of Grāma rāga during the time of Matanga. It could have been the desire of the scholars to raise the status of the Grāma rāga from Deśi Sangita to that of Mārgī Sangita by tracing its origin to Jātis. Otherwise when one studies the description of Nārada, one feels the lack of necessity of bringing in the Jātis at all. Of course, the structure and character of some of the Grāma rāgas changed as time went on which is but natural.

The third räga in Madhyama Gräma is Suddha Kaiśika.

Here again the difference in the descriptions of Närada, Matanga and Mokşa is worthy of note.

Nārada states that the Rāga Šuddha Kalšika takes kākalī nisāda and pañcama svara is very prominent. He quotes Kašyapa's authority for this.¹ There appear to be two Kašyapas—one senior and another junior. The former must have been prior to Nārada and there is apparently no contradiction in their views. But the later Kašyapa is a staunch follower of Bharata and his views are quite at variance with those of Nārada.

There is another definition by Nārada of the same raga wherein he mentions the presence of both kākalī nisāda and antara gāndhāra.¹

Matanga states that Kaiśikī rāga is born out of Kaiśikī and Kārmāravī Jātis and is sampūrņa. It has sadja as amša svara, madhyama as nyāsa.

³Kākalirdīšyato yatra prādhānyam pañcamasya tu, Kašyapab kaišikam prāha madhyamagrāmasambhavam. Nā. Ši., 1-4-11.

³Antarasvarasamyukta käkali yatra dršyate, Kašyapah kaišikim prāha madhyamagrāmasambhavam, Na. Ši. as quoted by Rāmkrsoa Kavi in Bha. Ko., p. 149. 2

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From this, it is clear that even Matanga was not free from inhibition that Grāma rāgas were evolutes of Jātis. The form of this raga had obviously undergone a great change, because Matanga does not mention the presence of kākalī nisāda or antara gändhära.

But strangely Mokşadeva whose work Sangita Särakälikä is dated c. AD 1300 in his definition of the above raga mentions that it takes kākalī nişāda. Although he has not mentioned antara gändhüra, it may be inferred that this svara must have been also taken as the perfect consonant note of kākalī nisāda.¹ Moksa was at least four centuries later than Matanga. But Moksa's description also tallies with that of Matanga in his affiliation of the above rāga to Kulšikī and Kārmāravī Jātis. He states that tāra sadja is both graha and amśa svara; pañcama is nyāsa svara. So this rāga must have undergone changes in the time of Matanga and got back its earlier form in the time of Moksa. Or it may be that Matanga after referring to the two Jātis, Kaiśiki and Kārmāravi felt it unnecessary to mention kākalī nişāda and antara gāndhāra. This inference becomes obligatory because Matanga and Moksa mention the same Jätis. Both these Jātis belong to Madhyama Grāma. The next and the last raga belonging to Madhyama Grama is

sāģava.

Here again Nārada's description of Grāma rāga is as an independent and pure form and hence did not connect it with Jatis. But he also does not refer to Bhāşā, Vibhāşā or Antarabhāşā. It is possible these developed later.

Nārada defines Suddha Şādava rāga thus:

That it takes rsabha, sadja, dhaivata, pañcama, and nisāda and it belongs to Madhyama Grāma.²

Kasyapa states that this raga was derived from Sadja Madhyama Jätis in which pañcama is both amsa and nyāsa svara and gandhāra

is weak.3 Kasyapa's assertion in assigning this raga to Sadja Madhyama

³Karmaravyaśca kaiśiktyastara şadja grahamśakah panyasah kakaliyukto vijnyessuddha kaisikab. Viraraudrädbhutarasah sampürapasvarako matab. Moksadeva, Bha. Ko., p. 664.

*Rsabhothita Sadjahato dhaivata sahitasca pancama yatra. Nipatati madhyama rāga tam nişādam şādavam vidyāt. Na. Si., 1-4-5, p. 21.

*Sadjente madhyamajätéh sambhūtaśsuddha sadavah, Nyasaśca pańcamomsaica gandharenaica durbalah. Kasyapa, Bha. Ko., p. 671.

Jäti is once again conflicting because Sadja Madhya Jäti belongs to Sadia Grāma whereas Sādava rūga belongs to the Madhvama Grama. Here again arise the difference in the svaras of the Sadia and Madhyama Grama. Sad ja Grama has pañcama of four śrutis and dhaivata of three srutis whereas with the Madhyama Grama, it is the reverse. Also in Sadja Grāma, there is rşabha-dhalvata consonance and no rsabha pañcama consonance whereas in Madhyama Grāma, there is no rsabha-dhaivata consonance but rsabha-pañcama consonance. Hence it appears contrived and artificial to affiliate a raga belonging to one Grama to a Jati of a different Grama.

The point worth deliberating here is how the old scholars justified the affiliation of a Jati in Sad ja Grama as the parent (Junaka) of a raga assigned to Madhyama Grāma. Another feature is that Jätis were being sung and therefore it seems more untenable and unnecessary to derive another singable mode from one which is already in vogue. The classification, therefore, of Grāma rāgas under Jātis, appears contrived.

One more point worthy of note is the contrived, laboured extension of the connotation of the word Sadava by Matanga to mean the best of the six ragas. But etymologically Sadara can never be taken to mean that, because Sudava is derived from the roots satara, sat means six, ara means which is connected with six-hence six svaras. But Matanga, in his explanation of the reason why this name Sädava must have been given, appears to have taken the most leading among the Grāma rāgas; but the word Şādava has no such implication. Ava also means to preserve. He has thereby tried to extend its meaning beyond its capacity. Because the term Sadava can never be taken to mean the preserver of six ragas instead of six svaras. This attempt of Matanga seems quite unnecessary and rather forced.

Now let us deal with the Grāma rāgas belonging to the Sadia Grāma.

The first rāga is Şadja Grāma rāga.

Nārada defines it as a rāga in which gāndhāra is predominant. nişāda is sparingly used, dhaivata is kampita or shaken.¹

Moksadeva defines it as a derivative of Sadja Madhyama Jäti

¹]şatsprsto nişadastu gändhärascadhiko bhavet. Dhaivatah kampito yatra sadjagrāmantu nirdišet, Na. Šl., 1-4.8.

with tāra şadja as both graha and amśa; madhyama is nyāsa and it takes all the seven svaras (sampūrņa); it also has kākalī nisādu and antara gāndhāra. It expresses three rasas—Vīra, Adbhuta and Raudra.¹

There is considerable difference in the description of Nārada and Mokşa. Of course, the time lag between the two writers is also considerable, i.e., nearly fourteen centuries. It may be, the $r\bar{a}ga$ had undergone vital changes. It seems that there were in that period also, different schools rendering the same $r\bar{a}ga$ in different ways.

One aspect that is significant is the total omission of any reference to Jātis by Nārada. This indicates that he belonged to a school different from that of Bharata.

Kaśyapa's definition of Şadja Grāma rāga is similar to that of Mokşa. The former lived several centuries before and hence there are a few differences also. Kaśyapa states that Şadja Grāma rāga is a derivative of the Jātis Ṣādjī and Ṣadja Madhyamā. In this rāga, şadja is amša and madhyama is nyāsa and it is sampūrņa.²

Kaśyapa docs not mention the use of $k\bar{a}kal\bar{l}$ nisāda or antara gandhāra nor does he specify the tāra sadja as has been done by Mokşa. The only thing that appears to be constant is the name of the rāga through the centuries.

The next rāga of Şadja Grāma is Sādhārita. Nārada defines it thus:

The rāga which takes antara, gāndhāra and kākalī nisāda that is Sādhārita.³

By this definition, if one were to define the *āroha* and *avaroha* of this rāga, then with kākalī nisāda and antara gāndhāra and the other notes of the Şadja Grāma namely suddha madhyama, triśrutika rşabha and dhaivata, they will be very close to the notes of modern Bilāval or the Karnātak Śankarābharanam.

Mokşa delines this rāga differently. He states that in Sādhārita, şadja is gruha and amśa; nişāda and gāndhāra are sparingly used; madhyama is nyāsa; it uses all the seven svaras and is derived from

¹Şadjamadhyamikäjüteh türaşadjagrahümsakah, manyüsasvarasampürnüh kükalyüntarabhüşitah rase virüdbhute raudre şadjagrümabhidhanatah. *Bha. Ko.*, p. 687.

²Sadjāmšo madhyamānyāsah syūt şādjī şadjamadhyayoh, şadja grāma iti proktah sampūrņasvarakastathā. Kašyapa, Bha. Ko., p. 688.

³Antassvara samyukta kākaliyatra drsyate, tantu sādhāritam vidyāt paācamasthānantu kaišikam. Na. Ši., 1-4-9, p. 22. the Şadjamadyama Jāti.

Although there is no contradiction in assigning this raga to Sadju Madhyamā Jāti as it belongs to Şadja Grāma, still the difference in description between Nārada and Mokşa is considerable. The latter has stated that nisāda and gāndhāra are sparingly used¹ whereas Nārada, by mentioning only kākalī nisāda and antara gandhara, has, by implication, given them prominence. Nārada has omitted mentioning the graha, amśa, and nyāsa svaras, And yet the raga's contours are more clearly gleanable through Nārada's description than that of Mokşa's. According to Mokşa, the raga would be very similar to that of Sadji Jati. But the strange point worthy of note is that while Moksa mentions the use of kākalī nisādu and antara gāndhāra in the previous rāga namely Sudja Grāma rāga. Nārada mentions the same thing in respect of Sādhārita and states the sparing use of nisāda in the previous raga. In other words, the description of Sadja Grama raga by Narada tallies more with that of Sadharita of Mokşa. But the descriptions of Sadja Grāma rāga by Nārada and Mokşa do not tally at all. From the svaraprastaras given, it is difficult to form an exact idea of the structure and movement of the ragas.

The third and last raga in the Sad ja Grama is Kaiśika Madhyama.

Nārada states that when all the seven notes are used in Kaišika and the $r\bar{a}ga$ begins from and ends in madhyama, then it is Kaišika Madhyama.²

Nārada does not specify whether the gāndhāra here is antara and niṣāda is kākalī as he has done in his definition of the Rāga Kaiśika. He has merely stated here that all the seven notes used in Kaiśika, are used in Kaiśika Madhyama. Hence the main difference, it seems is the beginning and ending of the rāga on madhyama svara which again implies that madhyama is graha, amśa and nyāsa in the Rāga Kaiśika Madhyama.

Moksa defines this raga thus:

It is derived from Kaiśiki and Şadja Madhyama Jātis, it uses tāra şadja as graha and amša; madhyama is nyāsa; it omits rşabha and paītcama; uses gāndhāra sparingly; takes kākalī nīisāda. It is used to

¹Sämsägraho nigalpah syat sadjamadhyamaya krtah. sampuroo madhyamanyasah suddhasadharito matah. Moksa. Bha. Ko., p. 671.

^aKaišikam bhāvayitvā tu svaraissarvaissamāntab, yasmāttu madhyame nyāsab tasmāt kaišika madhyamab. Na. Ši., 1-4-10, p. 22. depict Vīra, Adbhuta and Raudra rasas.¹

This definition by Mokşa is similar to his definition of adjaGrāma rāga in that in both the rāgas, tāra sadja was grahu, and amśa and madhyama was nyāsa. But in the above rāga, the omission of rsabha and pañcama makes it an audara rāga. Its structure would resemble the modern Rāga Bhinna Sadja. But if gāndhāra is sparingly used, even then the form of modern Rāga Bhinna Sadja could be maintained because it has madhyama-sadja samvāda.

But again a contradiction arises in the assigning of this rāga by Mokşa to Katšikī and Şadja Madhyamā Jātis. Because the Rāga Kalšika Madhyama belongs to Şadja Grāma and the above two Jātis belong to Madhyama Grāma. How Mokşa manages to reconcile this anomaly is not known. These are problems yet to be resolved.

Matanga has made no reference to $t\bar{a}la$ but it must be presumed that he must have used the *mārga tālas* mentioned by Bharata. No available text of *Bthaddeśī* contains a chapter on *tāla*, although there must have been a chapter on $t\bar{a}la$ in it earlier.

Jāti-Prastāra or Jāti Elaboration

Let us take the first Jāti Ṣādjī. Bharata in his description of the Jātis has not mentioned the gītis and the tāla mārgas of the Jātis whereas Matanga has described both, which have been repeated by Śārngadeva in S.R.

Gita was the term to denote any song but giti was a technical term indicating the style of rendering of a composition. Since the composition in the days of Bharata, Matanga and Śārngadeva, was so complicated and elaborate in structure and text, the mere adherence to them, was considered to be a style. There were in all five main styles of rendering, independent of the varieties of compositions. They were known as Śuddhā, Bhinnā, Vesarā, Gaudī and Sādhārinī.

There were two unique features of rendering of the Jāti which have not remained in the age of raga notwithstanding the fact that Jāti was the matrix of the raga. They were: that the same Jāti which was sampūrņa could have its sādava and auduva forms by

¹Kaišiki şadjamadhyamābhyām tāraşadjagrahāmšakah. Manyāsassyāt ripatyakto gāndhārālpassakākalih, rase vīro'dbhute raudre šuddhakaišika madhyamah. Mokşa, *Bha. Ko*, p. 665. omitting one and two svaras respectively and yet be considered to be the same Jâti. In the present position of the $r\bar{a}ga$, such an operation would completely change the complexion and structure of the $r\bar{a}ga$. For instance, if Rāga Yaman which is sampūrņa is taken, one can assess its sādava form by merely omitting pañcama and have ni, 1e, ga, ma, dha, ni, sa but its auduva form with the same omission seems impossible. The only way open seems with the exclusion of nişāda and madhyama. But as there are already three rāgas established under that scale, it will not be possible to produce a form separate from the above or bring about the flavour of Yaman in five svaras without bringing in Bhupālt, Šuddha Kalyāņa or Jait Kalyāta. In any other it may be even more difficult to have a sādava ard auduva modifications of the same sampūrņa without either completely going off its original mood and character or landing on some well-known rāga already established.

The second peculiarity was that the same Jāti was rendered in three different layas - vilambita, madhya and druta. Whereas, at present we have different compositions for different layas-vilambita, madhya and druta, but there are cases when vilambita khyals are sung as druta khyāls and vice versa. For example, the Jaipur Gharānā (Ustad Alladin Khan's School) and his disciples and followers sing usually vilambita laya khyāls. Some of these khyāls are sung in druta laya in the Agra Gharānā.¹ These layas were then known as märgas and Bharata mentions three märgas in which the Jātis were sung. They were ekakalā, dvikalā, catuskalā. Here the word 'kalā' is used in the sense of mātrā in tāla as understood today, ekakalā consists of one mātrā, dvikalā two mātrās and catuşkalā four matras. The names of these margas, were Citra, Vartika and Daksing respectively. Different Jätis were sung in different märgas, and in the same margas, the same Jatis, as stated earlier, were sung in different margas also.

One other feature was that the texts of the Jātis were modified according to the mārgas in order to fit in to the respective mārgas and yet retaining it as the same Jāti. The modifications were māgadhī, ardhamāgadhī, sambhāvitā and prthulā. These textual modifications of composition were categorised as padāśrita gītis. Gitis as already explained, were styles of rendition of gītas. The definition of these padāśrita gītis is—it is that musical rendering in which

¹Khyāl Naţ-Kūmod, 'Nevara Baje' in tīntāla.

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the text is ornamented by the vartas of sthäyi, $\hat{a}rohi$ and avarohi, and is also set to laya.¹

In the talas used in the time of Bharata, there were three important varieties. They were cancalpula or caccalputa which was catasra and cācaputa or cāpaputa which was tryaśra. These were the two varieties but they were further subdivided into three more types in accordance with the number of matras or kalas. The first one was called yathākşara (ekakalā) or two mātrās, dvikalā and which was twice as much as ekakalā or four mātrās and catuskalā or eight mātrās as it was twice as much as dvikalā. Another way of expressing the mätra-kaläs or time intervals of mäträs was by giving different time measures specific names. There were three kinds-laghu, guru and pluta. Laghu was of one mātrā, guru of two mātrās and pluta of three mätras. Various syllables of the words of the songs were assigned time-measures and the total duration of the tala made up, from its very name. For instance the tala cancalputa was of eight mātrās in the following way: can cat pu ta. The first two syllables were of two matras duration and hence were gurus, the third was a laghu or one mātrā, the final syllable was a pluta and of three mātrās. The total number of mātrās of the tāla comes to eight.² Each kind was also a symbol. Laghu is denoted by the sign I; guru by S and pluta by S'. It could therefore; be expressed as SS IS'. Similarly the other tala cacaputa is of six matras consisting of guru, laghu, laghu and guru expressed as SIIS.

The term kalā also had several shades of meaning. In all, it was used in four ways. Kalā was:

(1) a tāla-bhāga or part of a tāla;

(2) a pāda-bhāga or part of a song;

(3) a tāla-kriyā or specific rhythmic operation; and

(4) a mātrā or time unit.

If there was one mātrā for one section, it was dhruva kalā; if there were iwo mātrās, it was citrā kalā; if there were four mātrās to a section, it was known as vārtika kalā and eight mātrās to a section was called duksiņā kalā. In other words daksiņā was vilambita laya; vārtika was madhya laya and citrā was druta laya.

³S.R., Adyar edn., Svarädhyäya, p. 280. *Na. Sa., Bombay edn., p. 476 and Banaras edn., p. 343. In the daksinā mārga, there were twelve sections and each section had eight mātrās making a total of ninety-six mātrās. The twelve sections were divided into two parts, each part consisting of forty-eight mātrās or kalās.

In the composition that is given below, there are in all twelve lines, each line consisting of eight $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$. The first half of the composition ends on the 6th line or 48th $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$. Each section of the $t\bar{a}la$ has different movement within it. The letter in abbreviation on the top of the number of $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$ of each section indicates the type of operation to be followed. Generally the time measure of one laghu is calculated in terms of the time interval taken to pronounce five short syllables.

In the days of Bharata and later, the manner of playing the $t\bar{a}la$ with the hands was made quite elaborate and specific. The pattern of playing it had been well established and fixed not to permit any deviation as it would change the $t\bar{a}la$. There were eight different ways of indicating the pattern and time duration of the $t\bar{a}la$. They were called $\bar{a}v\bar{a}pa$, denoted in abbreviation by a niskrama abbreviation—ni; viksepa—vi, pravcsa—pra—dhruva—dhru, samya—sa, $t\bar{a}la$ — $t\bar{a}$, $samip\bar{a}ta$ —san.

Avapa means upturned open palm, the folding or closing of fingers is also called avapa.

Niskräma is spreading out the fingers of the half closed palm.

Viksepa means to take the upturned palm (usually the right one) with spread-out fingers to the right side.

Pravesa means to close in the fingers of the half open palm.

Dhruva means to take the hand down after snapping with the fingers.

Samya means to clap with the right hand over the left hand. Tala means to clap with the left hand over the right hand.

Sannipāta means to clap with both hands by bringing them together in front of the chest. These operations are clearly des-

cribed in the Sangita Ratnākara. ¹ The composition given below is given in the Sangita Ratnākara. The text is in Sanskrit. Such texts were called pada. It is as follows:									
Tam bl	avala	llāta	nayanā	i mbuj ä	dhika	am			•••
C	Nag	asบิทเ ·	ipraņaj	yakeli s	samu	dbhav	am.		
Sarasak			ni kānu						
	ггац	amar	ni kam	adener	ianai	ianala	m.•		
	or å	. –	- ni	·	vi		pra		
Tala operatio						•	-		
Laghu or Mät	r?	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Svara or notation	_								
Pada or text	Sa	•		Sa	pa		r pa	dha i	ni
2. Tâla operation	tar I		bha	va	la	liā		ta	÷.,
or T.O.	ā	_	tā	_	vi		śa	_	
Laghu or L	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
Svara or S	re	gama	r ga	ga	sa	-	dhasa	-	
Pada or P	na	ya	nām	-	bu	jā		dhi	
3. T.O.	ā	-	ni	-	vi		Tā		
L	17	18	19	20	21	· 22	23	24	
S	rega	sa	re	ga	sa	sa	sa	sa	
' P	kam	••				— '	-	_	
4. T.O.	ā		ni	_	vi		śa		
L	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	
S P	dha	dha		nisa	nida		sa	sa	
5. T.O.	na ā	ga —	sū tā	—	nu	рга	ņа	ya	
L	33	34	35	36	vi 37	38	pra 39		
s	ni	dha		dha ni	-	ga	59 Sa	40	
P .	ke		li		sa	mu		ga. bdha	
6. T.O	ā	_	ni		vi		śam		
L	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	
S	sa	dha	dha ni	pa	sa	sa	sa	sa	
P	vam	—	—	-	—		_	-	

¹S.R., Adyar edn., Tālādhyāya, pp. 4-5. ²Ibid.

7. T.O. ã ni vi pra 2 3 4 5 6 7 L 1 8 S sa sa ga sa ma pa ma ma P kŗ ta sa ti га sa la ka 8. T.O. ã vi ta -----sa ----` 9 10 11 12 13 15 16 L 14 ma dha ni ni dha pa S sa ga ga re ga kā nu P pań le _ pa vi 9. T.O. ã _ ni — ----tā _ 18 19 20 21 22 23 17 24 L S ga ga ga ga sa sa sa sa P nam _ ----10. T.O. ã vi śa _ ni ____ 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 L 32 S dha sa re gare sa ma ma ma P Ņа mâ mi kā pra — _ ma 11. T.O. ā tä vi ---------pra -----35 33 34 36 37 38 39 L 40 dha S ni pa dha ni re Sa ga re de dha P nā hen ____ na _ 12. T.O. vi ā ni --sa ni _ L 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 S re ga **sa** re sa sa sa ga sa P lam

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2

1

The notation system followed here is that which was copied by Pt. Vişnu Nārāyana Bhātkhande. Here a dot is placed on top of the svara to indicate that it is in mandra saptaka and a short staff line on top of the svara to indicate it is in tāra saptaka. Madhya sthāna svaras have no symbols. Komal and tīvra svaras also had no distinctive signs on them.

A break-up analysis shows the following:

Şadja has been used	36 times
Rsabha has been used	12 times
Gändhära has been used	20 times
Madhyama has been used	8 times
Pañcama has been used	8 times
Dhaivata has been used	16 times
Nişāda has been used	12 times

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Sadja being amśa, graha, nyāsa and apanyāsa has been obviously used maximum. As stated by Bharata and Sārāgadeva, gāndhāra and dhaivata are the two svaras which along with sadja produce the sangatis and flavour of the Jāti. Hence these svaras enjoy bahutva as against madhyama and pañcama which are used less and in alpatva Rşabha and nişāda occur twelve times and will have to be considered as used in alpatva; it is also called anamša. Nişāda has been taken nine times only out of twelve in association with dhaivata and şadja and only three times independently whereas rşabha has appeared the contrary: three times with gāndhāra and the rest independently This indicates that rşabha had a more important position than nişāda.

A study of the musicality of the Jati gives the impression that it will be not only difficult to sing it but the svara-arrangement is unmusical and inconsonant. For instance at the end of the first section and beginning of the second and it occurs two times elsewhere; there is a jump from komal nişāda to śuddha rsabha. At the end of the second section there is a phrase re ga dna sa; it does not reflect any aesthetic or musical flavour. The entire consposition musically does not seem to project any evocative mood. The svaras of Sādji Jāti are that of Kāfī. With emphasis on sadju, dhaivata and gandhara, the tone-picture of the Jati is vague and me sy. And the manner in which the words of the song are used also does not help in presenting any mood. In the fourth, fifth and sixth sections, the words nagasūnupranayakelisamudbhavam have been set in such a time that it does not sound like a piece of music but like a chant. In fact the overall impression of this music is like a chant than a song and the general compositional structure smacks of the Gregorian Chant. In the Gregorian Chant, komal dhaivata and sometimes a touch of antara gandhara could also be heard which makes it more the modern Kafi raga Even if the singer is a gifted musician, it may be quite difficult for him to render this composition with any degree of aesthetic beauty. The inference that one is inevitably led to draw is that at least in such devotional compositions, the Jātis were very plain and unmusical. Even chanting it in will not be that easy.

The $t\bar{a}la$ aspect of this composition is not very difficult but to change the manner of keeping the $t\bar{a}la$ in each section in spite of the number of $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$ to each section remaining the same, seems unnecessary and incomprehensible. Even the division of $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$ within the section is uniformly in two's, throughout all the twelve sections. It appears more an exercise on intricacies without much rhythmic utility or significance.

Likewise the same Sadji was rendered with *ryabha* as the basic or key-note; which was called $\overline{siryabhi}$; the Jāti from *svara gandhāra* as key-note was called Gandhāri. All the first seven Jātis which were based on the different notes of the *saptakas* whose *nyāsa* and *amśa svaras* were the same key-notes were known by the same notes.

Now in order to understand the Sad ji Jati better in its musical aspect, it would be interesting to study the description by Sarngadeva when he states that Sad ji resembled Raga Varați. There is a slight discrepancy in assigning of the Mürchana for this Jāti. According to Sarngadeva, Sadji was derived from Dhairati Murchand. Strangely Kallinatha appears to have mistaken the starting svara of the Jāti from dhaivata to mean that it is an offshoot of Bharata's Uttarāyatā Mūrchanā which starts from the dhaivata svara,² whereas the actual position is that the Sadji Jati's commencing note was dhaivata and it was from the Uttaramandra Mürchanā of Bharata which resembles the modern Suddha Kāfī. If one takes Källinätha's statement and follows it, then the scale of the Jāti that is based on the Uttarāyata Mūrchanā becomes Suddha Bhairavī with two madhyamas in chromatic order in both aroha and avaroha, completely eliminating pañcama. Obviously, this is not the form of Sadjī as described by Sārngadeva and as given earlier here.

Sādjī compositions were in three mārgas—Citrā, Vārtika and Dakşiņā.³ Citrā was sung in Māgadhī, Vārtika in Sambhāvita and Dakşiņa in Prthulā. Māgadhī was the rhythmic style developed and prevalent in the state of Magadha.

Sārngadeva while stating the resemblance of *Sādjī* with the then current *Rāga Varāți* has given a description and a *svara-prastāra* of the *rāga* from which the musical structure of it is well discernible.⁴ The *rāga* is referred to as *Vārţikā*. The description given in *Bphad*-

"Ibid., p. 197.

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¹S.R., Adyar edn., vol. I, Svarädhyäya, 7th Prakarana, p. 199. ⁹Ibid., p. 196.

⁶S.R., Adyar edn., vol. 11. chap. 11. verses 10-12. Rügüdhyâya, p. 17 (11. 10-12, p. 17).

deśi is also similar.¹ Also Dattilam contains a description of this.² Särngadeva states that Varāțī rāga sometimes takes kākalī³ and is the Janya rāga or derivative from Bhinna Pañcama.⁴ Kāllinātha also endorses this view by clarifying that Varāțī's Janaka rāga is Bhinna Pañcama⁶ but this seems to have been misinterpreted by Mrs. Nijenhuis in her book Dattilam as she has interpreted Bhinna Pañcama as being the Bhāşā of Varāți. There is also a referencé to Varāțī in the S. ngīta Samayasāra of Pāršvadeva,⁶ a work, a few decades earlier than the Sangīta Ratnākara. It mentions Varātikā as a Vibhāşā of Pañcama. There is a description of this rāga in the Sangīta Rāj also. But the best description from which some idea of the musicality could be gleaned is Brhaddešī. It is as follows:

ma dha, sa dha ni dha, pa ni ma ma ga sa, sa ga ma ga sa, dha ni dha. dha dha dha dha, sa dha ni pa pa, ma ga sa ga ma.

The form it takes is very close to the modern $R\bar{a}ga \ V\bar{a}gesiri$ as the emphasis of *dhaivata-madhyama* indicates. Also in the very construction of the elaboration, the omission of *rsabha* adds to the flavour of the $R\bar{a}ga \ V\bar{a}gesiri$. It is certainly not an orthodox delineation of it as it contains phrases which are contradictory to its spirit and mood. For instance the phrase—pa ni ma ma ga sa is indicative of no specific modern raga. But the phrase sa, dha ni pa lends the air of Kanadai: the phrase sa ga ma, ga sa, dha ni dha is a clear description of $Raga \ Candra \ Kauns$ ($Vagesiri \ Anga$) or Audava Vagesiri. So that general impression of the entire elucidation of the passage is that the nearest modern raga that it evokes is Vagesiri. Therefore, the $Sad ji \ Jati$ and $Varaiti \ raga$ must have been close to Vagesiri. $Raga \ Varaiti$ appears to have been a vakra sādava raga with a blend of modern Kanadai and $Kauns \ Angas$. All the svaras given in the elaboration of $Raga \ Varaiti$ are only in the

¹Brhaddeši, Trivandrum edn., p. 129. ²Dattilam. ³S.R., vol. I, 7.60. ⁴S.R., vol. II, 2.83 (Kallinätha), verse 30, p. 224. ⁴S.R, vol. II, 67. ⁴S.S., chap., III; verses 23-24.

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madhya saptaka.

In this connection, it is necessary to understand the connotation of the words mandra and tāra while describing the svaras. Mandra was used in the sense of lower and tāra in the sense of higher. For instance, sa, ni dha pa; in this phrase in dha pa would be indicated as mandra or lower to sa. Similarly in the phrase ga ma dha ni sa, ma dha ni sa is tāra in relation to ga. So until and unless the term sthāna is used with the above words, it would be a mistake to presume they indicate the mandra and tāra saptaka.¹

Nirgīta or Bahirgīta

These were compositions wherein meaningless words seemed *suskaksara* or *stobhaksara* are used.² The connotation of the word *bahirgīta* or *nirgīta* means song consisting of meaningless words.³ Because this type of song was appropriated and sung by *asuras*, *devatas*, began calling it *bahirgīta*. There is an interesting incident related by Bharata as to how this type of song came into being. It seems the *asuras* or demons protested to Nārada Muni that the *devatas* or celestial people had a music of their own in which they revelled but they (*asuras*) had nove. So Nārada Muni, the clever, crafty person he was, gave them the above type of song. The *asuras* were highly pleased and in turn rejoiced in singing it.

The suskaksaras or stobhaksaras used were the following:

Jhantum, Jagatipa, Valitaka, Kucajhala, Gitikala, Pasupati, Diginigi, Digra, Ganapati, Tica.

These words were also useful in songs with meaningful words as they helped in extending them for completion of an avartan or cycle of tala. Even specific metres (chandas) could be created with these words and significant words were introduced in these metres, in the same way as that of rhythmic syllables of percussion instruments especially membranophones.

Bahirgita or nirgita is part of the seven types of gitas or songs

¹S.R., II.

「「あった」」というないとなる。それにつきてものないというない

^aNirgitam giyate yasmādpadām varņayojanāt. Nā. Ša. Baroda edn., chap. V, p. 223.

*Nirgitamiti tāvadādyam nāma. Nirarthakam gitamiti. ibid., ch. V, p. 222.

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starting from madraka, uparāntaka, ullopya, prakarī, oveņaka, rovindaka and uttura. The singing with suskāksaras was also called stobhākriyā. This type of meaningless words and rhythmic syllables are used even today in the tarānā of Hindusthānī and tillānā of Karņātak music. In the ālāpa of Hindusthānī music, meaningless words are used like te, re, ne, nom, tom. The word used by Bharata for ālāpa was upohana.

There were seven types of gitas as already mentioned, namely:

(1) Chanduka, (2) Āsārita, (3) Vardhamāna, (4) Pāņika, (5) Ŗk, (6) Gāthā, and (7) Sāma.

Before any of the above glias were sung, according to the Bharata tradition, *upoliana* or prelude was sung.¹. It gave the listeners a foretaste of the song and the Jati in which it was to be sung. Upoliana always started from the sthäyī svara.

The mode of development of the various gitas was quite elaborate and systematic. Apart from the upohana, there were four parts of gita, i.e. m.kha, pratimukha, śarira and sangharan or śirsak.

Panik, Rk, Gāthā and Sāma were all sung on the pattern of Sāma but were set to tāla whereas Sāma was not set to tāla. Chandakais not described with examples by Bharata

 $\bar{Asarita}$ gita was sung outside the screen of the theatre in order to put the audience in a receptive mood for the drama which was to follow. This was usually in the *pūrvarainga*.

Vardhamāna was also a prakāra similar to $\bar{A}s\bar{a}rita$ but this was sung after the screen was lifted and consisted usually of an evocation to Lord Śankara.

 $\bar{Asarita}$ had four varieties. The word $\bar{Asarita}$ was derived from the root asru which means 'to hasten towards'; $\bar{asayate}$ means 'to be undertaken' or 'begun'; in this context the $\bar{Asarita}$ gita indicated the commencement of the drama. The four varieties were:

Kanişth-āsāritam
 Layāntaram
 Madhyamāsāritam

(4) Jyeşthāsāritam

³Upohyate svaro yasmādyena gitah pravartate, tasmādupohanam jūeyam stbāyisvarasamāšrayam. Vema., Bha. Ko., p. 83.

Nänyadeva in his work Bharata Bhāşya has defined Āsārita gīta.¹

All the even types of songs with their ramifications have been described by Bharata. But they were all essentially adjuncts to the drama. Music was an integral part of drama but was used as a catalyst.

It was used in the opening phase of the drama to prepare the audience and ture their mood to receive the drama. well that was to follow. But the music was always presented in judicious quantities—never in excess because the audience may begin to disregard the drama. Hence it was given in the right proportion. There was an umpire usually to judge whether the music and drama were being done properly. Instrumental music was very important. Orchestral music which went by the name Kutapa formed the first part of the programme before the commencement of the drama. This was called *purvaranga*. There were two kinds of *purvaranga* called *Suddha* and *Citra*. The music was usually in consonance with the mood of the act of the drama that was to follow.

The strange phenomenon in Indian drama in the time of Bharata was the practice of having men and women do male and female roles respectively. In the selection of actors age, temper and decor were important factors. Women were chosen to do delicate, subtle roles.

Heroine's part was given to that person who was an adept in music i.e., with a good voice, control of *srara* and $t\bar{a}la$. Nowhere in the world was there the practice of using men and women for male and female roles in drama, 2000 years ago.

Nirgita or bahirgita was the music performed behind the screen before the play began. There were nine states of bahirgita:

Pratyāhāra, (2) Avatārana, (3) Ārambha, (4) Āśrāvaņā,
 Vaktrapāņī, (6) Parighattana, (7) Samghotana or Samkhotana,
 Margotsārita and (9) Āsārita.

Pratydhāra was the right placement of the instruments. In Bharata's scheme of Kutupa, the various instruments had specific fixed positions from one another.

Avatāraņa, as with the instruments, so with the musicians, i e., correct position of them.

¹Tālamānakālatānamūrchanasthāna karmaşu; Sarvatah yasmāt tasmādūsāritam smītam. Bha. Ko., p. 46.

Evolution of Raga and Tala in Indian Music

Arambha, a prelude or âlâpa consisting of voice and instruments.

Asrāvaņā was a kind of performance where the tuning of the instruments as also playing them, were accomplished. The tune had both a rhythmic as well as a melodic aspect. The tune was usually like this:

SaSa-SaSa; SaSaSa-SaSaáa etc.

Such tunes helped instruments in different octaves to be distinctly heard and their state of tunefulness to be assessed correctly.

Asravana was done in three parts. The first part consisted of a

song with meaningless words running to twenty-four syllables of which the first, second, eleventh, fourteenth, fifteenth and twentyforth were guru (long) and the rest were laghu (short).

The second part, another meaningless song, was sung consisting of twenty-four syllables of which six were long and the rest were short as in the first part. But tāla was introduced at this stage. This part was sung in cācaiputa tāla.

In the third part, there were fifteen syllables: 3, 8 and 15 were guru and the rest were laghu. Guru was of two matra duration and laghu was of one mâtrâ.

Arambha was done in three stages and a beautiful combination of vistāra, karaņa and vyanjana dhātus was made.

First stage was tāla dhātu prakāra, i.e. stroking the strings of the

Second stage was ribhita dhâtu consisting of two laghus and one instruments. guru. For example:

Third stage was hlada dhatu—This was a song of ten matras divided into eight laghus and one guru.. For example:

dida	dida	dida	dida	ପ୍ର ୦.୫−10	
1 2	34	56	78	9 & 10	

The above three dhätus had three khandas or further subdivisions. First part had 12 gurus, 8 laghus and 5 gurus making in all 42 mâtrās. This consisted of mnemonic syllables of the vina. The suska gita was of twenty five syllables.

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Second part had 8 laghus, Vguru, 4 laghus, 1 guru, 4 laghus and 1 guru totalling 22 mātrās.

Third part had 15 laghus and 1 guru totalling 17 matras Suska gita was of 9 syllables.

Vaktrapāņi had two parts: First part was called mukha consisting of 5 gurus, 6 laghus. 6 gurus and 2 laghus totalling 30 mäträs. Second part called pratimukha had | gurus, 3 laghus, 1 guru and 8 laghus totalling 21 måträs.

Samkhojana had one part of 27 aksaras and 33 matras comprising 2 gurus, 8 laghus, 2 gurus, 1 laghu, 1 guru, 12 laghus and 1 guru=33 mātrās.

The term *dhatu* that appears often in respect of the indication of instrumental music is very significant. The word is from the root 'dhā' which means to hold together i.e., the constituent factors that keep a thing in its integral form is called *dhatu* in its generic sense. In the context of music, it means the production of a particular note through a particular stroke or in modern parlance the technique of the plectrum.

Parighattana has one section of 51 akşaras and 62 mäträs comprising 8 gurus, 24 laghus, 2 gurus, 16 laghus and 1 guru. The tala which was used was called sampakvestāka tāla.

Märgotsärita has three sections all identical but in different talas. The total aksaras were 18 and the section consisted of 4 gurus, 8 laghus, 3 gurus and 3 laghus totalling 25 matras. The first section was in cācaputa tāla, the second and third sections were in satpitāputraka tāla.

Apart from these, there was what was called Līlāk rta Vidhi. The songs in this vidhi were of both kinds of Jātis namely, those that were derived from Sadja Grāma and Madhyama Grāma, those that were derived from Sadja Grāma were called abhisritā and those that were derived from Madhyama Gräma were called pariśritä.

It appears necessary after the enumeration of the nine stages of development of Nirgīta of Bahirgīta to describe the dhātus or technique of playing them. This was entirely instrumental music but it is amazing to see the bewildering complexity, details and nomenclature of the different kinds of movements of the plectrum. The technique of playing with the plectrum, as already mentioned. was known by a generic term dhatu. There were four varieties of dhâtu namely.

(1) Vistāra

(2) Karana

(3) Aviddhā

(4) Vyañjana

1. Vistāra had four sub-varieties: (a) Vistāraju, (b) Samghāţaja, (c) Samvayuj and (d) Anubandha.

(a) Vistaraja was a note of two mātrās in one stroke-dā.

- (b) Samgl:āțaja was two strokes producing two notes each of two ---mātrās---dā dā.
- (c) Samvayaja consisted of three strokes producing three notes of two mātrās each.

(d) Anubandha was a mixture of all the above three.

2. Karana had five sub-varieties: (a) Ribhita, (b) Uchaya, (c) Nirâtita, (d) Hläda, and (e) Anubandha.

- (a) Ribhita had 2 laghus, 1 guru=4 måtrås to be played in three strokes.
- (b) Uchaya had $4 \log \ln s$, 1 guru = 6 m a tr a s to be played in five strokes, i.e.

diru diru, dā 1 2 3 4 56

- (c) Nirātita had 6 laghus, 1 guru=8 mātrās to be played in seven strokes c.g., dira, dira, dira, dā.
- (d) Hlāda had 8 laghus, 1 guru = 10 mātrās to be played in nine strokes.
- (e) Anubandha was a mixture of all the above four.

3. Aviddha dhâtu had five sub-varieties: (a) Kşepa, (b) Pluta, (c) Atibala, (d) Atikīrņa, and (e) Anubandha.

(a) Kşepa had 1 lag.::: 1 guru = 3 mātrās in two strokes.

- (b) Pluta had 1 laghu, 1 guru, 1 laghu=4 mātrās in three strokes.
- (c) Atibala had l laghu, 1 guru, 1 laghu, 1 guru = 6 mätrås in four strokes.
- (d) Atikirna had 1 laghu, 1 laghu, 1 laghu, 1 laghu, 1 guru, 1 guru,

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1 guru, 1 guru, 1 guru, 1 laghu = 13 mātrās in nine strokes. (e) Anutandha was a mixture of all the above four.

4. Vyanjana dhātu had ten sub-varieties: (a) Puspa, (b) Kala, (c) Tala, (d) Nişkoțita, (e) Unmişta, (f) Rephu, (g) Anusvanita, (h) Bindu, (i) Avamrsta, and (j) Anubandha.

- (a) P_{uspa} is an operation when the strokes are produced with both the thumbs in conjunction with the little finger. It is a technique in which a string is struck jointly with the thumb and the little finger.
- (b) Kala is to stroke with both the thumbs two separate strings simultaneously.
- (c) Tala is striking a string with the right thumb after pressing down with the left thumb.
- (d) Niskolita is to strike with the left thumb up and down.
- (e) Unmista is to strike with the left index finger—softly and very melodiously.
- (f) Replue is when all the fingers are used in striking successively the strings.
- (g) Anusvanita is to strike the strings from below after the tala technique.
- (h) Bindu occurs when a guru is played on any string.
- (i) Avamrsta is to strike the same note in three strings in three registers from below successively.
 (ii) Anatom in the strike string in three strings in three strings

(j) Anubandha is a mixture of all the above.

Vistāra is for practising bols (mnemoniçs). It consists of bols of one mātrā whereas samghātaja and samrayaja have two and three bols respectively.

And there were further ramifications of the sub-varieties of vistara.

Samghāțaja had four stages: (1) Dviruttara, (2) Dviradhara, (3) Adharādi uttaravasana, (4) Uttaradiadharavasana.

(1) Dviruttara occurred when two notes were played in the mandra.

(2) Dviradhara, two notes in the madhyasthāna, middle

(3) Adharādiuttaravasana occurred with two strokes: one in

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the tara sthana and the other in the mandro

(4) Uttarādiadharavasana was the opposite of the third variety, i.e. one stroke in the mandra sthāna and the other in the tāra.

Avamista was producing the same note in all the three registers by striking the three strings successively with the thumb and the little finger of the right hand from below.

Pratyāhāra was placing the ensemble of instruments in the proper order.

Avatāraņa was seating of the musicians in the proper order.

Aśrāvaņā was started with karaņa or vistāra dhātu. It had three stages. First part consisted of six ak şaras (letters) in which 1st, 2nd, 11th, 14th. 15th and 24th were guru (of two mātrās).

It was performed in three stages. The song to be selected had to have the gurus in the order mentioned above. The rest of the remaining eighteen letters were laghu. The second part of the song was similar to the first in its distribution of guru and laghu. In the third part, the 3rd, 8th and 15th letters were guru and the remaining 12 letters laghu. The total number of letters was fifteen. The first two parts were to be played in caccatputa tāla and the third in cācaputa tāla.

Arambha had its own rules. It was first played in various kinds of vistāra dhātus, then it was to be combined with varieties of vyajijanā and karaņa dhātus in the following order:

First, to be combined with tala dhātu (a variety of vyañjanā).

Second, it was to be combined with *ribhita dhātu* (a variety of karana).

Third, it was to be combined with *hlada dhatu* (a variety of karana).

Arrangement of aksaras was as follows i.e. its syllable scheme:

A point worthy of note in these compositions was the blend of two types of rhythm—the physical and the psychic—physical thythm in the form of tālas, gurus and laghus and psychic rhythm in the akşara kalās. It was believed that aesthetic delight was possible only with the harmonic combination of physical and

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psychic rhythms.

First part of *Ārambha* had 8 gurus, 12 laghus and 5 gurus. Second part consisted of 8 laghus, 1 guru, 4 laghus, 1 guru, 4 laghus. One mātrā was equivalent to five akşaras, i.e. ta na na na na was one mātrā. The third part had 8 laghus and 1 guru.

Vaktrapāni: In this, aviddha and karana dhātus were used more and one vyan janā dhātu. Syllabic arrangement of the composition:

1st Part — 5 gurus, 6 laghus 6 gurus, 2 laghus 2nd Part — 4 gurus, 3 laghus 1 guru, 8 laghus

Samkhotana: In the first part, bindu, a variety of vyanjanā dhātu was played, using the consonant notes sa-pa. re-dha ctc, şatpitāputraka tāla was to be used in this composition. The composition in samkhotana consisted of twenty-seven akşaras or letters of which the syllabic arrangement was as follows:

2 gurus, 1 laghu, 2 gurus, 1 laghu, 1 guru, 12 laghus, 1 guru

Purighattana had only one section. Its syllabic arrangement was as follows:

8 gurus, 24 laghus, 2 gurus, 18 laghus, 1 guru

The dhātus used most in this, were a combination of vyañjana and karana. The tâla used was called sampakvestaka of 12 kalās or mātrās.

Mārgasārita: There were three varieties namely, Jyestha, Madhyama and Kanistha.

Kanistha used a beautiful combination of vistāra, aviddha and karaņa dhātus. According to Sārngadeva, it had three sections, in each of which the syllabic arrangement was to be as follows:

4 gurus, 8 loghus, 2 gurus, 8 laghus, 1 guru, 1 laghu

In the first section, the *tāla* to be used was *cācapuţa*. In the next two sections, the *tālu* used was *sat pitāputraka*.

Liläkria: In this style of performance of the vina, there were both meaningful and meaningless songs. Särngadeva gives the following definitions of *abhiśritā* and *pariśritā* that were used in Liläkriā Vidhi.

Songs sung in the amśas of the Jātis of the Şadja Grāma in the Vārtika Mārga, were known as abljišritā and songs in the amšas of the Madhyama Grāma Jātis were known as pariśritā.

This was always sung in catuskalā. This had four sections namely, Mukhā, Pratimukhā, Šarīra and Samharana.

Mukhā or upohana consisted of 2 guru, 20 laghu, and 2 guru.

Sarīra had three subsections. The first section was to be sung in caccatputa tāla. The second and third section in cācaputa tāla.

Sanoharana was placing the sannipāta at the end, after singing the three sections.

Madhyama or Madhyamasārita is sung in dvikalā satpitāputraka tāla. It has also four sections:

Mukhā or upohana consisting of 2 gurus, 18 laghus, and 2 gurus. Pratimukhā or Pratyupohana consisting of the same distribution of guru and laghu as in upohana.

Sarīra or main body of the song, had three subsections. The first subsection was sung in caccatputa tāla; the second subsection in satpitāputraka tāla and the third section also was sung in the same tāla as the second.

After Nirgita, Bharata has mentioned fourteen styles of vocal compositions. The first seven were:

1. Chandak 2. Āsārita 3. Vardhamāna 4. Pēņika, 5. Ŗca 6. Gāthā and 7. Sāma.

The first three are highly complicated with instrumental music. The fourteen styles of composition were based on permutations and combinations of the four *tālas*, three *yatis* (Sama, Gopuccha and Srotogatā) and three mārgas (Vārtika, Citrā and Daksinā).

Vārtika mārga was of 4 sections (pa da bhā ga) in

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dvikalā.

Citrā mārga was of 2 sections in ckakalā.

Dakşiņā mārga was of 8 sections in catuskalā.

Mārga means path, taking a short or long route. Mārga was different from kāla or laya. Mārga indicates the mātrās used at the rate of five laght.-akşaras per mātrā. It is different from vilambita madh) a and druta kāla as in modern classical music.

In Mārga, a section meant a bar. In Citrā there were two sections in ekakalā or in modern parlance one mātrā whose measure was five laghu akşaras. This meant the cycle of the tâla would repeat after every two kalās or mātrās. In Vārtika mārga, there were four sections in dvikalā or in two mātrās per each section. The totat was eight kalās or mātrās. Naturally, the time taken for each cycle was longer in this than the previous one. Similarly Daksinā mārga would take twice as much time as Vārtika mārga. The point worthy of note is that the number of kalās or mātrās increases with each mārga along with the increase in sections. Therefore the increase in time duration is mainly because of the increase of sections and kalās.

Whereas in modern $t\bar{a}las$, the number of $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$ remains constant along with the sections. The change of $kal\bar{a}$ is effected by the increase or decrease of the time-measure between two $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$. For instance, in modern ck $t\bar{a}la$, if the time-measure between to $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$ in four counts (1, -2, -3, -4), then the total count for the twelve $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$ of ektala would be forty-cight. If it was half of that, then it would be twenty-four; half of that would be twelve $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$. Here, there is nothing like a shorter or longer route as in the case of $m\bar{a}rga$ but a question of going the same distance in slow or fast tempo.

