SAMADHI AND SAMADARSANA, of

The Problem ofth e Relation between Mystical Vision and Equalitarian Social Outlook.

This paper accepted its commission directly from Lisa Vail's attractive presentation of the conference topic in her letter of last July.

Having been engaged in the study of mysticism in the Upanisheds, It was clear that it was the spiritual unity of the Upanisheds, if any, that I should try to relate to social unity and equality. This paper began, then, with some material and a question, rather with a shout of "Eureka!", and it may have to conclude with what conclusion it can, when the material and time have run out.

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The social meaning of the oceanic mysticism has received enough thoughtful attention to surround it with sefficions controversy to fit it for presentation at a meeting like this. In Freud's passing reflection on it in his Society and Its Discontents produced the view that mystical introspection is the ultimate recoil from human contact of kind. In India in the rask century, the Neo-Vedantists have made quite a different evaluation. Swami Vivekananda and his successors in the Ramakrishna Order have built the mystical monism of the Vedanta into the very center of their theory of Hindu social morality. Professor Radhakrishnan has helped greatly to make if the view that the monistic vision of the saints of the Vedanta has always been the logical and the real

the real support of Hindu social sensitivity, and the source of Hindu social regulations. one realizes that all persons share in a single divine nature, his reasoning goes, all are seen as near to us -- in fact as identical with ourselves; all are wor thy of respect, all have rights that must not be denižė. Beginning in 1914, and ever after, Professor Radhakrishnan proclaimed that the Vedanta contemplation, that gives knowledge of the oneness of things will not permit the knower to isolate himself, ever, from the life of the whole. The experience welds the will of the individual with the collective will, and its m onistic metaphysics leads naturally to the ethics of love and brotherhood.* (*The Ethics of Vedanta," Int. J. of Ethics 27 (1914), p. 169.) Professor M. Hiriyanna in like vein has said that India's men of mystical enlightenment have ever been her moral authorities and that the Vedantic realization leads directly to the service of others.* (The Quest After Perfection, Mysore, Kavyalaya, 1992, p. 44ff.) Swami Nikhilanda adds that Sankarācārya was not only Vedanta's great philosopher but also one of India's greatest religious and social reformers.* (*"Hindu Ethics," in Ruth Nanda Anshen, Moral Principles

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Escause of the nature of Certain great metaphysical beauties It is possible to suppose that the will have because of the inferences that can be made from great social importance. The experience of the unitive

of Action, N.Y. Harpers 1952, p. 635).

trance, conceptualised as union with the universal brahman, is one of those powerful ideas, and it is rational to infer that faith in one's identity with that all-comprehensive spirit will carry with it a profound sense of fellowship with all beings. But cultures put their ideas to work in surprising ways that often defy the anticipations of reasoning minds. That a given inference will be made and that it will be socially powerful is a guess rather than an assured fact. A study of the social concomitants that have actually been associated with the cultivation of Vedantic mysticism in history is most likely to tell us what one can expect as the social fruits of the religious life in the present or the future. So we shall ask what social interests and attitudes have persistently eccompanied the cultivation of the inner life of Vedanta.

The Neovedantins own historical work in support of their view has not been impressive.

In the few facts or even legends that are available about the life of Sankaracarya there is little to suggest that he operated as a social reformer, or questioned the arrangements of the social order of his time. The view that Hinduism of old deduced its moral regulations from the Vedanta metaphysics is not supported by the dharmasastras' own view of the origin of their statutes. These book present their injunctions as codes to be obeyed because they mediate the commands of the eternal and infallible Vedas. The question of the historical relationship

between Vedanta religion and Indian social ethics has not been answered by these efforts.

Foul's errand

Unfriendly observers have been known to say that historical study of the relation between Vedanta and the social sense is unnecessary because the answer is obvious. The social setting of Vedanta through all its centuries of history, they point out, was a society that was the ultimate among world cultures in social fragmentation and inequality. For social unity and solidarity the Hindu culture showed as little condern as any society can manifest and yet survive. Even the vocabulary of Sanskrit reflects this inattention -- in having no satisfactory word for "nation" as something different from the realm of a regime; -- no word for "international" that envisages any kind of fellowship; no word for "mekumene" "oikoumene"; and the terms that approximate the term "humanity" tend to be abstractions or references to a predicament in the evolution of souls. We need not carry out segreat research to understand -- according to this arguement -- that religion that was the spiritual counterpart of such a soiciety was not rich in resources for the nourishing of human fellowship and equality.