Let us take the four of the seven types of musical composition mentioned earlier.

Pâņika gīta: It had mukhā or upohana, pratimukhā or pratyupohana and śarīra consisting of the main song.

Rea gita: This was sung in anuştubha and other chandas. Anuştubha chanda consisted of four quarter verses of eight syllables each. Rk, the root of the word Rea meant prayer, i.e. Vedic chant in Vedic metres.

There were two reasons for the rame of *Rca gita*. First because it was in praise of God and second because it was mainly sung in

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Vedic metres although other metres of classical Sanskrit (kävya metres) were also used. Rca gita had forty-eight kaläs i.e., fortyeight syllables or akşaras. There were also suskākşara gitas and these were sung in catuşkalā and şaţkalā.

Gāthā gīta: In this, four akşaras constituted one kalā. It consisted of 128 kalās and the metre employed was kāvya metre like Ārya etc. Th's had mukhā and pratimukhā and it was sung with ornamentations.

Sâma gita: The basic difference between Sâma and Sâma gita was, in the former, there was no tâla whereas in the latter, there was tâla.

Along with the introduction of $t\bar{a}la$ in $S\bar{a}ma$ $g\bar{i}ta$, there were five parts in $S\bar{a}ma$ $g\bar{i}ta$ as there were in $S\bar{a}ma$; but their names were different.

Five Parts of Sâma	Five Parts of Sāma gīta
Udgita	Udgrāha
Prastāra	Anugraha
Pratihāra	Sāmandha
Upadrava	Dhruva
Nidhāna	Åbhoga

Just as the hinkāra was done in Sāma, the Sāma was also done in Sāma gīta. The chandas used was Gāyatrī etc. It was sung in trikal and satkal.

The other seven types of gitas mentioned by Bharata were:

1. Madraka, 2. Aparäntaka, 3. Ullopyaka, 4. Ovenaka, 5. Rovindaka, 6. Prakarī, 7. Uttara.

1. Madraka: This had four parts -mukhā, pratimukhā, šaiīra and samgharana.

First section was also called *prathama vastu*. The term *vastu* meant both a general composition and a part of composition. The prelude before singing the first section was known as *upohana*. This word also has an interesting etymology.

Upohanāmapi, upa samīpa ühyate vicāryate ityupohanamityuktam, This means the form of the raga or Jati that emerges after meditating upon its structure and essence. Upa means approach and Uh means meditate.

The prelude before the second section was called *pratyupuhana*. But sometimes *upohana* and *pratyupohana* were sung together before the first section itself. Upohana was done both in svara and täla.

Madraka was sung in three layas—in cka kalā, dvikalā and catuşkalā corresponding to modern druta, madhya and vilambita kāla respectively.

2. Aparântaka: It had five, six or seven parts; in each part there were four gurus and four laghus. Gurus were called śākha and laghus, pratišākha. The gītas were sung in dvikalā and catuskalā.

3. Ullopyaka: Wordings of the composition had two gurus and two laghus. They were sung in ekakalā, dvikalā and catuskalā. Ekakalā wordings had 2 gurus, 2 laghus and 1 guru in each mātrā.

Dvikalā had 8 gurus in one mātrā.

Catuşkalā had 16 gurus in one mātrā.

The last mentioned would have been very, very slow tempo which is not in vogue in modern classical music. For instance tritāla in the above tempo would be 16×16 or 256 single unit mātrās for one āvartana i.e., each mātrā will have 16 sub divisions.

4. Ovenaka: It had twelve sections like sthayani, tara, etc.

5. Rovinduka: This had from seven to sixteen sections.

6. Prakari: It had four or sometimes three and a half sections.

7. Uttara: This had twelve sections.

From all the above prolific details, it seems clear that the entire Indian classical music was founded on-vocal music.

There were also Dhruva gitas. The word Dhruva was a blanket term for all vocal compositions. It was used because every part and position was fixed. There were many such Dhruva gitas but five were used in drama:

1. Prāvesikī (entry).

2. Näşkrimikî (exit).

3 Akşepiki: an incidental song in a scene.

4. Pradešiki: a song to create a pleasant feeling or brighten the atmosphere.

5. Antarā: Interlude song in order to remove tension in a traumatic scene.

Mārga, Deša, Sangīta, Šruti, Grāma and Mūrchanā

Bharata has not given a clear, detailed practical description with examples of the svaras used in each Jâti, whereas Matanga has given, in terms of svaras, the various characteristics of each Jāti namely, the Graha, Amša, Nyāsa, Apanjāsa svaras etc. On the basis of these examples, Šārngadeva has given examples of songs, giving practical illustrations of all laksayas of the Jātis.

The other significant thing that Matanga did was to give the laksanas of Deśi rāgas. He described the Deśi rāgas and the offshoots of Grāma rāgas like Bhāsā, Viblāsā, and Antarabhāsā. By giving practical examples, of Jātis in terms of svaras, Matanga made it possible for people to comprehend the form of Jāti. Without him, it could be said that Jāti would have been unintelligible Śārngadeva expanded further by giving texts to the svaras of the Jātis as given by Matanga. So in a way, it could be stated that Brhaddeśī is a link between Nātyašāstra and Sangīta Ratnākara.

The term *Deśi* was first used by Matanga. It is not found anywhere in the *Näţyaśästra*. *Deśi* means regional music stylised as distinct from unstylised folk music. Unfortunately, the complete work is not available.

Mārgī Sangīta has been changing its connotation in the course of time. In Bharata's time, only Jāti was considered one another's limits.¹ But Matanga appears to have taken the conventional connotation of the word Grāma meaning a village to be its literal meaning. Grāma simply means a group; it may be a group of anything. For example there is bhūta grāma, indriya-grāma indicating the group of elements and of the senses respectively. So to take the meaning of the word Grāma for a village and define the musical term Grāma seems rather inappropriate.

Matanga, on the contrary, has made a great contribution in his clear definition of *svara* and *śruti* and their mutual relationship.

He says that *śruti* and *svara* are not identical. There are two types of *śruti*: one is *Svaragata śruti* and the other is *Antara śruti*. *Svaragata śruti* is that point where the accumulation of the *śrutis* explodes into *svara*. For example in the *Catuhśrutika sadja*, the first three *śrutis* are *Antara śrutis* but the fourth is *Svaragata śruti.*²

¹Brhaddesi as quoted in Bha. Ko., p. 139, ³Brhaddesi.

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Matanga further elaborates that there can be only five types of relationship between svara and śruti. (1) Tädätmyam (মাবাদেশন) identity, (2) Vivarta (খিবলা) illusory form, (3) Kåryatvam (মাবলৈশ,), effect, (4) Parinäma (परिणान), transformation, and (5) Abhivyanjakata (অপিৰ্যস্যদ্ধত), manifestation. He goes on to describe all these with examples:

1. Tādātmyam is identity just as in the case of species and individuals.

2. Vivarta is turning round, revolving, an inverted form, also illusory as the transposed image through a mirror. He means thereby that svara is the reflection of the *śruti* but not exactly.

3. Kāryatvam implies that svara is only a kārya or effect of sruti, just as the jar is the effect of the moulding of clay. Clay is the cause and jar is the effect.

4. Parināma is the transformation of *sruti* into svara just as milk is transformed into curd.

5. Abhiryañjakata literally means expression. In this case it means that the *śruti* takes on the manifestation of *svara* at a particular pitch. It is like a lamp which lights up a jar by removing the darkness. It manifests the jar which was lying in darkness. It merely removed the obstruction viz. darkness.

Apart from this, he gives two other names of *śrutis*: one is \bar{A} *śraya śruti* and the other \bar{A} *śrayī śruti*. The former means that which supports and the latter that which is supported. The latter is the svara which is supported by *śrutis*.

A further analysis of the above five standpoints may clarify the position vis-a-vis *śruti* and *svara*:

1. In the case of *tādātmyam*, the example of species and the individual is inappropriate because *śruti* is both identical and not identical with *svara*. The above term denotes a basic difference despite great similarity as between species and *svara*. Hence it precludes the possibility of identity between *śruti* and *svara*. The very concept of *śruti* and *svara* is different.

2. The second relationship presupposes a sense of illusion. Svara is certainly not an illusionary form of *sruti*. Hence this should be also rejected.

3. It cannot also be called a cause-effect relationship because the effect is already contained in the cause implicitly just as oil in the *tila* or sesame seed. But this is not true in music. The *svara* is not contained in the *frutis*.

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4. Matanga feels that either parināma or abhivyañjakata is equally applicable but the example he gives for abhivyañjakata of the lamp manifesting the jar by removing the darkness, is inapplicable. The *śrutis* do not reveal the svara by the removal of any obstruction. Svara could be better explained as the explosion (\overline{voic}) of the *śrutis*, i.e. the combined samskāras (impressions) of the preceding *śrutis* explode at a certain stage into a svara. The svara therefore is an emergent, not a resultant of the *śrutis*. It is a salius. Also the example of the lamp lighting the jar becomes untenable in the light of his earlier thesis of āśraya and āśrayī relationship between *śruti*

Now we shall take up the next contribution of Matanga namely his twelve note $M\bar{u}rchan\bar{a}$ ($Dr\bar{a}dasa M\bar{u}rchan\bar{a}$) theory.

Mūrchanās from the beginning, i.e. from Bharata's time were utilised for obtaining different scales. Mūrchanās were always sampūrna and had all the seven notes. But Matanga felt that seven svarus were inadequate to get a clear picture of a Jāti or a rāga. He felt a few svaras in the mandra and a few in the tāra sthānas will alone ensure a clear picture of a rāga and may help even in the deduction of rāgas So accordingly he introduced the Dvādaša Srara (twelve svara) Mūrchanā. Hence in comparison with Bharata's Mūrchanā, Matanga's Mūrchanās were as follows:

A table showing both the positions vis-a-vis the Mūrchanās of Sadja and Madhyama Grāmas would give a clear picture.

Şad ja Grāma

2. Rajani 3. Uttarāyatā 4. Šuddhaşadjā 5. Matsarikrtā 6. Ašvakrāntā	 Dha Ni Sa* Re Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ni* Sa Re' Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Dha* Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Re Ga Ma Pa* Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Dha Ga Ma* Pa Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Re Ga* Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa
7. Abhirudgatā	- Pa Dha Ni Sa Re [*] Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Re

Madhyama Grâma

1. Sauvirl	— Ni Sa Re Ga Ma [*] Pa Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ma
2. Hariņāśvā	— Sa Re Ga [*] Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Pa

• These svaras indicate the beginning note of the original Mürchanā in the Sadja and Madhyama Grāmas. The lines over the lower and three higher notes in the

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3. Kalopanatā	—	Re* Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Dha
4. Suddhamadhyä		Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa* Re Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni
5. Mârgi		Ma Pa Dha Ni* Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa
6. Pauravi		Pa Dha* Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Re
7. Hrşyakā		Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Pa [*] Dha Ni Sa Re Ga

The main distinction in the two Mūrchanās is that Bharata's two Grāmas are avarohātmakā i.e., descending whereas Matanga's Mūrchanās are ārohātmaka, i.e. ascending, this is the reason that two Mūrchanās, Ašvakrānta in Sa-Grāma and Hrsyaka in Ma-Grāma are not traceable in their full form.

Of all the scholars, Mahārāņā Kumbha in his Sangīta Rāja has been the severest critic of Matanga's 12-tone Mūrchanā theory. Although none of the later scholars accepted the above theory, none advanced as many clear-cut arguments to refute the theory as Mahārāņā Kumbha.

His main objection to the Drāduša Svara Mūrchanā were:

(a) The basis of Mürchanä is äroha-avaroha. Therefore its starting note is very important. In Matanga's 12-tone theory, the starting notes of most of the Mürchanās become different and hence the two Grāmas – Şadja and Madhyama forms unnecessarily get altered. For instance the starting note of Uttaramandrā is 'Sa' but according to Matanga, it is 'Dha'. But Uttaramandrā's starting note as 'dha' does not conform to any principle of arrangement of Mürchanā. Similarly Sauvīrī in Madhyama Grāma, has no valid rationale for beginning from nişāda. There is a sound basis for keeping the Mürchanā in the form of a saptaka because the identical form is maintained in the subsequent register up or down. But in the 12tone Mürchanā, the form gets disarranged and after the completion of one āroha the subsequent starting, note is different, hence the native order is disturbed.¹

(b) The main purpose of Matanga in propounding his system was to prove that he could obtain the complete form of a *Jäti* or

beginning and the end of each Mürchand, indicate the five additional notes introduced by Matanga. In the case of Aivakranta in Sadja Grama and Hrsyaka in Madhyama Grama, the original Mürchand is obtained only up to six notes and hence their complete forms are not available in Matanga's Mürchands.

¹कमास्स्वराणामारहावरोही मूछंनेति यत्।

सक्षणं तद् विहन्येत कमादारोहणाद् ऋते ॥

कुम्म., भ. को., पू. २८६।

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räga through his 12-tone Mürchanä. But on a close analysis, this is found to be untrue. Because the 18th Jäti Nandayanti, the last of the Vikrta Jātis needs all the fifteen tones to get the rsabha of mandra, madhya and tāra sthānas to manifest its full form. This means that the 12-tone Mürchand is inadequate as it falls short by three tones and is therefore not useful for this Jāti. Kumbha states rather severely that this theory is useless.¹

(c) The 12-tone Mürchanā implies two saptakas in the sāijavita or hexatonic state and two and a half saptakas in the audavita or pentatonic state. But actually the 12-tone sprawls over all the three saptakas. Take for example the Dhaivati Jati. Since its Murchand is rsabhādī, it starts from the svara rsabha. In the Kinnarī vīņā of Matanga, there are twelve frets and the last two svaras are obtained usually through mind or deflection of the wire. Thus Dhaivati Jāti would be turned as follows:

12 13 0 2 6 7 8 9 10 11 Re Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Dha Ni Sa

In the above, madhya suptaka will begin from the fourth fret i.e., Dha; the svaras preceding it will form the .mandra saptaka; the svaras after the tenth fret will form the tara saptaka.

Now in the hexatonic and pentatonic states, pañcama and sadja are omitted respectively. This will further increase the range of the Jātis beyond two and two and a half saptakas respectively. To . illustrate this with the above example, they will be as follows:

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 Hexatonic Re Ga Ma Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Ma Dha Ni Sa Re Ga Pentatonic Re Ga Ma Dha Ni Re Ga Ma Dha Ni Re Ga Ma Dha

Thus it will be seen that in the former state, there are almost three saptakas-three svaras in the mandra six in the madhya and five in *tara saptakas* respectively.

In the latter state, in addition to stretching over three saptakas, the first syura of the fourth saptaka is also obtained.

³यदक्तं जातिभाषादिता-मन्द्रादिमिदये । हारगस्वरगुम्छेन मुछंना स्यारप्रदोजिका। नन्दधन्त्यां तदय्याप्तेः तत्पन्यदणसम्भवात ।

कुन्म, भ, को., पु. २८९।

But in order to limit the range of the 12-tone Mürchanä, if the omitted notes are also included in the hexatonic and pentatonic Jatis, then the respective Murchanas may cease to be the creators of their respective Jails.1

(d) Mahārānā Kumbha further objects that in this 12-tone Mürchanā, the basic concept of Sa-Pa, Re-Dha and Ga-Ni samvāda, (consonance) is not obtainable. In the first Mürchanā of Sadja Grāma namely Uttaramandrā, Matanga's Mūrchanā starts from *dhaivata* and the corresponding Sa-Pa samvāda in it is Dha Ga. But there is no consonance as the difference in Srutis is only 12. There is, however, consonance between Ni-Ma and Sa-Pa, corresponding to the original Re-Dha and Ga-Ni. But there is on the contrary, samvada between Dha-Re-Ni-Ga and Sa-Ma. So if it is stated that the first Mürchanā of the Şadja Grāma i.e. Uttaramandra has more Sa-Ma samvada than Sa-Pa samvada, then that is against the basic principles of Sadja Grāma where Sa-Pa samvāda is more prominent that Sa-Ma samvada. Similarly, in the first Muchana of Madhyama Grama namely Sauviri (सोयोरो), Matanga's Mürchanā starts from nisāda and the position of madhyama is Ga. Here one finds than Ma-Ni samvada is not available from Ga, i.e., there is no samvada between Ga-Dha. But actually this argument of Kumbha appears unjustifiable and a little overstretched because if one accepts Matanga's starting note of Sauviri as nisada, then that should be taken as corresponding to madhyama which is the starting note of Sauviri. Then there is perfect Sa-Ma samvada between Ni-Ga, Re-Pa; but there is no samvada between Ga-dha corresponding to the original Ni-Ga. The Ma-Ni samvāda in Matanga's Mürchanä corresponding to the original Sa-Ma is also perfect and obtainable. So there is only one samurada i.e., Ga-Dha which is discordant. But the main principle of the prominence of Sa-Ma samvāda in all Madhyama Grāma Mūrchanās, I believe, is fulfilled in Matanga's 12-tone Mürchanā also. Therefore, Kumbha's assertion of inconsonance and isolation of the basic concepts of the principles of consonance in Matanga's 12-tone system, appears uniustifiable.²

(e) Another contention of Kumbha is that the 12-tone Mürchanā with its different starting note takes away the ranjakatā or the

भाडबौड्वितस्यातिव्यप्तिलोम्यादिम्रम्भवति । श्विसंवादिसमावेसाद रक्तिभंगो यत: स्मत: ।

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delightfulness of the Mürchanās for example in Uttaramandrā and Sauvīrī that exists in its original form when they begin from sadja and madhyama respectively. This could be true because when the starting note is lower by a few notes, then the pitch is also correspondingly lowered and an unnatural low pitch especially in vocal music, is bound to be ineffective. There is truth in this contention of Kumbha.¹

(f) Finally, Kumbha's argument that the seven-tone Műrchanä is the most useful, necessary and desirable one in contrast with Matanga's twelve-tone Mürchanä, seems tenable; because in the formation of a Jāti or a rāga, it often happens that a note or two has to be omitted or used less comparatively. In a seven tone Mürchanä, the picture of a Jāti or rāga becomes clear if one knows the note or notes omitted or used less. But in a twelve tone Mürchanā, this is not possible. One has to resort to kūța tāna, according to Kumbha but the kriyā is part of the Mürchanā to produce such tāna, these tānas cannot create the desired Jātis or rāgas.³

In the foregoing objections raised by Kumbha, there are some scholars who have attempted to somehow prove Kumbha's opinions, without going into their intrinsic validity. For example, Pt. K.C.D. Brhaspati in his endeavour to substantiate Kumbha's objection .d) explained already in the previous pages, has unaccountably taken rsabha, the fifth note from pañcama in the Sadja Grāma's first Mürchanā, Uttaramandrā and has stated the lack of samvāda. But there can never be any samvādu between these svaras in the Sadja Grāma as Pa is of four śrutis and Re of three śrutis. The difference between them in śrutis will be twelve whereas in the Madhyama Grāma, the difference is thirteen śrutis and therefore, there will be perfect consonance. This is because the pañcama is of three śrutis and dhaivata of four śrutis.³

Similarly in trying to prove the significance of the lack of Sa-Ma samvāda in the twelve-tone Mürchanā theory of Matanga in Madhyama Grāma's first Mürchanā Sauvīrī Pt. Brhaspati states that there is no svara higher than Ga and lower than Dha in Matanga's

¹न ताबत्कमताज्वारे धंक्त: कुवापि जावते । *ईवत्स्पपोत्स्नरूपनार्थ: कमभंगस्य मासनात् । कूटतानोपथोगित्वं मुख्यमासां प्रयोजनम् । न रागजनिरेपातम्वार्थी सप्तस्वरेरिता ।। •Bharata Sanglia Siddhanta, p. 53, -कृम्भ, भ, को., पू. २८६

—वही, पृ. २०६

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Mārchanā which starts from nisāda which has Sa-Ma samvāda. Here also, it is impossible to have samvāda because of the very basic *sruti* structure of the scale. Whether it is Matanga's twelvetone Mūrchanā or Bharata's seven-tone Mūrchanā, there cannot be any Sa-Ma type samvāda between Ga and Dha. The *sruti* difference is eleven. There is, however, Sa-Pa type samvāda both Ga upwards and Dha downwards i.e., Ga-Ni and Dha-Re each of thirteen *srutis* between them.¹

Now let us analyse Matanga's feeling of necessity for his twelvetone Mürchanā. It seems evident that his concept of Mürchanā itself was different. His twelve-tone Mürchanā theory was not merely to establish a scale but to study how the Jatis and ragas could move in different registers. It facilitated better understanding of Jātis and rāgas as it added a few notes in the mandra and tāra sthānas, whereas in the seven tone saptaka the full range of the Jātis and rāgas was not describable. Any Jāti or raga with a predominent mandra or tara emphasis cannot be illustrated in the seven-tone Mürchanā. Also the twelve-tone Mürchanā was of great benefit to instrumentalists as it afforded them the scope of obtaining different svara sthanas in all the registers. The Kinnari Vina had eighteen frets in all and with the first note on the meru and two additional notes by deflecting of the wires, it was possible to get full three sapiakas, i.e., twenty-one notes. Therefore, its practical utility cannot be mitigated. This is recognised by almost all the scholars although they disagree and denounce his theory. Indeed when one studies the theoretical implications, one will find that many fundamental principles get upset.

Matanga brought into vogue the Kinnarī Vīņā and introduced for the first time the movable frets or calasārikā. The idea behind this was to obtain the two extra notes kākalī Ni and antara Ga by shifting the frets from the Ni and Ga, which occurred in some Mārchanās. But little did he realise the far-reaching consequences of his innovation. He perhaps never could have imagined that he had unwittingly sown the seeds of melā. What he instituted for his own convenience to get the two additional svaras, later on led to the gradual disappearance of the Mūrchanā system itself. Hence in a way, it could be stated that Matanga's twelve-tone Mūrchanā

¹Bharata Sangita Siddhānta, p. 54.

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was the basis of *melā* which came into vogue several centuries later. The term *melā* may not have been used in his time, but the *kriyā* or function of the *melā* had already started to show up. His *Kinnarī* Vīņā in a peculiar way, killed the *Mūrchanā*.

In this context, if we study the outstanding significance of Matanga's Kinnarī Vīņā and his twelve tone Mūrchanā theory, one is led to ask the question, why did Bharata need to resort to the Mūrchanā system? It seems clear because in his time, the idea of having frets on the vīņā, had not occurred to anyone. Because of the lack of frets, and the necessity of tuning each string of his twenty-one stringed Mattakokila Vīņā on each separate svara, the concept of the Mūrchanā system was inevitable.

While it will be clear that the concept and advent of the movable fret ushered in the origin of the melâ, a deeper study of Bharata's Mürchanä system and the manner in which he tuned his Mattakokila Viņā, also reveals the seeds of the mela concept. In Bharata's Mürchano, the initial note was called nigraha. This was defined as "asamsparsa" i.e., not to be touched or struck in this case. The other term used was 'pravesa' which here means modification and not entry i.e., when a Jāti had to omit one or two svaras-to change from sampūrņa to şādava or audava-the strings of the Mattakokila Vinā were either stretched or loosened in order to tune it either with succeeding or preceding svaras respectively. Even in Bharata's time, there was a fixed string on which was the initial or starting svara of the Mürchanā. In modern parlance, this could be termed as the tonic. In his time, the tonic changed but the string remained constant. For example, it was always the eighth string on which the madhya sadja was tuned. Whatever modifications that were effected on the strings for obtaining the sādava and audava forms of Jātis, the eighth string was always exclusively reserved for the madhya saptaka şadja. Even if şadja had to be omitted as in the Dhaivatī Jāti in its audava form, it was borne in mind that the pravesa was from sadja to either Re or Ni. So the concept of the necessity for a constant svara on a fixed string either Sa or Ma of Sa-or Ma-Gr ama respectively was perhaps the earliest glimpse of the origin of the mela. Without this arrangement, the modifications done in obtaining the various Jatis through Murchanās, could have led to utter confusion and chaos. Bharata also obtained the antara gandhara and kakali nisada through the pravesa kriyā. But since Matanga had movable frets, he had no problem.

All these tendencies were clearly the seeds of the *melā* which followed later on.

Etymologically the word *melā* means to get together desired notes. *Thāta* means a framework. The very idea of shifting a *svara* from one *śruti* position to another implies the concept of the *melā*. Because such shifts of the same *svaras* are inconceivable and impossible in a *Mūrchanā* where the seven tone rule has to be rigidly observed.

In the light of the above arguments, the assertion of certain scholars that $mcl\bar{a}$ was an exotic product imported by us, seems untenable. Whatever Iranian influence we may have had, that was in the field of practical music. In the field of theory of concepts and axioms, there appears to be no such exotic absorption by us.

Pt. Byhaspati is a staunch advocate of the belief that the idea of melā was taken by us from Iran from their maqām. This is not valid for two reasons. Firstly as explained above, the seed of the melā concept had been sown as early as the time of Matanga. He is attributed variously to the 8th or 9th century AD. Even assuming that he lived in the 9th century, there was no Iranian or Muslim influence on this country at that period.

Secondly, the fundamental difference between $maq\bar{a}m$ and $mel\bar{a}$ was that the former was singable whereas the latter was not. Hence $maq\bar{a}m$ could, at best be compared with modes of Greek music. That the Iranians and Arabian were greatly influenced by the Greeks is a well-known fact of history. The very term for music, musiqui in Greek, has been borrowed by the Arabians. There are several other terms like this which the Muslims took *en block* from Greeks.

But it is interesting to see that the same scholar writing in his books¹ has clearly described the function of the movable frets in Matanga's Kinnarī Vinī where both Suddha and Vikrta forms of the same svaras can be obtained from the same Mūrchanā by movement of the frets. Does this not imply the beginning of the melā and the concept of the fixed tonic?

Alamkāras

Matanga's main contribution is the abundant light that he has thrown on the different aspects of music from the practical angle. ; 1

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What had been briefly defined by Bharata namely Jäti, Alamkāras, Grāma rāgas, Gītīs, Gändharva Sangīta etc. have been elucidated with illustrations by Matanga. Without Matanga's illustrations the music chapters of Nātyašāstra would have been unintelligible. It also goes to prove that Bharata's Jāti music was alive even in the time of Matanga. But in the latter's time, Grāma rāgas and Bhāşā, Mārgī and Deśīya rāgas had come into prominence even among musicologists. It could, therefore, be stated that Matanga's time was the confluence of the ancient and medieval music.

Matanga's contribution in respect of *alumkāras* is also very significant. Bharata had defined them briefly in connection with varna.¹

Matanga's description is more elaborate.² He asks, what is meant by alamkāra? It means embellishment or elaboration through alamkāra. Alam + karoti i.e., alam means adequate and karoti means that which makes adequate something which is inadequate. Just as the bracelet and the armlet enhance the beauty of both woman and man so does the alamkāra based on varna like prasannādi etc. beautify the $g\bar{t}t\bar{t}s$ which in turn delight both the singers and listeners greatly.

Bharata and Matanga have enumerated thirty three alamkäras in all. Out of these seven conform to sthäyivarna, twelve to ärohivarna, five to avarohivarna and thirteen to sancärivarna. But the total comes to thirty seven. But of these, four come under more than one varna and hence are not counted. Therefore, the total number is thirty three. Matanga has retained all the names of the alamkäras as given by Bharata and has closely adhered to the division of the alamkäras under various varnas.

But it has to be admitted that in Natyasastra as well as in Bthaddesi, the characteristics of the alamkaras are not clear enough.

Gīta and Gītī

Matanga states the Grāma ragas were being used in the five gītīs namely Šuddhā, Bhinnā, Gaudī, Veserā and Sādhāraņī. He defines

उएसं वर्णास्त, विज्ञेयाक्ष्वस्थारो गानयोजका: ।

एतान् समाभितान् सम्यगसंकारात्रियोधत ॥ —नाट्यशास्त्र, २६।२४ विद्यासंकारशब्देन किमुच्यते । असंकारशब्देन मण्डनमुष्यते । यथा कटक्ष्वेयूरादिनासंकारेण नारी पुरुषो या मण्डितः योभामा ग्रहेत, तथा एतैरलंकारै: प्रसन्नादिभिरसंक्रता वर्णाव्यया गीतिर्गातुष्नो-जूपां सुखायहा भवतीति । —युहद्, पू. २४ gita and giti. Gita is any song that is sung, i.e., it is a generic term for a song, whereas giti is a style of rendering a musical composition. In this both the structure of the composition and its style of rendering are implied. There were two broad divisions of gitas padäśraya and svarāśraya i.e., style of composition based on poetic content or text of the song and composition based on musical structure.

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The fundamental division in Suddhä, Bhinnä, Gaudi, Vesarä and Sädhärani is the melodic structure of the compositions whereas Bhāşā, Vibhāşā and Antarabhāşā are variations of Grāma rāgas. Matanga's Brhadhcśi is the only work available which gives description of the gitis and the Janya rāgas of the Grāma rāgas like Bhāsā etc., Bharata has not referred to these Janya rāgas. They may have developed either after Bharata or during his period but he may not have taken interest in them.

Matanga states that these four varieties of Bhāsā namely, Mūla, Samkīrna, Dešaja and Chāyā.¹ He has also shown that Bhāsā has evolved from Grāma rāga, Vibhāsā from Bhāsā, and Antarabhāsā from Vibhāsā.

A general outline of the gliis, the Janya ragas of the Grama ragas has been given in this work but their detailed elaboration is to be found only in the S.R.

¹Brhaddesi, Travancore edu., p. 104.

Sangita Ratnäkara

Gaudi is defined as a style in which closely-knit, legato gamakas traversing three registers are taken with melodious svaras through $Oh\bar{a}tI.^{1}$

This definition describes five distinct features of Gaudi. They are:

- 1. Gaudaih akhanditasthitaih i.e, the notes are closely arranged and the entire piece is sung in a legato fashion.
- 2. Tristhana gamakaih i.e., it covers all the three registers with beautiful gamakas.
- 3. Ohāți lalitaih svaraih i.e., the svaras are taken in such a way as to give the impression of O and $h\bar{a}$.
- 4. Kampitair mandraih i.e., generally kampita gamakas are used in a deep low tone in this style.
- 5. Mrdudrutataraih svaraih i.e., the svaras are sung softly but in fast tempo.

But Kāllinātha warns, in his commentary, that O and $h\bar{a}$ are not to be pronounced literally, but that the notes should be enunciated in such a manner as to give a semblance of O and ha. He also states that the name *Gaudi* came to be used for this style because this style was very popular with *Gaudas* or present day Bengalis.

Simhabhūpāla has also reiterated what Kallinātha has said and has quoted Matanga who states that there were four types of Ohāți namely samākşara, sama, āroha. and avaroha.

4. Vesarã

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This word is a compound of the two words 'vega' and 'svara'. Vega means fast. While combining the ga and va are dropped. Hence vega + svara became Vesrara or Vesarā.

This definition is as follows:

The svaras are sung in fast tempo (like that in modern chota khydl) taking care that the exceedingly pleasant flavour of the svaras are not in any way impaired in the fast tempo. The kind of rendering of a composition is known as $Vesara.^2$

'Gaudaih akhanditasthitaih tristhänagamakaih Ohäti lalitaisvaraih kampitairmandrair mrdudruta lalitalhi svaraih. S.R., vol. 11, p. 5.

*Vegavadthib svarairvaroacatuşkepyatiraktitab. Vegasvarā rāgagīti vesarā ca peyate budhaib, S.R. vol. II, p. 6.

CHAPTER 5

SangIta Ratnäkara: The Third Phase of Evolution of Indian Music

LET us now take up the study of this work. First we shall briefly describe the glils as found in this text.

These are in all five gītis namely Śuddhā, Bhinnā, Gaudī, Vesarā and Sādhāraņī. As gītī is of feminine gender the names of all the five gītīs are also of feminine gender.

1. Suddhä¹

The style would be considered $\hat{S}uddh\bar{a}$ when the notes are taken in their simple form without any complexity, retaining the aesthetic beauty of the melody.

A close example in Hindustānī music of this style could be found in the Suddhā bānī of Dhruvapada. The well-known exponents Dagar Brothers sing this style.

2. Bhinnä

Bhinnā is an ornate style of composition and rendering.² In this the svaras have a winding and a zigzag movement and it employs subtle, melodious gamakas. Matanga states, as quoted by Kallinātha, the commentator of S.R., that the word Bhinnā has been used in the sense of modification and not in the usual sense of difference, separateness i.c., Bhinnā is that style in which notes are used, not in their simple form but in aesthetically beautifully modified forms. It is used in the sense of vikāra.³

3. Gaudī

From the definition of this style, it would be clear that aesthetic concepts of rendering were quite developed in the 13th century,

¹Suddhā syādavakrairlalitaih svaraih. S.R., vol. II, ch. II, p. 3. ¹Bhimā vakraih sv raih sūkāmairmadhurairgamakairyutā. S.R., vol. II, p. 3. ¹Bhimo'tra vikrta ucyate. S.R., vol. II, p. 3.

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5. Sādhāraņī

This style incorporates the beauties of all the other four styles. It is called $S\bar{a}dh\bar{c}ran\bar{i}$. In a way, it could be stated that the modern musical composition of the vilumbit khyāl style is an offshoot and an evolute of $S\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ran\bar{i}$.¹

GRĀMA RĀGAS

Sangīta Ratnākara has dealt in detail this subject. In Nāţýaśāstra, there are reference to Grāma rāgas, in passing, with reference to the particular scenes of the dramas where these ought to be sung to augment the particular moods of the scenes. No description of the Grāma rāgas is found in this work. But Källinātha quotes the names of the five gītis in which the Grāma rāgas are sung from the Nā. Šā.² which means his copy of the work had more details on Grāma rāgas.

In Brhaddeśi, there is elaboration of Grāma rāgas into Bhāşā, Vibhāşā and Antarabhāşā and their sub-varieties. But it is some what brief as no examples in notatian are given.

However in SR, Grāma rāgas, their Bhāşās, Vibhāşās and Antarabhāşās, Upagrāma rāgas are all enumerated totalling several hundred rāgas although the names of several of them are repeated under different categories. But from the study of this work, it is possible to trace an unbroken stream of evolution of our music even form pre Bharata period.

For instance, Grama ragas are mentioned by Narada³ who is ascribed to about 150 BC. Then Matanga, in the 8th century AD. gives descriptions of Grama ragas and their varieties. From the study of his work, it appears that Jati-gana was getting out of vogue and Grama raga were getting into vogue. But the general concept of the superiority of Jati Gana appears to have been accepted by Matanga. In fact there seems to have been two types of music—one considered Gandharva Sangita and the other Gana. The former comprised Grama Murchana-Jati and the latter Grama ragas. The latter was considered also as Laukika Sangita. Therefore, in this context, Matanga, like the scholars that preceded and

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followed him, has attempted to link the origin of Grama ragas with Jatis. The lacunac in his theory have already been pointed out in the previous chapter under Brhadde \$1. But it seems necessary to stress here one essential point that, however superior, our old scholars may have reckoned the Grama-Mürchana-Jāti system, the fact remains that it died a natural death a few centuries after Bharata, whereas the Grāma rāga system seems to have kept on evolving continuously. It appears to have had an unbroken line of development. The emergence of Bhasa, Vibhasa and Antarabhasa in the time of Matanga was an indication that the Grāma rāga system was beginning to replace the Jātis. This trend continued and Sarngadeva has further elaborated on the system. The point of interest is that the later Raga-Ragini system which also took its origin from six basic ragas, was a direct evolute of the Grama raga system. Ragini was considered the female aspect of raga just as Bhāşā etc., were the feminine aspects of Grāma rāgas. This trend persisted through the centuries and even the present raga system of Indian music is in direct lineage of the Grāma raga system. Several names of Grāma rāgas, Bhāşās are still current both in Hindustant and Karnātak Music. For example Revagupta (Revagupti) Nāga Gändkära (Nägagändharvam) etc. in Karnatak Music and Bhinna sadia, Kakubha (Kukubha), Nata Nārāyaņu (Nata Nārāyani), Dešākhya (Devśakh), Kāmoda, Bhairava, Megha, Mālavakaiśika (Mālkauns) etc., in Hindustani Music-

Therefore in studying the evolution of raga, it seems, that the concept of Jati being the matrix of the raga may have to be revised and substituted by Grama raga. It will be clear that Grama raga has played a more vital role in the evolution raga than Jati. In fact, the history of evolution appears evident and uninterrupted in the study of Grama raga, Bhasa, Vibhasa and Antarabhasa than the Jati.

Now we shall take up the study of Grama raga in detail. There was continuous development of Grama raga from the time of Brhadde si up to the time of S R., in various ways. Originally in the time of Matanga there were three bases of division of Grama raga:

1. Grāma

3. Padaśraya, i.e., varieties of textual compositions.

[&]quot;Caturgitigatam lakşmaśritä sädhärani matä. S.R., vol. II, pp. 6. *S. R., vol. II, p. 32.

^{2.} Svaråśraya, i.e., the style of rendering the notes,

Although the basic ragas were seven, some of them were sung in more than one giti, a few of them were sung in all the five gitis and a few of them in only one giti.

Also, all the seven grama ragas were sung in one giti. For instance all the ragas were born in Suddha style in Sadja and Madhyama Grāmas. Another important point was that the Suddhā style was so fundamental that all the ragas were included in the Suddha style. But here again, the point of controversy whether the Grāma rāga was an evolute of the Jāti or the Grāmas directly, is worth consideration. If, as some scholars liké Matanga, Nanyadeva, Moksadeva, Kasyapa and others insist on deriving the Grama ragas from Jātis, then the former should be normally assigned to the two Grāmas from which all the Jātis evolved. But instead the Grāma ragas have first been assigned to the Gramas, and then to Jatis. This appears to be wrong because the two Gramas are the parents of Jātis and therefore the Grāma rāgus cannot be an off shoot of both Grāmas and the Jātis. It is like the same child being born of the grandfather and the grandson at the same time. It seems quite unnecessary to have brought in the Jätis.

The first giti, Suddha had a total of seven ragas as follows in the two Grāmas:

Şadja Grāma

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1. Suddha Şadja Grāma rāga 2. Suddha Kaiśika Madhyama 3. Šuddha Sādhāritā

Madhvama Grāma

1. Suddha Pañcama 3. Śuddha Kaiśika

2. Šuddha Madhyama Grāma rāga 4. Suddha Şādāva

Bhinnä Gītī had five rāgas:

1.	Kaiśika Madhyama	2.	Bhinna	Şadja
3.	Bhinna Tāna	4.	Bhinna	Kaiśika

5. Bhinna Pañcama

Gaudi Giti had three ragas:

1. Gauda Kaiśika Madhyama 2. Gauda Pañcama

3. Gauda Kaiśika

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Vesarā Gītī had eight rāgas: Şadja Grāma 1. Takka 2. Vesarā

3. Sauvira

Madhvama Gräma

1. Bolta 2. M	ālava Kaišika 3. Mālava Pañcama
1. Takka Kaiśika 2. Hindola	$\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{These were sung in both the} \\ Grāmas. \end{array} \right.$
idhāraņi ¹ had seven rāg	as:
1. Rūpa Sādhāra 👘	2. Śaka
3. Bhambhāņa Pañcan	a 4. Narta
5. Gandhara Pañcama	6. Şadja Kaiśika
7. Kakubha was sung i	

The total number of ragas in all the five gitis was thirty.

Apart from the above, there were upardgas. They were thus culled, according to Kallinatha because they were much closer to Grāma rāgas than to Jātis. There were eight uparāgas. Upa means near or in proximity.

. Saka Tilaka	2. Takka Saindhava
. Kokila Pañcama	4. Revagupta
. Pañcama Şâdava	6. Bhāvanā Pañcama
. Nāga Gāndhara	8. Nāga Pañcama

There were twenty ragas. These were called ragas because they were considered very close to Jatis according to Kallinatha. They were:

1. Śrirāga	2. Națā
3. Bangala 4. Bangāla }	Two varieties
5 Bhāşā	6. Madhyama Şāḍava
7. Rakta Hamsa	8. Kollahāsaka
9. Prasava	10. Bhairava
11. Megha	12. Soma
3. Kāmoda 4. Kāmoda	Two varieties

¹S.R., vol. 11, Adyar edn., pp. 7-8.

Sangita Ratnäkara Évolution of Raga and Täla in Indian Music 110 Kakubha had six Bhāsās: 16. Kandarpa 15. Amra Pañcama 2, Kämboja 1. Bhinna Pancamt 17. Deśākhyā Two varieties 18. Deśākhyā 4. Raganti 3. Madhyama Grāma 20. Nata Näräyaņa 19. Kaiśika Kakubha 6. Śaka Miśra 5. Madhuri There were fifteen Grāma rāgas apart from the basic seven. They Råga Takka had twenty-one Bhäsås: were: 2. Travanodhava 1. Travana 4. Madhyama Grāma 2. Kakubha 1. Sauvira 3. Vairañji 4. Pañcama 6. Cheväti / 3. Takka 5. Mālava Vesarā 6. Takka Kaiśika 8. Kolāhala 5. Bhinna Pañcama 7. Saindavī 8. Bolta 10. Sauraştri 7. Hindola 9. Pañcama Laksitā 12. Vega Rañji 11. Pañcamí . No details are given as to which of the two Grāmas the above 14. Mālavi 13. Gandhara Pañcami rāgas belong to. But according to Yāstika, as quoted by Kāllinātha. 16. Lalitä 15. Tānavalitā out of the above fifteen ragas, the following seven ragas gave rise 18. Tânã 17. Ravicandrikā 20. Dohyå 19. Ambāharitā to Bhāşās: 21. Vesari 9. Mālava Kaiśika 10. Gandhāra Pañcama 12. Vesara Sadava Takka also had four Vibhasas. They were: 11. Bhinna Şadja 13. Mālava Pañcama 14. Tána 2. Andhri 15. Pañcama Şādava¹ 1. Deväravardhaní 4. Bhāvanī 3. Gurjari What is Bhāsā? It has nothing to do with the common connotation of language. Källinätha clarifies it by defining it as a variety Rāga Pañcama had ten Bhāsās of Grāma rūga. He again quotes Matanga who states that Bhāşā should be construed as a variety (prakāra) of Grāma rāga.² In the 2. Trāvapl 1. Kaiśiki same way, Vibhāsās were prakāras of Bhāsās and Antarabhāsās 4. Äbhiri 3. Tânodbhavā varieties of Vibhāşās. Matanga warns that these should not be 6. Saindhavī 5. Guriarí mistaken to mean styles. He states that the term raga is used 8. Ändhri 7. Dāksiņtāy because they produce ranjana i.e., they have a pleasant charm. 9. Mängäli 10. Bhāvani Bhāsās derived from Grāma rāgas: This had two Vibhāşās: Sauvīra had four Bhūsās: 1. Sauviri 2. Vega Madhyamā 2. Andhälikä 1. Bhambhäni 4. Gāndhārī 3 Sadharita Bhāsās of Bhinna Pañcama 2. Śuddha Bhinnä ¹S. R., Adyar edn., vol. II, p. 10. 1. Dhaivata Bhūsitā ^aIbid., p. 11.

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		Sangita Ratnākara	4 •	113
3. Varātī	4. Višālā			
		9. Pulindakā	10. Tumburā -	
Vibhāşā: Kausals.		11. Şadja Bhāşā	12. Kālindī	
Takka Kaisika had two B	hāşās:	13. Lalitā	14. Śrikaņļhikā	
J. Malava		15. Bāngali	16. Gāndnāri	
J. Malava	2. Bhinnavalitā	17. Saindhavi		
One Vibhāşā: Drāvidī		This had four Vibhāsās:		
Prenkhaka and nine Bhase	75	1. Paurali	2. Mālava	
		3. Kalindi	4. Devāravardhini	
1. Vesarī	2. Cūțamanjari	S: Kallinu.		
3. Şadja Madhyamā	4. Mādhurī	Vesarā Şadja had two Bliās	ās.	
5. Bhinnapaurālī	6. Gaudi	l. Nâdyā	2. Bāhyaşādava	
7. Mālavavesarī	8. Chevati	1. Hauja	2. Banjaşatata	
9. Piñiari	o. Chevan	It had two Vibhāsās:	:	
		1. Pārvatī and	2. Śrikanthi	
Botta had one Bhāşā name	ly Mähväli			
Mālavakaisika1 had thirtee	n Bhāsās	Mālava Pañcama had three	Bhāsās:	
		1. Vedavati	2. Bhāvanī	
1. Bāngāli	2. Mängäli	3. Vibhāvanī		
3. Harşapuri	4. Mälavavesari			
5. Khanjani	6. Gurjari	Tāna had one Bhāşā, namel	y Tānodbhavā.	
7. Gaudi	8. Paurāli	Pañcama Şādava had also o		
9. Ardhavesari	10. Šuddhā		Saka, and one Vibhāşā—Pallavī, an	d
11. Mālavarūpā	12. Saindhayi	three Antarabhāşās:		
13. Åbhīrī		• •	•	
		1. Bhāsavalitā	2. Kiraņāvalī	
It had two Vibhāşās:		3. Šakavalitā		
A - - - - - -				
l. Kāmbhojī	2. Devāravardhinf		were ninety-six (96) Bhāşās, twent	y
Caulhan Determine t		Vibhāsās (20) and four Antara	onașas (4). Iâșās and Antarabhāșās above give	
Gândhâra Pañcamî had one	Bhaşā namely Gāndhārī.		asas anu Amaraonaşas above give 3 Antarabhāşās, i.e., three Vibhāşā	
Bhinna Şadja had seventeen	Dhaşas:	and one Antarabhäsä less.	Antarabhaşas, 1.e., tillee vibnaşa	2
			ga as mentioning four varieties of	۰f
1. Gāndhāravallī	2. Kachelli	Bhāsās namely:	iga as mentioning rout varienes (Л
3. Svaravallī	4. Nişādinī	Dhaqus Hamery.		
5. Travaņā	6. Madhyamā	🗧 1. Mukhyä	2. Svarākhyā	
7. Šuddhā	8. Dākşinātyā	3. Deśākhyā, and	4. Uparāgaja	
¹ S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, pp. 11-3	12. Å	¹ S.R., Adyar edn., vol. 11, p. 12.		
and the second blue state	12.	^a lbid., p. 13,		

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Mukhyā: Mukhyā means independent, i.e., not based on anything—region, svara or rāga.

Svarākhyā: As the term Svarākhyā itself indicates, is based on the name of svaras, e.g., Gāndhārī, Pañcamī, Madhyamā, etc.

Destakhya: It is based on the name of a region, e.g., \overline{A} ndhri. Uparāgaja: Uparāgaja means born of a Uparāga •

Saragadeva has made one clarification at the end of all this enumeration of *Grāma rāgas*, *Bhāṣās*, *Vibhāṣās* and *Antarabhāṣās* that although the names of several *Rāgas*, *Bhāṣās* and *Vibhāṣās* are common, yet their characteristics are different.¹

Rāgānga, Bhāsānga, Kriyānga and Upānga

Sārngadeva has described in the classification of ragas, the four angas mentioned above. From here on, the evolution of raga takes a big leap So far we were discussing and studying Grama ragas which had come to be known as Marga ragas. But with the introduction of the above angas, the ragas came to be classified under Deśi Sangita. The term Deśi here does not mean merely regional but that music where liberties over the svaras of the ragas is permitted. That is to say where the scope for improvisation is greater.

It will be seen that the period from about 6th cent. AD till about the 14th cent., was one when many creative experiments were made on $r\bar{a}gas$ and their ramifications. Hence there were constant changes in nomenclature, classification and interpretation of the Jātis and rāgas. In Matanga's period the Grāma rāgas were expanded into Bhāşās, Vibhāşās and Antarabhāşās but these were not termed Deśi Sangīta. On the other hand, when the same rāgas were embellished with the four angas. Kāllinātha states that because the characteristics of the Mārga rāgas underwent changes, the modified forms were called Deśī rāgas. But there is no explanation as to why Bhāşā, Vibhāşā and Antarabhāşā were not considered as modifications of the Grāma rāgas and classified under Deśī Sangīta. There is apparently some confusion here.

Mārga rāga and tāla slowly began to fade away and were taken over by Deśi rāga and tāla. Some of the popular Grāma rāgas were also later on called Deśī rāgas.

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Now for a brief description of the four angas.

1. Rāgānga: Śārngadeva quotes Matanga that any rāga which showed the direct influence of a Grāma rāga was called Rāgānga.

2. Bhāşānga: Bhāşānga was that rāga on which the influence of a Bhāşā was clear and specific.

3. Kriyānga: Kriyānga was that rāga wherein there was predominance of emotional effect.

4. Upänga: Upänga has not been defined clearly but Śarngadeva sta es that it is a type of music which cannot be included in any of the other three angas, i.e., Raganga, Bhasanga and Kriyanga but it was considered a kind of miscellaneous anga. In other words whenever in a raga in addition to anyone of the above angas, an extra anga was manifested, it was known as Upanga. For instance in Raganga, supposing there was a semblance of Bhasanga, then that was called $Upanga.^1$

Śārngadeva has classified the Deśi rāgas into two broad categories, namely — Pūrvaprasiddha and Adhunāprasiddha.

Pürvaprasiddha rägas were those which were in vogue in former time. Adhunāprasiddha rāgas were those which were currently popular.

Eight Rigingus are enumerated under Pürvaprasiddna rågas. They are:

1. Šankarābharaņa	2. Ghanțārava
3. Hamsa	4. Dipaka
5. Riti	6. Karnāţaka
7. Lâți	8. Pallavi

Eleven Pürvaprasiddha Bhāşāngas are mentioned:

1.	Gambhiri	2.	Vehārī
3.	Śvasita	4.	Utpalī
5.	Goli	6.	Nādāntari
7.	Nīlotpalī	8.	Chāyā
9.	Taranginı	10.	Gāndhāragatikā
11.	Veranji.		

Twelve Pürvaprasiddha Kriyängas are mentioned:

1. Bhāvakri	2. Svabhāvakri
3. Šivakrī	4. Makarakri 🔒
¹ S.R., Adyar Edn., vol. II, p. 19.	

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- 6. Kumudakri 5. Trinctrakri 8. Ojakri 7. Danukri 9. Indrakri
- 11. Dhanyākrti

10. Nāgakrti 12. Vijayakr^I

2. Devāla

Three Upängas

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1. Pürnäti

3. Guruñjikā

making a total of thirty-four.

Under Adhunāprasiddha rāgas, Śārngadeva mentions thirteen Râgāngas:

1. Madhyamādi	2. Mälavasri
3. Todi	4. Bangāla
5. Bhairava	6. Varāți
7. Gurjari	8. Gauda
9. Kolāhala	10. Vasanta
11. Dhanyāsi	12. Deśi
13. Deśākhya	

Nine Adhunāprasiddha Bhāşāngas are mentioned:

- 2. Sāvarī 1. Dombakri 4. Prathama Mañjari 3. Velāvalī 5. Ädikāmodikā 6. Nāgadhvani
- 7. Śuddha Varāţikā
- 8. Nattä

2. Gaudakrti

9. Karnātaka Bangāla

Three Krivangas are mentioned:

1.	Rāma	kŗti	

3. Devakri

Twenty-seven Adhunāprasiddha Upāngas are mentioned:

1. Kuntali	2. Drāvidi
3. Saindhaví	4. Upasthānavarāţikā
5. Chāyā	6. Hatasvarāvarāți
7. Pratāpavarāļikā	8. Turuşka Todi
9. Mahārāstri Gurjari	10. Saurāstrī Gurjarī
11. Daksiņa	12. Drāvadi Gurjarī
13. Bhuñjikā	14. Stambhatīrthikā
15. Chāyā Velāvalī	16. Pratāpa Velāvalī

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17. Bhairavl	18. Kāmodāsiņhāli
19. Chāyānațța	20. Rāmakrti
21. Bhallațikā	22. Malbari
23. Malharl ¹	24. Gauda
25, Karnäți	26. Deśavāla
27. Tauruşkadrāvidī	•

Śārngadeva has said that in all there are so far 264 rāgas.

Before we discuss further the complicated and manifold varieties of the ragas, it is necessary to analyse the basic approach of Saragadeva and his commentators towards the evolution of Grama and Deśi rāgas.

There are certain apparent contradictions in the treatment and concept of Grāma rāgas. The first one is ascribing the origin of the Grama ragas to Jälis. If we analyse this stand, we find that the earliest work on music i.e., Nārad Iya Šik şū gives description of the Grāma rāgas but nowhere mentions Jātis and Mürchanās. Actually if the contention that the Jati is the parent of the Grama ragas was old and true, then none else was more competent to establish the fact as Nārada. But his total omission of any reference to Jāti creates a doubt whether the contention of the subsequent scholars like Kaśyapa, Mokşa, Matanga, Nānyadeva and others is tenable.

Another perplexing fact is that all the scholars continue to refer to raga as Grama raga although they assert its origin to the Jati. If the origin or raga is from Jati, then why not call it Jati raga?

Simhabhūpāla while discussing this point raises the right question by asking 'raga ragavisesasambaddha iti kuto-yam visesa labhah?' But his answer to this question is incongruous. He quotes Bharata as stating that all ragas are born of Jatis.² He has taken this quotation from Matanga. He further quotes Bharata as stating that all the melodic forms of music sung in the world are embedded in the Jati.³ The question raised was in connection with the relationship of the ragas and Gramas whereas the answer deals with the relationship of Jatis and ragas. It is strange that a scholar

"Two Malharis are mentioned which may be a misprint.

*Jätisambhütatvät jägänäm, S.R., Adyar edn., vol II, p. 9. cf Brhaddesi. n. 87.

Yatkificid-giyate loke tatsarvam jätisu sthitam, S.R., Adyar edn, vol II, p. 9,

of the stature of Simhabhūpāla should be guilty of the fallacy 'ignoratio elenchi': It seems that Källinätha and Simhabhupala were a little too overawed by the utterances of the charismatic personality of Bharata Muni and could not dare disagree with him. But they appear to have lost sight of the basic fact that they were contradicting themselves. Therefore their tracing of the parentage of Grāma rāgas is not convincing. Another contradiction found in the description by scholars like Kasyapa, Moksa and others is the confusion of the Grāmas. For instance, Kaśyapa has traced the origin of Madhyama Grāma rāgas from the Jātis, Gândhārī and Madhyamā,¹ whereas actually the above two Jātis belong to Sadja Grāma but Madhyama Grāma rāga belong to Madhyama Grāma. How can Jatis belonging to Sad ja Grāma produce rāgas belonging to Madhyama Grāma? How can the parent and the progeny differ in the species? It appears to be specious logic on the part of Kasyapa. Moreover, the sruti structure of Sadja Grama and Madhyama Grama are different. The former has pañcama of four srutis and dhaivata of three śrutis whereas in the latter, it is the reverse. In the former, there is no samvada between rsabha and pañcama but there is samvada between rsabha and dhairata whereas in the Madhyama Grāma, it is the reverse. Hence any rāga which is born of one cannot contain the qualities of the other.

There also is no description of the general relationship of the Grāma rāgas and the Jāti. In the history of our music, our ancient scholars have nowhere described the mutual relationship of the two systems of the Grāmas and Grāma rāgas and the Grāma-Mürchanā-Jāti.

Bharata's claim that whatever is being sung in the world is implicit in the $J\bar{a}ti$, appears to be a tall claim. It may be that Bharata was using the word $r\bar{a}ga$, not in the technical sense, but in the sense of $ra\bar{a}jakatva$ or melodic combinations and permutations.

Now we shall take up the Grāma rāgas from which Deśi Sangīta evolved. Šārngadeva has given a clear description of all of them. They are seven in all Madhyama Grāma rāgas, Şudja Grāma rāga, Šuddha Sādhāritā, Śuddha Pañcama, Śud.lha Kaišika, Śuddha Sādava, and Śuddha Kaišika Madhyama.

Śuddha Sādhārita.² This rāga is born of Şadja Madhyama Jāti.

¹Kaśvapa, *Bharata Kosa*, Baroda edn., p. 465. ¹S.R., vol 11, Adyar edn., pp. 19-20.

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Tāra Ṣadja is graha, amśa and Madhyama is nyāsa. The rāga is sampūrņa, nisāda and gāndhāra ate sparingly used; its Mūrchanā is Ṣadjādī or Uttaramandrā; the predominant alamkāra used is avarohiprasannānta; Ravi (Sun) is the presiding deity, it is sung in the first prahara of the morning and during the garbhasandhi in the drama. It depicts Vīra and Raudra rasas.

According to Källinätha, the *ālāpa* and *karaņa* of the *rūga* was as follows:

The definition of $\bar{a}l\bar{a}pa$ as given by Sārngadeva is when the graha, amša, mandra, tära, nyāsa, apanyēsa, alpatva, bahutva, audava and sādava are expressed clearly, it is said to be $r\bar{a}g\bar{a}l\bar{a}pa$.¹

 $\bar{A}k$ was a composition with the text well woven in *svara* and $t\bar{a}la$.²

Ragalepa was without words and Rapakalapa was with words.

Vartanī was ālāpa in laya but without tāla like modern jod but in more vilambita laya.

Karana was vartani in druta laya or double tempo.

One feature which is very significant while studying the alapa of the Grama ragas and the Jatis from the Jati-prastatas and aksiptikas as given in the S R., is the frequent jumps of notes from lower to middle, middle to upper registers and vice versa. This feature appears to common all over the world upto the 10th century. A passage like ma ma, pa dha ma ga sa dha ni ma etc., is common. The Sama Sangita or Sama Ganu was also similar. Even the Gregorian Chant has similar jumps.

For practical singing, therefore, the tempo had to be rather slow as otherwise it would be both difficult and even discordant to sing the *svaras* fast. It must be conceded that such passages from register to register was done gracefully both ways. But such passages have been included in *karana* which means the singer had to train himself quite ably before attempting *ālāpa*, *vartani* and *karana*.

The svara-structure of the rāgas was quite circumscribed. The total number of svaras used was nine; there were no komal svaras like rşabha and dhaivata or tīvra madhyama. Hence the musicians did not have great variety of rāgas. Variations were in the kākalī nişāda, antara gāndhāra, audava and sādava forms.

¹S.R., vol. II, Adyar edn., p. 21. ³Ibid.

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Šuddha Sādhāritā

Sarngadeva describes the raga thus:

Rāga Šuddha Sādhāritā is derived from Şadja-Madhyamā Jāti and tāra şadja is both its graha and amśa svaras, nyāsa is madhyama, nisāda and gāndhāra are alpa. This rāga is sampūrņa and its Mūrchanā is Şadiādi or Uttaramandrā. Its alamkāra is avarohi prasannānta: its deity is Sūrya, it is sung in the first quarter of the morning, its rasas are Vīra and Raudra. It is used in the Garbhasandhī.¹

Mokşadeva states that Šuddha Sādhārita is a sampūrņa rāga, şadja is both graha and amsa svara, nişāda-gāndhāra are alpa (infrequent usage) and madhyama is nyāsa svara. This rāga is born of the Şadja-Madhyamā Jāti.²

Ālāpa³

Sā pā dhā rēpāpādhāre pādhā sāsāpādhānīdhā pāmāmā repā dhāre pādhāre pādhā pādhāpāpa sāsā mā sā gā re mā. magare sāsā sarega pādhārepādhārepādhāpādhāsāsā sāregāmādhāpā nidhāpā şā şā.

Pada

Udayagiri śikhara śekhara turagakhurakşata vibhinna ghanatimirah. Gaganatala sakala vilulitasahasarakirno jayatu bhānuh.

Ākşiptikā—Tāla cañcatpuţa

1. Tāla	Α		ni	—	Vi	_	Śa	
Laghu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Svara	sā	sā	dhā	nI	pā	pã	pä	pā
Pada	u	da	ya	gi	ri	śi	kha	ra

¹S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, 11.21.22.

³Bha. Ko., p. 671.

The following signs are indicative of matras or duration and registers of each note.

Sa=1 måträ, Sū=2 mäträs, Sa=madhya sthäna or middle register, Sa=mandra or lower register; Sa=Tara or upper register,

2.	Tāla	Ā.		Ni		Vi		Tā	
	Lagdu	9	10	11	12 ·	13	14	15	16
	Svara	dhā	dhā	nl	ní	ге	er	pā	pâ
	Pada	se	kha		ra	tu	га	ga	khu
3.	Tāla	Ă		Śa		Vi	•	Pra	
	Laghu	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
	Svara	rc	pā	pā	pä	dhā	nt	pä	mä
	Pada	ra		ksa	ta	vi	bhi	•	nna
4.	Tāla	Ā		Ni		Vi		San	
	Laghu	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
	Svara	dhā	mā	dhā	sä	sā	sā	sā	sā
	Pada	gha	na	ti	mi	гah			
5.		Ā		Ni		Vi		Śa	
	Laghu	1	2	.3	4	5	6	7	8
	Svara	dhä	dhā	8â	dhā	sâ	re	gä	sä
	Pada	ga	ga	'na	ta	la	sa.	ka	la
6.		Ā		Ni		Vi		Tå	
	Laghu	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	Svara	LC .	gā	pā	pā	pā	pā	pā	pā
	Pada	Vi	lu	li	ta	sa	ĥa		sra
7.	Tâla	Ā		Śa		Vi		Pra	
	Laghu	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
	Svara	dhā	mā	dhã	mā	sā	sâ	sā	sā
	Pada	ki	ге		ño	ja	ya	-	tu
8.	Tāla	A		Ni	•	Vi	•	San	
	Laghu	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
	Svara	pä	dhā	nidha	pā	mā	pâ	mā	mä
	Pada	bhā			<u> </u>	nuh		_	

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In this composition, when one studies the incidence of notes, one finds apart from *sad ja* and *pañcama* which are *amśa* and *amśasamvādi svaras* respectively, *dhaivata* is the most prominent note after *sad ja*. *Sad ja* occurs 14 times and *dhaivata* 13 times and *pañcama* 19 times.

The svaras are similar to that of the modern Rāga Šuddha Kāfī but there are a few peculiar sangatis like Dha Ni Re, Re GaSa, ReGaPa, Dha Ma, DhaSa. There are jumps of more than one octave, e.g., Dhā Nī Nī Re Re. But there is some consonance in certain passages in both the tetruchords e.g., Dha Ni Pa-ReGaSa, ReGaPa-Dha Ni Re but the Re after Ni, instead of being above it in the Sā-Ga bhāva, is actually one and a half octaves below: The tāra sthāna is not touched in the composition. This may be due to the prayoga in the mandra-sthāna.

Taken musically, if the *svaras* of the composition are sung with mlnda or in *l. gato*, then the composition, according to current standards of appreciation, may be more tolerable. But without the addition of the *gamakas*-graces it would sound unmusical.

From the point of view of talu, excepting for the involved way of ind cating the four sections of two mātrās each, there is no other rhythmic intricacy.

In the *Mårgi Tålas*, the *Sannipāta* was placed in all *dvikalā* forms. It is interesting to note that later on in Hindustānī music, the *Sannipāta* began to be placed on the *first mātrā*.

Another noteworthy point is the reference to time in the singing of this raga. Bharata nowhere refers to the time-theory. This appears to be a later development. Could this be construed as a special adjunct of the Grama raga which subsequently was carried over by the Raga-Raginis?

Madhyama Grāma: Śārngadeva states that this rāga is born out of the union of Gändhārī, Madhyamā and Pañcamī Jātis, kākalī nisāda is permitted; mandra sadJa is this rāga's graha-amša svaras, nyāsa svara is madhyama and Mūrchanā is Sauvirī. The alamkāras used are prasamādi and avarohī. It is sung in summer (grīsma ritu).¹

Kaśvapa also states that this rāga is born of the union of Gândhārī, Madhyamā and Pañcumī Jātis, amśa svara is şadja and nyāsa is madhyama.²

In the $\bar{a}l\bar{a}pu$ and composition Re and Dha are least used but the constant octaval leaps render the composition extremely difficult to sing. But since S.R. states that this $r\bar{a}ga$ is used to portray $H\bar{a}_{Sya}$ and $S_{rng\bar{a}ru}$ rasas, the former especially appears to manifest itself in the svaru-structure. For example the phrase in the $\bar{a}l\bar{a}pa$ —Dha Re Ga Sa, Re Ga Ni Sa can hardly be expected to produce sober musical effect but if rendered with adequate appropriate actions could produce $H\bar{a}sya$ rasa. There is no corresponding $r\bar{a}ga$ in the Hindustant or Karnatak music today. There is a melakarta 'Gaurimanohari' in Karnatak music which is similar to this.

¹S.R., vol. II. Adyar edn., 11.63-65. ⁸Bha. Ko., p. 465. Sangita Ratnākara

Ālāpa

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Şā nīdhāpādhā dhādhāré gāşā regāņīşā sagapāpapapa ninipani şā şā gapasānidhanini niregā sā pā ma pa nidhāmā

Karaņa

ninipapagagaşaşarega ni şa sāsā şaşagagapapadhadha madhanisanidha pāpāpāpā pani pani saşaşa gāgāsāgāsani dhanininiregāsāsāpāpāmāpānidha pā māmā

Pada

Amara guru mamarapatima jayam jitemadanam sakalaśaśitilakam Gaŋaśatapaţvytama śubhaharam Praŋamata sitav<u>y</u>şa rathagam; nam.

Āksipatikā — Tāla Cancatpuţa

1.	Tāla	Ă	_	Ni		Vi	_	Śa	•
	Laghu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Svara	Şā	Şā	gã	gā	pā	pā	ma	ma
	Poda	Α	ma	ra	gu	ru	ma	ma	га
2.	Tâla	Ă	-	Ni	_	Vi		Tā	_
	Laghu	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	Svara	gā	mā	mà	mā	dhā	ni	Şā	sā
	Pada	pa	ti	ma	ja	yam			_
3.	Täla	Å	—	Ni	_	Vi	·	Pra	
	Laghu	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
	Svara	Şā	Şā	mā	mā	pâ	pā	Şā	Şā
	Pada	ji	ta	ma	da	nam	sa	ka	la
4.	Tāla	Ā	_	Ni		Vi		San	
	Laghu	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
	Svaru	re	gã	ni	Śā	Şā	Şa	Şā	Şã
	Pada	śa	śi	ti	la	kam		<u> </u>	,
5.	Tāla	Å	—	Ni		Vi		Śa	—
	Laghu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Svara	nt	nī	nī	nĩ	dhā	pā	mā	mā
	Pada	ga	ла	śa	ta	pa	ri	vri	ta

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6.	Tâla	Ā		Ni	_	Vi	—	Tã	_
	Laghu	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	Svara	gā	mā	gā	mā ·	dhā	nî	Sã	Sâ
	Pada	ma	Śu	bha	ha	ram			—
7.	Tâla	Ā	—	Śa		Vi	_	Pra	
	Laghu	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
	Svara	ņî	гс	gā	ņĭ	Şâ	Şā	pä	pā
	Pcda	pra	ņa	ma	ta	si	ta	νŗ	\$a
8.	Tâla	Ā	_	Ni	—	Vi		San	_
	Laghu	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
	Svara	Sā	Sā	nidha [,]	pā	mä	mä	må	mä
	Pada	ra	tha	ga	ma	nam		-	-

Şadja Grāma

S.R. states that this rāga is derived from Şadja Madhyamā Jāti, it is a sampūrņa rāga, graha-amša svara is tāra şadja, nyāsa svara is madhyama, apanyāsa svora is şadja, avarohī and prasannānta alamkāras are used, the Mūrchanā is Uttaramandrā, kākalī nisāda and antara gāndhāra are used, this rāga is used to express Vira, Raudra and Adbhuta rasas in the drama, Bīthaspati is its deity and it is sung on the 1st prahara of the morning.¹

Kaśyapa says that it is a sampūrņa rāga born of Şadja Madhyamā Jāti. Amša svara is şadja and nyāsa svara is madhyama.²

Like the Rāga Madhyama Grāma, this rāga also has Sadja and Madhyama as amša and nyāsa svaras respectively. But here it is tāra sadja and apanyāsa is madhya sadja: also it takes both kākalī, nisāda and antara gāndhāra. This makes a great difference. But the phrases again indicate lack of sense of aesthetics. The notes are disjointed and it is very difficult to construct a melody out of them. For example the phrase in the Karaņa:

Re Re ga dha, ga re sa, ni dha pa pa, re re, ga dha pa re, şa şa şa;

One wonders what *rasas* such phrases could produce. Even if they are sung with full *minda* and aesthetic grace, the notes cannot produce any pleasant musical effect.

¹S.R., Adyar edn., pp. 27-28. ³Kaśyapa, Bha. Ko., p. 688. Sangita Ratnäkara

Another point worthy of note is the prominence given to *tāra* sadja. This indicates the influence of folk music.

Ālāpa

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sa sa (śa śa) rê gadhagaresa sanidhāpadhādhāregāsā rē gā sā sāgā pani dhanisa sā sā-gasarega pa-dhanipa māmā

Karana

rere gādhā gare sāsā Ņīdhāpāpā rere gadha pare sa sa sa sa sa sa gānidhā reregā dhā gāre sā sā. nidhapāpā re re pāpā nidhani sā sā sare sare padhapidha pamāmāmāmā

Pada

Sa jayatu bhûtâdhipatih Parikarabhogîndrakuŋdâlâbharaŋah Gajacarmapatanivasanah Saśāńkcudāmaŋih śambhuh.

Ākşiptikā—Tāla Cancatputa

1.	Tāla	Ā	_	Ni		Vi	_	Śā	
••	Laghu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Svara	ŗe	гс	gā	Sā	gā	ге	gā	Sa
	Pada	Sa	ja	ya	tu	bhū		tā	_
2.	Tāla	Ā		Ni		Vi	_	Ta .	
	Laghu	9	10	П	12	13	14	15	16
	Şvara	nī ·	dhā	pā	pā	re	re	gā	dhā
	Pada	dhi	ра	tiḥ	—	pa	гі	ka	ra
3.	Tāla	Ă	—	Śa		Vi		Pra	-
	Laghu	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
	Svara	gâ	re	Sā	Sā	Sã	Sā	· Sā	Sã
	Pada	bho		gīn	dra	—	kuņ		da
4.	Tāla	Å		Ni		Vi	- .	San	—
	Laghu	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
	Svara	Sa	Sa	ga	dhani	ni	ni [']	ni	ni
	Pada	lā	. —	bha	ra	ņaķ	— .		
5.	Tāla	Ă		Ni		Vi	<u> </u>	Sa	
•	Laghu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

	Svara	ga	rega	dha	dha	ga	gare	Sa	Sa
	Pada	ga	ja	ca	. —	rma	ра	ţa	ni
6.	Tāla	Å	—	Ni		Vi	_	Ta	
	Laghu	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	Svara	ni	dha	pa	pa	rc	re	pa	ра
	Pada	va	sa	nah	_	śa	Śāń	_	ka
7.	Tâla	Ā		Sa		Vi	÷	Pra	-
	Laghu	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
	Svara	ni	dha	ni	Sa	Sa	Sa	Sa	resare
	Pada	cũ		ļ ā	'ma	ņiķ		_	-
8.	Tāla	Ă	-	Ni	—	Vi		San	_
	Laghu	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
	Svara	pā [.]	dhā	nidha	pā	mā	mā	mā	mä
	Pada	śam	-	—	_	bhuḥ	—	-	-

Śuddha Pañcama

S R. describes this $r\bar{n}ga$ thus: That it is born of the union of Madhyamā and Pañcamī Jātis, both kākalī nisāda and antara gāndhāra are used, its graha, amša and nyāsa svaras is pañcama of the madhya saptaka; its Mūrchanā is $H_{r}syaka$, its deity is Kāmadeva, Sañcārī varņa adds colour to it; it is sung in summer in the first prahara of the morning.¹

Kaśyapa also states the same as S.R. He adds that in this rāga, gāndhēra and nişādu are alpa (infrequently used).

Païicama svara is the pivotal note. This seems to contain greater musicality but strangely the Ni-Re sangati appears to be common to many rāgas. The actual jumps are also in evidence in this rāga. In the composition, a good part of it is in the mandra sthāna on Re; two lines end on Ma; the last line ends on païicama. The song with its straight simple rhythm when sung, sounds more like a chant. The main sangatis are, Dha Ma Dha Ni Dha Pa, Re Ma Pa Dha Ma Pa Ni Dha, Pā Pā. There is no exact rāga in both Hindustānī or Karņātak music to match this.

A point worthy of study is the association of time with each $Gr\bar{a}ma \ r\bar{a}ga$ whereas there is no association of time in the case of $J\bar{a}tis$ This again is another proof that $Gr\bar{a}ma \ r\bar{a}gas$ belonged to a

Sangita Ratnākara

different line of musical tradition.

Ālāpa

> Pādhā mādhā nidhāpāpā padhani remapadhāmā dhani dha pāpāregā sāsā mapamaga rere remāpadhā mā panidhapāpā sāgā nidhā papa nire mā pā-dhāmādha nidha pāpā.

Karana

päpadhapadhamadhadhanidha päpä päpädhani regupäpä madhanidha päpä päpådhani rere gaga şaşa gaga rere rere mama papa dhama dhadha nidha pä.

Pada

Jaya vişamanayana madanatanudahana varavrşabhagamana puradahana natasakalabhuvana sitakamalavadana bhava mama bhayahara bhava śaraŋam.

Ākşiptikā—Tāla Cañcatpuţa

1.	Tāla	Å		Ni	~	Vi		ń.	
	Laghu	1	2	3	4		_	Śa	-
	Svara	Şā	Şâ		-	5	6	7	8
	Pada			Şâ	Şå	ŗe	ţc	gā	şā
h		Ja	ya	vi	şa	ma	na	ya	па
2.	Tāla	Ā		Ni	-	Vi		Tå	_
	Laghu	9	10	11	12	• 13	14	15	16
	Svaru	mâ	gâ	pama		ŗe			
	Pada	ma	da	па	ta	=	re	ŗe	ie
3.	Tâla	Ă	_	Ni	La	กน	da	ha	na
	Laghu	17	18		-	Vi		Pra	_
	Svara			19	20	21	22	23	24
		mā	Şā	Sá	Sá	ŗe	re	ga	Sa
	Pada	va	ra	٧ŗ	şa	bha	ga	ma	ла
4.	Tāla	Å		Ni		Vi		San	ла
	Laghu	25	26	27	28	29	30		-
	Svara	mā	gā	pama	gā			. 31	32
	Pada	pu	ra	da	-	ŗe	ţe	ţe	ŗe
5.	Tāla	Ā			ha	na		_	-
	Laghu			Ni	-	Vi		Śa	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Svara	<u>i</u> c	<u>t</u> c	mā	mä	pa	mā	dhā	mä
	Pada	Da	ta	sa	ka	la	bhu	va	-
								* **	na

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6.	Tāla	Ā		Ni	_	Vi		Tā	
υ.	Laghu	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	Svara	mā	dhā	Sā	sä	ភ្	dhä	pā	ҭā
	Pada	si	ta	ka	ma	la	va	da	na
7.	Tāla	Ā		Śa	—	Vi	-	Pra	
••	Laghu	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
•	Svara	dha	ភ្	ŢĊ	ḿā	ŗe	mä	pā	pā
	Pada	bha	va	ma	ma	bha	ya	ha	га
8.	Tāla	Ā		Ni		Vi	-	San	-
-•	Laghu	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
	Svara	dhā	mã	dhā	ni	på	pä	pa	pa
	Pada	bha	va	śa	га	ŋam		-	-

Śuddha Kaiśika

S.R. describes the $r\bar{a}ga$ thus: Born of Kärmäravi and Kaiśiki Jätis, its graha and amśa svaras is tära sadja, nyāsa svara is pañcama, kākali nisāda is used, it is sampūrņa avarohi and prasannānta alamkāras are used: it depicts Vīra, Raudra and Adbhuta rasas, it is sung in Śiśira rtu on the first prahara of the morning and is used in the Nirvahaņa Sandhi.¹

Mokşadeva also says the same thing.²

This raga has a resemblance to the modern Raga Patadipa. The prayoga Ga Ni Pa, Dha Pa, Ni Dha Pā, Ma Pa Ga Ma Pa is very similar to that used in *Patadipa*. This is the inference one makes when one studies the alapa and vartani but the note-structure of the composition is quite different; there the sangati Sa Re Ma Pa, and Sa Re Ga Ma Pa occur giving it a flavour more akin to modern Śuddha Kāfī. However, this rāga can be sung with greater ease as it does not have the actual leaps and jumps, excepting at one place in the vartani.

Here again the prominence given to tara sadja as graha, is noteworthy.

Ālāpa

Sā sā gāmā gāre gama sānī sāre sādhā mādhā nīdhā pā-mā gāmā pāpā.

¹S.R., vol. 11, Adyar edn., 11.28.34. ²Bha. Ko., p. 664.

Sangita Ratnäkara

Vartanî

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şāşāşāşā reresāşārere gāgā şāşāşāşā māmā gāre gāre sāsārere pānī šašašaša rere māmā pāpādhāmāmāmādhān1 sāsāsāsā reregāmā sāsāpāpā dhāmāgāmā pāmā pāpūpāpā.

Pada

Agnijvālāšikhākeši māmšašoņitabhojini sarvāhāriņi nirmāmse carmamuņde namo'stu te.

Āksiptikā—Tāla Cañcatpuța

1.	Tāla	A		Ni		Vi		Śa	_
•	Laghu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Svara	Sā	Sā	Sā	Sã	Sā	Sã	ni	dhā
	Pada	3	_	gni	<u> </u>	jvā	_`	lā	Śi
2.		Ă	_	Ni		Vi	— '	tã	—
	Laghu	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	Svara	Sâ	Sā	re	mā	sā	ге	gâ	mā
	Pada	khā	-	ke	-	Śi	—	_	-
3.	Tāla	Ā		Śa		Vi	—	Pra	
•	Laghu	17	18	. 19	20	21	22	23	42
	Svura	Sā	gā	re	sâ	sā	sä	sā	sā
	Pada	mām		—	—	sa	śo	—	ņ ì
4.	Tāla	Ā		Ni	—	Vi	_	San	
	Laghu	25	26	27	28	29	30 .	31	32
	Svara	Sā	Sā	sā	sä	nĩ	Sä	nī	nî
	Pada	ta	bhô	_	—	_	ji.	nī	-
5.	Tâla	Ā	—	Ni		Vi	—	Śa	
•	Laghu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Svara	mä	mā	gā	re	mâ	mä	pā	pā
	Pada	sar		vā	-	hā	—	ri	ņi
6.	Tāla	Ă	-	Ni	-	Vi		tā	-
	Laghu	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	Svara	dhä	nI	pā	mā	dhä	mā	dhā	8ã
	Pada	nir	-	māņ	° <u>—</u>	se	_	-	
7.	Tâla	Ā	—	Śa	—	Vi	-	Рга	
	Laghu	17	18	· 19	20	21	22	23	24
	-								

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	Svara De le	sā	รอิ	sā	sā	nĩ	dhā	pā	pã
	Pada	car			ma	muņ	đe	na	_
8.	Tāla	Ā		Ni		Vi		San	
	Laghu	25	26	27	.28	29	30	31	32
	Svara	dhā	nı	gå	mā	pā	pậ	pā	pä
	Pada	mo	. .		astu .	te			

Śuddha Şādava

S.R. describes this rāga as follows: This rāga is born of the vikrta rūpa of Madhyama Jāti, gāndhāra and pañcama are weak, madhyama is both amša and nyāsa svara, tāra madhyamu is graha svara, kākalī nisāda and antara gāndhāra are used, Avarohī and Sañcāri varņas are used, prasannanta alamkāra is also used, Hāsya and Śrngāra rasas are depicted by this rāga, Śukra is its deity and it is sung in the forenoon.¹

Moksadeva as quoted in Bha. Ko. (p. 671) clarifies the vikrta rüğa of Madhyamä Jāti stating that the placement of the graha svara in tāra stnāna is itself the vikrta. There, however, appears to be some confusion in the interpretation of the name and the form of this rāga. While Sādava clearly means a six-svara rāga (Sat= six, ava=to protect, i.e., sādava means to retain six svaras, Matangā states that since this is the most important of all the six rāgas, it is used in the pürvaranga of the drama and actually takes all the seven svaras and six svaras are impossible.² Originally as given in Nā. Ši., it consisted of only six svaras but later on it was changed to seven svaras. Matanga tries to justify the name Sādava on the basis that it was the most prominent of all the Grāma rāgas which is a very artificial explanation.

This raga resembles remotely the modern Raga Hemanta composed by late Ustad Allauddin Khan. Although pañcama is weak, the above raga is the nearest corresponding modern raga. But the contours of sadava are so tenuous and jumpy that a cohesive musical idea seems difficult to emerge.

Ālāpā

Mā sāre nidhā sūdhāni mādhā sāregā dhā sā dhāmāregāmā mādhāmāre garenidhā sādhānimāmā.

¹S-R., Adyar edn., vol. 11, 11.74.76.

*S.S., Commentary, S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, pp. 68-70.

Sangita Ratnökara

Karana

mamarega mama sasa dhani sasa dhani mā mā papapapani dhamamadha dhasasare gāgāmāregāmāmā.

Vartanikā

Sādhani padha māre māni dhadhādhadhasasare māsāsādhanī dhapamā mā gāre gāre gāsāmādhāmā gāregā gamāregā şāsādhanī mā dhani dhagasādhani mā mā mā

Pada

 \mathbb{R}^{n}

Prthugandagalitamadajala matisaurabhalagnaşatpadasamüham mukhamindranilašakalair bhūşitamiva gaņapaterjayatu.

Āksiptikā—Tāla Cañcatputa

1	. Tāla	A	-	Ni		Vi	_	Śa	
	Laghu	1	2	3	4	5	6		~
	[.] Svara	mā	mā	dhā	dhā	sā	-	7	8
	Pada	pr	thu	gaņ		da da	dhā	ារ	ρã
2	. Tâla	Ă	<u> </u>	Ni	_		ga	li	ta
	Laghu	9	10	11		Vi		Tā	
	Svara	dhā			12	13	14.	15	16
•	Pada		ņî	mā	mā	mā	re	mā	ге
2		ma	da	ja	la	ma	ti	sau	_
.3.		Ā		Śa	—	Vi	—	Pra	
	Laghu	17	18 ⁻	19	20	21	22	23	24
	Svara	¢hā	ņī	Şâ	Şā	gā	rega	dhā	
	Pada	ra	bha	la		gna	года		dhā
4.	Tāla	Ă		Ni	_	Vi		şaț S-	pa
	Laghu	25	26 [,]	27	28	29	20	San	
	Svara	sā	dhâ	sā			30	31	32 [·]
	Pada	da	sa	ារ ហើ	maga	ma	ma	ņа	ma
5.		Ā		Ni		ham	-		
•••	Laghu	1	2		_	Vi	· ···	Sa	• ••• •
	Svara			3	4	5	6	7	8
	Pada	maga	re	gā	mâ	mâ	mä	pama	gā
6		mu ⊼	kha	min	—	dra	กเ	_	Ja-
6.		Ā		Ni		Vi		Ta	<u> </u>
	Laghu	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16 :

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	Svara	re	gā	sā	sā	mā	mā	ma	ma
	Pada	Śa	ka	lair	—	bhû	şi	<u> </u>	ta
7	Tāla	Ā		Śa	-	Vi'		pra	
	Laghu	17	18	. 19	20	21	22	23	24
	Svara	ní	dhā	ŋî	dhā	şä	şā	şā	şã
	Pada	mi	va	ga	ņa	pa	ter		
8.	Täla	Ă		Ni		Vi	— .	San	—
	Laghu .	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
	Svara	gā	re	ге	gā	ភ្ជាធិ	фã	ញ់ផ្ល	mâ
	Pada	_		ja	уа	tu			

Śuddha Kaiśika Madhyama

S.R. describes this råga thus: It is born of Şadja Madhyamā and Kaiśiki Jātis. Rşabha and Pañcama are omitted, graha and amśa svaras is şadja (it should actually be tāra şadja), alamkāra used is prasannānta, varņa-avarohī; and Uttaramandrā Mūrchanā; gändhāra is sparingly used and nişāda is kākalī; rasas are Vīra, Adbhuta and Raudra; it pleases the Moon and is sung in the forenoon. It is used in the Nirvahana Sandhi.¹

Mokşadeva repeats the same details as R.S., but clarifies that tāra şadja is the graha and amśa svaras of this rāga. The form of this rāga is similar to the modern Rāga Candrakauns with śuddha dhaivata or if the Vāgcśrī anga is taken, then with śuddha nisāda. But in the composition in the S.R., both pañcama and rsabha occur. The ālāpa and karaņa are more intelligible, the soug is extremely confusing as its structure is in contradiction with the rules stated above. The octaval leaps and jumps occur more in this:

Āļāpa

Şā dhāmā dhā sani dhasani şā şā sā dhāni mā mā şā gā şā gā mādhā mādhā şā nidha sani şā şā dhāmā madhamagāgamā sāsādhāmāsagāsāgāmādhāsa nidha sānī şā sāsādhādī ma ma.

Karaņa

Sasamamadhadhamamadhasanidhaşāşāşāşā sasagama gama madhamasānidhaşa şā şā şā dhadha mama

¹S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, pp. 84-85.

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dhama sagasagamasa gaga dhadha sasa gaşa mama dhamadha sadhani mämä mämä.

Pada

4

i:

Omkāramūrtisamstham mātrātrayabhūşitam kalātītam varadam varam vareņyam govindakasamstutam vande.

Āksiptikā—Tāla Calicatputa

	1. <i>Tāla</i> Ā	·	Ni	_	Vi		0	
	Laghu 1	2	3	4	5	_	Sa	
	Svara Şā	şä	dhā	•	-	6	7	8
	Pada Om		kā	pa(ma		dhā	(pa)mā	-
2	2. Tâla A		Ni '		ra	mûr		ti
	Laghu 9	10	11		Vi		tā	
	Svara dhā	pā(mā?)	-	12	13	14	15	16
	Pada san	Patinat		pā(mā?		re(ni?)	mä	тâ
3	. Tāla A	_	stham Śa	—	mā		trā	—
-	Laghu 17	10			Vi	—	Pra	<u> </u>
	a '	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
			mâ	nI	dhā	ni	şā	şä
4	Pada tra . Tāla 🔏	ya	bhū	_	şi	tam		ka
Т.	,	_	Ni		Vi		San	
	Laghu 25	· 26	27	28	29	<u>,</u> 30	31	32
	Svara ni	dhā	nĩ	Şā	Şā	Sā	Sã	Sâ
6	Pada Jā Telo J	—	tī	-	tam	_		
5.	Tāla Ā	· <u> </u>	Ni	 ·	Vi	•	Śa	
	Laghu 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Svara dhā	dhã	ភាធ	щä	re(ni?)	re(ni?)	-	sã
_	Pada va	га	dam		va	ram		sa Va
0.	Täla A	<u> </u>	Ni		Vi		tā	va
	Laghu 9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	Svara dhā	. dhā	mā	mã	gā	gā	-	
	Pada re	· —	ŋyam	-	go	<u> </u>	vin	gā
7.	Tāla A		Śa		Vi			—
	Laghu 17	18	19	20		22	4	
	Svara ni	dhā	_	-	44	22 n3 -	-	24
	Pada da	•	sami		stu -	П ч .		sā
8.	Tāla 🛓		Ni				tam -	-
					Vi -	,	San -	

134		E	Evolution	of Rūga a	nd Tāla i	n Indian	Music
Laghu 25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
Svara dhā	Sā	dhā	лi	ҭâ	ӎã	ភ្ជាធិ	ҭã
<i>Pada</i> van				de			

Raga Gauda Pañcaria¹

S.R. states that this rāga has Dhaivata as graha and amša; nyāsa svara is madhyama; both kākalī nisāda and antara gāudhāra are used; it is born of Dhaivatī, Dhaivati and Şadji Madhyamā Jātis; it is the favourite of Lord Visņu and Kāmadeva; the rasas depicted are Bhayānaka and Bībhatsa. Paītcama svaru is omitted.

The contours of this raga resemble the modern Raga Malati whose archavarcha is: Sa, Ga Ma Dha Ni Sa; Sa N. Dha Ma Ga Re Sa. It is an audava-sädava raga. But the above has a few peculiar sangatis like Sa Dha, Dha Ni Dha, Dha Ga, Re Ga Se Sa. It is a pleasant raga and quite close to the modern B'tinna Sadja which has all the above svaras with Re and l'a varja (omitted).

The *tāla* on which the song is composed, is *cañcatpuța*. There is no complication rhythmically.

dhā mā dha dha ma dha dha, dha ni dhà ni dha. dha dha ni dha ni dha, sa re ga ga re ga, re ga, ga dha dha ni dha, ni dha dha ma ga ma ma, gā mā ma (Dl:aivata) dha dha, dha dha, dha ni dha ni dha dha, dha dha sa dha ni dha, sa re ga dha ni dha, dha dha ni ma ma ni, dha ga sa sa ma. ga (*Madhyama*), ma ma ma dha dha dha, dha ni dha ni dha mã dha dha. mã dha dha ni dha, ni dha dha dha dha ma ma dhā, ma dha dha, dha ni, dha ni ma dha ma gā ga sa sa, ga sā dha dha ni, ma ma ni, dha ni sā dhā dhā (Dhaivata), dha dha, dha dha, dha ni dha ni dha dha, dha dha sa dha ni, dha sa re ga dha ni dha, dha dha ni ma ma ni dha ga, sa ga ma ga, ma (Madhyama) ma ma ma dha dha dha dha, ma ma dha, dha ni, dha ni, dha ma ma dha, ni dha, ni dha ni dha dha, sa dha dha, dha dha. sa, dha, dha ni dha ni dha ni dha ma. dha mo ga ga sa ga ma ga, ma dha dha, dha dha, dha ni dha ni dha ga, sa sa ma ga ma ma dha, sa re

S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, pp. 41-43.

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ma dha ma ga, dhā dhā mā dha dhā dhā. dha dha ni, dha dha sa, dha dha ni, dha dha dha dha, dha ni dha dha, dha ma dha, sa re ma ga ma ma, ma dha dha dha ma, dha dha dha, dha dha dha dha, dha dha, dha ni dha ni ma dha ma gā mā inā madha madha dhā dhanidhāsa dhanidhā dhasa regā dhani dhāmagāmāmiā. dhamadhamā dhāmadhama. (*Mhadhyama*) mani dhadha redha dhāmamāma dhāgamadhānidha dhani dhāmamamaśa gama dhādhani dhani dhani dhādha dhadhasa. dhanidhā dhasaregi dhanidhā madhasare madhamadhadhā dhadha dhani dhani dhani madhamā māgāmāmā.

1.	dhā	dhâ	mā	dha	Sa.	sa	Sà	sâ
	gha	na	ca.	la	na	khiŋ	—	na
2.	dhā	dhā	dhā 🗉	dhā	dhā	dhā	รอิ	dhā
	pan		па	ga	vi	\$a	ma	vi
3.	8ä	sâ	mā	mā	ភាទិ	dhä	dhą	dhä
	ni		śyâ		sa	dhū	•	ma
4.	.dhā	dhā	mā	gā	mā	mā	mā	mā
	dhūm		Га	śa	śi			
5.	mä	mā	mā	gā	mā	dhā	dhā	dhä
	vi	ra	ci	ta	ka	pā		la
6.	dhā	nī	dhā	mā	mã	mâ	mā	gâ
	mā		lam		ja	ya	ti	ja
7.	ma	dha	dha	dha	mə	ma	ma	ma
	tā	_	maŋ	da	lam			
8.	dhā	dhā	dhā	dhani	ga	mā ·	mā	mä
	śam	_	_	-	bhoḥ	mā —		

- Râga Mâlava Pañcama 🏠

S.R.'s description is as follows:

This raga is a derivative of the Jatis Madhyamā and Pañcamī. Pañcama is graha, amśa and nyāsa svaras. Its Mūrchanā is Hrsyakā; varņa is ārohī and alamkāra is prasannānta; the rasas depicted are Hāsya and Śringāra.

Hrsyakā is the seventh Mūrchunā of the Madhyama Grāma. In this rāga, gāndhāra is sparingly used and it takes kākali nisāda,

¹S.R., Adyar eda., vol II, pp. 51-53.

If we compare Gauda Pañcama and this rāga, the main differences are;

- (i) In the former Dha is both graha and amsa svara; nyāsa svara is Ma. Both Kākalī Ni and antara Ga are used. Pa is omitted altogether.
- (ii) In the latter (above rāga), Pa is graha, amśa and nyāsa svara; Gändhāra is sparingly used (antara Ga is not used at all), kākalī Ni is used.

The entire mood of the two $r\bar{a}gas$ is different. The svara-structure of the former is more expressive of $S_{rng}\bar{a}ra$ whereas the rasas mentioned are Bhayānaka and Bībhatsa. In the latter also $S_{rng}\bar{a}ra$ appears prominently as stated in S.R. It remotely resembles the Karnātaka Rāga Gaurī Manoharī. Could it be that the Pañcama sung in Bengal (Gauda) and Mālva (present Madhya Pradeśa), were two versions of the same rāga? Suddha Pañcama rāga melody-wise is closer to Gauda Pañcama excepting for the omission of Pa by the latter, whereas similarities of the parent Jātis and Mūrchanā occur between Suddha Pañcama and Mālava Pañcama.

pā mā re gā sā dhā ni dha pā dha dhā ni sa rl mā gā ga pā dhā mā ri gā sā ni dha ni mā mā dha ni sā ri gã ma ma ga sã sã dhã nĩ pa dha pã dhã nĩ sã rĩ. mā mā ga ga pā dhā mā rī gā sā nī dha ni mā mā dha ni sā re gā ma ga ga sa ni dha ni pā. pā pā sa dhā dhā sa ga sā sā mā gā ri ri ri mā mā pa mā sā rī mā pā dhā ni dha pa dha ma sa dha ni dha pa ri ri ri ga ma pa ri ri ga ma pa ri ri ri ga ma pa ni dha ma pa ni dha ma ri rI ga ma ma ma sa ri ga ma ma ga sa ni dha ni pa. pa pa pa pa sa dha dha ga sa sa ga ga ri pa ma ma pa ma pa pa pa. dha ma ma pa dha ma ma pa dha ni ni ma ma pa dha sa sa ma ma pa dha ga sa dha ni dha pa dha ma sa dha ni dhapa ma ma (Madhyama) ga ga ma ga ma ri ririri rima sa sa sa sa sa ma riririripa ma pa ma ma pa pa pa pa pa dha ma ma ma ni ni dha dha pa pa pa dha ma ma ma sa sa dha dha ni ni dha dha pa pa ma ma ga ga ri ri ni ni dha dha pa ri ri dha ri ri ga ma pa ri ri dha ri ri ga ma pa. ri ri dha ri dha ri ri gã mã pā ri ga ma ri ga ma pa dha ni dha mã.

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ma ri ri ri ga ga sa sa sa sa dha sa ri ga ga ri sa nidha ma papa ri ma ma śa dha ni dhā pā dhā mā ga śa dhā nī dhā pā dha ma sa dha ni dha pā mā pā dhā mā ma ri ga sā dha ni mā dha ni sā ri ga mā, dha ni dha dha sa dha ni dhā pā pā. dha dha dha ni dha ni ri mā pa dha ni dha ga sa dhā nī dhā sā dhā n1 (*Pañcama*) pā pa dha sa dhā dha ga sā sa sa sā ma gā rī rī pa mā mā pa ni dha ni dha sa ni dha pā pā. ri ga mā pā dha ni dha sa dha ni pa pa pa dha ma ma pa ma dha sa dha ni ma ma ni ni dha dha pā pa dha ma nī dha pā pā.

1.	gā	rî	sani	sā	maga	riga	sā	pama
	dhyā		na	ma	yam	na	vi	_
2.	pā	pa	sā	ma	gama	gā	nidha	nī
	m นกิ		ca	ti	dī	nam		
3.	<u>r</u> ī	maga	pā	pama	pā	pā	dhaya	mã
	vyā	ha	ra		ti	- vi	śa .	ti
4.	rima	gasa	dhama	dhani	pā	pā	pā	pâ
	sa	rah	sa	li	le			
5.	pama	dhama	sā	sā	sā	gā	sā	nidha
	vi	dhu	no		ti	pa		kşa
6.	nidha	sā	sā	sä	sā	ri	gā	ma
	yu	ga	lam		na	ren		dra
7.	dhā	mā	riga	sā	nidha	sā	pā	mā
	ham	· ` .	. 80		ni	_	ja	
8.	mari	ga	dhasa	nidha	pā	pā	pā	pā
	pri	yā	vi	ra	he		· —	

Raga Bhammana Pañcama¹

This is derived from Śuddha Madhyama Jāti; graha and amśa svaras is sadja; Ma is nyāsa; Ga is weak; kākalī Ni used; its Mūrcharā is Şadjādi; varņa is ārohī; alamkāra is prasanna madhya and the rasas are Vīra, Raudra and Adbhuta; favourite of Śiya,

When actually one studies the alapa and the song given by S.R., one finds Ni very sparingly used almost as little as Ga. Re-Pa and

¹SR., Adyar edn., vol, 11, pp. 51-53.

Re-Dha sangitis occur more; Ma Pa Ni and Sa Ni are the ways in which Ni-is taken. The overall picture is as follows:

Sa Re Pa, Dha Pa Ma, Ga Re, Re Dha, Dha Pa Dha Sa; Ma Ga Re Sa, Ni Ni, Pa Dha, Ma Pa, Ma Ga, Ma S Ma.

It strikes a similarity with the Hindustāni Rāga Paţadīpa; but the above form is oblique. It is also close to the Karņāţaka Rāga Gaurī Manoharī which means it is like Mālava Pañcama. Ga is sparingly used; kākalī Ni is also used; strangely in this rāga although Sa is the grahāmša svara, Pa appears more prominent as in Mālava Pañcama. The relative Jātis, Mūrchanā and alamkāras are different.

Sā ririsa ri ri sā rī ri pā dhā dha dha dha dhapā dha pā pa dha pa dha pa ma mā ma mā mā. gā rī rī dhā dha pa dhā sā dhā sā dhā sū sa rī rī sū sa sa ma ga rī sā sa ni ni (*Dhaivata*) (*Paītcama*) pa pa dha pa dha pa pa pa pa ma ma pa mā ma ga mā mā—

Sā sā rì rì rì sa rī rī rī. pā pā dha pa dha dhā dha dha pa dha dhā. pā pā pa ma pa ma pa pā pā pā dha dha dha mā mā mā ma dha rī rī rī rī dha ri ri dhā. dhā pā pā pā pā pa pa pa dhū dha dhā sa dha dha sā sì sā. sa ri ri ri sa sa sa ma sa ma ri ga sa pa dha dha dha pa ma pa ni pa pī pa pā pa pa dha ma dha pa dha pā dha pa dha pa dha pa pā pa ma ga sā—

or—sā sā sa dhā sa rī mā pā pa (*Pañcama*) pā pā sā sā sa rī pā pā ma pa dha sa ni dha pā mā pā mā pā pā mā 'dhā sā nī dhā pā mā pa mā pā mā ma ma pa ma pa (*Madhyama*) mā—

sa sa ri ri sã sã dha dha ri ri sã sã dha dha dha sa ri ma ma ga sã sa ri ga ri sa ri ri ma pa dha sa sa ni dha sa ri gã mã (*Puñcama*) pa ma dha ma ma ma pa ga pã pã mã mã—

1.	rî	gā	mā.	sä	riga	sā	dha	mä
	gu	ru	a	gha	na	la	li	tam
2.	pā	dhā	padha	pama	pā	pā	dhā	pama
	mţ	du	ca	ra	ņa	pa	ti	tam
3.	sā	rī	mā	pā	pā	dhā	pama	mapa
	ga	ti	su	bha	ga	ga	ma	nam

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4. pā dhani pama dhasa 88 sä sā sä da. ma ti ya ____ -5. rI гí mã pama riga sā dhã ៣គិ pri ya mu di -tā ma dhu ra 6. Dã Dâ padha padha Då på Då Dã ma dhu ma da Da га va śa 7. mä mä pā dhasa гiga sā dhani Dama hr dø yã bhr _ śam 8. pā dhā dhapa pâ mā mã mā mã tar nvi

Rāga Bhinna Pañcama¹

It is born of Madhyamā and Pañcamī Jātis; Dha is both graha and amša; pa is nyāsa; Mūrchanā is Pauravī; kākalī nişāda is infrequently: used; Kāllinātha states śuddha nisāda is also used in tāra sthāna in vindication of the Madhyama Grāma principle. This is not clear; Simhabhūpāla says simply that both kākalī and śuddha nisādas are sparingly used. Prasannādi is the alamkāra: Sañcārī is the varņa. Favourite of Visāu or Šani; Bhayānaka and Bibhatsa are the rasas depicted; summer is its season; time is first prahara in the morning. Kāllinātha also states that Varātī is its janaka or father.

Analysis of this rāga brings forth the following:

Janaka Jātis are the same for Śuddha-, Mālava- and Bhinna Pañcama, i.e., Madhyamā and Pañcamī Jātis; but the rasas are all different.

Due to the change of graha and amfa svaras and the alpatva of other svaras, the mood and form of the rāgas undergo considerable changes.

dhā pā dhā mā nī dhu pā ní dhā mā gā mā pā pā pa ma ma ga pa ma ma ga sa ma gā rī rī rī mā dhā pā dhā mā ni dhā dha pa dha nī (*Dhaivata*) dhā dhā mā dhā šā (*Şadju*' sā mā ri ga sā sā gā ga sā ma ni ni (*Dhaivata*) dhā ni dha pa dha dhā ma dhā mā ga mā pā pā

(Dhaivata Sadja), sa ga ri (Rşabha) ma ni dha pa pa dha pa ni (Dhaivata) dha dha pa dha ni pa dha ma pa ri ga ri ni dha dha pa ¹S.R., Adyar edn., vol. 11, pp. 73-75.

ma gã mã pã (*Pañcama*) (ri şa bha) ri ma dha ma ma ma dhã pấ (*Dhaivata*) dha pa pa ni dha ni ($\hat{S}adja$) sa mã r¹ r¹ ni dha (*Dhaivata*) dha dha ma dha ma ma ga ma ma ma ga nĩ dha (*Pañcama*) nĩ dha pa ma ga ma pa pa.

1.	dhā	' mã	dhapa	dhē	dhä	dhani	dhapa	mā
	vi	ma	la	śa	śi	khaņ		da
2.	dhā	sā	nī	dhā	pã	nidha	mä	mä
	dhā	-		гі	ņa	—		
3.	mā	nī	mä	dhấ	dhapa	dhā	dhapa	mā
	ma	ma	ra	ga	ņa	па	mi	ta
4.	nī	dhā	padha	dhani	dhā	dhā	dhä	dhä
	ma	bha	va	bha	yam	—	. 	
5.	ที	mã	dhā	mā	nī	gā	mā	บ โ
	van		de	-	tri	lo		ka
б.	dhā	pani	dhā	dhã	dhā	mä	rī	må
	nā		tham	—	gan	gā		
7.	dhā	pama	gari	mā	dhapa	dhā	dhapa	mä
•	sa	ri		tsa	li	ไข่	. —	
8.	nī	dhā	dhapa	dhani	dhā	mā	pā	pā
	dhau	—	ta	ja	ţam 🛛	.—		

Râga Gāndhāra Pañcama¹

This is born of Gändhäri and Raktagändhäri Játis: Ga is graha, amša and nyāsa; Mūrchanā is Harināśvā; Prasannamadhya is the alamkāra; sancārī is the varna; kākalī nisāda is used; pleasing to Rāhu; Adbhuta and Hāsya and Karunā are the rasas.

Although it is not mentioned by S.R., *Rşabha* is very weak; it has a few peculiar sangatis which make it come very close to the modern *Rāga Paţadīpa*. For example Ga Ma Pa; Ga Ni, Pa Ni, Dha Pa but the phrases Dha Ma Dha Ni, Ma Ga Re Ga Ni are antagonistic to *Paţadīpa*. The phrase Ma Pa Dha Ni also occurs, and Re is omitted in the avarola. What is perplexing are the rasas that are attributed to the various rāgas. Rusas like Bhayānaka, Bībhatsa, Hāsya, Adbhuta cannot be expressed through musical phrases exclusively.

One explanation for the octaval jumps and unmelodious phrases in the above $r\bar{a}gas$ may be due to the requirement to create the ¹S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, pp. 89-91.

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above moods in a dramatic performance. The peculiar phrasing of the above rāgas appears almost wantonly discordant.

gã sã sã ni sa ni sa ga ma gã gã, pã mã gã sã sã ni sa ni sa sa ma ma gã gã ni dhã ni sã ni dhã pã ni mã pã mã, gã su ni sa ni sa ga ma gã—

ga ma ma ga ni ga mā pa pa pa ni ma ma pā ma pa pā pā nī ni ma dhā ma ma dha ma ma mā gā gā ga ma ma ma gā mā (Şadja) sa ni sa sa ga ga ma ga ma ma ma gā gā rī gā nī sa sa nī pā nī nī ma pa mā gu ma pâ pa ga ma ma ga ni dha ni sa ma pa pa pa ma ma. gā sa ga ni ma sā sā sā ga ma dha pa dha ma ma mā dhā nī pa nī ni ma ma pa ni ma ga (Şadja) sa ni sa sa sa ma ga pa ga ma—

or—gā gā rī rī sa nī sa pa nī sa gā gā (*Pañcama*) sa gā mā ma ga pā dhā ni dhā ni pa ma ni dha ni sa pa ni ni dha ni dha pā pa ma gā gā ma sā sa sā ma ga ma dha ga ma gā gā ga rī sa ni pa ni sa gā pa ma pa sa gā gā—

ma ga ri ri sa sa ni ni sa sa gā gā ga ma ma ga ga ma ma sa ga sa gā ga ma ma ga ma ni dha dha dha ni ma dha ma mā pa pa dha ni nī dhā (*Paīicama*) pā ma ma pā ma ma ni dha sā ma ma ma pā ma pa pa ma mā mā sā sa sa sa sa ga ga.

1.	sā	nī	sā	gā	sā	gā	gā	gā
	piń	ga	la		ja	ţā	_	ka
2.	mã	pā	' mā	pā	gā	gā	gã	gā
	lā		ре		ni	pa	tam	<u>54</u>
3.	gā	pā	sā	gā	gā	gā	gâ	gani
	tī	—	ja	ya	ti	jā		hna
4.	ŋī	pā	mā	pama	gā	gā	gā	
	٧١		sa	ta	tam	<u> </u>	ga —	gā
5.	gā	gā	gā	gani	nî	nI	nī	_ *
	pū	rņa	—	_	hu	ti	ri	nisa
6.	nī	pā	mā	pama	gā	gā		va
	hu	ta	bhu	ji	Su	-	gā	gā
7.	mā	pā	sā	gā		sa	·mi	dhi
••	ра	ya	sah	5ª	gā	gā	mã	gani
8.	nī	pā	-		ka	pa	rdi	
U •		Pa	mā ma(-1)	pama	gā	gā	gā	gā
	no	-	pa(gha)	nu 👘	de		`	_

Rāga Bhinna Kaiśika¹

This râga is derived from Kaiśikī and Kārmāravī Jātis, Şadja is the graha, amśa and apanyāsa svaras; it is sampūrna; it takes kākalī nisāda; expressive particularly in Mandra sthāna; varna is sancārī; alamkāra is prasannādi: Mūrchanā is Şadjādī; rašas are Vīra, Raudra and Adbhuta; sung in winter in the morning and is pleasing to Šiva.

Although the description states that it is sampurna, in the $\hat{a}|\hat{a}pa$ and the composition there is no such indication. The usual jumps Sa-Dha and Sa Ni are there and several octaval leaps up and down. It may be due to the three rasas—Vira, Raudra and Adbhuta that it is supposed to portray. Otherwise the entire phrasing is strikingly unmelodious.

sā dhā mā dhā sā ní dha sa nî sā sā sā rī mā dhā mā dhā sā ni dha sa ni sā sā sā rī sā mā dhā nī sā dhā sā ma pā mā pā pā—

sā sā dhā mā dhā pū mā rī mā pā dhā mā dhā sā sā. sā sā sā rī rī gā gā sā rī gā gā sā rī sā sā mā dhā pā pā sū rī mā pā dhā sā dhā pā mā pā pā pā.

1.	sā	så	sā	\$ā	rī	ri	mā	mā
	in		-	dra	nī	-	—	la
2.	mâ	mā	pama	pā	pā	pā	pâ	på
	sa			pra	bham	_	_	- hía
° 3.	mā	dhä	sā	pā	dhā	mā	ri	sā
	dān	-		dha	gam	<u> </u>	-	dha
4.	mã	mā	sani	sā	sā	sā	sā	
	vā		_	si `	tam		-	` المت
5.	sā	sā	sā	sā	sā	sã	så	Sā∙
	.C.	-	.—	ka	dan	-	-	ta
6.	nī	gā	sā	sā	dhā	pā	mā	pā
	śo	_	—	bhi	tam	-	-	na
7.	mâ	dhä	sā '	pā	dhâ	mā	rī	шã
	mã	—	-	mi	tam		—	vi
8.	mā	ma	pama	pā	pā	pā	pā	pā
	nā		-	ya	kam	—		<u> </u>

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Rāga Gauda Kaisika¹

Born ol tne Jātis Kaļšukī and Şadja-Mudhyamā. Şadja is both graha and amša svaras; uses kākalī nisāda; pañcama is nyāsa svara; Mūrchanā is Şadjādi; varņa is ārohī; clamkāra is prasannādi; rasas expressed are Karuņā, Vīra, Raudra and Adbhuta; sung in winter and is pleasing to Šiva; sung during mid-day

In this, there is a contradiction which has to be reconciled. Kuisiki Jäti belongs to Madhyama Grāma whereas Sadjā-Madhyamā Jāti is from Sadja Grāma. How did the old scholars justify the application in Sadju Grāma as the father of a räga assigned to Madhyama, Grāma?

Also how did they justify a raga having two parent Jātis, each from a different Grāma? In the days of Matanga and S.R., the two Grāmas were of paramount significance and specifically constituted to accommodate those Jātis which had Re-Pa samvāda.

sā sā sa ga sa ni sa ri ma ga ga sa ma ma pa ma ni pa pa ga ma ga ri ri ga ma ma sa. ga sā sa ni sa ri ma ga pa ma pa ri ma pā dhā rī mā pā dhā ni ri mā pā dhā sa ni sā sā, sā sā (Sojda) sa sa sa sa sa sa sa sa sa ma ga sa ga sa ni sā sā. sā sā sa sa ga sa sa sa ma ga ma ri ga sa ga sa dha sa. pa dha pa mã pa mã pã pã, pa ma pã pã pa dha pa dha på pa pa pa dha rı ri ri ma ri ma sa ri ma dhā sa ni sā sā. sā sā (Sadja) sa sa sa sa sa sa sa sa sa ga sa ga sa ni sa sa. sā sā· sa sa ga sa sa ma ga ma ri ga sa ga sa dha sa pa dha pa mā pā pā dha ma på pā ga ma ga ga ma (Pañcema) pa pa ga ga ma ma ga ga ga ma ga. ni ni pa ni pā ga ma ga sa sa ni pa ni pa, ga ma ga pa ma ma ga ma ga ga ri ri ri ga ma ma (*Şud ju*) sa sa sa sa sa sa sa sa sa ga sa dhasā ga dha sa ri mā mā pa ma pā pāni sa ni dha sa sa ri ma ri ga ma ma ma ga pa pa ni gā pa ma gã ri pa rī rī ri ma ri ma sa ma rī 'ma ri ga sā ma pa dha sa ri mā pa mā pā pā ri me ri ma ri ma pā pā ri ma pa ni rī rī ri ma sā pa dha sa sa—sa ri sā sa ma ri gā sa ga sa ni nī ni ni ni ni sa dha dha sa dha ma ma pa pa pā gā ga ga ni pa pa dha nĩ ga ga ga pa ga mã gã ri ri ri gã mã ma (Şadja) sasani nisä gäri rimagama sägä mapa panidhani ga ma ga dha dha ma ri sa gā sa ga sa ni dha sā dha sa ri

mã pama pāpā pama dhamārimā rīsadha sārīrima mama magasādhadha sasa mamapapamama pāpā papa gagamama pāpāpā—

1	l. sā	Så	sā	sā	nī	nî	ក្មា	nī
	bha	-	smā		bhyan	-	ga	vi 👘
2	. nî	nI	sâ	rt	гІ	gā	58	88
	bhû	-	şi	ta	-	de	—	ham
3	. sā	sā	rī	sä	rī	sā	rī	sā
	su	ra	va	ra	mu	nı	sa	hi
4	- ri	rī	rī	ri	mâ	mā	mā	mâ
	tam			-	bhī	-	ma	bhu
5.	. Sā	Sā	Sā	Sā	rī 🤺	rl	rī	rI
	jan	-	ga	ma	ve		şţi	ta
6.	Sã	sā	sä	sā	mā	mā	n	mā
	bā		hum	—	su	ra	va	га
7.	ri	mä	mã	mā	pā	på	pā	pā
	na	mi	ta	pa	dam	-	—	
8.	ri	ที	rī	rī	pā	pä	pä	pâ
	can	-	dra	ka	ļā	_	ka	га
9.	sā	rl	rí	rī	sä	sä	nî	nī
	san	-	ta	ti	dha	va	la	-
10.	nī	nî	sā	n1	ri	mā	rī	gā
	su	ra	sa	ri	dam	-	bu	dha
11.	sā	sā	sama	gari	sâ	sä	sadha	dhani
	ran				pra	ņa	ma	ta
12.	padha	padha	рара	papa	mapa	mapa	pā	pä
	sa	ta			ni			-
13.	padha	padha	rima	pama	dhā	sâ	sä	8ā
	sa	ka		_		ra	ma	-
14.	dhā				- pā	pā	pä	pä
,	śi	va		je		-	-	-
				-	-			

CHAPTER 6

A Brief Survey of Western Musical Aesthetics and Detailed Descriptions, Discussion of Indian Musical Aesthetics and its Practical Variations

TO have a fuller comprehension and evaluation of Indian musical aesthetics, it will be useful to have an idea of aesthetics, and the aesthetic attitude of the western scholars and thinkers as well. This would enable a better synoptic understanding of aesthetics and the aesthetic attitude, according to Indian aestheticians. Therefore, we shall briefly survey the aesthetic attitudes as expounded by some of the thinkers of the West and India before delineating on Indian musical aesthetics and its practical variations.

Fundamentally, there are certain similarities in the Indian and Western attitudes towards aesthetics. Both believe that there are two basic principles for aesthetic beauty—(i) structural perfection and (ii) emotional expression. Art has the above two but craft has only the former. Craft may have beauty but no emotional expression. As examples a table, a beautifully engraved door, a beautifully decorated earthern jar, filigree work, printing, textile designing, ceramics, glass ware, cutlery etc., are highly evolved crafts and handicrafts, requiring great skill but they are devoid of any emotional content. They may express beauty but they have their utility. Whereas art, whether it is music, painting or sculpture touches the heart; it has expressiveness and no essential utility.

The other similarity in the two attitudes is that both believe that aesthetics is antipathetic to the personal. There is some confusion between aesthetic and naturalistic expression, that is to say, between a metaphysical, spiritual fact and a mechanical fact; between a concrete reality and an abstraction. For instance, the blush which generally accompanies the feeling of shame, the pallor often due to fear, the grinding of the teeth proper to violent anger, the shining of the eyes and certain movements of the mouth to manifest cheerfulness are some examples of natural personal expression. But there is an abyss between a man who is the prey of anger with all its natural manifestations and another man who expresses it aesthetically; between the appearance, the cries and contortions of some one grieving at the loss of a dear one and the words or song with which the same individual portrays his suffering, at another time between the grimace of emotion and the gesture of the actor.

In Indian aesthetical parlance, the distinction described would constitute *bhāva* and *rasa*. In the state of *bhāva*, the personal is prominent whereas, in the state of *rasa*, the expression of experience transcends personal limitations.

Now art is said to create beauty. But what is beauty? There is divergence of views on this and many thinkers have attempted to arrive at a correct definition. Plato said, 'beauty is that where on the earth, there are types trying to respond and correspond to the archetype of heaven'. That was his idea of beauty. Aristotle said. 'beauty is proportion, balance, harmony, unity', Plotinus who followed Plato and Aristotle says, 'beauty is, really speaking; transcendental The direction of life is from within outwards and it is an inspiration trying to give an expression outwards. Inspiration comes from that particular source which is called God; all beauty comes from Him." So according to him, there is an apex of beauty trying to extend itself to the base of beauty. The apex is the divine source and the base is the earthly manifestation. Plotinus says that it is beauty that sleeps on the hills, that leaps in the character, that peeps through the flower and that appears in the smile on the quivering lips of the baby. So beauty is the fountain of manifestation itself, according to Plotinus, so that we find there are three phases to that beauty; it is transcendental in source. subjective in human perception and objective in external manifestation. After him there have been many other thinkers like Benedetto Croce, the Italian philosopher and aesthetician and George Santyana, the poet philosopher of the United States. Croce seels that art is inextricably integrated with intuition. And intuition is knowledge, free from concepts and simpler than the perception of the real. He says that art is reality apprehended in all its ingenousness and immediacy in the vital impulse that is to say pure intuition. Art is 'expression' of 'impression'. Expression is the synthesis of the unity in variety and the 'indivisibility of the

¹Nag Memorial Lectures, 1984 by Prof. Thakur Jaideva Singh, Bunaras, (unpublished script).

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work of art', whereas Santyana seems to have emphasised the physical, physiological and psychological aspects of beauty. He says there are three phases of beauty-the material phase that is to say, the materials of which beautiful things are constituted. second phase consists of the arrangements of the materials in which there is a coalescence; and finally there is the subjective phase of the mind which tries to appreciate that beauty. So we see that there is unanimity of concept of art as simply a creation of beauty, although the approaches to its understanding vary. So what then is art? Is beauty the aim of all art? What is art in itself? We have seen the definition by Croce. Herbert Read, the great painter and critic of painting says that 'art is really an embodiment of form and content in a harmonious whole. Form is the appearance, the shape, the pattern and the content is the idea that is represented in that form. Art is the beautiful fusion of form and content in a harmonius whole. Mrs. Susane Langer improved upon this by introducing the word 'expressiveness'. She says it is not merely an embodiment of form and content in a harmonious whole, it is an expressiveness signifying appeal to the emotion of man. Rabindranath Tagore, the great poet seer believed that art is a vision wedded to form-the vision coming from a higher source.

As an example let us take poetry. Poetry is not merely a gewgaw dangled before idle fancy. It is not simply a sugary stanza, a lady-like prettiness, as Harrison puts it, but is as Shelly puts it— 'poetry is truth's brightest beam, heaven's light on earth'. So that from the point of view of all great thinkers and literary figures, art onsists in bringing down a particular vision to the mind of man. It is not a mere appearance or a polish but a vision.

For the 'experiencing' of the aesthetic beauty, there have been several thinkers in the West from Kant to Bullough who have contemplated on this problem. Bullough says that the first requisite for aesthetic 'experiencing' is 'distancing'. *Distancing* is a technical term indicating the psychological process which puts out of gear with, and distances us from, all practical interests, practical deeds and practical aims of life. For the time being, we forget the world around us; we are *distanced* from all our practical needs. That is the aesthetic attitude. It is, in fact, antipathetic to the personal or, in other words, all other personal needs are put aside and we are absorbed in the appreciation of a particular song, a picture or a poem; So that the main element of the aesthetic attitude is univer3.1

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salisation; impersonalization, that is to say, detachment from our practical needs. That is the first element of the aesthetic attitude. The second requisite is disinterestedness. Disinterestedness does not mean loss or lack of interest; on the contrary, there is a keen attention in the appreciation of art, be it music, painting, drama or poetry. It only means absence of personal interest or loss of interest in practical needs. So disinterestedness is the second element of the aesthetic attitude. A German thinker Litz brings out a new idea about this acsthetic attitude. It was in the eighteenth century that he coined a word 'cinfunlung' which means not simply feeling with but feeling into. The first French translation of that word appears as 'empathy'. This was later adopted by English also. Now Litz states that it is not only distancing, disinterestedness or universalization that constitute the main elements of the aesthetic attitude but it is 'cinfunlung' that is to be completely identified with the art object, to be totally absorbed in it.

In India, the exact equivalent to 'cinfunlong' was in usage in Sanskrit about 2000 years ago known as tanmayatā which means to identify yourself with the artiste or the art object, music, dance or drama. So we find that the aesthetic attitude has four important elements; namely distancing, disinterestedness, universalization and empathy. Now comes another issue namely what is the secret of appeal of an art object? How does an art object appear so captivating, so charming? Here philosophers and thinkers have contributed many important theories. The important theory is known as the 'make-believe' theory. 'Make-believe' implies conscious selfdeception. For instance there are two kinds of play-one is the illusion play and the other non-illusion play. Playing hockey is a non-illusion play whereas playing with a dog is illusion play. Similarly trying to sail a paper boat on the stream is another example of illusion play. It is an illusion play because we know fully we are playing a fictitious role. So in all art objects there is a kind of self-deception. We may not particularly believe it or disbelieve it but we are trying to play a role fully conscious of the fact that we are not that. That is the make-believe theory of art. The second theory of art is the organic theory. The organic theory of art maintains that the various components of the art object namely form, rhythm, colour, sound, line, harmony are so organically fused into one another that one cannot separate the one from the other. That is to say any constituent of art does not appear for

itself or in itself but as a contribution to the beauty of the whole. So the question whether the beauty of art consists in manner or matter, in what or how, is easily solved by this theory. The how and what cannot be separated. They are so beautifully fused into one according to the organic theory that though conceptually you may analyse it, perceptually you cannot separate it. This organic theory of art has helped art perception for quite a long period. But still another problem remains namely, whether we have the attitude of belief or disbelief when perceiving a portrayal of art. Coleridge steers clear of both the extremes of belief and disbelief. He says there is neither belief nor disbelief; there is suspension of belief in the appreciation of all art. This is very near the Indian concept of 'caruta'.1 However, whether it is belief or disbelief, the point remains whether art has anything to do with life. Art is not a life situation as Laurence Binyon puts it. It is not an adjunct to existence; it is not a reduplication of the actual. What is it then? It is simply a recreation of life. As a matter of fact, a great French existentialist Marcel defines art in an entirely different way. He says 'art is simply creative invocation of a presence', creative because it is not simply a juxtaposition of elements but an organic fusion of elements; it is invocation because it calls up certain transcendental ideas into its structure and it is a presence because it is a felt influence. The Freudian pan-sexuality theory that the artiste and the spectator try to gratify certain unfulfilled desires, mainly sexual, by appreciating art, is somewhat contrived and a little sex obsessed. His concept of the substitute satisfaction of desire in art-appreciation is absurd because substitute satisfaction is no satisfaction at all.

There is yet another theory propounded by Tolstoy known as the *emotional theory*. According to him art consists simply in evocation of feeling; which is inspired through emotion chiefly humanitarian or religious. But here again his theory is incomplete because art is not entirely emotion; there is emotion, thought and vision.

¹Caruta is from the Sanskrit root cara (\mathfrak{P}), which means 'to move'. The extended meaning of this is subjective apprehension of that which can be translated into external reality just as in the case of the Divine, namely subjective apprehension and objective creation. There are three kinds of beauty namely sensuous beauty, intellectual beauty and transcendental beauty. The last mentioned takes place in the absolute consciousness.

In fact, after studying all these theories, the acsthetic attitude as propounded by Bullough seems most tenable. Art is neither a satisfaction of a personal desire nor simply an appreciation of an emotional expression. Art is an organic whole which leads the mind to appreciating it by a psychological distance-by putting aside all our practical needs. Art construction is not our practical need; it is lifting life to a different plane. It is neither the plane of the material world nor the plane of the mystic; it is intermediate between the two because our absorption in the captivating charm of a particular creation, is not normal in life. It is rising above the life situation as the renowned French art critic André Malraux puts it 'les grand artistes ne sont pas les transcriptevrs du monde, ils en sont rivaux'; that is, 'the great artistes are not transcribers of reality, they are its rivals'. They do not transcribe reality; they transcreate reality. So the great Western thinkers today feel that art is a transcreation of life.

Bharata also refers to two types. Lokaharmī and nātyadharmī. The former relates to the material world whereas the latter is that which raises life from the humdrum activity of the world to a different higher level.

Now what is the attitude of the man who tries to appreciate art? Appreciation of art consists in contemplation, chewing the honeyed cud of emotion, thought and vision of the artist. What does that art represent? Is there a definite language of art? Language is a means of communication -definite ideas are conveyed in definite words. Is there such a language in art? Take for instance painting; there is the colour, the line, sense of proportion, spacing, light and shadow and so on. Does the same colour mean the same thing to everyone? Is it the same symbol in all cultures? White may represent purity in one culture but something else in another culture; similarly yellow or green. So then what is the language of art? The great thinker Mr. Richards in his pioneering work Meaning of Meanings says that art is an emotive language. It does not assert anything. It has no truth to claim; that is the business of philosophy or science. He says that is not the business of art or poetry. We appreciate a poem for what it is; not because of what it says. T S. Eliot has praised Richards. But on one point, it is difficult to concur with Richard's theory that it is the business of philosophy and science to make statements on life, that art and poetry merely portray beauty in form and content and have nothing to do with

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life because they are an emotive language. But it is an indisputable fact that literature has given us numerous insights into the subtle nuances of life. Shakespeare, Dostoevsky, Tagore, Kalidasa are great, not only for expressing their ideas in a beautiful form, but also because of their vision of life. Therefore, art is not merely an emotive language; it is an organic fusion of idea and form.

Another question which arises in this connection is whether art is representative or merely a kind of beautiful form. Does it convey something beyond itself? A painting with its peculiar colours, lines, perspective, does it represent something beyond itself? Something outside its beautiful form? A poem surely represents something beyond its beautiful word structure and content. Most arts are iconic; they represent and reflect some aspect of life itself beyond its form.

But music represents nothing beyond its form. It is simply an expression of feeling, of mood, of emotion. And it does what other arts cannot do. Bharata in the 17th chapter of his Natyasastra raises this question and justifies the need of song or music in the drama because music can express human emotion with such profundity which no word in any language can Indian music contains one exceptional feature known as kāku. This term in Sanskrit is untranslatable in any other language. It is derived from the Sanskrit root 'kai' which means lauly opatapayoh that is flexibility of sound so as to bring out the emotion of the heart. So we find Richard's theory that art is an emotive language can be valid only in respect of music. While all other arts are representative, iconic and heteronomous, music alone is autonomous. It says nothing beyond itself. What does it say? It is a direct expression of human feeling. This direct expression is there even in ordinary sound, as for example a dog expressing its affection to its master or when it encounters another rival dog. Or the peculiar intonation of a cow bellowing when it wants to feed its calf or when its calf is dead. By means of specific intonations, even animals express the feeling of their hearts. This is because of the use of kaku even by them. In music, kāku is expressed at the highest level. Take for example a thumari, a light classical form, wherein the use of kaku is maximum. In this form, the enunciation of the words, with appropriate phrasing of the svaras, articulation employing adequate colourations of tone, are all essential to heighten the aesthetic effect. The words are few and the elaboration 'depends to a great

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extent on imagination of the musician and his sense of aesthetics. Take the well known composition in the Rāga Khamāj-'Kāsey Kahûn jî ki batian', 'Kasey' can be expressed in several ways connoting helplessness separation, restlessness, annoyance (anger) through judicious stress on both the word and the svaras. The phrasing should be such as to manifest the different shades of meaning of the word. The meaning of the above line is 'how shall I express the true feelings of my heart'. 'Kasey' means how, So music expresses the poignancy of feeling which no word in any language can express Therefore, music is an autonomous artnothing beyond itself; it is the language of the heart and the universal language of mankind. But it has its limitations; it cannot express idea; it tells no tale; it narrates no event. But in so far as the direct expression of feeling is concerned, it is the greatest medium man has evolved. But contemporary aestheticians have probed deeper into areas of the linguistic analytic and the existential phenomenological approaches and have distinguished them as the former dealing, mainly with aesthetic discourse and the latter. attention not only to the details but an appraisal of the determinate quality and dynamics of our experience of art.

In the *linguistic analytic* approach, Frege, Russell, Moore and Wittgenstein make free use of the major emphases of the *analytic approach* to philosophy.

(a) The examination of the many ways in which language is used to avoid confusion as is done in philosophy.

(b) The fallacy regarding a syntactically correct sentence as being necessarily a meaningful one.

(c) The common 'craving for generality' which impels us to make big, sweeping remarks in utter disregard of individual differences.

(d) Resorting to mislcading analogics ignoring features which distinguish things.

1. The analytic approach in examining the use of language suggests that 'an inspection of linguistic foundations \dots (aesthetics) is long overdue'.¹

The following specimen would elucidate the above statement:

"The music of Lourie is an ontological music; in the Kierkegaar-

dian style, one would also say 'existential'. It is born in the singular roots of being, the nearest possible juncture of soul and spirit."

While being syntactically correct, the above writing is, to the say the least, unedifying, especially when it is referring to the rich and significant material namely music and seeking to illuminate it.

2. As regards the reaction of analytic philosophy to individual views and theories. Prof. Niharranjan Ray says that 'aestheticians of the traditional kind often speak of the rhythm of both painting and music in one breath.'² Rhythm in music is a matter of beats which are evidently absent in painting. Hence rythm in one art is distinctly different from that in the other. Therefore, it is indeed necessary to expose sweeping generalisation and misleading analogies brought about by individual differences. Aestheticians say that all good works of art 'develop a theme'. Now

"We know what this means in music, we may (also) feel that we can make some sense of the phrase in criticising literature... but how could we possibly apply this... to sculpture?"

O.K. Bouwsma quotes Wordsworth's definition of poetry as 'the spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings'. He says in this sense of *pressing-out*, it makes no sense to ask what a poem expresses.⁴ Similarly it is a misleading analogy when some aestheticians say that music expresses sadness in the way language expresses ideas. This is untenable because like poetry *music is sad*, it cannot *express sadness*.

Gilbert Ryle, in his essay on 'Feelings' distinguishes seven different uses of the verb 'to feel'. But the aesthetician freely identifies feeling with mere designable emotion. In the actual making of art, on the other hand, the truth may simply be' that the artist feels, 'thoroughly interested in his job'.⁵ The feeling of absorption is perhaps the only feeling present in every case of creation.

¹W. Elton ed, Aesthetics and Language, Oxford, 1970, p. 2.

"cf. N.R. Ray, An Approach to Indian Art, Chandigarh.

⁵T.A. Passmore, 'The Dreariness of Aesthetics' in Aesthetics and Language, Oxford, 1970, p. 54.

O.K. Bouwsma, 'The Expression Theory of Art' in Aesthetics and Language, op. cit., p. 98.

*G. Rylo's 'Feelings' in Aesthetics and Langunges, op. cit., p. 72.

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A. Isenberg points out that an important 'function of criticism is to bring about communication at the level of the senses that is, to induce a sameness of vision, of experienced content.¹

Phenomenology has three key concepts namely *intentionality*, *constitution* and *performance* which are relevant to aesthetical views, and sometimes as a challenge to them.

Intenticuality is quite different from intention. An intention is a plan. It is fixed in the sense that one is supposed to carry it out without changing it constantly. Also it is an aiming at some future achievement. Intentionality on the contrary, is immediately involved in every moment of the mind and heart as much in just being silent as in perceiving a present object. Intentionality therefore is a constantly changing phenomenon.

Translating this to Indian music, *intentionality* implies the spontaneous improvisation or creativity of the musician, when delineating, say, on the $R\bar{a}ga$ Bihag. An imaginative musician does not faithfully follow a pre-set plan of the raga. He may have a broad based framework but what actually happens is he is lost in the details of the moment and his creation proceeds not as the musician's working out of an original plan but as a response to what the detail being made at the moment suggests or demands.

Thus the emphasis phenomenology puts on *intentionality* substantiates the important aesthetical view that a work of art is an 'emergent'—or the appearance of something which was not quite pre-planned. This also elucidates the varied styles in Indian music of different masters. This seizing of individual character may be said to be intuition. H. Bratu and I. Marculescu in their essay 'Aesthetics and Phenomenology' trenchantly support the inextricability of intuition in any creative movement by stating that 'it would be an abandonment of phenomenological axiology to give up intuition in aesthetic perception'.²

Now we come to constitution, the second concept of phenomenology. Here the term constitution does not connote the act of physical establishment as constituting a society or preparing a constitution for a country but an interpretative reading, a construing, a making out, an experiencing as. Constitution, thus under-

¹A. Isenbung, 'Critical Communication' in Aesthetics and Language, op. cit., o 137-38.

The Journal of Aesthetics and Art Criticism, Spring 1979, p. 335.

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stood, is said to go along with 'reduction' which, according to Edmund Husserl, the German philosopher, means stripping the object of all its relations and properties that make it significant in life. This would be clear through the following illustration. Take for instance the Raga Śri. The singer after singing the tonic Sa for sometime takes the komal rsabha and again descends on it through a graceful glide (mind) from pailcama. The intoning of that rsabha may cause an experience of devotion or supplication in the trained connoisseur. But the singer who is actively engaged in the art of creation does not contemplate the note or its combinations with other notes in these 'cause-effect' ways although he is quite particular and conscious of the importance of the precision of intonation. It is possible that he invests it with a devotional fervour or simply takes it in all its purity. This is quite different from aiming at making the listence experience these effects. This is what is meant by constitution and reduction.

The third concept of phenomenology is *performance*. The term *performance* is very specifically used here and can be taken to be synonymous with production, in place of creation. Whereas creation can be taken in a merely ideal sense as creative ideas, (Croce has identified creation with mere experience)—performance clearly suggests some overt doing, some actual manipulation of materials. Another protest could be that whereas the word 'creation' duly conveys the requisite sense that the making of art is necessarily the emergence of something new, the word *performance* is not thus suggestive at all. To this the answer is that *performance* is here to be taken along with *intentionality*, *constitution* and *reduction*. The last three concepts if taken as one, convey the sense that the material used is stripped of its everyday significance and is treated quite freely by the artist in his own individual way. This would clarify the preference for *performance* in place of creation.

Perf rmance is a making, a doing, an artistic production. From the view point of everyday talk the word is eminently applicable to the performing arts. But phenomenology uses it to describe all artistic making, and regarded as making or production, the word once provides for the element of actual physical manipulation of some given material in art creation, which falone could perhaps be said to be common to all cases of malling art. What is however distinctive of the phenomenological approach here is that even art contemplation is regarded as performance. And this would hardly

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Evolution of Raga and Tala in Indian Music

seem odd in the context of music where the listener is a rasika, an eligible contemplator with a truly trained sensibility and an imagination powerful enough to hold on simultaneously to quite distinct strands, such as a wayw rd movement of a rhythmic pattern, and also, if but subconsciously to the even flow of the rhythmic cycle. In any case, the onlooker (or the reader) does not simply passively watch or receive what the *performance* has to deliver. He makes a collaborative effort. 'collaborative' because he is throughout helped and guided by the work in arriving at his own reading of the work art, a 'secondary noema'. This reconstitution too is done not strictly according to a prefixed plan, but under the stress of whatever appears immediately striking in the object, partly because of the specific training and orientation of the onlooker. Here too, namely in the aesthetic attitude, *intentionality*, as against the mere intention to find this or that meaning, plays a vital part.

It should now be clear that establishing *intentionality* and *constitution on the part of both* the artist and his audience, phenomenology is able to provide for a *subjective-objective continuum*. From this it naturally follows that the criteria too for distinguishing art from pseudo-art should be such as do not relate *mcrely* to the objective or the subjective side. Thus, criteria like perspicuity and poignancy are preferable to mere shapeliness or disinterested delight. Perspicuity and poignancy seem to point to a two-way *intentionality*, coming from contemplating subject and artistic object at the same time, in a continual process of mutual verification.¹

It may be added that an *analytic approach* is by no means alien to the spirit of our music. In ancient India, not only were some of our basic musical terms defined in what may be called a not merely generally philosophical, but metaphysical manner²—and not only was the supreme aim of music frankly regarded as the emancipa-

¹J.N. Findlay, 'The Perspicuous and the Poignant in Aesthetics', edited by H. Oaborne.

*For example the terms svara and rase have been defined respectively as: स्वतो रंजयति श्रोत्चित्तम् and अखण्डस्वप्रकाणान-दचिन्मय:

.... बह्यास्वाद सहोदर:

tion of the individual¹—but, what is more, our musical texts themselves show a remarkable flair for analysis and classification, so that our concern with music could be said to have been 'philosophical' even in the current sense of the word.

A little elucidation of the Sanskrit verse on *rasānubhūti* will help to understand the Indian view points on aesthetics. The great Indian aesthetician Viśvanātha in his *Sāhityadarpaņa* (II, 2, 3) AD 1450 defines *rasānubhūti*—(aesthetic experience) as follows:

Akhandasvaprakāšānanda cinmayah; vedāntarasparšašūnyah; brahmāsvādasahodarah; lokottaracamatkāra prāņah.

The first phrase can be split up into four parts—akhanda, svaprakāša, ānandu and cinmaya. Akhanda is a total integrated and indivisible experience, not an arithmetical sum of the various elements of experience. In the words of modern psychology, it is a gestalt, svaprakāša means self-luminous. It shines by its own light. It does not require any extraneous agency. Ānanda is bliss, eestasy and cinmaya is spiritual experience.

Vedantarasparšašūnyah—in ordinary experience there is always the distinction between the knower and the known. For instance, when I say that I saw an aeroplane, the separation of subject and object is very clear. But in aesthetic experience, the consciousness of the knowledge as distinct from the known, and vice-versa, vanishes. It is an intuitive experience without any mediation Hence it is also called an *immed at*, experience. There is only a pervasive consciousness of spiritual eestasy which swallows up the distinction of the knower and the known.

Brahmāsvādasahodaraļ, refers to that which is akin to the realisation of Brahman, or the self. In the previous aspect we saw that aesthetic experience was intuitive and immediate, such an experience is obviously not possible in our normal life, were the separation of the identities of the knower and the known are inevitable. It

वीणावादन तत्प्वतः श्रुतिवातिविशारदः ¹तालक्ष्वप्रयासेन रा मोक्षमार्ग प्रगच्छति ॥ धर्मार्थकाममोक्षाणामिदमेवैकसाधनम् ॥

— Yüjnavalkyasmrti

-Śārngadeva, R.S., Adyar edn. vol., I, p. 16.

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is only at the metaphysical and spiritual level that the fusion of the knower and the known is possible. This fusion can take place in the experience of *rasa*, which has consequently been linked, to *brahmānanda* of the beatitude of the realisation of the self. It is compared to *brahmānanda*, also because the realisation of ecstasy comes after the transcendence of the limitations of egocentric impulses, where all consciousness of duality has been obliterated.

But it is only brahmānanda sahodara i.e., akin to brahmānanda. Brahmānanda itself is pure spiritual bliss (cidānanda) while the bliss of aesthetic experience has its human associations like rati.

Lokottaracamatkāraprāņaļi is lokottara or transcendental, supermundane; camatkāra means in this context a flash of delightful wonder. In other words, aesthetic experience is transcendental and above mundane experience. Viśvanātha says that this can be enjoyed only 'as one's being, as an intrinsic, indivisible aspect of one's self' (svākāravadabhinnatvena). He says that this can be relished only by those who are deeply sensitive to beauty. Not all are capable of this experience.

Having traced the aesthetic attitudes and values of both the Western and Indian thinkers, we shall now discuss in detail the practical variations in Indian musical aesthetics as described in the Sangita Ratnakara. The bewildering complexities, the staggering subtletics, profundity and numerosity of the practical variations in Indian musical aesthetics boggles the imagination especially when one realises that they were devised and in vogue in the 13th cent. AD, when the West had not even perhaps imagined anything like aesthetics in music. That is one of the reasons for the brief survey of both West and Indian aesthetics. In fact, when one studies the above text, and finds the clarity, perspicacity and depth of comprehension of the Indian aestheticians of the period, it seems that the contemporary level of aesthetics in Indian music is of a much lower standard. The amazingly high level of knowledge that a vocal musician was expected to attain in various fields like voice culture, languages, dance, theatre, and instruments is too tall an order for the modern classical musician. Apart from these, the requirement to be conversant with all the intricate melodic variations like schāyas, gamakas, kākus implied that the musician must perforce be also a first rate scholar in Sanskrit. Those were days of leisure, peace and plenty compared with the present state of hurry, restlessness and poverty. It would therefore be a revelation

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to study the high state of evolution of Indian music seven hundreds years ago in aesthetics and its practical variations.

INDIAN MUSICAL AESTHETICS AND ITS PRACTICAL VARIATIONS

In this chapter we shall discuss the practical devices used in Indian music for asethetic expression, as enjoined in the texts. The two main ingredients are gamakas and sthäyas. But apart from these, other factors that contribute towards aesthetic manifestations are:

(a) good composition,

(b) correct singing and rendering of composition.

Therefore, we shall discuss in chronological order

- (i) The qualifications of an excellent composer (utiama vaggeyakāra).
- (ii) The qualifications of an mediocre composer (madhyama väggeyakāra).
- (iii) The qualifications of a poor composer (adhama väggeyakära).
- (iv) The qualifications of a correct singer.

(v) The qualifications of an incorrect singer.

(vi) The definitions and use of the various gamakas both in Hindūstānī and Karnātaka music.¹

(vii) Sthayas or melodic phrases² and their aesthetic beauty.

The first five topics are mentioned by Sārngadeva in his S.R. in detail and hence they will be studied and discussed with reference to that work. A study of the qualifications of an excellent composer and singer as given in S.R. would give us an idea as to the incredibly exacting standards that prevailed six to seven centuries ago. It was imperative that anyone who wished to be either a

¹As enumerated and described in S.R. and S.S.s. ¹As given in S.R., S.S.s., S. Raj., S S. and C.P.

and a straight and

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composer or singer had to be adequately qualified in other allied branches of fine arts, such as poetics, dance, instrumental music, phonetics, morphology, semantics, etc.

The description of a väggeyakärd has been given by Šärágadeva in great detail. When one sees the attributes that are necessary for being adjudged as a top-ranking composer, it would not be difficult to realise that hardly any of our modern composers would measure up to the required standard of Śärágadeva's period.

The word $v\bar{a}ggeyak\bar{a}ra$ is a compound one consisting of 'v $\bar{a}k$ ' and 'geya'. 'V $\bar{a}k$ ' means speech, here it is used in the sense of words or literary text of the composition. 'Geya' is the musical or singing part of the svara-structure of the composition. 'K $\bar{a}ra'$ is the suffix denoting the doer. This term is specifically used for vocal music as instrumental music does not have either words or singing. The text of the composition is denoted by a technical term called 'm $\bar{a}tu'$ and the svara-structure by the term 'd $h\bar{a}tu'$.

The qualifications needed for a top-ranking composer are as follows:¹

- 1. He must have a sound knowledge of grammar.
- 2. He must have an extensive vocabulary.
- 3. He must be an expert on the various metres (chanda).
- 4. He must be a master of alamkāra (figure of speech).
- 5. He should be fully conversant with all the varieties of rasa and bhāva (aesthetics).
- 6. He should be a linguist, i.e., he should have a sound knowledge of several languages.
- 7. He should have a comprehensive idea of vocal and instrumental music and dance.
- 8. He should possess a scintillating voice and robust health.
- 9. He should possess sound knowledge of laya and tala.
- 10. He should possess sound knowledge of kāla, i.e., silent and sounding movement of the hands to indicate tāla.
- 11. He should have a deep knowledge of the appropriate use of all the varieties of $k\bar{a}ku$.
- 12. He should be a creative genius.
- 13. He should be a fine musician.
- 14. He should have a thorough knowledge of Deśī rāgas.
- ¹S.R., Adyar edn., vol. 11, pp. 149-51.

15. He should be free from anger and hatred.

- 16. He should be an original composer. The term used is anucchista which means not the leavings of others.
- 17. He must be characterised by interest.
- 18. There must be newness in his compositions.
- 19. He should an expert on prabandhas.
- 20. He should be capable of creating composition in fast tempo.
- 21. He should have knowledge of all three registers.
- 22. He should have knowledge of alapti.
- 23. He should be capable of great concentration.

The drawbacks of a mediocre composer (madhyama varga) are as follows:

- (1) Lack of balance between mâtu and dhâtu.
- (2) Inadequate knowledge of prabandha.
- (3) Lack of poctic quality in composition.

Drawbacks of a Poor Composer (Adhama Varga)

- 1. Poor quality of matu and dhatu.
- 2. Poor imitator i.e., one who bodily takes the tunes of others and only changes the words. He is considered worse than the poorest of composers.

Gandharvas were those:

- (a) Who could, with their music please both the Gods as well as
- (b) There were adepts in the manipulation of svara, tāla and texts.
- (c) They were singers of *Mārgī Sangīta*. But in the time of Sārngadeva, *Gāndharva* was one who could sing both *Mārgī* and *Deśī Sangīta*.

Desi Sangita had become so popular that it could not be ignored. This was one of the major developments in the evolution of our music because the emergence of Desi Sangita into prominence meant the gradual melting of the rigidity of conformity to compositional limitations. This was the beginning of the impetus to imEvolution of Raga and Tala in Indian Music

Qualities of a First Rate Vocalist¹

- 1. His music should be pleasant --hrdya.
- 2. His voice should also be pleasant sārīra.
- 3. Thorough mastery over graha and nyāsa.
- 4. Mastery of all the four angas—rāgānga, bhāsānga, kriyānga and upānga.
- 5. He should be an expert on prabandhas.
- 6. He should be a master of *alapti*.
- 7. He should possess a three register range in his voice, and be capable of using all the gamakas in them.
- 8. Complete voice control.
- 9. Good stamina.
- 10. Complete knowledge of Šuddha, Chāyālaga and Samkīrņa rāgas.
- 11. He should be a specialist in the use of kākus.
- 12. He should have a deep knowledge of raga and tala.
- 13. He should be capable of moving freely over the various sthäyās.
- 14. He should be pragmatic in his approach.
- 15. He should be pleasant in his manners.
- 16. He should possess good memory.
- 17. He should be an expert on 'nirjavana sthāya'.
- 18. He should have the capacity to captivate the hearts of listeners.
- 19. He should be an expert in the expression of a raga.
- .20. He should be fully conversant with his tradition-

Five Kinds of Performers⁹

1. One who has had excellent training and can also train well. He was called *šikşākāra*. He was both an excellent performer and a teacher.

2. The next one was called anukāra i.e., one who did not have

¹S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, pp. 153-55. ²[bid., p. 159. the originality of style and lacked the sound training of the $\dot{s}iks\bar{a}-k\bar{a}ra$ but imitated others without fully comprehending their styles. He was a good imitator.

3. The third was called *rasika*. One who was capable of producing aesthetic rapture. Here the obvious reference is to those musicians who regard emotional expression and aesthetic depth as superior to grammatical correctness, and other structural perfections. We have today examples of musician, whose music, albeit very correct and complete in all aspects of raga and tala, is yet bereft of aesthetic i.e., *rasa* and *bhāva*.

4. The fourth variety is called *rañjaka* i.e., one who delights the audience. He is pleasant to the ears but without much depth.

5. The fifth is one whose music has plenty of emotional expression. He is called *atisayādhāna* which means excellence of impression.

Faults of Singers¹

A total of twenty-five faults has been enumerated. They are not only exhaustive but very interesting and describe quite typically some of our present renowned musicians

- 1. Sandaşta-One who gnashes one's teeth while singing.
- 2. Uddhusta-loud without proper sweetness.
- 3. Sītkāri-singer without proper intonation.
- 4. Bhita-stagefright.
- 5. Sankita-diffident.
- 6. Kampita-shaking or quivering voice.
- 7. Karālī-contortions of the face.
- 8. Vikala—a singer who either overshoots or undershoots a note.
- 9. Kākī-cawing like a crow-raucous.
- 10. Vitāla-out of tāla.
- 11. Karabha-craning the neck, like a camel.
- 12. Udbhata-producing or simulating the sounds of a goat.
- 13. Jhombaka—one while singing protrudes the various nerves of the neck, mouth and forehead.
- 14. Tumbaki-one whose neck swells like a tumba.
- 15. Vakri-one who twists one's neck.

'S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, pp. 156-59.

- 16. Prasari-one who abnormally stretches one's body.
- 17. Nimilaka-one who closes one's eyes while singing.
- 18. Virasa-without rasa.
- 19. Apasrara-one who takes wrong notes.
- 20. Avyakta-indistinct expression.
- 21. Sthanabhrasta-one who is unable to traverse all the registers.
- 22. Avyavasthita-one who shifts wrongly from register to register.
- 23. Miśraka-one who mixes the rågas and hence incapable of singing a råga purely.
- 24. Anavadhāna—inattentive—one who is not conscious of the proper melodic arrangements.
- 25. Sānunāsika-one in whose music, there is prominent nasality.

GAMAKAS

Now we shall take up the gamakas of Indian music. These could be termed as aesthetic graces but it is very succinctly defined in Sangīta Samayasāra.¹ The definition in the Sangīta Ratnākara is not very clear.² It merely states that the change in the svara is gamaka which is pleasing to the listener, whereas the definition of S.S. is very specific. It states that a gamaka takes place when the oscillation of a svara, starting from its own śruti, moves to take the support of another śruti of a neighbouring svara. This movement between the śrutis of two svaras is significant because it correctly connotes the term gamaka which is from the Sanskrit root 'gam' which means to move. Gamaka literally means conveyor, or one who guides.

When the actual function of the gamaka as it operates in practical music is analysed, it becomes clear that it is a dynamic energy which moves between two svaras illuminating the intervals between them. It is because of this that gamaka is considered the soul of Indian music. It is like the incandescence to the lamp. Without it the svara will be like a lifeless body. It will be seen that the role

¹Svaśrutisthânasambhūtām chāyām śrutyantarāśrayām. Svaro yad gamayed gite gamakosouniupitah. S.S., Trivandrum edn., 1925, p. 6.

⁴Svarasya kampo gamakah Śrotrcittasukhāvabah. S.R., 1959, Adyar edn., vol. 11, p. 169.

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of gamaka in manifesting the essence of a raga is very significant. For instance in elaborating ragar like DarbarI Kanada and Adana, apart from the difference of the former being purvangavadi and the latter uttarangavadi and different ar_0ha , the aesthetic distinction is in the gamaka of the gandhara, dhaivata and nisāda. Similarly the gamaka of the rsabha of Bhairava is different from that of Todi and Komala Rsabha Āsāveri. The gandhara of Nayaki Kanadā is different from that Sūhā, Sūgharāī, Kāfi Kānadā and other varieties of Kānadā. The komal gāndhāra of Miān Malhār is different from that of the gandhāra of Kānadā. The komal gāndhāra of Miān-ki Todī, is again different from that of Kānadā and Malhār and also Multānī, Kāfī and Bhairavī. These distinctions which are extremely subtle are possible only through the thorough understanding of the significance of the gamakas and the precise appropriate use of them.

The total number of gamakas enumerated by Šārngadeva is fifteen. They are tiripa, sphurita, kampita, līna, āndolita, vali, tribhinna, kurula, āhata, ullasita, plāvita, gumphita, mudrita, namita and miśrita.

In the S.S., Parśvadeva has mentioned only seven varities of gamakas. They are sphurita, kampi'a, līna, tiripa, āhata, āndolita and tribhinna.

Even in the definition and description of the gamakas by Sarngadeva, although his use of rhythmic measures as basis for them, is indeed remarkable, the forms of the gamakas, are not very clear. To express the contours of the notes through laya end tāla units is unique indeed but the definitions suffer from lack of melodic precision. It seems that Sārngadeva has made druta the unit of measurement.

Whereas Parsvadeva has defined the gamakas from the standpoint of svara-structure and therefore one gets a better idea of them.

Let us take first the gamakas defined by Sarngadeva:

1. Tiripa

This is defined as a lovely quivering like a very slight stroke on $damar\vec{u}$ lasting only a quarter of a quaver or druta, i.e., one-eighth of a mātrā is known as tiripa.¹

¹Tasya bhedastu tiripab, S R., Adyar edn., vol. II, p. 169.

As already explained, the above definition is not easy to comprehend because it has not been defined in terms of *svaras*. The quivering of a slight stroke on the *damarü* is understandable but in respect of the *tiripa gamaka*, the *svara*-pattern is not given.

Whereas the definition of *tiripa* as given by Pärśvadeva is as follows:

When intervals quickly move round like a whirl this the connoisseur of music knows as *tiripa*.¹

Even here, the definition is not every explicit but the description that the gamaka moves like a whirl gives one the impression that the note-pattern of *tiripa* may be like this:

ni sa re sa, sa re ga re, re ga ma ga, etc.

2. Sphurita

The speed of sphurita is one-third of a quaver, i.e., one-sixth of a matra.

Here again the gamaka is defined purely in terms of temporal units; hence its svare-form is difficult to visualise.

But in S.S., the definition is as follows:

When intervals throb upwards at the speed of a semiquaver, i.e., one-fourth of a $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$, the wise call this sphurita.²

From the above definition the shape of the gamaka will be in terms of svara-patterns like this:

Ni sa re ga sa re ga ma, re ga ma pa, etc.

where the time-until of these groups of notes would be one-fourth of a $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$. It will be seen that the term gamaka has not been used in the sense of a shake of the note but in the sense of ornamentation consisting of several notes but forming a fixed pattern. This is a very significant fact because at present gamaka generally denotes a heavy shake of the note.

¹Śrutayo yatra vegena bhramantyāvarta rūpavat,

Tamāhustiripam nāmnā gamakam gitavedinaķ.

-S.S., Trivandrum edn., 1925, pp. 5, 52

^aĀrohikramāto yatra sphuranti śrutayah kramāt, Anudrutavegena tamāhuh sphuritam budhāh.

-- Ibid., 1.4-49

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3 Kampita Śārngadeva's definition is as follows:

The kampita gamaka lasts a semi-quaver, i.e., one-fourth of a mäträ.¹

Whereas the definition as given by Parśvadeva is as follows:

A shake of the note at twice the speed of a quaver (one-fourth of a $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$) is known a kampita.²

Śārńgadeva by merely defining that *kampita* lasts a semi-quaver does not help in giving an idea of the pattern of ornamentation.

Pärśvadeva on the contrary, although using the temporal reference gives a better idea of kampita could be. From his definition, it appears that kampita gamaka is a shake of a single note. For example, the shake of the gāndhāra of Darbārī, Nāyakī or Sūha Kānadā. It is usually of the speed of one-fourth of a mātrā provided the tempo is slow.

4. Lina

"The speed of a *lina* is that of a quaver, i.e., half a *mātrā*"³ says Šārngadeva.

Pārśvadeva states when a note at the speed of a quaver softly melts into another neighbouring note, this is called *lina*.⁴

Again Śārngadeva's definition is unintelligible but Pārśvadeva's difinition is clearer musically. For example the studied beautiful merging of *nişāda* into *şadja* in the *Rāga Bihāg* or *madhyama* into *pañcama* in the *Rāga Multāni* is a *līna gamaka*. This is very aes-

¹Drutårdhamånavegena kampitam gamakum viduh. S.R., Adyar edn., vol. 11, 169.91.

⁸Svarakampo bhaved yatra drutadvigunavegatab, Kampito nama gamakah sa vijñeyo mani<u>sibhih</u>.

-S.S., Trivandrum edn., 1925, I-5-51.

^aLinastu drutavegena. S.R., Adyar cdn., vol. 11; 169.91. ⁴Drutamānena mašīņah svaro yatra viliyate. Svarāntarakrameņaiva sa bhaveilīnasamjnakab.

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-Ibid,.

thetic usage of a note and quite often used by musicians with a sense of beauty. It was once a characteristic gamaka of the Kiränä Gharänä, but today it is used by others also.

5. Andolisa

Sārngadeva's definition is that *āndolita* lasts one crotchet or one $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$.¹

Pārśvadeva states, "When there is a rocking of the notes lasting one crotchet or *mātrā*, this graçe is spoken of as *āndola* by connoisseurs of music."²

The latter definition indicates that the oscillation of the note under *āndolita* is quite vigorous and for a much longer duration in comparison with the *kampita gamaka*. This is similar to the modern concept of the generic term gamaka. For instance, any note of a räga, namely, *nisāda* or *dhaivata* or *madhyama* of the *Rāga Yaman* could continuously be shaken for a full one *mātrā* to produce the *āndolita*.

6. Vali: Śārngadeva's Definition

Producing the $ch\bar{a}_{j}\bar{a}$ of two or three notes from the svarasthāna by deflecting the string in a circling manne: is known a vali.³

Pārśvadeva does not mention this gamaka.

For one thing, this gamaka was meant specially for the instrument, namely, the $v\bar{v}n\bar{a}$. This could be conceived as the oscillation ni-pa or sa-pa in $N\bar{a}yak\bar{i}$ or Suhā Kānadā. This could be as well produced by vocal musicians.

7. Tribhinna

Sarngadeva's definition is as follows:

Tribhinna is a compact ornament running at one stroke

¹Åndolito laghuvegatah. S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, 169-91.
 ¹Åndolanam bhaved yatra svarānām laghumānatah,
 Ändolitākhyam gamakam gitajñāstam pracaksate.

--S.S., Trivandrum edn., 1925, I-5-54. Valirvividhavakratvayuktavegavašādbhavet. S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, 169.92. Survey of Musical Aesthetics: Western and Eastern

through three notes without any pause.¹

Pārśvadeva's definition is as follows:

A grace that touches three distinct points and amalgamates the qualities of all the three turning round the notes in a single flow is traditionally known as *tribhinna*.²

Both the definitions indicate that this gamaka must be an instrumental one. For one thing the human voice cannot phonate three distinct points simultaneously. Another interesting implication is that this must be the closest resemblance to the Westren triadmajor or minor. It could also be three sounds distinct on three different strings. For example on the same string, it could be sā-ga-pa; re-ma-dha; ga-pa-ni, etc. But if taken on three different strings, madhyama, sadja and pañcama strings it would be either pa-re-dha or dha-ga-ni.

8. Kurula

Definition of this gamaka is given only by Sarngadeva as follows:

Kurula is like vali but performed softly with a contracted throat.³

It is not quite clear why the throat should be contracted to produce this gamaka, if it is similar to vali. It is the same ni-pa or sa-pa circular motion gamaka touching two or three notes in the course of the oscillation from ni to pa and backwards or sa to pa and backwards.

9. Ahata

According to Sārngadeva, striking the next or neighbouring note

¹Tribhinnastu trişu sthäncşvaviśrāntaghanasvarah. S.R., Adyar edn., voi. II, 169.92.

*Sthänkatrayasamsparśī tattātsthāna guņairyutaķ,

Aviśranta svaropetaśtribhinnagamakah smrtah.

-S.S., Trivandrum edn., 1925; 1-5-55. ³Kurulo valireva sejād granthilah kanjhya komalah. S.R., Adyar edn., vol. 11, 159.93.

and coming back is known as ähata.¹

This gamaka is quite commonly used even today. In fact, it is one of those gamakas which cannot be avoided. This occurs in singing most of the ragas. It is a grace that is common to both vocal and instrumental music. For example pa-dhapa, dhapa, dhapa, ma-pama, pama, pama or ga-rega, rega, rega, ni-dhani, dhani, dhani, etc.

Also this gamaka is as prevalent in both Hindustāni and Karnātak music.

Parsvadeva defines this as follows:

When a note beautifully manifests itself by delicately touching the neighbouring with ascending order, it is called *ähata*.²

The definition of Pārtvadeva is almost the same as of $S\bar{a}rnga$ deva; the only difference is that the latter specifies the soft touching of the neighbouring ought to be in the ascent, the note contacted should be higher than the original one.

10. Ullāsita

"This is produced by gliding over the intermediate notes,"^a according to Sārngadeva. Pārśvadeva has not mentioned this gamaka.

This gamaka is the same as the modern ghasit and is very commonly used in Hindüstäni music but hardly in Karnātak music. This is a fast glide usually in the descent but it could also be in the ascent. The Muslim musicians call it *avarohi* and *ārohi ghasit*.

11. Plāvita

Sarngadeva's definition is when the shake lasts three crotchets or three matras which is one pluta, then it is called plavita.⁴

¹Svaramagrimamībatya nivīttastvāhato matah. S.R., Adyar edn., vol. 11, 159.93.

*Svarah pravartato yatra samähatyagraham svaram. Ārohikramatah so'yomābatah parikirtitah

-S.S., Trivandrum edn., 1925, I-5-53

⁸Ullåsitah sa tu prokto yah svaranuttarottarän. S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, 169.94.

⁴Karamädgachet plävitastu plutaminena kampanam. S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II, 169.94.

The definition is rather vague because the nature of the shake is not specified, Whether it involves one or more notes or whether it is a jump from one to another, is not clear. *Plāvita* is from the Sanskrit root *plu* which means to jump. So it appears to commonsense that this *gamaka* must be akin to the modern *mind*. The only difficulty is this term *mind* is used now-a-days as a synonym for *gamaka* that it has lost all its specific connotation. Nevertheless, *plāvita* indicates a sudden quick hopping from one note to another. For example, sa-pa, re-dha, ga-sa or ni-ma, pa-re, ga-dha, etc. In this jump from note to note, there is no gliding over the intermediate notes but one jumps from the starting notes to the note to be taken.

12. Gumphita

"It is a deep aspirate descending into the chest,"¹ according to Sārngadeva. Pārsvadeva does not mention this gamaka.

This is an extremely difficult gamaka as the musician has to use a lot of energy in producing this aspirate. The svara thus produced would be heavy and phonated from the chest, my guruji Thakur Jaideva Singh says that the late Pt. Vișnu Digambar Paluskar was a master of this gamaka.

13. Mudrita

Sārngadeva defines this as that gamaka when a note is produced with the mouth closed.² Mudrita is therefore commonly used in both Hindūstant and Karnāţaka music.

14. Nâmita

Nāmita is a grace in which the notes come down to a lower pitch as if bowing says Sārngadeva.³ Musically this could be expressed in the phrase pa ni-pa, the glide from pa being swift toni and pausing there and gliding gently and slowly in to pa thus stimulating the act of bowing.

¹Hīdayangamahunkāragarbhito humphito bhavet. S.R., Adyar edn., vol. II. 169.94.

⁹Mukha mudrana sambhūta mudrito gamako matah. Ibid., 170.95. ³Svarāņām namanādukto nāmitod havanivedibhih. 1bid., 170.96.

15. Miśrita

As the word itself indicates, this gamaka is a mixture of one or more gamakas.¹

Thus Śārngadeva has described fifteen varieties of gamakas. But it is interesting to see that most of them are meant for vocal music. The only instrumental graces are *tribhinna* and *vali*.

Of these fifteen gamakas some are used more in Hindustānī and some in Karnāţaka music. For instance, ullasita, plāvita, līna, mudrita, āndolita are used more in Karnāţak music. Āhata, kurula, nāmita are used equally in both the musics.

Having studied the various gamakas, we shall now take up the sthāyas. They are translated differently by different scholars as melodic patterns, musical figures, etc., but I feel the best interpretation of the term in English is aesthetic phrases or idioms. These idioms helped a great deal in the aesthetic delineation of the raga. They contributed towards a clear manifestation of the ethos of the rågas and therefore were considered an essential and integral part of the musical rendition. The exhaustive and intricate detail into which the musicians and musicologists went into defining the varieties of sthayas, would give an idea of the highly developed sense of aesthetics in music over five centuries ago. It was impossible for an illiterate or semi-literate person, as is very often the case today, at least, in Hindustani music, to be a singer or an instrumentalist. The sthayas are basically meant for vocal music and incidentally would illustrate the predominant importance of vocal music over instrumental music. Knowledge of Sanskrit was very necessary in those and the musician was fully conscious of the subtle nuances. graces, and other aesthetic manipulations that are possible in the elaboration of a raga and he employed them with full knowledge of their scope and impact.

The word sthāya is also used as thāya by some scholars. Thāya may be result of popular usage of the word sthāya and hence a pointer as to the extent to which sthāya-s were in vogue in practical music. Sthāyas are similar to gamakas, but more comprehensive. Generally when a note extends itself, it could be called a gamaka but a sthāya has other attributes. It is (i) sthāna, (ii)

'Eteşâm miśranān miśrastasya syurbhūrayo bhidah, Teşâm tu sthāyāvāgeşu vivītih samvidhāsyate.

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gamaka, (iii) tānaka, and (iv) māna. Before we discuss this, let us look at the historical development of sthāya as depicted in the various texts.

S.R. is the first text that gives a detailed description of the sthāyas. S.S. of Pärśvadeva also gives a number of sthāyas but the significant point worthy of note is the colloqual names of several sthāyas that are mentioned in it. This is almost a contemporary work of S.R., and the existence of colloquial names of the sthāyas is a clear indication that the sthāyas were very much in vogue and in practical use and in the knowledge of musicians in the 12th and 13th centuries AD.

- 1. Apart from the above, two works, the other works that deal with this topic in detail, reproducing the text of S.R., are S. $R\bar{a}ia$, S.S.¹ and S.S.a.²
- 2. There are other texts that give partial treatment like Puŋdarīka Viţļhala's Sadrāgacandrodaya. It mentions only seven sthāyas.
- 3. There are texts which have omitted sthāyas completely but deal with gamakas either fully or partially. They are Nānyadeva's Bharata Bhāşya, Rāmāmātya's Svaramelakalānidhi, Šubhankara's Sangīta Dāmodara, Śrīkaniha's Rasakaumudī, Pandita Dāmodra Miśra's Sangīta Darpuņa, Ahobala's Sangīta Pārijāta and Śrīnivāsa's Rāgatatva Vibodha.
- 4. Somanātha in his work Rāgavibodha deals partially with sthāyas calling them vādanabhedas. In his fifth viveka (chapter), in his commentary on the 14th introductory verse, he states that although there are infinite number of varieties of tonal ornamentations possible on the vīņā (vādana), he would be dealing with only twenty of them which are most popular in Deśī Sangīta. He calls them both gamakas and sthāyas.
- 5. Pt. Venkatamakhi, in his C.P.³ has devoted the seventh prakarana consisting of seven verses⁴ to thāya and defines it as the shift of the sthāya-svara in a rāga, i.e. to substitute the sthāyasvara for other notes of the rāga and therefore move out from

Sangita Sudhā by Raghunātha Bhūpa.
Sangita Sārānışta of Tulajādhipa.
Caturdaņdī Prakāšikā of Paņdita Veňkajamakhi.
Madras Music Academy edn.

the original sthāya-svara. It was a kind of Mūrchanā-bheda and distinct from ālāpa. Rāmāmātya also mentions in his Rāga Prakaraņa, verse 16, thāya along with ālāpa and prabandha.

In Kirtanasägaram, pt. II, P. Sambamurthy réfers to thäya as a very useful device for elaborating a råga. He states that thåyas were composed melodic figures not in täla but used in the äläpana of a räga with syllables like ta ra nom tom, etc. But this äläpa is improvised. It may be that the composed thäyas were used in the improvised äläpana.

An illustration of this is given by him from a *MS* from the Sarasvati Mahal Library, Tanjavur.¹ He cites *Rāga Nādanāmakriyā*. P. Sambamurthy also states that that is completely out of use today.

We therefore find that-

- 1. Apart from S.R. no other work has treated sthäyas in a comprehensive manner.
- 2. That except for Parśvadeva, none else uses the Deśi names for the sthāyas.
- 3. That authors of the South only in the 15th cen. AD and later, have dealt with this topic, using the term thaya and in the
- . sense of sthäya-svara which have been referred to by Pärśvadeva under Anyarägakäku in his work S.S.
- 4. The concept of *sthāya* is now completely out of vogue, both in the North and in the South.

Now let us consider *sthāya* as it is defined in the texts and its scope in the musical rendering.

In S.R., sthāya is defined as 'Rāgasyavāyvah sthāyo vāgo gamaka ucyate' (II, III, 97), which means that sthāya is a component of a rāga. Premlata Sharma, in her paper cited earlier (p. 31), states that this definition refers to two implications of the term rāga, namely, its general sense of pleasing or charming (raājakatva) and the technical sense of a specific melodic arrangement. She states that "this means that sthāya comprises an analysis of the elements of raā jakata in music and delineating of rāga."

¹'The Concept of Sthåya' by Premiata Sharma, Indian Music Journal, 1966, p. 30.

Pārśvadeva's definition of sthāya is more explicit and comprehensive.

Yo yatā cālinah sthāyastam tathaiva nivešayet. Vicitrasya tu gitasya yataucityopavešanam. Sthāyā vidheyā na tu saikarūpā bahuprakārairvikŗtā vibhāti, Vicitrarūpo'pi mayūrakaņļho jagajjanaprītikaro yathā sah.

-(S.S.s. 2, 32-33)

Evamuktasthäyäšabdena kimabhidhiyate? Gatyä gamakayogena rägenänyena kena vä. Svarairvrttih svaravrttisihäya ityabhidhiyate. (34)

Sthäyänäm karananyahuscatvari sthänatanake, Gamako mänameyetesäm laksanänyabhidadhmahe. (35)

Tatra sthäyyädivarņānāmāśrah svaramaņdalah, Sthānamityucyate tasminnudāharaņamucyate. (36)

... Tāno (ānāma) rāgāpekşayā ...

Sthānamityucyate tajjnaih svaro yo gamakāśrayah,

... gamakāķ kampitādayaķ,

Svädutvänugunā bhavanti (hi) yathā šoke rasāh sat ca te, Rāgavyaktyänukūlakā hi gamakā rāge'pi sancāriņah, Tanmātrāparimānameva sutarām mānam vadantyādarāt, Sangitakarakarņadhārapadavīmādhaukamānāh param. (37)

In the above definition, the term *svara-vrtti* is very important. *Vrtti* is a generic term in Sanskrit and has several shades of connotation. For example,

(a) Sabda-vrtti means the power of words in yielding meaning.

(b) Nātya-vrtti is four styles of drama.

(c) Anuprāsa-vŗtti of five kinds consisting of repetition of rhyming consonants or syllables.

V_ftti generally connotes action, operation. movement and a particular state. Therefore, svara-v_ftti means a comprehensive rendering of svara, embracing all aspects of it. Pārśvadeva mentions four karanas or kinds of operation of sthāya which have

already been referred to. They are:

(i) Sthāna—or basic 'svara-maņdala' of a rāga which is āśraya or base or substratum of the four varņas.

(ii) Täna—a svara or a group of svaras in a rāga used with gamaka. But the term tāna here denotes a kind of ālāpa or particular melodic patterns peculiar to various rāgas. While gamaka is a generic term for all varieties of shakes of svaras and specific patterns, tāna as defined by Pārśvadeva is distinct from gamaka as the former relates to individual rāgas.

(iii) Gamaka-varieties of gamakas like kampita, sphurita, ändolita, etc.

(iv) Māna—mātrāparimāņa or temporal regulation or measurement.

Thus sthaya is distinct from gamakas as it takes all the above four ingredients in which gamaka also is included.

Now we shall take up the classification of sthäyas.

Classification of Sthayas

S.R. has enumerated ninetysix varieties of *sthāyas* and S.S. nearly ninety. But the names in the two texts are different because in the latter, Pārśvadeva has used *Deśi* names for a number of *sthāyas*.

S.R. has classified the *sthāyas* as per their being *prasiddha* (wellknown) and *asamkīrņa* or distinct. He has also given *aprasiddha* and *samkīrņa sthāyas*, i.e., obscure and indistinct respectively.

The classification of the *sthāyas* given below analyses the basic elements comprising the different *sthāyas*. For the definitions of the *sthāya*-varieties a separate glošsary is given at the end which may be consulted.

(i) Based on the order or sequence of svaras: Seven varieties, i.e., sabda, svaralanghita, prerita, ullāsita, sthāyuka, cāli (bhangiviseşa), vakra.

(ii) Comprising various analogies for the movement or arrangement of svaras: Twelve varieties, i.e., dhāla, sthāpanā, gati, kaņdāraņā, lulita, tarangita, pralambita, nihsrta, pratigrāhyollāsita, bhrāmita, ghaţanā, baddha.

(iii) Based on the volume or intensity of tones: Ten varieties, viz., lavanī, bhrta, upašama, nirjavana, komala, sūkşmānta, prakrtisthašabda, kalā, ākramaņa, ghanatva. (iv) Relating to kampa or shake of notes: Five varieties, i.e., vahanī and its varieties khuttā and utphulla, ghosa, vaha, dīrgha-kampita, sthira.

(v) Referring to svara (interval or characteristic) features of rāgas: Seven varieties, i.e., svarakāku, rāgakāku, anyarāgakāku, amša, jīvasvara, rāgesta, apasvarābhāsa.

(vi) Relation to sthäna (mandra, madhya and tāra): Eleven varieties, i.e., tīksņa, svara, avaskhalita, troțita, sampravista, utpravista, troțitapravista, kșipta, samhita, dīptaprasanna and prasonnamțdu.

(vii) Referring to laya or tempo: Four varieties, i.e., druta, sama, alambavilambaka and pluta.

(viii) Based on slackness (šithilatā) or gādhatā of musical rendering: Eight varieties, i.e., gādha, lalitagādha, šithila, laghu, guru, hrasva, šithilagādha and dīrgha.

(ix) Referring to the aesthetic appeal of svaras: Nine varieties, i.e., bhajana, nāda, chavi, ravita, karunā, cokşa, snigdha, sukha and kalarava.

(x) Referring to musical instruments: Two varietics, i.e., vädyasabda and yantraja.

(xi) Referțing to timbrc: Two varieties, i.e.; kşetrakāku and yantrakāku.

(xii) Miscellancous: Twenty-four varieties, i.e., dešakāku, dhvani, avadhāna, apasthāna, vicitrā, gātra, lalita, prasţta, ucita, sudešika, apekşita, akşarādambara, prasţtākuñcita, vedadhvani, avaghaţa, chāndasa, sukurābhāsa, antara, asādhāraņa, sādhāraṇa, nirādhāra, duşkarābhāsa, nikriti and miśra.

The above classification would give an idea as to the exhaustive analysis that was done of musical aesthetics on the practical side.

Origin, Development and Decline of the Concept of Sthaya

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When we study the origin of *sthāya*, one feels that it has not sprung up all of a sudden in the 12th-13th cent. AD, but has evolved from other aesthetic devices prevalent several centuries earlier. After all *sthāyas* were *aesthetic idioms* calculated to bolster up the ethos of the *rāga* and help manifest its characteristic features. Similarly in the time of Bharata, there were two musical devices, viz., *alamkāras* and *dhātus*—the former meant for vocalists and the latter for instruments especially the *vīnā*. The former consisted of various *svara*-patterns and the latter, the technique of the plectrum (*mizrāb*), i.e., the technique of producing a particular through a particular kind of stroke. Alamkāra means ornamentation, embellishment and $dh\bar{a}tu$ is from the Sanskrit root $dh\bar{a}$ which means 'to hold together' or the constitutent factors that keep a thing in its integral form. This is $dh\bar{a}tu$ in its generic sense. In the musical context, it means those factors that help sustain the integrity of the musical forms and the particular quality or peculiarity of the instrument (vīnd).

Matanga also has dealt in detail with alamkāras. Now sthāyas appear definitely as evolutes of alamkāras. A few illustrations given below would elucidate this point.

(i) The seven alamkäras of Bharata, classified under sthäyi varta (prasannädi, prasannänta, prasannädyanta, etc.) could be the basis of the sthäyas under category (vi) mentioned above, if they are taken to stand for the rendering in the three sthänas—mandra, madhya and tāra or category (iii) above, if the above alamkāras are taken to mean volume and intensity of tone, as has been done by some scholars.

(ii) Bharata's alamkāra 'bindu' is identical with sthāya troțita.

(iii) The sthāya 'svaralanghita' refers to the langhana of notes. Several of Bharata's alamkāras are formed through langhana or omission of notes. For example, parivartaka, niškotita, āvartaka, sampradāna, hasita, etc.

(iv) The karanas and dhātus mentioned for instrumental music (vina-playing) by Bharata, are broadly based on (a) laghu-guru strokes, (b) intensity of the various notes depending on the force of the strokes, and (c) scheme of mandra-tāra. All these three features are found fully represented in the sthāyas classified above. Also six out of the ten varieties of bahirgīla or suskavādya (purely instrumental music) specify different combinations of laghu-guru in a tāla. Sthāyas under categories (vii) and (viii) above contain this feature.

(v) The evolution of the sthāyas based on šithilatā and gādhatā could be traced to the gītis of Bharata, i.e., māgadhī, ardhamāgadhi, prthulā and sambhāvitā which were in turn based on the permutations of short and long syllables.

(vi) The qualities of the human voice (kanthaguna) referred to by Bharata have their parallels in the sthäyas relating to snigdhata, ghanatva and nāda etc.

(vii) The kampita alamkara could also be said to be the basis of gamaka as were kampa, gamaka and some other sthāyas.

The above illustrations would make it clear that the *sthāya* evolved through the thorough understanding and critical analysis of the various ingredients that contributed to variety of tonality in musical rendition. For example, *gamaka* which evolved out of *kamapa* meaning shake or tremor, developed independently with fifteen varieties and also contributed in the formation of *sthāya* varieties.

S.R. treats sthāya and its concept in a fully developed form. It does not gibtheve istory or evolution of this concept but strangely, this very highly developed aesthetics concept is not to be found in any of the texts after S.R., thereby giving the impression that the use of sthāya in practical music, must have gone out of vogue completely. Such of those texts of post S.R. period, which deal with sthāya, seem to have done so, only to maintain the continuity of the Sastraic tradition and not as useful devices for practical rendering of music.

In the post S.R. period, the decline of the concept of sthäya was complete. One of the reason could have been the advent of the Muslim culture and its general intolerance of Hindu culture especially the difficult language, Sanskrit. We find many of the meaningful terms in music in Sanskrit being substituted by colloquial words especially in Hindustani music. For example, words like mind, ghasita, murki, lägha, dänta, etc.

In Karnātaka music, there appears to be a modification in the comprehension of some of the *sthāyas*. For instance, Pt. Venkatamakhin in his C P. (1, 124-25), refers to *dola* corresponding to the *sthāya*, *dhāla*, under *sphurita-gamaka*. This indicates that *sthāya* began to be construed as synonymous with *gamakas*.

Karnāţaka music today has accepted ten varieties of gamakas (dafavidha gamakas) and its definition of ullasitam gamaka is at variance with that given in S.R. and corresponds to the sthāya svaralanghita. S.R. defines ullasita as gamaka in āroha (ascent)⁴ but Karnāţaka music mentions both āroha and avaroha ullasitam. In fact the use of the word jāru means more a glide than a shake. Hence the āroha ullasita is called etra-jāsu and avaroha ullasita irakka jāru. Etra in Tamil means up or above and irakka means to bring down. In Hindūstānī music also, the ārohi-avarohi mīnd corresponds to the above. This shows that the original connotations underwent changes both in Hindūstānī and Karnāţaka

¹S.R., Adyar edn., 1959, vol. II, p. 171 (S's commentary).

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music and the terms of *sthāya*-varieties went completely out of usage.

The Significance and Value of Sthäya in Indian Music

The concept of $sth\bar{a}ya$ is perhaps a unique feature not only in Indian music but in the music of the entire world. Nowhere in the world, at any time, was there, this idea of $sth\bar{a}ya$ for melodic rendition. The concept of $sth\bar{a}ya$ and the exhaustive varieties of $sth\bar{a}ya$ that were created, indicates how thorough and critical, were the exploration and analysis of the possibilities of tonal ornamentations or embellishments.

But a little explanation regarding the term sthāya seems necessary. While the English word ornamentation or embellishment implies mere external decoration or beautification of something which is originally otherwise, sthāya essentially implies an inherent, innate state with no duality of inward and outward states. Therefore, in music, the tone when beautified by an alamkāra or sthāya becomes an indivisible integral tone, inseparable from its embellishment. "It is a natural grace just like a smile or a bright look in a human being." Bharata's verse, in this connection, will illustrate this point:

Śaśinā rahiteva niśā vijaleva nadl latā vipuspeva, Analaksyate ca nārī gitiralamkārahinā syāt.

Whether it be ornamentation of *svaras* which implies intrinsic graces (*laksana* in poetics) or art decoration (*alamkāra* in poetics), the term *sthāya* embraces both. The discontinuance of the usage of this "invaluable terminology" from our musical parlance is indeed deplorable as it implies loss of the Śāstraic analysis of the formal and aesthetic aspects of tonal rendering. But the cessation of the usage of this terminology does not necessarily imply the cessation of the practical operations of it in actual musical renderings; but its falling into disuse is certainly "a loss of the scientific and analytical outlook towards elements of musical variety and a conscious use thereof."

The post-independence era has seen a fruitful and creative resuscitation of many branches of our fine arts; the pre-independent state of having mostly illiterate or semi-illiterate musicians, is also practically obliterated; the musicians of the last two decades are well educated and hence can, with a little additional study and effort, learn the Sästraic background of the practical exposition of formal and aesthetic aspects of musical rendition. It is therefore desirable and necessary for the "revival of the concept and terminology of sthäya in both Hindustäni and Karnätaka music."

A GLOSSARY OF STHĂYAS

The ninety-six sthāya dealt with in Sangīta Ratnākara under four headings are being taken up seriatim. The lakşaņas found in S.R. (III, 99-188) have been supplemented wherever necessary with those from Pārśvadeva's Sangīta Samayasāra (11, 38-128), Raghunātha Bhūpa's Sangīta Sudhā (111, 165-286) and commentaries on S.R. by Simhabhūpāla and Kāllinātha.

The following is an alphabetical list of *sthdyas*² which will be useful for reference. The first number in each case refers to the heading and the second to the serial number, falling under a particular heading.

Amśa	•••	П	10
Akşarādambara		Ш	2
Antara	•••	IV	21
Anyaragakāku (chaya)		I	7
Apasthāna	•••	Π	12
Apasvarabhāsa	•••	IV	14
Apeksita	•••	II	31
Alambavilambaka		Ш	14
Avaghata	•••	IV	11
Avadhāna	•••	П	11
Avaskhalita	•••	Щ	6
Asādhāraņa	•••	IV	29
Akramana	•••	IV	3
Ucita	•••	II	29
Utpravista		Ш	9
Utphulla (vahanī)	•••	I	4

¹This is reproduced from Premlata Sharma's article in *Indian Music Journal*, July, 1966, pp. 33-41.

"The alphabetical list is according to the Devanägart.

Upaśama	II 17		Deśakāku (chāyā)	I 7
Ullâsita	III 3	i i	Druta	II 8
			Dhvani	Щ 5
Karuņā	II 14			
Kalarava	IV 16		Näda	II 4
Kalā	IV 2	r r	Nibsrta	III 10
Kāku (chāyā <u>)</u>	I 7	1	Nikŗti	II 13
Kāņdāraņā	11 18	;	Nirādhāra	IV 31
Komala ·	11 25	ń	Nirjavana	II 19
Kşipta (kşipra)	III 19	h i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i		•
Kşetrakāku (chāyā)	I 7	ſ	Prak ŗtisthaśabda	IV 1
Khuttā (vahani)	r 4	ų.	Pratigrāhyollāsita	III 13
		k	Pralambita	III 5
Gati	11 3		Prasannamrdu	IV 24
Gādha	II 20		Prasta	IV 26
Gâtra	II 16		Pras ŗţākuñcita	III 16
Guru	IV 25		Prerita	I 9
Ghatanā	IV 4	· P	Pluta	IV 12.
Ghanatva	IV 9	ľ.		
Ghoșa	11 32		Baddha	IV 15
	•		Bhajana	II 1
Cāli (jakkā)	IV 6		Bhrta	11 9
Cokşa	II 28	E	Bhrāmita	111 11
Chavi	II 6			
Chândasa	IV 17	r.	Miśra	IV 23
Chāyā	I [·] 7			••• ••
Cilleja	· •		Yantrakāku (chāyā)	I 7••
Jakkā (cāli)	IV 6		Yantraja	I 6
Jivasvara	IV 7			
Dhāla	I 2		Rakti	II 7
Циана			Rägakäku (chāyā)	1 7
Tarangita	III 4		Rāgesta	737 13
Tikşņa	I 10		7/28-41 4	17 13
Troțita	III 7		Laghu	111 00
Trotitapravisța	III 15		-	IV 20
Tournhim	· · · ·		Lalita	II 22
Diptaprasanna	IV 23		Lalitagädha	II 21
Dirgha	IV 28		Lavani	I 3
Dirghakampita	III 12		Lulita	II · 23 ·
Duşkarābhāsa	IV 32			
és RÂUTER I A FINGIO			Vakra	IV 22
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Vaha	•••	ш	1
Vahani	•••	Ι	4
Vādyaśabda		.1	5
Vividhatä		п	15
Vedadhvani	•••	IV	ß
Śabda	•••	I	1
Śithila	•••	IV.	.10
Śithilagādha	•••	IV	27
Sampravișța	•••	ш	8
Samhita	•••	I۷	19
Sama	•••	П	24
Sālambita	•••	Ш	5
Sädharana	•••	IV	30
Sükuräbhäsa	•••	IV	18
Sukha		IV	5
Sudeśika		П	30
Sükşmänta	•••	III	20
Sthāpanā	***	II	2
Sthäyuka	•••	III	18
Sthira		Ш	17
Snigdha		· II	27
Svara		II	33
Svarakāku (chāyā)	•••	Ι	7
Svaralanghita	•••	Ī	8
Hrasva	•••	IV	- 26

I. TFN PRASIDDHA (WELL-KNOWN) STHÄYAS WITH (DISTINCT) ASAMKIRŅA LAKŞAŅAS

1. Pertaining to Sabda

Muktaśabdapratigrāhyāh sthayāh śabdasya kīrtitāh

-(S.R., 111, 113)

Källinätha's commentary is as follows:

Pūrvasthāyo yasmin dhvanau mucyate, uttarasthāyo Cakravālarítyā tatraiva. pratigrhyate cet, tadašabdasthāyā iti vyapadiśyanta ityarthah. --(S.R., II, ch. III, p. 174)

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Pārśvadeva says,

Yasmin avare sthāyavišeşaņam syāttatraiva bhūyo grahaņe ca tasya,

Tad-dimsthäya iti prasiddhistam sabdasambandhinamāmanti. -(S.S., III. 165-66)

This generally means ringing changes with words. K states (quoted above) that *sabdasthāya* is that where the words pick up immediately after the *pūrvasthāya* terminates and the *uttarasthāya* begins, in a cyclic manner, like a wheel.

But P.L. Sharma interprets it differently in relation to music which is interesting. She states:

This can be interpreted in two ways: (i) in alamkāras like saregare, regamaga, etc., where the succeeding phrase begins were the note with which the preceding phrase ends, and (ii) where a particular note is prolonged and ended rather abruptly and again taken up in the beginning of a new phrase, e.g., dhanisa..., sanire..., etc., 'Oyāra' mentioned by P¹ can be taken to bear contradistinction with this as it (Oyāra) implies a return to the starting note, e.g., saregama, magaresa.

Yāsmat svarāvrttirvidhikramāt, tadoyāram samudhistam prāyaścārohi samśrayam.

-(S.S., 1[.41-42)

2. Pertaining to Dhala

Dhālo muktāphalasyeva calanam lunthanātmakam.

-(S.R., III.113) Karasthamuktāphalavacca dhālaḥ, śaśvat svarāņām calanātmako yaḥ.

-(S.S., II.166)

Vrttamauktikavatkäcabhūtale vilāsadhvanau,

Śrutippravartate kşipram yatra dhālam taducyate.

-(S.S., II.46-47)

Where the notes freely move, like the rolling of a pearl, P's definition likens the movement of the notes to the rolling of pearls on ¹Pår\$vadeva, author of *Sangita Samayaşåra*.

a sheet of glass. The modern example for this would be *ulläsita* gamaka—the glide both in *āroha* and avaroha, in a comparatively fast tempo.

3. Pertaining to Lävanī

Namanam tvatikomalam,

Lavani, tadyujah sthäyä lavanyäh parikirtitah.

(S.R., 111.113-14)

Atikomalam sukumāram svarāņām namanam adha uccāraņam lavanītūcyate. (Sihaūpāla's comm., ibid.)

Snigdhakomalaşabdasya vinä yatnena kampanam,

Laghutvena sahoktam tannamanam gānakovidaih saiva navaņih,

-(S.S., 11.103-4)

Rendering of *svaras* with particular tenderness in descent (*namana*) is *lāvanī*. P. has added *kampana* or light shake. This *lāvanī*, *navani* may have some affinity with Mahārāş!rī *lavāve* which means 'to bow down'.

According to Simhabhupāla, *lāvanī* is to very delicately and melodiously traverse from the higher to the lower notes.

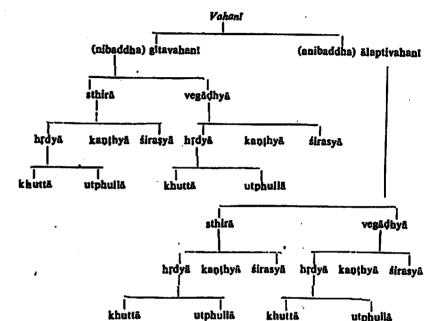
4. Pertaining to Vahani

Yattu kampanamārohiņyavarohiņi vā bhavet, Vahanī sātha sañcāriņyapi vā sthirakampanam.

-(S.R., 111.114-15)

The kampa or tremor of notes in *āroha* and *avaroha* and constant tremor in *s:ncārī varņa* is called *vahanī*. In other words, to intone the notes with a slight shake in the three *varņas*, namely, *ārohī*, *avarohī* and *sancārī* is called *vahanī*. This is subdivided as follows:

- (i) That pertaining to gita or composition.
- (ii) That pertaining to *ālapti*.
- (iii) That associated with *sthira* (steady) *kampa* (on one and the same note), i.e., when the shake is slow.
- (1v) That associated with vega (fast tempo), i.e., with notes moving fast when the shake is fust.



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(v), (vi) and (vii) When the notes and shakes are sung in all the three registers (*sthāna*) mandra, madhya and tāra. These also relate to the three vocal centres of the body the chest or diaphragm, the throat and cerebrum. These three are very important resonant cavities, i.e., laryngeal pharynx, the oral pharynx and the nasal pharynx which resonate predominantly in the lower, middle and upper registers respectively.

(viii) Yasyāmantarviśantīva svarah khutteti sa matā.

(S.R., III. 117)

 $H_I dy\bar{a}$ has two varieties, namely, *khuttā* and *utphullā*. *Khuttā* is where the notes appear to merge into or turn inward. This could be compared with the *vali gamaka* (S R., III.92), e.g., saresasa, regarere, etc.

(ix) Sotphulletyuditā yasyām niryāntīvopari svarāķ.

-(S.R., III. 118)

Utphullä is efflorescence of notes, i.e., where the notes blossom forth, open out. It is the opposite of khuttä.

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Merging in the ascent is *khuttā*, e.g., pa-ma, sa-ni and merging in the descent is *utphullā*, e.g., ma-pa, ni-sa. In both the cases, *līna* gamaka is used, and the first note tapers into the succeeding note. P. also describes *vahanī* in identical terms.

5. Pertaining to Vādya Šabda

Rāgamagnā vādyašabdā yeşu te vādyašabdjāķ.

-(S.R., III.119) Viidyasya śabdcşvapi vädyapäţāksarāņi te syuh taganadite rāgasamśleşaviślesabhājah sthāyā matāścedyute vādyaśabdāh.

-(S.S., 111.175)

Vädyaśabda has been interpreted in S.S. as syllables (päţäkşara) associated with musical instruments. Rāga may be taken here to stand for rakti in general. Where rakti is created by special use of the syllables associated with an instrument, jhātā in sitār, relā on the tablā or where the syllables of an instrument are used in vocal music, e.g., the rhythmic syllables of the tablā in the tarānā or tillāna of Karnāţaka music, the sthāya can be said to be related vādya śabda.

6. Pertaining to Yantras (Musical Instruments)

Ye yantreşveva drsyante bahulyatte tu yantrajah.

-(S.R., 111.120)

Those that are found in abundance only in musical instruments, e.g., ghasita, suta, etc., of plucked stringed instruments or special bow-techniques of bowed instruments.

Where wadya-stabda has special significance in the context of syllables associated with musical instruments, the present type refers to special tonal embellishments which are peculiar to certain instruments.

7. Pertaining to Chāyā or Kāku

Kāku has been used here as a synonym of chāyā which literally means 'shadow' but seems to imply a special characteristic inherent in timbre, in accentuation, in intonation or in a rāga or a special characteristic of one svara or rāga being transferred to another as will be clear from the following six varieties. P. has given some more synonyms of chāyā in addition to kāku, viz., bhāvanā (infusion or decoration or saturation), rakti (charmingness, pleasingness, loveliness), bhāsā (the expressive feature of a rāga).

-(S.S.s., 11.96)

(i) Svarakāku

Śrutinyūnadhikatvena ya svarāntarasamśraya, Svarāntarasya rāge syät svarakākurasau matah.

--(S.R., III.122)

Svarasya şadjasya catuḥśruteryacchrutim yadā svikurute nişādaḥ, Chāyām şadjasya bhajettādanīmevam niruktaḥ svarakākuradya. --(S.S., III.179)

It is obvious that svarakāku pertains to vikrta svaras where one note enters the sphere of another and thus adopts its shadow by getting nearer, e.g., nisāda gets the chāyā of şadja or madhyama the clāyā of pañcama, when it takes over one or more śrutis of şadja or pañcama respectively. It gets augmented and gets nearer the latter.

(ii) Rågakāku

Ya rägasya nijacchäyä rägakäkum tu täm viduh.

(S.R., 111.122)

Sā mukhyā procyate bhāşā gītalakşaņavedibhih.

-(S.S.s., 11.99)

The special characteristic of a raga which distinguishes from other ragakaku, e.g., *ni* dha bisa, Sa dha *ni* pa or ga pa re ga sa resa; these phrases of *Mian Malhara* and *Sankara* of Hindustant music, the former having a continuous smooth dove-tailing of the notes and the latter having the grace note of *rsabha* on *gandhara* are both indispensable to those *ragas*. P. has very aptly called it *mukhya bhāsā* or main expression of a *raga*.

(iji) Anyarāgakāku

Sā tvanyarāgakākuryā rāge rāgāntarāśrayā.

-(S.R., III.123)

This occurs when in a characteristic phrase of a *rāga*, the flavour of another is recondite, e.g., ni-pa in *Behāg* or pa Re ga re sa in *Šankarā* has the *Rāga Yaman* hidden in it. Or the *Rāga Khamāja* imbedded in the *Rāga Tilak-Kāmoda*.

In other words, one rāga bears the chā vā of another, e.g., the Rāga Lalit's anga in the Rāga Basanta—sa ma ga ma ma Ma S ma ma ga in the use of both the madhyamas or the Sāranga anga sa ni pa ma re sa in the avaroha of many varieties of Kānadā. Pārśvadeva calls this uparāgabhāsā and says that it is popularly known as thā ya ('iyameva loke thāyeti prasiddhā').

(jv) Desakāku

Sa deśakākuryā rāge bhaveddeśasvabhāvatah.

-(S.R., III.123)

This implies regional characteristics in musical rendering. Pärśvadeva identifies it with dcsakhya bhasas of ragas. This is more conspicuous in vocal music or in instruments like violin or vina directly following the model of vocal music, e.g., the peculiar embellishments of a vocalist belonging to Panjab or Maharastra which could be easily distinguished. Certain raga-s are associated with certain regions like Manda of Rajasthan or Pahadi of Panjab. The same raga rendered by a Maharastrian or a Panjabi can be easily recognised by a discerning listener.

(v) Ksetrakāku

Šarīram ksetramityuktam pratiksetram nisargatah, Rāge nānāvidhā kākuh ksetrakākuriti smrtā.

-(S.R., III.124)

This refers mainly to the timbre of human voices which distinguishes one voice from another (no two human voices are identical). Apparently it is difficult to say how the timbre of the human voice can have special significance in $r\bar{a}ga$ unless $r\bar{a}ga$ is understood as *rakti* in general. But on deep consideration, one finds that the timbre of the human voice has its own significance in the establishment of the ethos of a $r\bar{a}ga$. Thus it is pertaining to state that the expression of a $r\bar{a}ga$ is considerably governed by the timbre of the pertaining voice. It is common experience that some musicians have a fancy for certain $r\bar{a}gas$ as the timbre of

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of their voice is suitable to them. For example, Rāgas Jaijaivantī, Chāyānaţa, Maluha Kedāra—favourites of late Ustād Faiyāz Khān; Bhūpālī, Mālkauns, Kedāra of late Bade Ghulām Ali Khān; Multānī, Pūriā, Mārvā of late Ustād Abdul Wahid Khān of Kirānā.

Parśvadeva¹ very aptly explains this as follows:

Kasyacid gāyanasaisā rāge kasmiņšcidiksyate, Rakti svabhāvatastajīnaih ksetrakākurmahitale.

-(S.S.s., 101, 102)

(vi) Yantrakāku

Vlņāvamśādiyantrothā yantrakākuh satām matā.

-(S.R., III.125)

This pertains to the timber of musical instruments, which can also have its place in rāga. For example, vīvā of North India is specially suitable for solemn, tranquil and painfully moving rāgas like Darbārī Kānadā, Bhairavī, Bhairava, Pīlū, etc. On the contrary, Jalataranga cannot have any shake of the note and its rāgas will naturally be different like Bhūpālī, Yaman, Bihūg, etc.

8. Svaralanghita

Madhye madhye svarān bhūrillanghayan svaralanghitaņ. —(S.R. III.126)

This implies the skipping over of more than one intermediary notes. S.R. enjoins the omission of *bhūrīn* meaning many which is interpreted by Simhabhūpāla as three or four notes, but *langhana* can become conspicuous by the omission of one or two notes also. Hence S.S. lays down the omission of two or three notes. Pārśvadeva two varieties of this, viz., *langhita* and *svaralanghita*.

¹It is significant that Pårsvadeva identified rägakäku wih mukhya or målå bhåså, anyrägakåku with uparägabhåva or samkirna bhåså which is popularly known as thäya according to him and dešakäku with dešäkhya bhåså. Similarly svarakäku may be identified with svaråkhya or chäyamaträsrayå bhåså. This identification can go a long way in apprehending the significance of the four types of bhåså of Gräma rägas given by Matanga and subsequent writers down to Räpä Kumbha. Işadāhatasamyuktah svaro yatra vilanghayet, Svarāntarakrameņaiva langhitam tat pracakşate. —(S.S.s., II. 52)

ga

re e.g., sa ga ma ga pa. etc.

Idameva yadaikadvitrisvarāntaritam bhavet, Tadā gitakalābhijňaihvaralanghanamíritam. —(S.S.S., II.52)

ma

This lays down the omission of one, two or three notes.

9. Prerita

Tiryagūrdhvamadhastācca preritah preritaih svaraih. —(S.R., III.127)

The movement of notes in upward, downward and slanting or oblique direction is enjoined here. *Tiryak* (slanting) can be understood in melodic music as the *vakragati*, i.e., curved or winding movement of notes.

e.g., sa re, sa ga re sa, ma ga, sa ga re ga, maresa. or ga ma re sa in *Rāga Kedāra*.

10. Tīksņa

Svarah pūrņaśrutistāre tīksņavattiksņa ucyate.

—(S.R., III.127) Pūrņaśrutiryatra vibhāti tārasthāne'pi sūcyagravadeva tīkṣṇaḥ. —(S.S., 111.186)

The sharpness of a whole tone used in the *tāra sthāna* (upper register) has been given here the analogy of a needlepoint, e.g., antara ga in *tāra*.

II. THIRTY-THREE PRASIDDHA (WELL-KNON) STHÅYAS WITH SAMKĪRŅA (INDISTINCT) LAKŞAŅAS

1. Pertaining to Bhajana

Rāgasyātiśayādhānam prayatnād bhajanam matam:

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Tadyuktā bhajanasya syuh.--(S.R., III.121)Rāgābhivyaktirbhajavanā suśārīrasamudbhavā.--(S.S.S., II.88)

S.R. emphasises the element of conscious effort in creating rāga or rañjakatā par excellence. It is common experience that a performing musician has a few special gambits which he puts into use with more effort to create rakti. This effort cannot and should not remain constant throughout a performance. Päršvadeva on the other hand, emphasises the element of natural gift, i.e., sušārīra.

2. Pertaining to Sthapana

Sthāpayitvā sthāpayitvā yeşām pratipadam krtiķ.

-(S.R., 111.29)

Ye sthāpayitvā sthāpayitvā nişcalīkrtya pratīksaņam punaķ kriyante te sthāpanāsambandhinaķ. —(Simhabhūpāla, op. cit.)

The movement of notes can be explained here with the analogy of plodding or walking with heavy steps pausing awhile at each.

3. Pertaining to Gati

Savilāsāsti gitasya mattamātangavadgatiķ, Tadyuktāstu gatch sthāyah. —(S.R., 111.129, 130)

The analogy of the gait of an elephant in rut is cited for gati of svaras. S.S. adds the adjective gabhira (mattadantāvalavadgabhīragatiħ) which can be interpreted as majesty or accompanied by intoxication, i.e., swinging but majestic movement of notes. But it is rather difficult to visualise this musically. Pārśvadeva gives a somewhat different connotation of gati as follows:

Mādhuryasahito gīte śrutimātrastu kevalam, Svarāņām sannivešo yašcāturyāt sā gatirbhavet.

-(S.S.S., II.39)

The element of skill in the structure of notes is emphasised here,

4. Pertaining to Nāda

Snigdho mādhuryamāmsalah.

Bahulo yeşu nādah syāt te nādasya prakirtitāh.

-(S.R., III.130)

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Nāda has been used in a special and restricted sense denoting the abundance of *snigdha* (unctuous) and *mādhurya-māmsala* (fieshy with sweetness) musical sound.

5. Pertaining to Dhvani

Atidîrghaprayogāh syuh sthāyā ye te dhvanirmatāh. ---(S.R., 111.131)

Yeşu dirghatarah prayogo gamakasandarbhaste dhanisambandhinah. — (Simhabhūpäla, op. cit., p. 180)

Prayoga has been interpreted as gamaka sandarbha or an orderly arrangement of gamaka-s. Dhvani can be taken to imply the use of long phrases full of gamaka-s.

6. Pertaining to Chavi

Yuktāh komalayā kāntyā chave sthāyā nirūpitāh. —(S.R., III.131)

Chavi denotes tenderness of notes accompanied by splendour. S.R. has defined it thus in the context of kanthagunas or the good qualities of the voice.

Dhāturvimalakaņthatvādyah prājnairūpalakşyate, Ujvalo 'yamiti proktašchavimāniti sa dhvanih. – (S.R., III.77)

7. Pertaining to Rakti

Rakterutkarşato rakteruktāh sthāyā manişibhih. —(S.R., IIJ.132)

This refers to the super-excellence of rakti, it is similar to *bhajana* (no. 1 above) but the only difference is that the latter implies conscious effort whereas the former does not.

8. Pertaining to Druta

Drutasyānvarthanāmānah.

-(S.R., III.132)

Uccāraņam yatra javāt svarāņām sthāyāsta etc drutašabdapūrvāh.. -(S.S., III.194) Survey of Musical Aesthetics: Western and Eastern

This refers to fast tempo.

9. Pertaining to Bhrta

Bhrtasya bharanad dhvaneh,

Dhavanerghanatvena ca jāyamānamuccāraņam syād bhītasabdāvācyam. —(S.S., III.194)

In Hindi, it is popularly called 'bharāva' literally meaning 'filling up', implying fullness of volume or intensity, P. gives a somewhat different explanation as the filling up of $r\bar{a}gas$.

Yad rüpakethavälaptau vartate rägapüraņam, Bharaņam tatsamuddiştam haraņam tadviparyayaņ.

-(S.S.S., II.86-87)

10. Pertaining to Amia

Rägäntarasyävayavo	rāgemšaļi.	—(S.R., III.133	J)
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Amia has been used in a special sense here. It does not denote the predominant of a $r\bar{a}ga$, but denotes the particular phrase of a $r\bar{a}ga$ used in another $r\bar{a}ga$. The two extant commentaries of S.R. throw some light on the question as to how the amia can be distinguished from anyarigakāku.

Källinätha states:

Nanvanyarāge kakoramśasya ca ko bheda iti cet: ucyate-prakrta rāge samavāyavrītyā vartamanaivacchāyātyantasādršyāt rāgāntarāšrayā satī ya pratīyate, sānyarāgakākuh. Amšastu prakrtarāge hyavidyamāna eva šobhātišayāya yācitakamaņdananyāyena rāgāntarādupādāya samyogavrītyātra sambadhyata iti bhedo drastavyah.

Nanvamsasyānyarūgakākoņ katham bhedaņ? brūmaņ-anyasya rāgasyacchāyā kākuņ; chāyāyā bhinna evāvayavo 'msa iti.

-(Simhabuūpāla, op. cit., p. 180)

Kāllinātha is more exact and concise in saying that anyarāgakāku implies samavāya-sambandha whereas amša implies samayogasambandha. In other words, anyarāgakāku denotes the chāyā of one rāga being inextricably waven into another rāga [cf. examples under 1-7 (iii) above] and amša denotes a solitary phrase of a rāga Evolution of Raga and Tala in Indian Music

being used in another rāga, merely as an arbitrary embellishment, e.g., the use of phrases from Rāga Šankarā or Hamsadhvani in the Rāga Yaman. Šankarā: ga pa ni sa, ga re sa ni S dha pa ma S ga; Hamsadhvani: ni re ga pa, ni re ga re, sa ni dha pa, ma ga re sa.

S.R. and P. give seven varieties of amia in almost identical terms and with identical illustrations.

Their names are as follows:

(i) kāraņāmša is the amša of Kārana rāga found in Kārya rāga.

(ii) kāryāmša is the amša of Kārya rāga found in a Kārana rāga.

(iii) sajātīyāmša is amša of a Sajātīya rāga in another rāga.

(iv) sadrfāmša is the amša of a similar rāga in another.

(y) visadršāmša is the amša of a dissimilar rāga in another.

(vi) madhyasthāmša is the amša of a neutral rāga in another.

(vii) amśāmśa is the sañcāra of one amśa in another.

To illustrate the above, in terms of over music as it is today, may help in understanding the different aspects of *amśa* better.

(i) Where the amśa of the Janaka rāga is found in the Janya rāga, e.g., ma dha ni, re, sa ni dha pa—this phrase of Yaman in the Rāga Hamīr.

(ii) The opposite of (i) i.e., the *amśa* of the $R\bar{a}ga$ $H\bar{a}m\bar{n}r$ in *Yaman*, i.e., the *amśa* of the *Janya r\bar{a}gd* in the *Janaka r\bar{a}ga*. For example, ni dha, dha, ni sa ni dha, ni re ga re sa ni dha, etc.

(iii) Râga Bhairava, a few centuries ago, as mentioned in the texts was similar to our modern Mālkans. Alternately we may cite the more clear examples of similarly structured rāgas like $P\bar{u}ry\bar{a}$, Mārvā and Sohinī.

(iv) Sadrsamsa: the varieties of Nața, Kahada or Malhara, etc.

(v) A very clear example can be found in the $R\bar{a}ga$ Jaijaivanti. When the dhaivata svara of this is taken as the sad ja for a moment and the phrase dha ni re, re sa nisa, dha ni re.., it would sound exactly like $R\bar{a}ga$ Hamīr, i.e., ga ma dha, dha re ma pa, ga ma dha, etc. In other words *tirobhāva* could be compared with visadrsāmsa.

(vi) Madhyasthāmša appears to be an operation very similar to modern āvirbhāva and tirobhāva as Simhabhūpāla explains this in his commentary¹ as incorporating both sadrsämsa and visadrsämsa, e.g., Räga Bhairavi in Yaman with nisäda as sadja.

(vii) Amśāmśa—not clear.

11. Pertaining to Avadhana

Manasā tadgatenaiva ye grāhyāste 'vadhānajāh.

-(S.R., III.141)

Cetaso vaiyagrye yo gätum na śakyate so 'vadhānajāh (S).

The sthäyas that demand total attention fall under this type.

12. Pertaining to Apasthana

Apasthāna is the opposite of svasthāna.

Äyäsena vinä yatra sthäne syät pracuro dhvanih, Svasthänam tadapasthänam tväyäsena tadudgateh. Apasthänasya te sthäyä ye 'pasthänasamudbhavah.

-(S.R., III.142)

Ähänabähulyavasena gänam bhavatyapasthänatayä pratitam. -(S.S., III. 207)

This implies special effort in voice production (in vocal music) or in the act of playing on instruments. *Bhajāna* relates to special effort in the creation of *rakti* but this relates only to voice production or to reproduction on instruments. It is a well known fact that each voice or instrument has a special pitch-range which may be called *svasthāna*. If that is violated, i.e., if the tonic is not in conformity with that range, then the result would be that the voice would to be strained and some extra effort entailed while singing or playing an instrument.

13. Pertaining to Nikrti or Nişkrti

S.R. does not define it saying its significance is clear from the name itself.

Nyūnādhikatvobhayavarjanena gānam tu yat sā nikrtirniruktā. —(S.S., 111.208)

Thäyam vividhamādāya balāt samsthāpane punah, Anyūnādhikatā tajñairnikrtih parigiyate.

-(S.S.S., 11.80-81)

³S.R., Adyat edn., 1959, II, III, p. 180,

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Niskrti would be a better reading in view of the above definitions which imply restoration to the original position after the use of various sthāyās which may be explained as resolution.

14. Pertaining to Karuna

S.R. does not define this.

Gānena kuryuh karuņām nrņām ye sthāyā niruktāh karuņaādimaste. —(S.S., 111.209)

Karuņā rāgayogena cintā-dīnatayāthavā,

Karuņā kāku-samyuktāķ ţhāyāste kakuņābhidhāķ.

-(S.S.S., II.67-68)

-(S,R., III.143)

Those sthay as which arouse karuna (melting of the heart in general) fall under this.

15. Pertaining to Vividhatā or Variety

Sthāyā nanavidhām bhangim bhajanto vividhatvajāķ.

Nānāvidhām rītimupeyivāmsah sthāyāstataste vividhatvajanyāh. —(S.S., III.209)

Ancka bhangiyuktah sthāyā vividhatvasambandhinah. —(Simhabhūpāla, op. cit., p. 180)

The following sthäyäs with deśi names mentioned by Pārśvadeva explain 'bhangi' of svaras in its various aspects.

(i) Modāmodī

Samudhrtya svaron 'yatra teşämagrāņyadhah kramāt, Bhajyate sā parijñeyā modāmodīti samjñayā.

-(S.S.S., II.58)

The phrase sa re sa ni dha would illustrate the above.

(ii) Gumphägumphi or gumbhägumbhi
 Sapta prayogä ekatra vartante cennirantaram,
 Sragiväbhijňaracitä gumphägumphiti soditä.

-(S.S.S., II.59).

This is a series of prayogas.

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16. Pertaining to Gatra

Gātrasya gātre niyatāḥ. —(S.R., III.144) Sthāneşu yeşu pratigātrabhinnā bhinnāstu rāgāh prabhavanti samyak,

Gātrasya sambandhitayā pratitāh sthāyāh samaste iti veditavyam. -(S.S.; III.210)

These relate to the characteristic features of the music of each vocalist associated with the peculiarities of his physiological set up S. thus explains the difference between $ksetra-k\bar{a}ku$ (1-7, (v)) and gätra sthäyā.

Nanu kşetrākākusambandhibhya eteşām ko bhedāh? Ucyate—kşetra-kākuḥ pratideham chāyamātram; Gātrajeşu tu sthāyasvarūpameva pratideham bhidyata iti. —(Simhabhūpāla, op. cit., p. 181)

This seems to imply that $ksetra-k\bar{a}ku$ refers merely to differences of timber of the human voice but $g\bar{a}tra-sth\bar{a}ya$ denotes all the characteristic $sth\bar{a}y\bar{a}s$ peculiar to different human voices, e.g., some voices are especially suited for the expression of $karun\bar{a}$, some for $v\bar{i}ra$ or raudra and others for $t\bar{a}na(s)$ on fast tempo.

17. Pertaining to Upasama

Krtvā tīvrataram dhvanim, Yeşūpašāntiķ kriyate bhavantyupašamasya te.

-(S.R., III.144)

This means that the intensity of a tone has to be suddenly decreased or a loud tone has to be ended abruptly. But S says that it implies an abrupt descent from a tone of high pitch (atitara) towards mandra tones, S.S. accepts this interpretation.

18. Pertaining to Kāņģāraņā

S.R. does not explain this stating that it is well-known. S explains it with the analogy of the art of engraving, and S.S. follows this explanation which makes use of a visual analogy.

. Loke sthambhādisu padmādyākārotkiraņam kaņdāraņetyucate —(Simhabhūpāla, op. cit., p. 181)

200 Evolution of Raga and Tala in Indian Music	Survey of Musical Aesthetics: Western and Eastern	201		
Kāņdāraņāsthāyamathāmanāmah stambheşu yā takşabhirabja- rūpah,	Gādbah saithilyanirmuktah.	(S.R., III.146)		
Citrākstistu kriyate hi so 'yam kāņdāraņāstatsadrsā vicitrāķ.	21. Lalitagādha			
(<i>S.S.</i> , 111.213-14)	sa éva mrdutānvitah bhavellalitagādhastu.			
		-(S.R., III.146-47)		
S states that just as beautiful engraving of a lotus on a pillar,		•		
the configuration of notes in $kandarana$ may be compared with the above. It appears that S. did not clearly comprehend this as the	This means the addition of tenderness or grac	cefulness to gâḍha.		
above analogy is very difficult to translate musically.	22. Lalita			
K on the other hand says that. kāndā means the three sthānas, viz., mandra, madhya and tāra and kāndāravā is that where the	Lalitastu vilāsavān.	-(S.R., 111.147)		
notes run through all the three sthanas. S.S. refers to this view	This implies a special kind of graceful movement.			
also:	23. Lulita	•		
Kändesu mandramadhyatäresväsamantädranatiti vyutpattyä-	This indicates a tender and swinging movemer			
rasiddhetyarthah.	This indicates a tender and swinging movemen	it of notes.		
—(Kāllinātha, op. cit., p. 178)	Mārdavāghurņitaķ prokto lulitaķ.	—(S.R., 111.147)		
19. Pertaining to Nirjavana	• 24. Sama			
Saralah komalo raktah kramannito 'tisūksmatām,	This pertains to medium tempo, neither fast n	or slow: it can also		
Svarah syādyeşu te sthāyāh proktā nirjavanānvitāh.	be interpreted as the tonal embellishments us	ed in the original		
(S.R., 111.145-46)	tempo of the song or composition known in H	lindi as barābar kī		
Yeşu svarah syāt saralastathaiva syādraktišālī sukumārarūpah,	laya.			
Atyantasüksmatvamitah kramena sthäyä ami nirjavanänvitäsea.	Course and the set of the set			
-(S.S., III.215-16)	Samah punah hino vegavilambābhyām.	—(<i>S.R.</i> , III.147-48)		
Nirjavana is a technical name of the use of straight, tender and	25. Komala (full of tenderness)			
pleasant notes, gradually reduced in loudness. Parsvadeva has	Syät komalah sambhrtah saukumäryah.	(S.S., 111.219)		
called it <i>nijavaņi</i> or <i>nijavaņa</i> and has emphasised breath-control.		,		
called it myarain of myaraina and has employed element contacts	26. Pras _t ta			
Jitaśvāsatayā yānam nāmnā nijavaņam viduķ. —(S.S.S., II.89)	This means widespread; it seems to imply	a long spread out		
	musical phrase.			
It appears similar to modern diminuendo involving gradual				
decrease, not only in volume but also in the subtlety of notes.	Prasstah prasaropetah.	—(S.R., III.148)		
	Vistīrņayuktah prasrtābhidhānah.	—(S.S., III.219)		
20. Gāḍha	27 Saladha	•		
This is the opposite of slack or <i>sithila</i> and is popularly known as	27. Snigdha Menns unstudies and appreciate of multiple and a			
having kasava or terseness. This could be also interpreted as	Means unctuous end opposite of ruksa or dry.	•		
crescendo.	Snigdho rūkşatvavarjitah.	—(S.R., Ш.148)		

•

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28. Coksa

Bright or shining. Pārśvadeva has called it *cokkhāyi*. This is similar to *cairman* (no. 6 in the present heading).

Ujvalo gaditaścoksah,

-(S.R., III.149)

29. Ucita

This means suitable or apt. Aucitya is a general quality which is an essential feature of all artistic creation. Its absence has been considered as the greatest cause of *rasabhanga*, i.e., violation of aesthetic values.

Anaucityādīte nānyadrasabhangasya kāraņam, Prasiddhaucityabandhastu rasasyopanisat parā.

-(Dhvanyāloka, III)

30. Sudesika

That which is capable of being appreciated only by sahrdayas. Sudešiko vidaghānām vallabhah. -(S.R., III.149)

There are certain features of musical rendering with appeal only to an aesthete and not to the common man.

31. Apekşita

Apeksitastu sah.

Sthāyah sthāyenah pūrveņa pūrtyartham yo 'bhikānkşitah. —(S.R., 111.150)

Pürveņa sthāyenah yah svapūrtyarthamākānkşyate so 'pākşitah. —(Simhabhūpāla, op. cit., p. 182)

This means that a note or a combination of notes which is essential for bringing about a sense of completeness of the preceding *sthāya*, is *apeksita*. But S.S. has interpreted it the other way round, saying that the preceding *sthāya* is required by this *sthāya* for its own completion.

Pūrtyarthamākānkşati yastu pūrvam sthāyam bhavet so 'yamapekşitākhyah. ---(S.S., III.220)

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This does not sound plausible but may be interpreted as implying repetition which naturally involves an original phrase.

32. Pertaining to Ghosa

The use of gamakas called vali, vaha and vahani in the lower register is ghosa.

Valau vahe vahanyām ca yaḥ snigdhamadḥuro mahān, Mandradhvaniḥ sa ghoṣaḥ syāttadyuktā ghoṣajā matāh.

-(S.R., III.151)

33. Pertaining to Svara

Svara has been used in a very restricted sense, viz., deep and sweet tones of the lower register. The distinction between svara and ghosa seems to be very subtle: whereas ghosa implies some shake (kampa) in the mandra sthana, svara is without kampa.

Gambhiramadhuradhvānā mandre ye syuh svarasya te.

-(S.R., III.152)

III. TWENTY APR ASIDDHA (OBSCURE) STHĀYAS WITH ASAMĶĪRŅA (DISTINCT) LAKŞAŅAS

1. Vaha

Vahanta iva kampante svarā eşu vahasya te. -(S.R., 111.152)

The analogy of a man, trembling under a heavy weight carried by his, is cited here; it. implies tremor with full intensity, not with lightness. For example, the heavy *āndolana* of gāndhāra and sometimes nişāda in the Rāga Nāyakī-Kānhadā.

gagagaga, gamapama, resanisa, nininini, panesāni pamagasa.

2. Akşarādambara

Akşarādambaro yeşu mukhyāste syustadanvitāh.

--(S.R., III.152)

The abundance of akşaras or syllables referred to here can come about in two ways: -

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(i) by enunciating the syllables of the words of the gita in a similar way, and

(ii) by pronouncing the solfa syllables in quick succession.

Some songs are wholly or partially abundant in *laghu akşaras*, e.g., nipaţa, nilaja haţa naţakhaţa.

3. Ullāsita

This is one of the fifteen gamakas but is not associated here with kampa which is an essential feature of gamaka. It is described as the order of ascent in fast tempo. "vegena preritaih ürdhvam svarairulläsito matah." -(SR., III.153)

e.g., ni sa ga ma dha, sa ga ma dha ni, ga ma dha ni sa, etc.

4. Tarangita

This refers to a wave-like movement of notes.

Yatra gangātaranganti svarāķ sa syāt tarangitaķ.

-(S.R., III.153)

e.g., in the *Rāga Mālkauns*, ma ga, dha ma, ni dha sa ni ga sa, etc.

5. Salambita or Pralambita

Parito 'rdhabhrte kumbhe jalam dolāyate yathā, Gīte tathāvidhah sthāyah proktastajjñaih salambitah.

-(S.R., III.154)

The analogy of the sound of water in a half-filled jar is somewhat difficult even to conceive musically. This is one of the major hurdles in understanding the correct structures of some of the *sthāyas* mentioned in S.R. The best way I can imagine this musically is with the following example in the Rāga Mālkauns: dhama ga ma, ma ga sa ga, ga sa ņi sa. The water in the halffilled jar would have a wave-like movement only when the jar is shaken. It has to be done slowly for some kind of rhythm to be formed. So the above phrase would have to be sung with a heavy voice in medium tempo, keeping in mind the movement of water inside the jar. Survey of Musical Aesthetics: Western and Eastern

6. Avaskhalita

Avaskhalati yo mandrādavaroheņa vegatah; so 'vaskhalita-ityuktah.

--(S.R., III.155)

This implies an abrupt descent almost stumbling to mandra and then again a sudden ascent from mandra, e.g., pa pa sa ga sa, sa sa sa.

7. Troțita

Troțitaștu svare kvacit,

Ciram sthitvägnivat täram sprstvä pratyägato bhavet.

--(S.R., III.155-56)

When a particular note is prolonged and its octave note touched for a very short while and then reverts back to the original note, it is called *troțita*, e.g., sasasssasa.

8. Sampravista

Ghanasvaro 'varohe syāt sampravistah.

-(S.R., III.156)

When there are closely knit svaras in descent, e.g., sasa nini dhadha papa or sa ni dha pa ma ga.

9. Utpravista

This is just the opposite of the above and implies close svaras or full intensity in ascent.

Tathāvidhah; ārohiņyutpravistah syāt. —(S.R., III.157)

10. Nihsrta

Svarāstu yatraiva viniķsaranti sthāyastvasau niķsaraņābhidhānaķ. —(S.S., III.229)

This seems to imply the flowing out of *svaras* from a particular point, e.g., sa sa gamapa dha ni sa ga.

11. Bhrāmita

This may be interpreted as the cyclic movement of notes bearing the analogy of a merry-go-round, e.g., sagaresa, remagare, gapamaga, etc. Yatra bhramantiva khalusvarāh sa sthāyo bhaved bhrāmitanāmadheyah. —(S.S., III.229)

12. Dîrghakampita

This obviously refers to prolonged shakes. -(S.S., III.230)

13. Pratigrāhyollāsita

Pratigrāhyollāsitaķ syadasau yaķ pratigrhyate Utksipyotksipya nipatan kelikandukasundaraķ.

-(S.R., III.157-58)

Yatra svarāstantuvadeva kelyāmutksipya cotksipya ca grhyamāņāḥ, Sthāyam tamenam parigrhya pūrvamullāsitam sankathayanti santaḥ. —(S.S., 111.230-31)

Where the notes are throughout like a ball and are again caught back, e.g., sa ma sa, re pa re, dha ga, etc.

14. Alambavilambaka

Drutapūrvovilambāntaķ syādalambavilambakaķ.

-(S.R., III.158)

That which is sung or played first in *druta laya* and then in vilambita laya. This can be in a composition or in gatibheda, e.g. (1/4, 1/2, 1) or in the duration of notes.

15. Troțitapratistă or Troțitapraveșta

Breaki g in tāra or mandra at a particular note and resuming the same in mandra or tāra respectively.

Syāt troțitapratīșțo 'sau yatra syatāramandrayoh, Prathamam troțayitvaikamaparasya pratigrahah.

-(S.R, 111.159)

16, Prasttākuncita

Prasstäkuñcita sthäyah prasäryäkuñcitadhvanih.

-(S.R., III.160)

where the volume is widened in the beginning and tapered in the end, e.g., sa sa, i.e., there is crescendo of volume to start with Survey of Musical Aesthetics: Western and Eastern

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and then diminvendo which are indicated by the symbols <(cre scendo) and>(diminuendo) in western music.

17. Sthira

Sthäyivarpastpitih kampah sthira ityabhidhlyate.

-(S.R., III.160)

Kampa is sthayi-varna, i.e., repeated shakes on a single note.

18. Sthäyuka

Ekaikasmin svare sthitvā sthitvā vātha dvayordvayoņ Trişu trişvatha vā sthāyo racitaņ sthāyuko mataņ.

-(S.R., 111.161)

Staying on one, two or three *svaras* and proceeding forward, e.g., sa — re — ga —, or sa — re —, re — ga —, or sa — re ga —, re — ga — ma —, ga — ma — pa —, etc.

* 19. Ksipta or Ksipra

Urdhvah prasāritah ksiptah.

-(S.R., III.162)

That which is spread out in tdrasthana. Ksipta literally means 'th:own out'; popularly called *phenka* in Hindi. If the reading of *ksipra* of S.S. is accepted, it will mean fast tempo but that will be identical with *druta*.

20. Sūksmānta

Sūksmänto' nte' lpatām gataņ.

-(S.R., III.162)

This is very similar to no. 16 above, in this group, *prastākuācita* but the latter implies extra broadening of volume in the beginning whereas this may begin with normal intensity.

IV. THIRTY-THREE APRASIDDHA (OBSCURE) STHAYAS WITH SAMKIRNA (INDISTINCT) LAKSANAS

1. Pertaining to Praktistha Sabda

Where the notes are produced with normal intensity without extra force or softness.

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Šabdah prakašate yeşu dhrtibhrtyādivarjitah, Svabhāvādeva šabdasya prakrtisthasya te matāh. —(S.R., III.162-63) or (S.S., III.238)

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2. Pertaining to Kalå

This implies artificial reduction of intensity.

Yeşu sükşmikrtäh sabdäste kaläyäh prakirtitäh. --(S.R., III.163)

3. Pertaining to Ākramaņa This implies the use of extra energy of prāņa or breath.

Bhrśam prāņapratigrāhyā ye syurākramaņasya te. —(S.R., III.164)

4. Pertaining to Ghațanā

Te sthāyā ghatanāyā ye śilpinā ghatitā iva. —(S.R., III.164) Sthāyāstu ye vardhakikalpyamānastambhā iva syurghatanā-. dimāste. —(S.S., III.240)

This refers to conscious effort in giving a particular form to a $sth\bar{a}ya$ on the analogy of a craftsman who carves out a stone pillar. Kāndāranā (no. 11.18 above), related to the engraving of a lotus on a stone pillar. Ghatanā in Hindi means giving a form not necessarily embellished.

5. Pertaining to Sukha

Sukhadāstu sukhasya syuh. —(S.R., III.165) Sthāyāstu ye śrotrasukhapfadāh syuh sukhasya sambandhitayoditāste. —(S.S., III.240)

Those which are pleasant to the ear. This bears close similarity to rakti (no. II-7 above), but rakti may be said to be deeper than sukha as the former is not only pleasant but has a potentiality to impart emotional colour to the mind; sukha may be confined to pleasure of the sense-level.

6. Pertaining to Cali or Jakka

Cālirjakketi kīrtitā sthāyāstadanvitāścāleņ. —(S.S., III.165) Cāliņbhangivišeşeņa svarānām cālanam sā loke jakketi kathyate —(S)

Bhangivisesa may be explained as a special crooked or winding course of notes or a special "break and turn" as implied in the Modamodi of Pärsvadeva (no. II.15, p. 198).

7. Pertaining to Jiva Svara

Those that centre round the *amśa svara* (predominant note) of a rāga. Amśa has not been used here in the restricted sense as is the case in (no. II.10, p. 196).

Amśo jivasvaro matah; tatprādhānyena ye gitāh sthāyā jivasvarasya te. --(S.R., III.166)

8. Pertaining to Vedadhvani

Bearing similarity with vedadhvani, i.e., either staying too long on a note ormoving round two or three notes for a long time.

Vedadhvaninibhadhvanah sthaya vedadhvanermatah.

-(S.R., III.166)

9. Pertaining to Ghanatva

Refer to those that have antahsāratā or fulness or richness of volume.

Antahasāro ghanatvasya. —(S.R., III.167)

10. Pertaining to Sithila

This literally means slack, i.e., opposite of gādha. But S. and SS. call it the opposite of ghana which does not seem to be correct.

Śithilah ghanatvapratiyogyarthah.

11. Avaghata

Duşkaro 'vaghatah proktah

-(S.R., III.167)

--(S)

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That which is very difficult. Parsvadeva has referred to the element of difficulty as *durvasa* which is restricted to the pitch-range.

Tāramandrasamāyogāt prayogo yatra duşkarah, Vartate sa tu gītajīnairdurvāsah parikīrtitah. —(S.S.S., II)

12. Pluta

Pluto 'tyantavilambitaḥ.	(S.R., 111.167)
i.e., in very slow tempo.	

13. Rägesta

Rägestah svapuryarthä rägesta iti kirtitah. -(S.R., III.168)

I hat which is essential for making a raga complete or full.

14. Apasvarāblāsa

Sa syādapasvarābhāso bhātyapasvaravattu yaņ. Yastu susvaro'pyapasvaravadavabhāti so'pasvarārabhāsaņ,

--(S)

That which appears to be out of tune (apasvara) in spite of being in tune (susvara). There is one possibility of mistaking a note in tune as out of tune when there is a tonic-shift ($m\bar{u}rchan\bar{a}bheda$), e.g., when gändhära of the Räga Yaman is taken as şadja form. If one sings continuously on gändhära as şadja, one may get confused whether the notes of the Räga Yaman are being correctly performed or not but even this does not sound plausible.

The other possibility is when certain svaras of certain rāgas are taken with their peculiar śruti inflexions, e.g., when the Rāga Todi's Gāndhāra which is slightly ati-komula or the dhaivata of Rāga Deśi which is between the śuddha and komala dhaivata, then to the untrained ear-and unfortunately today to the majority of listeners who nave developed an unaccountable disregard for such subtleties it may definitely be out of tune, whereas actually it is perfectly in tune and correct.

15. Baddha

Stabdhahsthäyastu baddhah syät. -(S.R., III.169)

This implies a stand still position of a tone, e.g., when a note is

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prolonged and movement seems to be absent (though physically a single tone also implies a succession of vibrations).

Yastu nigalita iva stabdhastişihati sthāyah sa baddhah. —(S) Yah śrókhalābaddha ivāvabhāti sthāyam tu tam baddhamuśantisamtah. —(S.S., III.246)

16. Pertaining to Kalarava Bahutvam madhuradhvanch Yasmin kalaravasyā'sau. —(S.R., III.169)

Bahutva (abundance) of sweet dhvani (notes) can be explained in melodic music in terms of the simultaneous tones of many instruments or voices produced in unison or in octave.

17. Chändasa

Chāndasô'caturapriyah.	—(S.R., III.169)
Yastu chandasanamacaturanamavidagdhana	m priyah sa chā-
ndasaḥ.	—(S)

That which is dear or appealing to the unrefined or uncultured listeners. For example, in modern classical music concerts, the gimmick of a so called dialogue between the drummer (*tablā*-player) and the vocalist or main instrumentalist elicits the interest of the lay audience. Similarly when the singer increases the tempo very much and does a continuous trill on the upper tonic, then he gets an applause from the lay listeners; or the *jhāla* in every fast tempo on the *sitāra*.

18, Sukarābhāsa

Sukarābhāsa ityukto duşkarah sukaropamah.

—(S.R., III.170)

That which appears to be very easy but is very difficult. All students of music have experience of this. Great masters alone can render difficult pieces in such a way as to make them "appear very easy.

For example, the minda in Raga Sri from pañcama to komala re or tara re to madhya re etc., when taken with finesse and effortlessness may seem to be easy, but actually very difficult to sing it

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in perfect tune.

19. Samhita

Ghanțanādavadāyātastārānmandram tu samhitah.

-(S.R., III.170)

Pāršvadeva gives a similar definition under the name avatīrņaka. The proceeding of a tone from *tāra* to mandra accompanied by reduction in intensity just as is the case in the anuranana of ghanțā (bell).

20. Laghu

Laghurgurutvarabitah.

-(S.R., III.171)

The meaning of gurutva and läghava is not clear; it may mean either the use of laghu (short) syllables in abundance or an easy flowing way of singing or playing.

21. Antarā

Dhruvakābhogayostu yaḥ, antare so'ntaraḥ. --(S.R., 111,171)

This is a $dh\bar{a}tu$ section of a *prabandha* (composition) which occurs between *dhruva* and $\bar{a}bhoga$. It is difficult to deduce why it has been accorded a place in *sthāyas* in exclusion of the other *dhātus*. The only explanation that appears to be plausible is that antarā may be a melodic piece designed to join *dhruva* with *ābhoga* and thus, it may be taken to be basically different from the other *dhātus*.

22. Vakra

Vakro bhavedārjavahina eva.

-(S.S., III.250)

This is the opposite of *Rju* and implies the use of *svaras* in an oblique way.

23. DIptaprasanna

Sukarastn yah; täre diptaprasann'osau. -(S.R., III.171-72)

That which is used in *tara* (upper register) with ease, so says S.R., but S and S.S. give a somewhat different interpretation.

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Yastu tārasthāne sakalon'yūnah sampūrņah pratibhāti sa diptaprasannah. --(S) Tāre tu yah pūrņavadeva bhāti diptaprasannam tamudāharanti. --(S.S., III.250)

This seems to imply a sense of completeness in the tara-sthana.

24. Frasannamıdu

M_fdu should be taken here to stand for mandra, i.e., easy flowing and caressing tones in mandra are implied here.

Sukarah komaladhvanih; prasannamrdurityuktah.

-(S.R., III.172)

Gururmato läghavavarjanena --(S.S., 111 251)

This is the opposite of *laghu* (no. IV 20, p. 211) and may stand eithe for an abundance of long syllables or a sense of heartiness in tone-production.

26. Hrasva

It denotes shortness of duration.

-(S.R., III.173)

S.S. defines it thus:

Hrasvah stokah.

Hrasvo mato yah khalu kampavat syät. —(S.S., III.251)

The significance of kampa is not clear here. The explanation of **Parsvadeva** for Bokkala (a sthāya name) seem to be approximate to that of hrasva found in S.R.

Sthäyah svalpaparimäņo bokkala iti kathyate.

-(S.S.S., 11.120)

27. Śithilagādha

Sändratvahinah sabalaśca yah syät sthäyo mato'sau śithilädigādhah. ---(S.S., III.252)

Krameņa gādhatām tyaktvā lalitasvaravartanam, Poccagādhamiti proktam gltalakşaņakovidaih.

-(S.S.S., II.120)

That which has both *śithilatä* (slackness) and *gädhatä* or *sabalatä* (force).

28. Dirgha

S feels it is synonymous with *dīpta*; *dīrgha* is the opposite of *hrasva* and stands for length of duration.

Dîrgho mato hrasvavilakşanah syat. -(S.S., III,252)

29. Asādhāraņa

Šabdaśārīraguņatah sukarah susvaro'thavā, Yah kasyacinna sarveşām so'sādhāraņa ucyate. —(S.R., 111.173-7)

That which cannot be rendered by all musicians.

30. Sādhāraņa

This means common or ordinary.

Sadršo yastu sarveşāmasau sādhāraņah smrtah. —(S.R., 111.174)

31. Nirādhāra

Na vānchati vahanyādir yah svanirvāhahetave ucyate sa nirādbārah. -(S.R., III.175)

This seems to be the opposite of *apekşita* (no. II.31, p. 201). It can be conceived as the last phrase in a particular section which brings about a sense of completeness and which does not require any other phrase for its completeness. Pärśvadeva has given a similar interpretation for *vidārī* (a variety of *sthāya*).

Alaptirvilasattālakālā višlesitasvarā, Vartate cennīrālambalī sa vidārīti gadyate. —(S.S.S., II.63-64) Survey of Music Aesthetics: Western and Bastern

32. Duśkarābhāsa

Sukaro duşkaropamah; duşkarābhāsa ityuktab.

-(S.R., III.175-76)

Artificial rendering of a piece so as to give it an air of being very difficult.

33. Miśra (mixed)

Miśraņānmiśrako mataķ.

-(S.R., III.176)

This includes all mixed varieties and the fifteen gamakas have also been used in producing the mixed varieties. S.R. mentions 36 varieties of mlsra-sthäya just by way of illustration and says that infinite varieties can be conceived in this category.

Sangita Råja mentions 66 varieties further subdivided as follows according to the number of varieties mixed into one:

Dviyogaja 29+Triyogaja 16+Caturyogaja 10+Pañcayogaja 5+Şatsamyogaja 6=66.

From the exhaustive illustrations of the 96 sthäyas, 15 gamakas and 6 käkus, with detailed analysis and explanations, it will not be difficult to assess the tremendously evolved and involved aesthetic structure of our classical music in the 13th century AD and before. Also the unsparing insistence on perfection of execution, the deep knowledge of all the ancillary subjects of music, like poetry, languages, dance, instruments, aesthetics would give a clear idea as to how difficult it must have been for one to make the grade as a classical vocalist.

Also listed in this chapter are the 23 qualifications of a first rate composer (*vāggeyakāra*), three and two attributes of a mediocre and bad *vāggeyakāra*; 20 qualifications of a first rate vocalist; 5 types of performers and 25 faults of singers. Studying these, one is amazed at the thoroughness of the *sādhanā* demanded from one who aspires to be approved as a first rate *vāggeyakāra* or a first rate vocalist.

Looking at the present state of affairs of out music with semiliterate composers and singers, one wonders how many today would have been able to pass the above standards. While it must be conceded that our music today has expanded a great deal in

respect of aesthetic improvisation, one cannot ignore the overall dilution of standards in literary excellence, structural integrity of composition, purity of rendition of raga and the general character of the musicians.

CHAPTER 7

The Evolution of the Concept of Tala

1. Historical Perspective of Tala

THE concept of tāla is quite fundamental to the understanding of Indian music. Bharata, whose $N\bar{a}tyas\bar{a}stra$ is considered to be the earliest available work on music in India describes $t\bar{a}la$ as one of the constituent elements of music as he defines $G\bar{a}ndharva^1$ as *svaratāla-padātmakam* (the organic unity of tone, rhythmic cycle and word). But for the very same reason it is difficult to trace the origin of tāla as far as the historical sources are concerned, since all the ancient musicologists such as Bharata and Dattila take it for granted to be a part and parcel of their musical heritage. Dattila, for instance, defines Gāndharva as "a collection of musical notes (*svara-sanghāta*) sustained by a verbal text, well measured by *tāla* and employed with attention and care."² Thus, as far as the written evidence goes, *tāla* was already a developed concept and was recognised as an indispensable element of music.

Perhaps one may turn to the tradition of Sāma gāna, which is supposedly considered to be older than that of the Gāndharva form of music, and look for some traces of the origin of tāla.

The word Gāndharva is somewhat of a mythical origin. On the one hand it is associated with a class of semi-divine beings who are supposed to be the professional musicians of gods, and on the other hand it denotes the art of musical performance as originally practised by Nārada who is supposed to have introduced it to the mortal world by the tradition enriched by such celebrities as Bharata and Dattila.³ So, it is quite probable that the tradition of Gāndharva might have been a collateral phenomenon, though Bharata, while describing the origin of Nātya derives gīta (melody)

¹See N.S., (G.O.S.), 8, 11 and 28. ⁹Dattilam, 3. ⁹Ibid., 2.

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from the Sāmaveda.1

That, however, is quite in a different context and perspective, for the Nätyasastra was formulated with a definite and an explicit end in view. It is stated to have been created by Brahma with the determination that "it would be the repository of the objective of all the sciences, the originator of all the fine arts, the indicator of the future pattern of human activity, the means for the accomplishment of the objective of virtue and wealth, the bestower of glory and fame and full of instruction and compilation."² So, obviously it was not meant to serve kāma (desire for pleasure) one of the four recognised purusarthas (human values), since its objective was restricted to dharma and artha (virture and wealth). Thus, the form of music present by the Nat yasastra represented a tradition that was specifically oriented to conform to the higher values of life. It will therefore be quite responsible to infer another tradition of musical arts which catered to the popular taste, as entertainment and enjoyment without any inhibitions-something that corresponded to what was later on openly acknowledge i as Deśi Sangita by Matanga and Sārngadeva.³ This tradition, however, for obvious reasons, was never considered worthy of being recorded or encouraged by the enlightened section of the society which synthesised every human activity with dharma.

In the field of literature also we have the same parallelism of Samskrt and Präkrt, the former representing the elite culture and the latter being the vehicle of the people at large. It has been suggested, with more or less clearness", observes A. Berriedale Keith,⁴ "that for profane as opposed to sacred literature, Samskrt was originally not employed. It was essentially in the form in which it was regulated by the grammar of Pāņini, in the 4th cent. BC, a form of speech reserved for those who conducted sacrifices and engaged in theological speculation in effect, for the Brāhmaņas. Other persons used a true vernacular, which may be described as primary Prākrt," This provides circumstantial evidence for the

¹See N.S., 1.17 ed., (Babulal Shukla Varenasi, 1972). ³N.S., 1.14-15.

⁶He says, "the sangita comprising gitam, vadyam and nritam that entertains people according to their taste in the different regions is known as Deil (S.R., I.1.23-24).

⁴See Classical Sanskrit Literature, 5th edn., Calcutta, 1947, The Heritage of India Series, p. 1.

existence of the sacred and the profane traditions of musical arts developing side by side in and around that age.

Viewed in this perspective there is no wonder if no definite trace of the concept of tala is to be found in the tradition of Sama-gana, even though melodically it was sufficiently developed to employ the seven tones and the three accents. There can be two different approaches to looking for the origin of tala, viz., by accepting the hypothesis of two separate traditions of musical arts existing side by side as already projected and by tracing everything to the Vedas, i.e., the Sāmaveda. The concept of tāla is a complex one comprehending not only rhythm but also tempo and the measurement of musical time in a cyclic manner. These features will be discussed while considering the concept of tala particularly. In the meanwhile it may be borne in mind that the primary function of tâla as spelled out by such celebrated musicologists as Bharata. Sārngadeva is to measure what may be called musical time.¹ and therefore cyclic repetition or recurrence is one of the most distinguishing features of the concept of tāla. "In Vedic music, rhythm was observed in composition (sāhitya) with the help of metres (chanda). Tunes were added to the rks or starzas and the rks were constituted out of the letters, arranged in different metres. The rk stanzas with tunes were the Sāma-gānas."² So, while the metrical composition of the sāmans provided the scope for rhythm, as far as the element of recurrence, as an essential feature of tala, is concerned, there seems to be no evidence to suggest the notion of tāla being implicit in the structure and the singing of Sāma-gāna. It is, therefore of little value, in the present state of our knowledge or the available sources for it, to look for the origin of tala in the tradition of the Sama-gana.

Now one must naturally turn to the other proposition, viz., the unrecorded tradition of profane music, so to say. Looking somewhat objectively, it may be observed that the perception of rhythm is much more spontaneous and natural to the human mind than that of svara or even pada since the development of language must

'See N.S., (G.O.S.), IV.31.1 and S.R. V.3, which defines *tâla* as "Time providing through action, measured by such units as *laghu* etc., the measurement of melody etc., is *tâla*."

¹See Swami Prajfianānanda, Historical Development of Indian Music, 1973, p. 422.

have taken quite a long time in the history of human civilization. Therefore, it will be quite reasonable to visualise that the rhythmic movement of the limbs and the body came more easily and effortlessly, as the manifestation of joy in the form of different emotions, to the primitive man; and so the origin of *tāla* may rather be sought in the perception of rhythm in the song and dance as practised in the prehistoric times.

Viewed in this perspective, it seems that *tâla* gradually developed as the specific manifestation of rhythm in order to spell out the temporal element in the rhythmic fabric of time-space. But in order to look for the various developments in the concept of *tâla*, one must be clear about what the concept signifies, and to do this one has again to turn one's attention to the ancient writers on the subject.

Scope of Study: From Bharata, who is variously placed between 200 BC to AD 400 by the different writers to Sarngadeva who admittedly belongs to the first half of the 13th century, we do not have many writers on music whose works have survived the vagaries of time. Most important among the extant works of this period is the Bthaddesi of Matanga which, however, is incomplete, and to our misfortune does not contain its chapter on *tāla*. This work is roughly assigned to 5th to 7th cent. AD. Then we have a few works ranging from 10th century to 12th century. We have the commentary of Abhinavagupta on the Nātyaśātra of Bharata called Abhinavabhāratī, belonging to 10th cent. AD. This work is very valuable in the history of musicology as almost all the later writers including Sarngadeva are indebted to him for their understanding of the ancient texts. But, here again, since it is a commentary on the Natyasdastra, as far as tala is concerned, its exposition is limited to the Märga-talus expounded by Bharata. However, it is yet of immense importance since it throws a flood of light on the concept of tala and the philosophy of time which is the main factor constituting tala. Thereafter, we have the Manasolläsa of Somesvara belonging to the first half of the 12th century.¹ This work deals with a host of other subjects but also as a resume of ancient theory of music. It is followed by the Sungitacudamani of Jagadekamalla² which deals with tala adquately. Of some

¹See Krishnamachariar who places him between 1116-27, para 1006, p. 853. ⁵Ibid., para 1005, p. 813. He is placed between AD 1138-50. importance besides these works, from the point of view of $t\bar{a}la$ is the Dattilam of Dattila or Dantila who is said to be one of the sons of Bharata. Though the available text seems to be very meager, yet because of its antiquity, it is of immense importance. However, since it deals only with the Mārga-tālas, its study is of limited value. Apart from these the Bharata-bhāşya of Nānyadeva which belongs to 11th century¹. is another work of importance even with regard to tāla. This work, also called as the Sarsvatihrdayakanthābharaņa, is considered by some to be a commentary on Bharata's Nātyašāstra and an original work by others.

Another work to be noticed is the Aumāpatam, of Umāpatīśyarya belonging to AD 12th cent.²

Thus, in respect of tāla the following few original works constitute the scope of our study: Nāţyaśāstra, Dattilam, Brhaddeśi, Bharatabhāşya, Abhinavabhāratī, Mānasollāsa, Sangītacūdāmaņi and Sangīta Ratmākara. Sangītasamayasāra and Bharatārņava are two other works that are to be considered as contemporary to Šārngadeva as they belong to the 13th century, though the date of the latter is not definitely known.

A survey of the modern literature on Indian music reveals that very little research work has indeed been done in the field of $t\bar{a}la$. The Bhāratīya Sangīta of Krishna Rao Mule (in Marathi) gives a brief account of $t\bar{a}la$ and dhruva adhyāyas of the Nāţyašāstra of Bharata which is obviously based on the study of the Sangīta Ratnākara of Śārňgadeva. Similarly, the originally Bengali work entitled Bhāratīya Sangīta Tāla and Chanda is more or less descriptive. The well known work of Kailāsh Chandra Deva Brhaspati in Hindi Bhārata kā Sangīta-Siddhānta gives a very brief account of the concepts related to tāla as found in the Nāţyaśāstra and Sangīta Ratnākara with the help of the commentators Abhinavagupta and Kāllinātha on these two works respectively. The Sangitaŝāstra of K. Vasudeva Sastri throws some light on the origin of tāla from Chanda (metre) but does not aim at discovering and demonstrating the actual stages of development of tāla.

Thus it would seem that for an authentic and an adequate information and the history of ideas related to $t\bar{a}la$, one must depend entirely upon the ancient Sanskrit works listed above. As far as the

¹Ibid., para 1002, p. 851. He is placed between AD 1079-1147. ³See Krishnamachariar, para 70, p. 830.

Marga talas are concerned, the Samskrt texts before and after Sarngadeva hardly show any evidence of change or development. There is no essential difference between the treatment of Bharata and Särngadeva, for example. The subsequent writers have, of course, followed suit mixing them up, sometimes with the Desi tālas. With respect to Dešī tālas, it may be observed that they were fully developed by the time of Sarngadeva. He deals with 120 talas. Among the earlier writers, Bharata is silent and Matanga's chapter on tala is unfortunately missing. Dattila, as already stated, deals with Marga talas only since he has concerned himself with Gan. dharvasastra. The Gandharva form of music was later classified as Märga by Śārngadeva, though the two could not perhaps be equated in every technical or even historical detail. So, as far as the development of *tala* is concerned we are suddenly confronted with the Desi talas by the writers of 12th and 13th century, there being no carlier record available to us for investigation. Thus we are compelled to rely upon the meager data and vague hints that can be inferred more in terms of probability than in terms of actuality.

2. The Concept of Tala

Bharata's way of defining or in other words, expounding tala, implies a certain perspective in which music as a whole is conceived by him. First of all we have to bear in mind that to Bharata music is not an autonomous art, it being ancillary to drama. Thereby every musical concept in his mind is correlated to the aims and objectives of a dramatic performance.¹ Consequently he conceives music also as a *silpa* as contrasted with *vidyā*. The function of a *vidyā* is to lead man to immortality or freedom. The cultivation of

²cf. N.S., 1.14-15, धर्म्ययमध्यं यधस्यम्च सोपवेश्यं ससंब्रहम् । भविष्यतव्यत्व लोकस्य सर्वकर्मानुवर्धकम् ॥ ९४ ॥ सर्वधास्त्रार्यसम्पन्नं सर्वशिल्पप्रवर्सकम् ।

नाट्यावयं पंचमं वेदं सेतिहासं करोम्यहम् ॥

I resolve to write the fifth Veda called *Natya* which is designed to be the repository of all the branches of learning and initiator of all the arts and crafts, with a view to provide the guidelines for the conduct of all the people in future with regard to what is virtuous, desirable, glorious, instructive and worthy of being imbibed. stlpa (art) is subordinated to the aim of life attainable through vidyā (learning). This, incidentally, may provide the background in which Bharata has selected the materials of the music prevalent in histories for being incorporated in his work.

Obviously, Bharata's *Nāţyaśāstra* represents the study of what may be called highly cultivated music, practised among the members of the highly cultured section of the society, it being instructive, educative and elevating in orientation.

Another factor that lends real significance to this perspective is his concept of $G\bar{a}ndharva$, i.e., music, He defines $G\bar{a}ndharva$ as 'svara-tāla-padātmakam'¹ (the embodiment of tone-rhythmic cycle and verbal structure). So he takes $t\bar{a}la$ as one of the essential constituents of music.

Again it is interesting to observe that he almost identifies $t\bar{a}la$ as such with ghana³ (the solid instruments) which he considers to be one of the four classes of musical instruments constituting *ātodya* (instrumental ensemble).³ The modern practice of using the covered instruments (drums) such as *tablā* for the manifestation of *tāla* is therefore positively a later development. This development naturally forms a point of departure or of progress in a new dimension as far as the ancient practice is concerned. This aspect of the subject will however be considered in its proper place while dealing with the development of *tālas*. But all the same it is notable that Abhinavagupta as well assigns the function of *tāla* to ghana and not to avanaddha.⁴

Bharata defines, or in fact expounds tala as follows:

¹See N.S,, (G.O.S.), 28.8. ²cf. Ibid., 28.2--

पनं तानस्तु विज्ञेय: (ghana is known as tâla).

*cf. Ibid., 28.1-ghana is known as tala.

सतं चैयायनधं च घनं सूपिरमेव च ।

षतुविधं तु विज्ञैयमातोधं सक्षणान्वितम् ॥ 🖉

This instrumental ensemble is to be known as fourfold as distinguished by their characteristic features, viz., the stringed instruments (the kutis etc.), the covered instruments (the drums), the solid (ringing) instruments and the wind instruments.

*cf. Abh. Bha., (G.O.S.), p. 2.

भूति काठिग्येन घनं तदनुसारेण रसमाधोपयोगि विशिब्टवर्णद्वारेण च नोपयुज्यत इति साम्य-मात्रोपयोगिस्वासास इस्यूग्सं ।

वाद्यं तु यद्धनं प्रोक्तं कलापातलयान्वितम् । कालस्तस्य प्रमाणं हि विज्ञेयं तालयोगतः ॥ª —(N.S., (G.O.S.). 31.1)

"The instrument that has been called *ghana*, in association with *kalā* (unsounding action) $p\bar{a}ta$ (sounding action) and *laya* (tempo) is to be known as having time for its measure in the use of *tāla* (or 'by those who apply 'tāla' according to the other version)."

When ghana is identified with $t\bar{a}la$, in view of the above exposition, it only means that the instrument is the medium of the manifesting $t\bar{a}la$. Apart from that is involved in it, is the organisation of kalā, pāta and laya so as to render it a useful tool to measure the time in a musical rendering. In other words, whereas the function of $t\bar{a}la$ is to measure time, $kal\bar{a}$, $p\bar{a}ta$ and laya provide the means by which it becomes possible to do so; and again for the manifestation of these three, ghana provides the material perceptual medium. In other words, $kal\bar{a}$, $p\bar{a}ta$ and laya constitute the factors of $t\bar{a}la$, measurement of musical time, its objective or function so to say, and the ghana $v\bar{a}dya$ (the solid instruments), its medium of expression.

This exposition of *tāla* can properly and fully be comprehended by understanding the related concepts of *ghana*, *kalā*, *pāta*, *laya* and *kāla* (time).

Ghana has already been explained as the solid musical instrument used as the medium for the manifestation of $t\bar{a}la$, but it will yet be worthwhile to look at it from Bharata's perspective. Bharata, as already pointed out, classifies his instrumental ensemble into four types of instrument, viz., *tata, avanaddha, ghana* and *suşira*. But distinguishing them by their characteristic properties and their role in a musical performance, he further divides them into groups, viz., the ensemble of the stringed instruments (*tata kutapa*)³ and the ensemble of the covered instruments, i.e. drums (*avanaddha kutapa*) including the *suşira* (wind instruments) into the former and the *ghana* into the latter.³ This classification is essentially based on his concept of *svara* (tone), which he says is twofold, viz., body-based (*farīrah*) and based on stringed instruments

'Talayoktbhili is a text variant.

*Kutapa signifies a group of allied instruments and may roughly be equated with what is now called an ensemble.

*cf. N,S., (G.O.S.), 28.3.

(valadh).¹ Agein it is seen that according to Bharata, Gändharva (music) is caused (i.e. created) by voice, the lute (vinā) and the flute (vansa).³ That is because obviously these three are capable of producing the svaras (tones). Thus, the rationale of the avanaddha and tata kutapas being formed separately lies in their being atonal and tonal instruments. So, the avanaddhas and the ghanas are recognized to be atonal in nature as well as function. This explains why ghana was assigned the function of mainfesting tāla. However, it yet remains to be seen why avanaddha was not considered suitable for this purpose, but for the present what is more important is to comprehend tāla as understood by Bharata.

Since the very function of $t\bar{a}la$ is to measure time of a musical rendering, it will be of immense value to grasp the notion of time as understood by the ancients. The other constituent factors of $t\bar{a}la$ given are kalā, pāta and laya. Of these, the first two represent action. Time is considered to be eternal by itself and therefore unlimited. The fundamental question therefore arises, can time be measured and if so, how.

Time is differently conceived in the different schools of Indian philosophy. It will not be relevant to our investigation to go into the philosophical intricacies of their exposition. Here we are concerned with time that is measurable. Thus, time is conceived in two aspects, eternal and transitory. According to the Vaiśeşika system of philosophy, time is an eternal substance³ and the basis of all experiment. We do not know what time is in itself but our experience is cast in its fold.

Time in itself is one but it appears to be many with reference to the changes or events that take place in it.⁴ Time itself is not measurable; what is measurable is the action or the event that takes place in it, the limitation thereof being subsequently attributed to time. This time is transitory and relative, it always has a point of reference or a standard of measurement with reference to which it becomes perceptible. This time is chronological and consists in the notion of sequence in which certain events are prior and other posterior. But the time that is eternal is yet the substratum of this partial time. Abhinavagupta calls it the kāla khanda,

¹Ibid., 28.12. ³Ibid., 28.10. ³cf. V.S., II.2.7. ⁴cf. Tarkasamgraha, 15. i.e., a portion of time. He further says that it is the action of singing that is actually measured in terms of time. He elucidates Bharata's definition in these terms:

यद्धनं नामवाद्यमातोद्यं प्रोक्तमुद्दिष्टं ,तस्य तालेन भाविना शम्या-दिसशब्दावापनिः शब्दत्रियाविशेषयोगेन यस्तालः परिच्छित्त्यात्मक कालखण्डः क्रियारूपो द्रव्यात्मा स एव गोतक्रियाप्रमाणपरिच्छेदो-पायः ।

The purport is as follows: "The *tâla* that arises from the instrument spoken of as *ghana* by the application of sounding actions such as *samyā* and unsounding actions such as *āvapā*, which embodies action within a portion of time and is essentially a substance, is the means of measuring (literally limiting) the extent of the act of singing."

In other words $t\bar{a}la$ is conceived by him to be the means, fashioned out of the sasabda and nihsabda kriyās, for measuring the extent of the act of singing, as it is extended in time. If extension be understood as the quality or property of space, then $t\bar{a}la$ is essentially the means of determining and regulating the act of singing in time-space. But Abhinavagupta has referred to only two aspects of $t\bar{a}la$, namely, movement $(kriy\bar{a})$ and divisive time-measurement (*paricchitti*). But there are two other aspects also which are equally important. They are patterns of the time-division and their cyclic recurrence.

Again he says that time cannot be perceived without action,² rather it is time that is the cause of every limitation.³ Time is, as already pointed out, the formal cause of all change, its material cause being the limited objects or particular actions. So, action or $kriy\bar{a}$ is a means of determining the divisions of time in its transitory aspect and time on the other hand is the substratum in which the action takes place in its eternal aspects.

Since $t\bar{a}la$ is the means of measuring the act of singing in timespace, according to Abhinavagupta, Sārngadeva identifies $t\bar{a}la$ with $k\bar{a}la$ (time). He says,

¹See Ab. Bha., on N.S., (G.O.S.), 31.1, p. 151. ²न काल: कियाव्यतिरेक: अपि सु सर्वेपां परिष्छेवहेतु: फाल: इत्युच्यते।

PIbid.

-Abh. Bha, on N S., (G.O.S.), 31,1, p. 151

कालो लघ्वादिमितया कियया संमितो मितम् । गीतादेविदधत्तालः, स च द्विघा बुधैं स्मृतः ॥ ३ ॥

"Providing through action (kriya) measured by units such as laghu etc., the measurement of song (gita) etc., time is tala."

Though Särngadeva is a close follower of Bharata, a critical scrutiny of the definitions of $t\bar{a}la$ given by the two authors points to a certain development in the very concept of $t\bar{a}la$. The difference between the two, however, cannot be said to be categorical, but nevertheless it provides ample evidence of the development of the idea in the same direction.

To Bharata, tala was inextricably associated with the medium of its expression, i.e., ghana, which shows that his understanding was concrete; but to Sārngadeva, tala is nothing but time which signifies an abstract concept based on the distinction that was made between the subject and the medium of expression. This development in conceptual terms was probably a necessary forerunner to the change over from the ghana to the avanaddha as a medium of expression for tala in Indian music.

According to Bharata it is the ghana ($v\bar{a}dya$) along with $k\bar{a}la$, $p\bar{a}ta$ and laya that provides the standards of measurement in time² Abhinavagupta marks a development in his concept of $t\bar{a}la$ when he says that $t\bar{a}la$ arising from ghana with the sounding and the unsounding actions as well as tempo, is the means of determining the extent of the act of singing as delimited in terms of time-space.³ And Sārngadeva says that time as delimited by the actions measured by laghut etc., and thereby setting the measurement of songdance etc, is $t\bar{a}la$.⁴

Abhinavagupta represents one stage of development and Sārngadeva another. With Bharata $t\bar{a} la$ arises out of ghana, in order to measure time; for Abhinavagupta, it is not time that is measured by $t\bar{a}la$, it is the extent (i.e. the time-scape) of the act of singing that is sought to be measured by $t\bar{a}la$, and for Sārngadeva, time as qualified by the measured expanse of the act of singing is $t\bar{a}la$. The whole process achieves the isolation of $t\bar{a}la$ from the medium of its

¹S.R., 5.3. ¹cf. N.S., (G.O.S.), 31.1. ¹cf. Abh. Bha., on N.S., (G.O.S.), 31.1, p. 151. ¹cf. S.R., 5.2. experession. Abhinavagupta developes the concept that it is the act of singing that is the object of measurement in time, but does not dissociate it from ghana; while Särngadeva develops the concept of associating laghu and guru etc., which are the time units measured through kalā and pāta in order to manifest tāla, dispensing with any explicit reference to ghana.

Sangita-cūdāmaņi, defines tāla as:

तालः कालस्य यन्मानं मात्राजं हि क्रियाकृतम् ।

i.e., "tāla signifies measurement of time through the mātrās produced by (sounding and unsounding) actions." It may be observed that already the reference to ghana was not considered essential in p. ojecting the concept of $t\bar{a}la$ in the 12th century.

Whether it is time that is measured by tala or the act of singing that is measured by *tala* in time, *tala* is predominantly concerned with time, a factor that is clearly brought out by Sarngadeva. All the same it is true, as pointed out by Abhinavagupta, that time is not perceptible without action or change. And it is the pattern of action that determines the form of tūla. Again change implies alternation of relative action and rest, the frequency of which produces tempo (laya). So in fact we can see how the three factorstime, action and the rate of change (caused by relative action and pause) go to constitute tala. It is also clear how time is related to action and tempo. So fundamentally, whatever has been said by Sarngadeva, Jagadekamalla and Abhinavagupta, is no doubt implied in Bharata, but the credit of realising these implications and stating them in their own way lies with them. Incidentally, their respective perceptions were responsible for the refinement and precision that the concept of tala receives in Saragadeva.

Time, or the expanse of the act of singing in time is measured through kalā and pāta, i.e., the sounding and the silent actions. How is this achieved? By striking a bronze instrument (or a ghata, i.e., a pitcher) at regular intervals of time. Though the ghana was used for keeping time the other system of keeping time by the clapping of hands continued to the maintained in a modified and improved form, at least as far as the Mārg 1 tālas are concerned. Originally, as it appears, tāla was kept and manifested by the hand. The action of the hand is called kriyā which is conceived to be of two types, viz., sašabda (sounding) and niķšabda (silent). Bharata has given the other set of terms, viz., kalā and pāta. The word . kalā is used in various senses, it denotes generally a unit of timemeasure in tāla as accompanied with some action, niķšabda or sašabda, and particularly it signifies the niķšabda kriyā in contrast with pāta that signifies sounding action.¹

Kalā literally signifies a phase or thereby a part of a whole, and thus, it has the function of a unit in the cycle of $t\bar{a}la$. This unit of time has no absolute value, it varies according to the $M\bar{a}rga$ or the particular span of $t\bar{a}la$ to which it is related. The fact that it has no absolute value is very important as this flexibility was utilised in evolving the structure of *Deśī tālas* to great advantage. But all the same it does not mean that it has no fixed value.

In metrical measure a $kul\bar{a}$ is equal to a $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ which is equivalent to the time taken by pronouncing a short vowel or the time of a nimesa (i.e., winking of the eye). Here, in the context of $t\bar{a}la$, a' kalā or mātrā is equal to five laghus.² However, in the Mārga tālas the actual unit of tāla which is called kalā consists of two laghus or a guru (of the tāla system). Thus, each kalā of tāla is equal to the time taken by pronouncing ten short syllables (or vowels). Laghu is, however, used in the yathāksara form which will be dealt with presently.

Bharata says that $kal\bar{a}$ is threefold according to as it pertains to the three $M\bar{a}rgas^3$, viz., Citrā, Vārtika and Daksinā. Thus, the concept of kalā is inevitably related to that of Mārga in the Mārga tālas. Šārngadeva speaks of four Mārgas adding Dhruva in the beginning. According to him in the Dhruva Mārga, the kalā is of one mātrā, in Citrā, of two mātrās, in Vārtika of four mātrās and in Daksinā it has eight mātrās, the mātrā being equal to a laghu.⁴ In practice the Dhruva Mārga is hardly ever used. So, practically a kalā is at least of the measure of 2 laghus or one guru. It is quite

¹cf. S.R , 5.4.

"cf. S.R., 5.16-

पञ्चलण्वक्षरोच्चारमिता मात्रेह कम्पते ॥ १६ ॥

वनया मात्रयावस्मात्लप्गर्यादि कल्पना ।

and also see N.S., (G.O.S.), 31.2 and 31.4, which says:

निमेषपन्न विज्ञेया गीतकालेकनान्तरम् ।

A nimera is found to be equal to 0.24 seconds, the laghu of tala is therefore equal to 1.20 seconds.

Sec N.S., (G.O.S.), 31.3. Sec S.R., 5,10-11. interesting to note that the Sangitacūdāmaņi speaks of six Mārgas,¹ viz., Daksiņā, Vārtika, Citrā, Citratara, Citratama and Aticitratama with their kalās respectively consisting of eight, four, two, one, half mātrā and anudruta.² Jagadekmalla is said to be a contemporary of Sārngadeva. Someśvara, who is predecessor of both, also speaks of four Mārgas, viz., Vārtika, Daksiņā, Citrā and Citratara.³ And he clearly says that "in this way the measure of sounding action in tāla is known to be fourfold."⁴

The addition to the three $M\bar{a}rgas$ of Bharata in different ways is a clear pointer to the development of $De\bar{s}i$ tālas which, as it will be observed later, have *laghu* as their standard unit of measurement in contrast with the guru of $M\bar{a}rga$ tālas. It was due to this development probably that Someśvara had to devise *Citratara Mārga* and Šārngadeva had to add the *Dhruva Mārga*, while Jagadekamalla went to the extent of innovating six *Mārgas* in compliance with the structure of $De\bar{s}i$ tālas. Šārngadeva did not need to do that because he, at the very outset classified tāla.into *Mārga* and $De\bar{s}i$.⁵ So. subsequently the application of the concept of *Mārgas* was abandoned with regard to the $De\bar{s}i$ tālas which acquired a distinct identity. But, nevertheless, Jagadekamalla's attempt to comprehend all the tālas into a system of six *Mārgasīr* and Šārngadeva's classification of tālas into *Mārga* and *Deśī* mark a point of departure from the older tradition in practice.

Someśvara's clear statement that the four Mārgas provide a fourfold measure of $t\bar{a}la$ throws flood of light on the very significance of the concept of Mārga, which in Śārngadeva's treatment is very intimately related to the concept of the threefold $t\bar{a}la$ in terms of ekakala, dvikala and catuşkala forms of all the Mārga tālas, associating them with the Citrā, Vārtika and the Dakşiņā Mārgas respectively. The concept of Mārgas is also related to that of tempo (laya). However, this aspect will be considered while dealing with laya. Mārga essentially implies a device for providing different standards of measuring the same $t\bar{a}la$ -structure. For example, the

¹See Sangitacūdāmaņi, 51-54. ^aAnudruta is of the value of one-fourth of a mâtrā. ^aSee Mānasoliāsa, 4.16.850. ^dएवं चतुचिंगं मानं तालपाते प्रकोतितम् । —Mānasoliāsa, 4.16.851 ^aSee S.R., 5.4. Indeed some have suggested that the Mārga-tālas are those tālas that find

expression in terms of Margas.

yathākşara or ekakala form of caccatputa is SSIŚ, i.e., two gurus, one laghu and pluta. A guru is equivalent to two laghus and a pluta is equivalent to three laghus. Thus in all, it has four kalās of two laghus, each of which is capable of being expanded to give rise to what is known as a pādabhāga (section). The dvikala form comprises eight gurus in four groups of two gurus each. viz., SS SS SS and the catuşkala form comprises sixteen gurus in four groups of four gurus each. viz., SSS SSSS SSSS SSSS. This expansion of the basic structure is achieved by introducing nihšabda kalā in between the sašabda kalās. This is amply demonstrated by the pattern of the sašabda and nihšabda kalās in them as shown below:

		S	S	I	5	Ś		
(a) Ekakala caccatputa	(i) :	sam	śa	. tā		a or		
(•	S	S	I		Ś		
	(ii)	sa	tā	i sa		ă or		
•		S	S	I	-	S		
	(iii)	tā	Śŧ	a tá	Ś	2		
(b) Dvikala caccatpuța		S	S	SS	S	S	S	S
(0) 2000200 1		ni	śa	nitā	śa	pra	ni	śam
(c) Catuşkala caccatpuţa	S	S	5	S S	S	S	S	S
	ā	r	i i	vi śa	ā	ni	vi	tā
	S		5	S S	S	S	S	S
	ā	ś	a '	vi pr	a ā	ni	vi	sam

Here it may be mentioned that the kalās are named as follows:

Name of sasabda kalâ	Abbre- viation	Name of niḥśabda kalā	Abbre- viation
1. Dhruva	Dhru	āvāpa	ā
2. Samya	śa	nişkrāma -	лі
3. Tāla	tā	vikşepa	vi
4. Sannipāta	sam	praveśa	pra

Now, it will be observed that the ekakala form has all sasabda kriyäs, the dvikala form begins with a nihšabda kriyā and proceeds with a nihšabda and a sašabda kriyā in each pādabhāga. Similarly, it may be seen that catuşkala form as well has one sašabda kriyā and three nihšabda kriyās in each pādabhāga, thus having the same four sašabda kriyās as in the ekakala form. It is therefore obvious

-Dattilam, 109

-S.R., 5.52

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that Marga implies a variation of the time-measure of a particular *tāla*-structure.

The third constituent factor of talu is laya (tempo).¹ Bharata clearly says that tempo (laya) is caused by the time-space taken by the kalās.² The time-interval obtained between one sounding kalā and another is called viśranti (rest) by Śarngadeva who defines laya as "rest immediately following action."³ In other words. tempo is nothing but the interval of time between a series of actions (krivas). This concept is naturally to be contrasted with the modern concept of laya as speed or rate of action. The former considers rest as the substance of laya while the latter considers action as its substance. Of course it goes without saying that the two are related like the two sides of the same coin, but the conseouence of this difference in emphasis is such that the way of expressing it today is just the opposite of what it was earlier. Nowa-days the expression 'increase of laya' means the increase of speed of action and consequently the decrease of the period of rest. which is the very opposite of the earlier concept according to which the increase of lava meant the increase of the rest period and the decrease of the rate of action. So, laya, according to the ancients, consists of primarily in the period of rest.

What lends $t\bar{a}la$ a distinct identity with reference to rhythm is what Dattila calls *parivarta* and Sārngadeva calls it *parivartana* which he defines as the repetition of a *pādabhāga* (i.e., a section) or the whole of $t\bar{a}la$.⁴ It is this repetition or recurrence in a cyclic order that distinguishes $t\bar{a}la$ from simple rhythm. This concept of *parivarta* or *parivartana* it seems, has come down to us in the form of $\bar{a}vartana$ of modern practice.

¹cf. Dattilam where tala is said to be based on laya, kala and kala:

अच तालं प्रवक्ष्यामि लयकालकलागतं ॥ १०६ ॥

**N.S.*, (G.O.S.), 31.5—

ततः कलाकृतो लय इत्यभिसंजितः

सयो लयास्तु विज्ञेया द्तमध्यबिलम्बिसाः ॥ १ ॥

S.R., 5.44-

कियानन्तरविश्वान्तिलैय: ।

⁴वाद्ति: पादभागादे: परिवर्तनमिष्यते ।

Källinätha, commenting on *ddeh* of the text says that implies the whole of *tâlu*, See S.R., Adyar edn., vol. III, p. 24. Also cf. *Datțilam*, III,

Besides parivarta, yati and graha are other two concepts related to that of lava. Yati is defined by Särngadeva as "the regulation effecting laya (tempo)." A melody or a musical rendering is conceived as divided into three parts, viz.. the beginning. middle and the end. Yati or its three varieties, viz.. samä, śrotogatā and gopuccha² consists of the varied distribution of the slow, the middle and the fast tempo. We need not go into details here, the concept being very clear in so far as it is related to the distribution of musical speed over the entire body of a composition or a rendering.

Similarly, the concept of graha comprehends the relationship between the commencement of the $t\bar{a}la$ -pattern and that of the rendering The three types of graha, viz., sama, atīta and anāgata relate to the three layas, viz., on. after and before the commencement of the composition.

In modern musical practice; sama is the aesthetic confluence of the singer, player and drummer. This is the point where the beauty and the intricacies of raga and tala tend to get focused. This is one of the unique aspects of Hindustant music. In Karnatic music. the old concept of graha still continues. There the focal point is the start of the composition and all the intricacies of tala and svara are calculated towards that point. Sarngadeva defines sama as "the graha (hold) in which the commencement of tala coincides in time with that of melody."3 The function and the relationship of atita and anagata is interpreted differently by Kallinatha and Simhabhūpāla. The concept of Kāllinātha is related to the starting point of the drummer; the other relates to the starting point of the singer.⁴ We are presently concerned with grasping the concept of tala as a whole. It seems that gradually the complexity of the three types of graha gave way to the simplicity of sama which discharged the function of graha. Sama or graha as such is one of the most important factors of tala in Indian music system.

1लयप्रवत्तिनियमो यतिरित्यभिधीयते ॥

समा स्रोत्तोगता चान्या गोपुच्छा तिविधेति सा ॥ - *cf. S.R., 5.47-50 for details.

-S.R., V,46-47

S.R., 5.51.

⁴See Källinätha and Simhabhüpäla on S.R., 5.50-52. According to Källinätha *atita* is that which commences prior to the commencement of melody while according to Simhabhūpäla *atita* is that which commences after the melody has begun. Similarly their interpretation of *andgata* also varies.

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It has been observed that $t\hat{a}la$ is indicated through the action of salabda and niháabda kriyās. But alongside it has also been observed that $t\hat{a}la$ was to be manifested through ghana. When $t\hat{a}la$ was kept by the action of hand, what was the need for pressing the ghana into service? Or, conversely, when $t\hat{a}la$ was to be kept with the help of ghana what was the need for the system of sounding and silent movements of the hand?

Sārngadeva throws some light on this question while he defines the utility and the functions of tāladhara. He says, "A separate cymbal holder (tāladhara), expert in the gāndharva system should be provided to assist the singer and to safeguard against his inadvertance."¹

Obviously, the idea is that a *tāladhara* is necessary to relieve the attention of the singer from the pre-occupation of keeping *tāla*. So it must have been observed that this preoccupation constituted a distraction in concentrating upon the act of singing. If it is reasonably conceived that originally *tāla* was kept by the hand through the system of saśabda and nihśabda kriyās, this consideration must have been responsible for the introduction of ghana as the medium for the manifestation of *tāla*. Now, why of the two atonal instruments, viz., ghana and avanaddha, was this function assigned to ghana to begin with?

Abhinavagupta, while expounding the utility of ghana as a medium of keeping $t\bar{a}la$ points out that the system of indicating $t\bar{a}la$ through the sounding and the silent acts of the hand is relevant only in the context of the $g\bar{a}ndharva$ and not with regard to $g\bar{a}na$, so much so that even the Dhruvā-gāna, described by Bharata has no use for the hand-indicating of $t\bar{a}la$. Thus for $g\bar{a}na$ it was ghana only that was to be used as a medium of $t\bar{a}la$. All those forms of music that have no reference to $ad_{f}staphala$ (mystic merit) such as Dhruvā songs and Deśī rāgas are outside the scope of Mārga Sangīta; so for these forms which are technically called gāna in contradistinction to gāndharva, ghana was the medium of $t\bar{a}la$. This confirms our hypothesis that the system of

1S.R., 5.38-39-

गाम्धर्यमार्गकुशल: कांस्पतालधरो पर: ॥

गतः सहायः कत्तंग्यः प्रमादनिवृत्तये ॥

Källinätha elucidates that the Jâtis. Grâma râgas, the six types of râgas and the fourteen gitakas constitute gändharva while the four Märgas are indicated by the word Märga. indicating tala by the hand movements is a hangover from earlier times, when this function was discharged exclusively by the clapping of hands.

Another point made by him is that the use of ghana or kāmsvatala secures what is called prayoga-sāmya.¹ The concept of sāmya is used by Dattila as well.² But the significance of this concept is not technically very clear. Literally, sāmya means evenuess, equability, concord, harmony, etc. Moreover, as he argues, tala is used not only by the singers, who can, in all probability show the sounding and the silent kriyās by the hand, but also by the instrumentalists and the dancers who cannot attend to their performance fully and to a taladhara who is keeping time by hand. A kamsyatala is naturally helpful to them directly Probably same is indicative of the concordance of tonal and rhythmic aspects of a rendering. This concordance could not be achieved as best by employing the technique of the hand alone as by a bronze instrument. Besides Sārngadeva has given an added purpose for ghana. viz.. to provide a cover for the inadvertance of the singer, obviously referring thereby to the same consideration as that of Dattila in the terms of achieving sāmya. Thus, ghana is more helpful in securing co-ordination between singing, playing on instruments. dancing and rhythm or tempo, i.e., gita, vailya, nytya and tala, in sangīta.

Abhinavagupta points out another function of $k\bar{a}msyatala$ (a bronze instrument) quoting Viśākhila in terms of "gātuh prasāda parīksanam", i.e., for determining the singer's clarity in timemeasure. The word prasāda in view of what Šārngadeva has said may be deciphered as pramāda (inadvertence) in this expression and then it would seem that the function of kāmsyatāla as deterrent to the inadvertence of the singer, as already pointed out by him.

Avanaddha was obviously meant for sangati function that could not be assigned to ghana since relatively the avanddhas (drums) are less atonal than ghana-vādyas. The tablā is, for example, set to tune in any performance. Moreover, avanaddha is capable of

¹See Abh. Bh.. on N.S., 32.2, (G.O.S.), p. 152. ¹तासात् साम्यं भवेत् साम्यादिह सिद्धि: परव्र च ।

-Datfilam, 110

Sec Abh. Bha., on N.S. ,31.2, (G.O.S.), p. 152.

The expression प्राणीमतस्य गातुः प्रसाद परीक्षणप्रयोजनं कांस्यतास मन्यन्ये can as well be deciphered to read-प्रमादपरीक्षण

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producing what we call bols which make it more suitable for sangati and also lend it an element of delightfulness. This ought to be one of the reasons for assigning the function of tala to

Enumerating the concepts related to the exposition of tala, ghana. Bharata mentions twenty-one terms that comprehend the subject matter of tala. There are:

1. dhruva, 2. āvāpa, 3. niskrāma, 4. viksepa, 5. praveša, 6. śūmya, 7. tāla and 8 sannipāta, constituting the nihšabda and the sasabda kriyā s, 9. parivarta, 10. vastu, 11. mātrā-s, 12. the prakarana (gitas), 13. their angas, 14. vidārī, 15. yati-s, 16. layas, 17. gīcīs, 18. avayavas, 19. mārgas, 20. pādabhāgas

21. and panis.1

From amongst these we have already dealt briefly or extensively with the krivas (1 to 8), parivarta (9), matras (11), yatis (15), layas (16), mārgas (19) and pādabhāgas (20) as well as the pāņis (21), which are the same as the three grahas, viz, sama, atica and anugata. Most of the other concepts are related to what are called the parkarana gitas or gitakas. As far as the concept of tala is concerned the related concepts have been expounded in due proportion to their role. The other concepts we shall be dealing with while considering the structure of the Marga talas and gitakas.

While Bharata has given twenty-one factors of tāla as enumerated above and Dattila has reduced them to fifteen, Samgadeva again presents twenty-one which are not the same as those of Bharata but are much more comprehensive in including every detail of the technique of tala. These are: 1. marga talas, 2. kalas (unsounding actions), 3. pātas (sounding actions), 4. mārgas (spans), 5. the eight märgakalās such as dhruvaka, citrā, etc., 6. the standard measure of guru and laghu, 7. the classification as ekakala dvikala and catuskala, 8. the pädabhāgas (sections), 9. the mātrā, 10. the technique of pāta and kalā, 11. the regulation of fingering (anguliniyama), 12. the classification or varieties such as yugma (even), ayugma (odd), etc., 13. parivarta, 14. layas, 15. yatis, 16. gītakas, 17. gītas, 18. tālāngas, 19. gītāngas, 20. Deśī-tālas and

³See N.S., (G.O.S.), 31.18-20. Dattila enumerates fifteen concepts comprehending the eight krivas into kaia and pata (i.e. silent or sounding actions).

pratyayas (tabular formula)

Obviously these are not the factors of tala but the topics treated by him in the Tālādhyāya. It is not our intention here to reproduce the description of each topic. Some of the later writers' have further reduced the essentials of tala to what is called the dasa (ten) prāņas (ten vital essentials). These are: 1. kāla, 2. mārga, 3. kriyā, 4. anga, 5. graha, 6. jāti, 7. kalā, 8. laya, 9. yati, and 10. prastāra.

Of these all but jāti and prastāra have already been dealt with. The rest of them will naturally be explained in the next topic, viz., the structure of tala.

Classification and Structure of Tala

The talas are primarily divided as Marga talas and Desi talas by Sarngadeva² though such a clear-cut distinction is not made by his predecessors. Bharata deals only with the former. The tala-structure is constructed by the sašabila and the nihšabila krivās (sounding and silent actions) which in-between them also create tempo. The common name for both these kriyas is kala and Bharata says that "kalā is threefold being based on or regulated by the three varied Märgas. In Citra marga, it consists of two matros, in Vartika. it is doubled, and in Daksina, it is four times (i.e. of 8 matras)."3

A matra, as already mentioned, consists or five nimesas⁴ or the laghus of Samskria prosody. This matra is also called laghu.⁵ The word matra also bears quite a different technical meaning; it denotes a unit of four pādabhāgas in the construction of gitakas such as madraka and so on.⁶ But that is exceptional. The word matra literally means 'measure', 'extent' in different contexts. Here in the context of *tāla* it represents a unit of time.

Thus, kalā is threefold as used in the three Mārgas, the minimum extent being of two matras. That is why Sarngadeva clearly lays down that in the context of ekakala, dvikala and catuskala forms of the gitakas kalā signifies a guru which is the equivalent of two mātrgas.¹ In the Mātrās tālas we have another unit called pluta

¹Such as Raja Tulaja, Venkatamakhin, Rānā Kumbha, etc.

2S.R. 5. 3-4.

^aN.S., (G.O.S.), 31.4.

"A nimesa (winking of an eye) is found to be equal to the value of 0.24 second in our terms.

⁵Sec S.R., 5.16-17. "Ibid., 31.21.

which is equal to three mātrās or laghus. But nevertheless a pādabhāga is mentioned in terms of kalās, i.e., gurus. For example, the yathākşara caccatputa has two gurus, one laghu and one pluta, i.e., 2+2+1+3=8 mātrās, and so four kalās in its yathākşara form and eight and sixteen kalās in its dvikala and catuşkala forms respectively.

The Mārga tālas are divided into two classes (jātis), viz. caturaira and tryaira which are symbolised by the caccatputa and cācaputa tālas.² The first one of these has four kalās and the second one has three kalās in their yathāksara forms while in their dvikala, and catuskala forms they shall have the multiples $(4 \times 2 = 8)$ and $4 \times 4 = 16$ of four and three $(3 \times 2 = 6)$ and $3 \times 4 = 12$ kalās in a pādabhāga.³

The five Marga talas are distributed among these two jatis as under:

Caturaśra	Tryaśra
1. Caccatpuța	2. Câcapuța
•	3. Şatpitāputraka ⁴
	4. Udghatta
	5. Sampakveştaka ^s

The ekakala and other forms of these are represented as under:

Name of tåla	Yāthākşara	Dvikala	Catuşkala
1. Caccatpuţa	SSIŚ	SS SS	SSSS SSSS
		SS SS	SSSS SSSS
2. Cācapuļa	SIIS	SS SS SS	SSSS SSSS SSSS
3. Şatpitāputraka	ŚISSIŚ	SS SS SS	SSSS SSSS SSSS
		SS SS SS	SSSS SSSS SSSS
¹ ग्वः कलात्र ।	R., 5.20		
*See N.S., (G.O.S.), 3	-	17-18.	
*See S.R., 5.20, illustr			
Name of tala	Yathākşara	Dvikala	Catuşkala
1. Caccaspuja	SSIS	SSSS	SSSS SSSS
•••		SSSS	SSSS SSSS
2. Cācapuļa	SSIS	SSSS	SSSS SSSS
-		SS	SS SS
The terms yathākşara	etc., will be expl	ained presently.	
Also known as uttar	a and <i>paficopăți</i> ((S.R., 5.23).	
*A variety of satpitap	utraka (S.R., 5,2	(4)	•

4. Udghatta	SSS	SS SS SS	SSSS SSSS
5. Sampakvestaka ŚSSSŚ	SS SS SS	SSSS SSSS SSSS	
		SS SS SS	SSSS SSSS SSSS

Corresponding to the three Mārgas spoken of by Bharata as it were, we have three forms of these Mārga tālas viz. yathākşara, dvikala and catuşkala. The term yathākşara signifies the namewise arrangement of laghus and gurus.¹ Yathākşara is also called ekakala² which signifies that on the whole a kalā represents a unit that is capable of developing into a pādabhāga. Accordingly in the dvikala form a pādabhāga has two kalās and in the catuşkala form it has four kalās.³

Apart from these five $t\bar{a}las$, Sarngadeva also speaks of three other varieties of $c\bar{a}caputa$ which are constructed out of the multiples of its catuskala form.⁴

The construction of the Mārga tālas in terms of time-space has been elucidated as above, but in actual practice the tālas are kept by the sašabda and the nihšabda krijūs and it is the regulation pertaining to these krijūs (anguli niyama) that goes to form the tālapattern. This technique has already been demonstrated while expounding the concept of tāla. The eight kalās (four silent and sounding) are demonstrated by the finger-movement as under.⁵

Name of kalā	Nature	Acti. n Drawing in of the fingers of the outstretched and upturn- ed hands. Stretching of fingers of over- turned hands.		
 Āvāpa Nişkrāma Vikşepa 	Unsounding			
	Unsounding			
	Unsounding	Throwing of the upturned		
'See S.R., 5,19- मामगतेगंसंस्त्र यचाक्षर: ।				
See Källinätha on S.	R., 5.18-19, p. 10.	vol III.		
*See S.R., 5.20-21-				
••• दिकमे दिकमो मतः	11 90 11			

पादभाग: ग्लानां तु चतुष्केण चतुष्कले ॥

What has been said about the *ekakala* has been inferred from this. *See S.R. 5.25. *cf. S.R. 5.7-10,

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		hand without stretched fingers towards the right side.
4. Praveša 🕔	Unsounding	Drawing in of the fingers of the outstretched hand.
5. Dhruva	Sounding	The beat of the hand by sounding the thumbs and the fore-finger together.
6. Śamya	Sounding	The beat of the right hand.
7. Tāla	Sounding	The beat of the left hand
8, Sannipäta	Sounding '	The beat of both the hands.

The time-space taken by these varies according to the Mārgas. According to another school mentioned by Sārngadeva kalā consists of two mātrās; there are eight mātrās in the four sounding acts (pātas). These are differently employed in the three Mārgas as under.¹

Name of mūtra	Mārga
1. Dhruvaka and Patitā	Citrā Mārga
2. Dhruvaka, Sarpiņī,	•
Patākā and Patitā	Vārtika Mārga
3. Dhruvaka, Sarpiņi,	•
Krsna, Padminī, Visarjitā,	
Viksiptā, Patākā and	· ·
Patitā	· Dakşiņā Mārga

However, their actual use in practice is not demonstrated by him. Furthermore, they are distinguished by the following acts.²

1. Dhruvakā	—	Soundful
2. Sarpiņī	—	going left
3. Krsna	—	going right
4. Padmini		going downwards
5. Visarjitā	_	going outwards
6. Viksiptā		contracting
7. Patākā		going upwards
8. Patitā	_	falling of the hand

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Thus from these signs one can always determine the position of tala at a given movement.

It will be seen that only two of these *mātrās* are sounding. This does not fit in with the other system of eight *kalās* spoken of earlier. These eight *kalās* are distributed among the different *Mārga tālas* as shown for *caccatputa*.¹

Caccatpuța

•	•				S			S		I	1	Ś		
(i)	Yathākşara	1			Sam			śa		tā	\$	a		
			S	S	5	I		Ś		S	S		S	S
	or	Ś	a	tă	i	śa		tā	or	tä	śa		tā	śa
(ii)	Dvikala		S	5	5.	S		S		S	S	ÌS		S
			ni	Ś		ni		tâ	Ś	a	pra	ni		śa
(iii)	Catuşkala				S	· •	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
		â	ni	vi	śa		ā	nł	vi	tā	ā	Śâ	vi	pra
		S	S	S	S									•
		ā	ni	vi	saп	1								

This is to demonstrate one $t\bar{a}la$ by way of example. As it has already been stated that $M\bar{a}rga t\bar{a}la$; are productive of adrsta phala(the imperceptible reward) and therefore they are used only in the $g\bar{a}ndharva$ form of music and not $g\bar{a}na$. The $g\bar{i}takas$ and the $p\bar{u}rva$ ranga (prelude) of a drama are the known forms of musical practice where these $t\bar{a}las$ were used.² The $g\bar{i}takas$ are primarily $t\bar{a}la$ structures sheltering melodic forms; in other words, they are predominantly $t\bar{a}la$ -oriented melodic forms. Some of the prominent features of $g\bar{i}takas$ are indicated here.

The Gitakas

Sārngadeva enumerates fourteen gītakas in the category of Prakaraņa gītas but makes an undefined distinction between seven gītakas and seven gītas. These are:

 Madraka, 2. Aparāntaka, 3. Uliopyaka, 4. Prakari, 5. Ovenaka, 6. Rovindaka, and 7. Uttara (enumerated as gītakas). The gītas are: 1. Chandaka, 2. Āsārita, 3. Vardhamāna, 'See S.R., 5.26-37 for every detail of what he calls pātākalāvidhi, i.e., the

technique of sounding and silent actions. *cf. S.R., 5 53. 4. Pāņika, 5. Gāthā, and 7. Sama.¹

These are predominantly tala-oriented melodic structures in which the Märga tālas are variously employed, more than one tāla being used in each with reference to different angas The main theme of these gītakas is laid in what is called vastu which is augmented by what are called its angas. The angas are integral parts of the gītakas. These are twenty-seven in all but all of them are not necessarily used in every song, only some are incorporated in each. The angas are: *kaka, vividha, vrtta, upohana, pratyupohana, šākhā, pratišākhā, pāda, pratipāda, prasvāra, vaihāyasa, upavartana, dvaigeyaka, samharana, veņī, praveņī, upapāta, šārīra, sampistaka, tālikā, māşaghāta, sandhi, vajra, caturaśra, śīrşaka, anta and mātrā.²*

Here we need not go into the structural details of all the $g\bar{i}takas$. It will suffice to state briefly the outline of one of them by way of illustration, though it must not be understood that all others are of a similar formation since more or less, each of them has certain unique features and is quite different from others in composition. The first of these $g\bar{i}takas$ is called madraka and its structure is outlined as follows:

Madraka is of three types, viz., kakala, dvikala and catuskala. Each of these once again is twofold, i.e., having three vastus (compositional sections) and having four vastus. Sirsaka (an anga) is performed in that variety which has three vastus. A vastu of the kakala madraka is made up of eight gurus and eight laghus. With the first two kalās upohana (an anga) is sung either with the sasabda kriyā of dhruva or without it. Pratyupohana (another anga) is sung with the third kalā. The hand-movements (kriyās) pertaining to the rest of the thirteen kalās are śa, śa, tā tā śa, śa tā tā śa, tā ša tā sam, It may be a song with one or three of four vastus. Sīrsaka (another anga) is sung at the end of the third vastu. Its prastāra is given as under:

SSS S S S S S S I I I I I I I I uuu śa śa tā tā śa śa tā tā śa tā sam The Śirşaka may be sung either in yathākşara or catuşkala

¹cf. S.R., 5.53. ¹See S.R., 5.53-55.

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Pañcapāņi tāla:

(i) Yathâkşara	Ś	т	S	c	r	c	•				
(I) I annanşara	sam	-			-		-				
(ii) Catuşkala	SS	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
	a n	i vi	pra	l∶ã	tā	vi	śa	ä	ni	vi	tâ
•	SS	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
	ā n	i vi	śa	â	tā	vi	pra	ã	ni	vi	sam

Prastāra in the context of Mārga tālas means the demonstration of the tāla-units such as laghu, guru and pluta, in relation to the sounding and silent actions (kriyās) that are used to indicate them, such as āvāpa and seven others. Prastāra, in other words, presents the image of the tāla as related to the structure of the song. Dvikala and catuskala Madraka forms are similarly conceived with variation or addition in the number of vastus and angas used. These are elaborated by Śārngadeva at length.¹ What is important to note is the purpose that these gītakas served.

As already stated Bharata has used them in the *pūrvaranga* (prelude). Sārngadeva informs that they were sung in the propitiation of Lord Siva and that they were considered capable of leading to spiritual liberation (moksa), as laid down by Brahma.² These are perhaps the only compositions in which Mārga tālas are actually employed. The *dhruva* songs of Bharata being outside the scope of Gāndharva were obviously unsuitable for the use of Mārga tālas, The scant practical use of the Mārga tālas even by Bharata strongly suggests that even in his time the tradition of non-Mārga tālas, later identified by Sārngadeva as Deśī tālas must have been in vogue. Let us now therefore consider the Deśi tālas.

The Desi Talas

Before Śarngadeva, we do not come across the term *Deśī tāla*; probably it was coined by him in view of the fact that he has classified the musical arts into two broad divisions called *Mārga* and *Deśī*. Someśvara in his *Mānasollāsa* classifies *tālas* into four types, viz. *tryaśra*, *caturaśra*, *miśra* and *khanda*. The terms *tryaśra* and *caturaśra* are available in Bharata as well, but here their

³See S.R., V.60-87. ³cf. S.R., V.56.

time-measure is not the same. Caturasra is formed by two, four or six gurus while the basic unit for tryasra is that of three gurus that is augmented by six. His misra variety is a combination of the two. Bharata also speaks of samkirna talas made up of the combination of the tryasra and caturasra types though he has not dealt with them. Thus the difference in the time-measure between the caturaira and tryaira of Bharata and Somesvara is not of a categorical significance. But the introduction of the concept of khanda talas is no doubt of great importance. The word khanda literally means a part or a fraction. It is obvious from the structure of the Deśi tālas that they are constructed by way of fractions of guru which was the accepted standard unit in the Marga talas, for here the standard unit is laghu which also is fractioned into one-half, one quarter and so on. So, in all probability, the origin of what are now called Deśi tālas, may be sought in the development of what Someśvara classified as the khanda talas. These talas were of course sufficiently developed in his time_or must be presumed to have had a long tradition. It has already been conjectured on the basis of certain hints of the nature of omission and commission available in the Nātyašāstra¹ that even Bharata's time a non-Mārga tradition of talas must have been vogue side by side with the Marga talas. So even if we cannot assume the khanda talas to be the origin of Desi talas yet the very concept of khanda marks a very important phase of development which was accompanied by another development correspondingly, viz., the use of bronze instrument (kāmsyatāla) for the manifestation of tāla as an essential feature. The Märga tälas were not dependent on the ghana vådyas which were employed as a support only. The essential work of keeping tala was done through the sounding and the silent actions which are conspicuous by their absence in the Disi talas. For instance. Śārngadeva defines Deśī tālas as under:

"Desi tāla, however, is recognised by the action that measures (time) in laghu etc. as required by the exigency of melodic excellence as indicated by the beating of a bronze cymbals."²

³Such as the non-use of *Mārga-tālas* in the *dhruva* songs with avowed necessity of *tālas* is in them and the mention of *samkirna tālas*.

²देशीतालस्तु सध्यादिमितमा कियया मत: ।

मपाशोमं कांस्पतास व्वननादिकया मत: ।

This definition needs to be closely examined in order to bring out its full implication.

By his very presentation and style of expression, Sarngadeva makes it clear that the concept and the structure of the *Desi talas* is quite different from that of *Marga talas*. The most significant points that he projects by way of definition are:

- (i) the standard unit of measurement in these talas is laghu (and so on),
- (ii) the standard unit can be varied according to the exegencies of melodic excellence, and
- (iii) tālu is to be manifested by the beating of a kāmsyatālas (not the nihfabda and safabda kriyās).

The use of etc. with laghu is indicative of druta and virāmānta. Druta is half the measure of laghu and anudruta (introduced subsequently), is half of druta. Virāmānta has no independent measure of its own but denotes one-half of the measure to which it is attached. Thus a laghu-virāmānta is equal to one and half a laghu. Since a guru-virāmānta would amount to pluta, it is not used. So in addition to the three units of laghu, guru and pluta, the Deśī tālas have druta, anudr.tta, and virāmānta. We also come across another measure called kākapāda which is equal to four laghus. One laghu is also called mātrā which word more or less replaces the word kalā. These measures are indicated as under:

S. No.	Name of measure	Symbol	Measure in term of mätrā
1.	Laghu	1	1 mātrā
2.	Guru	S	2 mātrās
3.	Pluta	ຮົ	3 mātrās
4.	Kākapāda	+	4 mātrās
5.	Druta	Q	1/2 mātrā
6.	Anudruta	\smile	1/4 mātrā
7.	Drutavirāma	δ	3/4 mātrā
8.	Laghuvirâma	ς	l' <u>r</u> måträs

Though there is no mention of the saisbada and nihisabda kriyās in the Deśi tālus, nor such kriyās seem to have any function whatsoever in them which may be called akin to that in the Mārga tālas. Šārngadeva does speak of aiabda (laghus) in the context of

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such tālas as Simhanandana. Simhabhūpāla explains that these are to be sustained by the $p\bar{a}t\bar{a}ksaras$. However it is obvious that the term asabda is technically of an entirely different connotation as compared to nihšabda which is a kriyā.

The flexibility obtaining in the standard measure of laghu, which in the case of Desī tālas, is variable from four short syllable-time to six syllable-time,¹ provides a very distinct characteristic feature of the Desī tālas. Whereas in the Mārga tāla, because of the fixed value of laghu, viz., five short syllable time, it was possible to maintain a certain fixed standard of tempo, the variation of which could only be obtained in terms of the Mārgas. But here since the value of the laghu is not absolute, we cannot possibly have a fixed standard of tempo. Thus, the structure of Desī tālas provides greatest scope for variation in tempo.

The great variety of $t\bar{a}las$ is obtained through the difference of order² in which the *avayavas* (limbs) of $t\bar{a}la$ such as *laghu*, *druta*, etc. occur. Somcśvara mentions about twenty $t\bar{a}las$ while other texts generally give one hundred and one. Sārngadeva has given one hundred and twenty $Dc\hat{s}\bar{i}$ $t\bar{a}las$. The structure of most of these is similar as would be found from the comparative chart showing Deśi tālas in vogue up to 13th century.

Structurally $\bar{a}di t\bar{a}la$ is perhaps the simplest with one laghu (1). In pañcama this same measure is broken into two drutas (60). Thus, the tālas of the same time-measure are differentiated by being arranged into different time units and order. The forms of different Deśī tālas are indicated in the chart. The structural form and the very spirit of Deśī tālas could properly be understood by comparing and contrasting them with the Mārga tālas.

- (i) The Mārga sālas are kept through the actions of hand, viz., the sašabda and nihšabda kriyās but the Deśī tālas are kept with the help of kāmsyatāla.
- (ii) The basic time unit in the Mārga tālas is a kalā which is equal to two laghus or one guru, but in Deśī tālas the basic unit is mātrā which is equal to one laghu.
- (iii) The value of the laghu in the Märga tälas is fixed as five

¹cf. Källinätha commenting on the expression '*yathäsobham*' in the definition of Desi tāla, vide S.R., V. 237, pp. 134, 135 of the Adyar edn., 1951. ¹Sec S.R., V.239. short syllable time while in the *Deśl tālaş* it varies from four to six. This has resulted in a variation of standard tempo in the *Deśl tālas*.

- (iv) In the Märga tälas the unit measures are laghu, guru and pluta while in the Deśi tālas we have druta (and later anudruta) and virāmānta in addition.
- (v) The Mārga tālas have mārgas, graha, yati and so on as essential factors but in Deśī tālas, these concepts have no value.
- (vi) The form and the number of the Märga tālas is fixed for ever, but in case of Deśi tālas enormous development can be observed (the number rose up to 244 after Śārngadeva).
- (vii) The Mārga tālas in their original (yathākşara) form are not very lengthy in measure which varied from three to six gurus only, but in Deśi tālas, the tālas are seen to vary from one laghu to thirly-two laghus in length.
- (viii) Since the Mārga tālas formed a part of Gāndharva, their purpose was allied with it and therefore they were used in gītakas only; while the Deśī tālas are found to have been used in the prabandhas.

The above study throws some light on the development of the Desī tālas. From the very restricted orientation of the Mārga tālas, it becomes apparent that there must have been a tradition of non-Mārga tālas being practised in the popular forms of music from early times which slowly developed and gained recognition first of all by Someśvara in the form of khanda tālas and then by Šārngadeva as Deśī tālas in a more formalised and systematic way. We cannot say what the position of Matanga might have been in this regard since the portion of his work on tāla is unfortunately lost to us. Between Someśvara and Šārngadeva we have Jagadekamalla who has recorded one hundred-one tālas including the Mārga tālas making no such distinction as Mārga and Deśī.

Perhaps, Someśvara's *Mānasollāsa* marks an important stage in the development of *Deśī tālas* as far as historical evidence is concerned for the following few observations:

(i) He does not mention any distinction like Märga and Deži.
(ii) He does not use any such terminology as märga, yati, graha, etc. that characterises a much more formalised pre-

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sentation of Särngadeva.

- (iii) He does not even speak of the *Mārgas*; instead he speaks of *mānas* (standard measures) though by that term he is referring to the same phenomenon. Thus he informs us about the dilution of the concept of *Mārga* or in other words of an attempt at a reinterpretation of an outmoded concept in the context of his times.
- (iv) He does not even mention the three layas (tempos) of the Märga tälas.

It can safely be deduced that though the memory of the Mārga tālas was inherited. they were no longer in actual use and the other tradition of popular music had brought such a variety of tālas to the forefront that inevitable engaged the attention of the theorists. Even Abhinavagupta betrays his knowledge of what Śārngadeva called the *Deśī tālas* obliquely though he does not directly deal with them since they were not related to *Gāndharva*.

Up till the 13th century, it may be observed, it was the $k\bar{a}msyatala$ tala that was the means of manifesting tala. The use of avanaddha for this purpose is evidently a later development¹ and is probably related to the developments of bols alongside the talas. But as far as the development of Deśi talas is concerned, it is definitely related to the development of the prabandhas. Many of the talas bear the prabandha names. These prabandhas were composed in prakrts and this fact relates them to a more general and widespread tradition of musical practice that existed side by side with the highly cultivated forms of Grāma rāgas or Deśi tālas owe their development primarily to the prabandhas.

CHAPTER 8

Conclusion

THE main purpose of this book has been to show the gradual evolution of the $r\bar{a}gas$ and $t\bar{a}las$ of Indian music from the Vedic times upto 13th cent. AD.

We have seen that the Sāma vedic music was built up on the basis of the folk music then current in the country. All formalistic music is an attempt to find out certain principles governing the structure of current folk music.

The main principles that emerge during the Sāmavcdic period were the following:

1. Just as folk music is mostly group music, even so the Sāmavedic music was sung as a group song. There were three singers; they were called *prastotā*, *udgātā* and *pratihartā*. The main singer was the *udgātā*. The song was divided into four sections. First was the Humkāra, i.e., the intoning of the tonic together; the second part of the Sāman was the *prastāva* sung by the *prastotā*; this was followed up by the main part of the song, the *udgātā* as the *udgātā* sang this, the *pratihartā* waited to take over from the *udgātā* just before the song finished. He actually picked its last word and continued with the *pratihāra* part of the song. In the end, all these joined in singing the *nidhāna* or finale part of the Sāman in unison.

2. There was the principle of responsorium in the song just as we find in all ancient church music.

3. The three main parts of the Sāman, namely, prastāva, udgītha and pratihartā apart from the Humkāra in the beginning and nidhāna in the end provided the basis of the structure of the later prabandhas and dhruvapadas consisting mainly of udgrāha, dhruva, melāpaka, antarā and ābhoga, Just as in the Sāman, after the prastāva the song rose to a crescendo in the udgītha and the pratihāra consisted of a gradual diminuendo ending in the finale known as nidhāna, in thé later prabandhas and dhruvapadas, the crescendo

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occurred in the *dhruva* and *antarā* and the diminuendo in the *ābhoga*. In earlier *jāti-gāna* also, there was the basic part of the song using notes mostly of the middle register and then another part rising to the *tāra* register and the final part coming down to the middle register or sometimes even a few notes below the middle register.

4. Certain ornamentations were evolved in the Vedic music itself. The principal ones were vikāra, višleşaņa, vikarşaņa, virāma and stobha. These ornamentations were later expanded into alamkāras and gamakas.

The key concept of the delineation and expansion whether of *jāti* or of a *rāga*, was *varņa*. The *varņa* was the melodic movement which considered either of the repetition of the same note or of ascent of a number of notes or descent of a number of notes or a mixture of the two. This has persisted in all our music even till today. It gives a dynamic picture of our melodic music types.

In the Bharata period, as we have seen, it was $G\bar{a}ndharva Sang\bar{i}ta$ which was considered to be $M\bar{a}rg\bar{i}$ or classical music. $G\bar{a}ndharva$ music was that which not only gave aesthetic delight to the listeners but also pleased the gods. It was accompained with $v\bar{v}n\bar{a}$ and a ghana instrument like the large cymbals. The concept of $Gr\bar{a}ma$, $M\bar{u}rchan\bar{a}$ and $J\bar{a}ti$ were fully developed during Bharata's period which may be said easily to have lasted from at least 2nd cent. BC to about 8th cent. AD. We see therefore that the scientific foundation of our music consisting of $Gr\bar{a}ma$, $M\bar{u}rchan\bar{a}$ and $J\bar{a}ti$ was laid during this period.

Western music intervals were mathematically determined in the laboratory about the 17th to 18th cent. AD, whereas Bharata determined the interval of notes on the basis of *śrutis* about 2000 years before. His *śruti* system determined the intervals of notes on the basis 4-3-2-4-4 3-2 *śruti* relationship. This was a great landmark in the scientific analysis of our music. These note intervals were determined on the basis to consonance (*samvāda*), i.e., sa-pa and sa-ma relationship of thirteen and nine *śrutis* respectively. While these may not have been so mathematically accurate, these were of great practical use to the performer. A great contribution so for as melody was concerned, was made by *Jāti* but it seems evident now that more than *Jāti*, *Grāma rāga* and *Dešī rāgas* have contributed to the magnificent melodic evolution of our music. There were eighteen *Jātis* comprising the *śuddha* and *vikrta*, and as each Jāti had a number of amśa svaras, they gave rise to certain sub-melodies or upa-Jātis. Abhinavagupta in his commentary on the 33rd chapter of the Nātyaśāstra¹, gives a detailed description of gāna as distinguished from Gändharva music.

Side by side with $M\bar{a}rgi$ music known as $J\bar{a}tis$, $M\bar{a}rgi$ tālas were also evolved, the main ones of which were cuccatputa, cācaputa, satpitāputrak, udghatta and sampakvestaka. Paikcapāņi was a variety of tryaśra cācaputa tāla. But in the elaborations of Jātis and rāgas only catuskala caccatputa and cācaputa tālas have been used. Though the tālas were not many, yet they were fairly comprehensive based as they were, on the principle of two and three mātrās and their permutations and combinations. In Bharata's time, there was also another kind of music which was known as gāna. This consisted of seven Grāma rāgas with their Bhāsās, Vibhāsās, Antarabhāsās and Upurāgas. A detailed description of Grāma rāga is given in Chapter IV under Brhaddeśī.

But here a very important development is noticeable. Gāndharva Sangīta specialised in spiritual, religious music. There has been a general misconception of many scholars that that was the only music. Gāndharva Sangīta was meant for obtaining not only mundane but also imperceptible spiritual benefit (adrsta phala), whereas gāna was meant purely for entertainment. A study of the intervals of the gāndharva music, would indicate that those intervals are more akin to those of the sāman-scale; at the same time, it is evident that musically it is unmelodious, even discordant, with sudden octaval leaps and bounds. There is no doubt that the Jātis could never have produced any entertainment because they were not easily singable; there was hardly any scope for improvisation.

But Bharata refers to $g\bar{a}na$, as a separate kind of music for *upa-rañjana* or entertainment. He devotes an entire chapter to *Grāma rāgas* and *gāna*.² Bharata defines *gāna* as that which proceeds from *guna* (attractive qualities) alone; therefore all the more necessary that faults have to be eliminated and the nature of *guna* and *doşa* be carefully investigated in its entirety.³

Abhinavagupta proceeds with his commentary that whatever has

¹Na. ia., Baroda edn., 1964, vol. IV. ³Ibid., IV.33 1, ³Ibid., p. 293 -

> guņāt pravartate gānam doşam caiva nirasyate, tasmād yatnēna vijneyau guņadoşau samāsatab.

been left out from the investigation hitherto but is worthy of understanding, is now being investigated.¹ He states that the difference between Gandharva music and gana has been inferred as the embodiment of svara, tala and pada; that which is productive of both the predictable (drsta) and unpredictable (adrsta) fruit and the predominant nature of which is such that it is creative of a positive and negative disposition for action. This is known to be so from Sāmaveda. Predictability (drsta) and unpredictability (adrsta) proceed from Samarcda, manifest from time immemorial. Gandharva Sangita is exclusive of the quality of mutual entertainment. Entertainment is not the motive behind Gāndharva music. In fact entertainment is not possible from Gandharva music. He further explains that the fruit accruing from the svarupa or the structural form, kāla—here this word is used in the sense of appropriate occasion and the essential nature (dharma) are the criteria on the basis of which the distinction of gana from Gandharva music has been established. Such distinction is applicable in the case of instruments also. Kākalī nisādā and antara gāndhāra are frequently and freely taken (paribhramana) and this lends a wonderful effect on hearing. In Raga Malavakaišika four śruti (catuhśrutika) notes are taken in the catuhirutika anga with very peculiar iruti variations (sruti-valcitryam). Here the term valcitryam is used in the sense of diversity, variation. Abhinavagupta appears to be aware of this as a new phenomenon but has not explained it. He states that the *sruti* arrangement of the intervals of notes (antarāla niyama) and the measure of each intervening sruti (antah pramāna) are entirely different in gana. This untal pramana pertained to kala, sthana, svara and kalāmśa. Here again the first kala is used in the sense of occasion and the second kala refers to tala. He states that the rules of Gandharva music could be violated in gana for the sake of aesthetic effect and entertainment. From this one is led to infer that gana lent colour to Gandharva music.

There were other liberties that were allowed in gāna but not in Gāndharva music. For instance pañcama svara in Madhyama Grāma, dhalvata in Ṣadja Grāma and madhyama svara in both the Grāmas were indispensable in Gāndharva music but these rules were not applicable in gāna. The śruti-arrangement 4-3-2-4-4-3-2 was obligatory in Gāndharva music but not in gāna. The objective in both the musics was entirely different. Gandharva music's goal was utilitarian for spiritual benefit but the goal of gana was sheer aesthetic delight. In the sphere of tala, Gandharva music used both ghana and taladhara whereas gana used a membranophonous instrument for tala accompaniment. After studying Abhinavagupta's clarification, a flood of light is

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After studying Abhinavagupta's clarification, a flood of light is thrown on the evolution of our music. My earlier contention that there appears to be two streams of evolution running parallel to each other, has been fully substantiated by him. It is rather strange and surprising how our eminent scholars who have made special studies and investigations on the $N\bar{a}tyas\bar{a}stra$ have missed this chapter and Abhinavagupta's brilliant clarification of Gandharva music and gana.

Gandharva Sangita had two connotations: (1) sāmānya, i.e., any music and (2) visesa or restricted wherein invocations to Lord Samkara (Samkara-stuti) were sung for obtaining spiritual benefit (adrsta phala). In Gändharvo music, svara and tala were taken in a particular, special technique akin to Sāmavedic music, with all its rigidity and in accordance with its timeless tradition, without the quality of entertainment. A study of the intervals of Gandharra and Samavedic music would easily reveal the musically unattractive nature of the intervals. For instance the trisrutika rsabha, pañca sratika gåndhära, tisrutika dlaivata arc musically not very pleasing intervals. They resemble the Saman music. The Jatis therefore must have been sung more or less in slow tempo in a manner, similar to chant because of its very structure involving jumps of more than one saptaka which would be impossible to sing with any speed. According to Abhinavagupta the gana music in its technical sense differed from Gandharva Sangita in its technical sense (visesa) in four aspects, i.e., svarūpa (form), phala (fruit), kāla (occasion) and *dharma* (essential nature).

Abhinavagupta states that in gāna, svara, tāla and pada did not have the rigidity of Gāndharva Sangīta. He states that strange, peculiar śruti variations existed in Bhāşā, Vibhāşā and Antarabhāşā. He calls it śrutivaicitryam. He goes even further to state that people who are unable to see the difference between Gāndharva music and gāna are like children who see without analysing. For example, apart from the lack of rigidity of śruti, kāla, tāla and range in gāna, the position of antarāla, sthāna, pramāņa, imperative in Gāndharva music, was not considered of such significance

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in gāna. The omission of svaras in sādava and audava rūpas in Gändharva music, did not exist in the same way in gāna.

The extraordinary significance of these revelations would be seen when we see the attempts of subsequent scholars to connect Grâma rāgas with Jātis. Grāma ragās had their direct affiliation with the two Grāmas, Deśī rāgas were off-shoots of Grāma rāgas with their extensions Bhāşās, Vibhāşās and Antarabhāşās. There was no basic difference between Grāma and Deśī rāgas. Later on Grāma rāgas became Deśī rāgas.¹ In fact no Grāma rāga is found in Adhunāprasiddha rāga mentioned in Sangīta Ratnākara.

It is these Grama ragas and their varieties that formed the basis of the classification of the ragas and ragin is in the mediaeval period of our music.

In this context, it also will not be difficult to understand why Gändharva music like Sämavedic music went out of vogue in course of time. Like all liturgical music, Gändharva music was confined to a small elite well-versed in the Sästras and interested in adrsta phala.

It will be seen that from the point of view of raga music, the Grama ragas and their varieties and Deśi ragas have played the most important part in the evolution of our present day music. The Deśi ragas mentioned by Matanga and Sarngadeva were quite popular among the music lovers of the time. Some of them became obsolete later (pūrvaprasiddha ragas) but more ragas were added to the list (Adhunāprasiddha ragas) as time went by.

So far as artistic rendering and the musical composition of the Grāma and the Dcii rāgas were concerned, they were based on the five gitis known as Suddhā, Bhinmā, Gaudī, Vesarā and Sādhārinī. The various bānis of the dhruvapadas were modelled on the gitis. Most of them went out of vogue in course of time but we still find the Suddhā and the Bhinnā gitis lingering on as so-called dāgúra and khandāra bānis in the performances of some of our best dhruvapada singers today. The sādhāranī gitī provided a basis for the musical composition of our modern Khyal.

The most important development of our melodic music was made in two directions, namely, *rāgālapti* and *rūpakālapti*. The *rāgālapti* with slight modifications and alterations can still be heard in the preliminary *ālāpa* of *dhruvapada* singers.

¹S.R., Adyar edn., II.16.3.

The pratigrahaņikā—in modern musical parlance mukhdā, sthāyabhañjanī—bol-tāna or bol-upaj; rūpakabhañjanī—variations using the entire text of the composition form the life and soul of Khyāl music and even of Pallavi singing in Karpāţaka music. Sthāyabhañjanī, particularly finds an honourable place in the composition itself of most of the krtis of Karpāţaka music.

So fas as *tâla* is concerned, the study of its evolution shows that according to the historical sources *tâla* was recognised as one of the three essential elements of the musical arts. Since we cannot probably find any traces of this concept in the tradition of *Sâmagâna*, we have to look for its origin in the unrecorded tradition of folk music as a specific manifestation of rhythmic order involved in the spontaneous expression of human emotions through the composite art of music and dance, later recognised in the form of *sangita*.

In its developed from Bharata provides us with the basic concept of tala where he identifies it with ghana. Tala with Bharata is inseparably associated with ghana which is the medium for its manifestation through the means of kala, pata and laya, its objective being the measurement of musical time. Later writers upto Sarngadeva or for that matter up to the end of 13th cent. AD, do not provide us with any evidence of the change-over from the ghana-vadyas to the avanaddha-vadyas as the medium of manifesting tala. Therefore, it can be safely concluded that there was no categorical change or classical development in the concept and practice of tala from that of Bharata up till the end of 13th cent. AD. However, the process of isolating tala from its medium of expression ghana was completed by Sarngadeva when he identified tala with kala (time) while defining it instead of with ghana, the medium of its manifestation; and Abhinavagupta marks a definite stage of this psycho-musicological development in the conceptual evolution of tala when he elucidated that it was time as delimited by the act of singing that was sought to be measured by *tala*. He shifted Bharata's accent from ghana to the act of singing, while Sarngadeva completed the process of abstracting tala in terms of laghu etc., the units of time by which the act of singing is measured in time. So it is obvious that the essential background for the later development of tala being manifested through the medium of avanaddha (membranophonous) instruments, was also ready by the end of 13th century but the breakthrough was not yet achieved.

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In this context, a definition of $t\bar{a}la$ as given by Jagadekamalla is pertinent, since he clearly identifies $t\bar{a}la$ as the measure of time arising out of $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$ symbolising action. The entire process represents the story of development of $t\bar{a}la$ from the concrete to the abstract. With Bharata. $t\bar{a}la$ is something concrete, inseparable from its medium but with later writers it represents an abstract concept which could not invariably be identified with any one medium of expression. $T\bar{a}la$ thus emerged as the means of measuring musical time through such units of time as laghu etc., involved in the cyclic pattern of rhythmic action.

On the practical side also various stages of evolution can be observed. First of all the emergence of *Dcsi tālas* marks a definite growth of the practical use of the basic concept as applied to an ever widening field of musical experience. Whereas Bharata speaks of *Mārga tālas* only, it can by no means be inferred that the tradition of *Desī tālas* was not at the same time prevalent in his time in what may be termed profane music, nor can it safely be said that he was unaware of such a tradition. He has limited his attention to the exposition of *Mārga tālas* only because he concerned himself with the *Gāndharva* form of music. Even so the actual use of *Mārga tālas* is restricted in practice to the *gītakas* and the *dhruva* songs as far as we can see from the available evidence. But surely music was not confined to these two forms alone.

Desi talas inevitably find expression as a part and parcel of Desi music (sangita) specially in the prabhandha-gana. The prabandhas were, more often than not, composed in Präkrt and therefore the recognition. of Desi forms of music is correlated to the emergence of Praktt as literary media, alongside Samskitt. In fact, the development of Deśi Jālas cannot be however viewed as an isolated movement quite unrelated to the anterior tradition of the Märga talas for there is enough scope visible in the very structure of the Marga talas for the development of Desi talas that are distinguished from the former by the flexibility of the standards measure of laghu and by the great variety of talas constructed out of such freedom of composition. The concept of Marga was significantly used by Somesvara as the fourfold measure of tala and the six Margas of Jagadekamalla are to be taken as a clear attempt at widening the spectrum of Mārga tālas in order to comprehend the growing variety of the Deśi tālas, although there is no coherent corroboration for it. Thus the very concept of three, four and then the six

Mārgas provided the psycho-musicological ground for the systematic emergence of the Deśī tālas alongside Deśī Sangīta as a classical form.

The term $De\dot{s}i$ tāla seems to have been coined by Śārngadeva in consonance with his classification of $M\ddot{a}rga$ and $De\dot{s}i$ SangIta, but even before him, the khanda tālas, as referred to by Someśvara were probably the same or similar structures that were later known as $De\dot{s}i$. Indeed the classification of $t\bar{a}las$ as $M\ddot{a}rga$ and $Dc\dot{s}i$ owes its origin entirely to Śārngadeva, before whom no such clear cut distinction was made. As already stated earlier we can see how the $De\dot{s}i$ tālas are structurally derived from the splitting of the guru the standard unit of the Mārga tālas into the laghus and the drutas etc., of the Deši tālas. Thus, right from Bharata's time to the end of the 13th cent. AD. we can observe a continuation of the same tradition, and as it is natural with any living tradition, we find it enriched by new concepts, improved varieties and unique innovations.

In conclusion, it may be said that conceptually, although no categorical development of $t\bar{a}la$ is witnessed during the period falling between Bharata and Sārngadeva, a process of gradual change resulting in the isolation of $t\bar{a}la$ from its medium of manifestation—ghana—appears to have culminated in Sārngadeva's conception of $t\bar{a}la$ and his classification of $t\bar{a}las$ as $M\bar{a}rga$ and Desi. Practically, the role of $t\bar{a}ladhara$, the formation of khanda $t\bar{a}las$ by the splitting of the guru, the use of Desi $t\bar{a}las$ in the prabandhas and the flexible value of laghu—the standard measure of the Desi $t\bar{a}las$ —can be said to be the various stages of development in 'he evolution of $t\bar{a}las$. Also there is evidence to infer that the modern practice of keeping $t\bar{a}la$ by the avanaddha $v\bar{a}dyas$ has its tradition from the time of Bharata when the avandddha $v\bar{a}dya$ were used exclusively in gāna in contradistinction with Gāndharva music where the $t\bar{a}ladhara$ and the ghana were used.

Of the 100 and odd *Deśi tālas* that were in vogue in the 13th cent. AD. many became obsolete; but a few of them can still be traced in some of the Hindustānī and Karņāļaka tālas today. The Karņāļaka system of tāla stuck to the old principle of graha, whereas the Hindustānī system developed the concept of sannipāta. The former is known now as equippu and the latter sam ($\pi\eta$).

Introductory Note to the Appendices

A comparative study of Śārngadeva. Pārśvadeva, Nandikeśvara, Someśvara, Haripaladeva and Umapati, as reflected in Appendix I to this chapter, shows that—

- (i) Sangita Ratnākara gives the highest number of tāla-s, viz. 120.
- (ii) The number of *Deśi tāla-s* generally accepted was 101, as evidenced by *Bharatarņava* and *Aumaputam*, though in the latter only 79 tāla-s, out of the 101 mentioned, are actually described. However, 101 seems to have been the standard.
- (iii) Sarngadeva mentions 21 such tala-s that are not available in any of the other works compared (see Appendix-III). It is possible that he had added them to the traditional number by way of including some of the latest forms of his times. It is notable that he had included two talas-s after his own name.
- (iv) Sangīta Cūdāmaņi, Bharatarņava and Sangīta Ratnākara agree by far the most in so far as the number of tāla-s and their form is concerned.
- (v) Aumapatam seems to represent a somewhat different tradition since about 30 of its tāla-s are different from those of Sangīta Ratnākara (see Appendix II).
- (vi) Similarly, we find 14 different names in *Bharatarnava*, but many of them can be identified in terms of Sārngadeva by the identity of their forms.
- (vii) Sangīta Cūdāmaņi also gives 10 different names. It, therefore, appears that Śārngadeva has synthesised a few traditions in his own test.

Appendix I

Comparative Study of tala-s with

S. no.	tāla	Šārngadeva Sangīta Ratnākara	• • • • • • • • •	Yandikesvara Bharatārņava
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Āditāla	I	1	1
2.	Dvitīyaka	001 .	001	100
3.	T _t tīya	00	00 .	1100
4.	Caturtha	110		
5.	Pañcama	00		
6.	Niḥśaṅkalila	SSSSI		
7.	Darpaņa	00S	?	005
8.	Simhavikram	a SSSIŚISŚ	SSSISIS	SSSIŚISŚ
9.	Ratitāla	IISS		IISS
10.	Simhalila	0001	1000I	10001
ii.	Kandarpa	001SS		OOISS
12.	Vīravikrama	100S		1100S
	•		•	1
13.	Ranga	00005		00005
14.	Śrīranga	s ist š		11515
15.	Caccarī	00000000 00000000	0010010010 0010010010	IO0100100100 IO
16.	Pr yanga	SSSI		SSII
17.	Yatilagna	IO		

e.

sangita-ratnākara as the base

Jagadeka• mala Sangīta Cudāmaņi	Some- svara Mānasol- lāsa	Aumapa- tam	Haripāla- deva Sangīta Sudhākara	Remark:
6	7	8	9	10
I	I *Second 000	• • • • • • • • • • • • •	I	*Two forms of <i>āditāla</i> are available in <i>Māna-</i> so!lāsa.
000111 1000(?) (000)	(001) (100)	·	00	
00S			005	This <i>tāla</i> is not defined in S. Samayasāŗa.
SSSISISS IISS		(Ś I SIŚŚ)?	SSSIIŚSŚ	III O. Omitichiconi en
1001 00ISS	•	(IISI)?	000I 00ISS *II0SII	truis door not annon
1100S			(IU0S)?	*This does not appear to be the correct form as per definition given
0000S 11SIŚ		(ŚŚ)?	0000S 11SIS	
01001001 001	00000000	(SII)?	001001001 001	
10010010 100	100			
SSSII		(001ŚŚ)?	SSSII	

۰.

ς.

262				Appeadix
1	2	3	4	5
18.	Gajalila	1111	IIII	IIII
19.		11	II	II
20.	Varņabhinna	00IS		SI0 0
21.	Tribhinna	ISS		ISS
22.	Rājc c âdāmaņi	0011100IS	001110018	001110015
23.	Rang o :lyota	SSSIŚ		SSSIŚ
24.	Rangapradīpaka	SSISS		IISSŚ
25.	Rājatāla	SŚ00SIŚ		SŚ00SIŚ
	(i) Tryśravarna (ii) Miśavarna	110011 000000000000 \$S00SIS	•	10011S 000000000 000
26.	Caturaśravar na	S100S		SIIOOS
27.	Simhavikrīdita	IŚSŚŚSISŚIŚ	ISSISSIŚ	1 ŚSI ŚSŚIS
28.	Jaya	181100\$		ISIII00\$
.9.	Vanamālī	0000100S		000011005
30.	Hamsanāda	1\$00Ś		IŚ09Ś
И.	Simhanād a	ISSIS	ISSIS	ISSIS
2.	Kuddaka	0011	0011	1100
3	Turangalila	0000	001	001

33.	Turangalila	0000	001	100
34.	Śarabhalilə	11000011	1100001	1010101011
35.	Simhanandana	SSISIS00SS ISISSII0	SSIS00SS ISISII0	SSISISOO SSISISSII
36.	Tribhangi	IISS	•	IISS

.

Appendix I

.

6	7	8	9	10
r ^{III}	(11110)	(IISI)?	1111	
COIS		•	00IS	*In Aumapatam the name Tribhinna is
ISS		(0SI)*?	ISS	name <i>Tribhinna</i> is available. In S. Sudhā- kara this is called Bhinna.
0011100IS			OIIIOOIS	_ ·····
SSSIŚ		(\$\$ssii)?	*(SSS)IŚ	*The three guru-s are supplied.
SSISŚ		•(\$S00\$\$):	? +SSISŚ	*Here it is called Tura- gapradīpa. *Here it is called Ram- bhapradīpa.
SIIOSIŚ (SŚOOSIŚ) IOOIIS	(SŚSIŚ)			p · · · · · p · · p · · · · p · · · · p · · · u · p · · · p · · · p · · · p · · · p · · · p · ·
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				*Here it is called Hudduta.
				*Kudraka is available instead.
100	(0000)?	ISISII	001	*Here it is called
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ISISSII IISS	-	(00511)?	1515155118	• •. •

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1	2	3	. 4	5
37.	Rangabhāraņa	ssuś		SSIIŚ
38.	(i) Maņtha	11S0X	IIS0	IISIIII
••••	(ji) Mantha	SI(2X		
	(iii) Mudritam uti	ha SHOX		
	(iv) Mantha	IIIISII		
39.	Kokılapriya	się .		SIŚ
40.	Niḥsāruka	11	11	II
	Rəjavidyādhara	1800		IS00
42.	Jayamangalu	IISIIS	IISIIS	IISIIS
43.	Mallikāmoda	110000		110000
	, Nijayānanda	11555		11SSS
45.	Krīdātāla	00		CO
	(Candu-nihsāruk	a)		
46.	Jayaśri	SISIS		SISIS
47.	Makaranda	00111		00IIIS
48.	Kîrti	IŚSIŚ		ISŚSIŚ
49.	Śrikirti	SSII	•	SSII
50.	Ratitāla	1100	1100	1100
5.	Vijaya	ŚSŚI		ŚSŚS
52.	Bindumātī	S0000S		S0000S
53	Sama	1100		
54.	Nandana	100\$		1100\$
55.	(i) Manthika	SOŚ	soś	soś
	(ii) Manthika	1100		
56.	Dīpaka	0011SS		00IISS
57.	Udīksaņa	IIS		IIS
58.	Dhenki	SIS	SIS	SIS
59	Vișama	00000000		00000000
60.	Varņamaņthikā	1100100		11000
6].	Abhinanda	IJ00S		1100S 1\$115\$
62.	Ananga	15115		
63.	Nāndī	1001188		10011 SS

6	7	8	9	10
SSIIŚ ,	•IIIISII	*ŚSIIŚ	SSIIŚ	 *Here it is called Rangăramaņa. *Definition not clear. S. Ratnākara gives 10 varieties in all.
	(a b b			•
SIŚ	(SIŚ)?		SSI0Ś	•
II ISOO	(01)?	(SISSSS)?	+S00 (ISOO?)	⁴ Definition not clear.
ISIIS		(11\$1\$\$)?	lisits	
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00				•
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sissis	(IŚSIŚ)?		ISŚI 00	
SII ·		(00ISI)?	SSI	•
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ŚSŚI		(IIŚ)?	ŚSŚS	
50000S		00*	S0000S	*This represent the form called <i>Bindu</i> .
IIO (II OO)	000		1100	forta vallog Dinall.
1005		(ŚIŚ)	-	
S00\$			s0Ś	*Here it is called <i>Maddika</i> .
DOLISS			0011SS	••
*11S		*SSIŚ	IIS	*Here it is called Daksina.
SIS 0000 (0000 0000)			SIS 00000000	
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11005		•	IIOOS	
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100ISS*		-	-	*Here the name Srandi
(10011SS)	· .			is also given.
(I00 <u>II</u> SS)				-

1 2	3	4	5
i4. Mailatāla	111100		111100
55. Kankāla (i) Pūrņa	000051		0000SI
(ii) Khaṇḍa	00SS		00SS
(iii) Sama (iv) Vişama	SSI ISS		SSI ISS
56. Kanduka*	IIIIS		11115
7. Ekatālikā	0	, 0	0
8. Kumuda*	10011S		100IS
			•

[.] 6	7	8	9	10
IIII00 (000)			IIIIOO	
0000SI**	(0000SI)*	<i>Sama</i> (11SŚ)?	120000	**All the 4 names are given but rest of the
	(00SS)	Vişama (IIIŚSŚ?)	00(00SS <u>)</u> *	<i>Prastâras</i> are not given.
	(SSI)	、 <i>·</i>	SSI	*There is a difference
	(ISS)		ISS	in the no. of <i>patus</i> . *Here it is broken.
IIIIS			11115	*Kanduka is called Karşuka in Bharatar- nava, and Kantuka in the Aumapatam and S. Sudhākara.
0	(00?)	(SISS)*	0	*This is named as Eka- tāla in the Aumā- palam. In Mānasollāsa both the names ckatāla and ekatālī are found sepa- rately with different forms.
IOOIS			10IS	*In Bharatārņava it is called mukunda and it has the same form as kumuda.
				Its another variety mentioned is 10000S.
				In S. Cūdāmaņi it is also called mukunda. However in S. Ratnā- kara, kumuda and
		•		mukunda are separately given. In S. Sudhākara the name mukunda is

1	2	3	4	5
59.	Catuștâla	S000	S000	
70.	Dombuli+	II		11[]
71. 72.	Abhañga Râyavañkola	IS ISI00		IS S1S00
73.	Vasanta	IIISSS		IIISSS
4.	Laghusekhara	1	I	I
15.	Pratāpašekhara	000	000	S 00
16.	Jhampātāla	100	001	100
77.	Gajajhampa	S000	•	S 00
78.	Caturmukha	ISIŚ		(i) ISIŚ
				(ii) IIIŚ
79.		00S		00S
BO.	Pratimanthaka	IISSII	IS	IIIISII
81.	Pārvatilocanā	SS\$ISSS00		001100SS1111 S11
82.	Ratitâla	IS		IS
33.	Līlātāla	OIŚ		015
34.	Karaņayati*	0000	0000	0000
85.	Lalita	001S		00ISS

Appendix I		•	. 269
6 7	8	9	. 10
SI(7)000 (S000)		S000	
		Π	⁺ In Bharatārņava the name Jhombada is given with one more laghu. In S. Sudhā- kara also the name given is jhombada. In S. Cūdāmaņi the
IIIS		10	name given is sombika.
SIS00		IS	
51500	•	SI00	•
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500		S00	
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(i) ISIŚ	SIIŚIŚ+	3(3000)*	*Definition not clear.
(ii) Ś			⁺ In <i>Aumāpatam</i> the name given is Kirti-
			caturmukha.
00S		005	curar maxma.
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(i) 001100SS (SSSIS	(SIISŚŚ)?	00ISSSS	
IIIISII SSOO)		SSII	•
(ii) SSSISS			
00			
IS		IS	
DIŚ		OIS	
0000	ШŚ	0000	*In Bharatārņava and Aumāpatam it is call- cd Karaņa only.
DOISS	(IIS)?	(i) 1151	*In S. Sudhåkara the
		(00SI)*	definition does not
		(ii) ISIS	tally with the prastāra given. Lalita comes twice.

.

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1	2	3	4	5
86.	Gārugi	0000	0000	0000
87.	Râjanârâyaņa	OOISIS		OOISIS
88.	Lakşmisa	00IŚ		00011SS
89.	Lalitapriya	IISIS		IISIS
90.	Śrīnandana	SIIS		SIIS
91.	Janaka	IIIISSIIS		IIIISSIISS
92.	Vardhana	00IS '		00IS
93.	Ragavardhana	000S		
94.	Sattala	000000		000000
95.	Antarakrida	000		
96.	Hamsa	II		
97.	Utsava	IS		
98.	Vilokita	SOOS		
99.	Gaja	IIII		
100.		1100		IISS
101.	Simha	10111		
102.	Karuņa	S		
103.	•	100011		
	Candatāla	00011	•	
104.	Candrakala	SSSSSS		
105.	Laya	SISSSS000		
100.	Skanda	SISOOSS		
-	Addatālī	110		
108.	•	110015		
109.	Ghattā	IISSSIS		
110.	Dvanda Malanda	10000S		
111.	Mukunda	10050S		
112.	Kuvindaka	IISIS		
113.	Kaladhvani			
114.	Gauri			
115.	Sarasvati-	SS1100		
	kanthabharana			
116.	Bhagnatāla	0000111		
117.		00IS		
118.	Rājamartanda	· SIO		
119.	Niķšanka	ISSSSSSI		
120.	Śārngadeva	00SSSSI		

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6	7	8	9	10
0000 00ISISSS(S)	0001	(ISIIŚ)?	0000 ISIS	
00115		(SSŚ)?	III\$(00I\$) ⁺	+Definition not clear.
uss		(00ISS)?	IIIS	
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OOIS			00IS	
000S			0000S (000S)*	*Definition not clear.
000000			000000	
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ISOOS		(ISIS)*	IS00S ISS(11007)*	*Definition not clear. *Definition and pras târa do not agree here

(SISSSSS000)?

(ISS)?

Appendix II

(v) Månasolläsa

(vi) Sangīta Sudhākara

(6) Pratinihsāru (7) Ånanda (8) Aksiputa (9) Tritaya (10) Panjulaya (11) Śrikhandana (12) Prathamavati (13) Kirticaturmukha (14) Tadvaroa (15) Navotsava (1') Temgārika .. (17) Angāksa (18) Sekhara (19) Silakarnana (20) Vidrumādi (21) Äkandacüdämaņi (22) Kakilapānsulila (23) Jutsa (24) Tālānka (25) Vidyādharī-tāla (26) Jasaka (27) Jayāvanta (28) Bindutāla (29) Äsaramälikä (30) Bhûşana (1) Pāśamandraka (2) Yati (3) Tûrya (4) Varnatāla (5) Umātilaka (1) Parikrama (2) Mukula (3) Vrddhärana (4) Vicāracaturānana (5) Vrsabhaśankara (6) Hariraja (7) Haripriya

Appendix II

NAMES of other *tala-s* available in works other than Sangita Rainakara.

Madraka tāla

(1) Pratimanthya

(i) Sanglta Samayasāra
(ii) Sanglta Cūdāmaņi

(iii) Bharatar nava

(iv) Aumapatam

(2) Vrddhāpana (3) Tryaśravarna (4) Miśravarna (5) Madu (6) Nandana (7) Divityamanthika (8) Samakańkāla (9) Visama (10) Parikrama (1) Parikrama (2) Varņatāla (3) Khandavarna (4) Anyamantha (5) Nihsāruka (6) Ādimaņthya (7) Varnamanthya (8) Navakrida (9) Pana (10) Drutaśekhara (11) Pratimanthya (12) Śrinandana (13) Bhadravana (Vrddhābharaņa) (1) Måtrka (2) Haritāla (3) Ratikankālikā (4) Nädimädhvikä (5) Matanga

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Appendix III

¬ALA-S of Sangita Ratnäkara that are generally not available in other works. 1. Hamsa 12. Chanda 2. Utsava 13. Kuvindaka

- 3. Gaja 4. Simha 5. Karuna 6. Sārasa 7. Chandatala 8. Candrakalā 9. Skanda
- 14. Kāladhvani 15. Gauri 16. Sarasvatikanthabharana 17. Bhagnatāla 18. Rajamrganka 19. Rajamartanda 20. Nihśańka 21. Śārngadeva

10. Addatāli 11. Ghattā

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