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This negative judgment assumes, dubiously, that the Vedanta monist has always been the dominant spiritual factor in the shaping of Hindu society. This supposition rests more upon the prominence of Vedanta as a sort of national ideology in the present century, than on the historical position of Medanta in all former times.

In premodern centuries Vedanta religion was a magre more sequestered faith, to be taken seriously in the last asrama or life and in the monkish portion of the human world. The relationship of Vedanta religion to the general culture was not necessarily close and direct. It may even have been an tithetical. Coexistence does not necessarily mean collusion. In our cities Quaker meeting houses and armories co-exist. Christianity co-existed with slavery, in relation to social needs may not be simple either. The work of the started of the social needs may not be simple either. The work of independent examination can't be avoided.

A search for a modern exemplar of the social attitudes of monistic mystics can turn up no one more authentic and influential that Sræ Ramana

Maharshī of Tiruvannamalai, who died in 1950. His doctrine was the advaita teaching of Sankara. The mystical trances that he practiced and inspired were experiences expressible in the very words of the Upanishads. His life and views have been recorded by dozens of observers. The extensive publications by and about him report rather fully on the nature of his social interests.

In edolescence, shortly after the death of his father, this future saint became oppressed with the thought, "I am going to die!" In a trance experience he looked down upon his own *ifeless and separated body, and received assurance of identity with a Spirit that was notlsubject to death. At

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the age of 17 he ran away from home and went into spiritual retreat on the sacred mountain Arunacala. He spent three years there in meditation in utter silence. In time his vigils were noticed and disciples began to gether around him. They built him an asrama. For more than fifty years, kuntil his death, he never stirred from the sacred mountain.

Aside from caring/for the basic physical necessities of life, this mystic spent his days in meditations. Rarely, he gave laconic advice in kindly spirit to disciples who showed special fitness. Śrī Ramaņa Mahārshi had no interest in discussing the problems of the world, or in reforming the Hindu religion, or the Hindu social order in any way. He had no comment on the institutions of caste. Enquirers who expressed anxiety about the state of the world were invariably diverted to matters internal to themselves. The guestion that mattered was the question, "Who am I?" you can realize the oneness of yourself with the world, he said, be healing of yourself will the healing of the world. "Help yourself and you will help the world." "You are not different from the world, nor is the world different from you. Helping yourself, you help the world." (*Arthur Osborne, Ramana Maharshi & the Path of Self-Knowledge London, Rider, 1954, p. 99).

In his sequestered life, Srī Ramaņa Maharshi was as remote from society in his thought as in his body. The problems that concerned him were internal and subjective.

Sadānanda

Looking for further history of Vedānta social attitudes, we pick up a famous Yedānta manual of the Vedānta religious life, the Vedāntasāra of Sadānands, wirtten at the end of the 15th cen_tury. This book, which had wide acceptance as a statement of Yedānta the norms of the Vedānta life, ends with a chapter on life of the jīvanmukta, the saint who through mystical realization has become liberated while still in the body.

As his eyes survey the things of the phenomenal world thereafter, he is to see nothing but the One. He is to view the events of the world expensively as comparable to the changing seenes of a magic show, that have no substance. The Vedantasara prescribes for the saint no interactions with the world of any kind; he shall live out the remainder of the life of his body, then enter the undivided brahman never to be reborn.)

work has to be taken seriously as a picture of the actual social attitude of mystics of the time who belonged to the tradition of the Upanishads.

*Bwami Nikhilananda, tr., Vedantasara of Sadananda Calcutta, Advaita Asrama, 1949, p. 131.

Manu:

We shall leap backward now over many centuries to notice an even more authoritative prescription for the life of the mystic that is found in The Laws of Manu, Chapter Six, verses 39-45. It is the life of the follower of Vedanta that is being described, because Upanishad texts are prescribed as the material of the seeker's study. In the description of the life of the advanced saint that we find here, there is some Brahmanical idealization in such points as the delay of abandonment of the world until one's hair has turned white. But the author has to be close to reality when he stresses, in detail after detail after detail, the total separation from the world--mental and physical--that must characterize the behavior of the Sannyasi or Renouncer. Departing from his house, he wanders about in silence, totally alone. (39, 41f.). Living on alms, indifferent to everything, he concentrates his mind upon Brahman. Though living still in the world, it is only the bliss of final liberation that he desires. If any thought of the world occupies his mind, it is without the sanction of this foremost of the scriptures dealing with the matter. "Let him quit this dwelling thatched with skin, which is foul-smelling, filled with urine and ordure, infested by old age and sorrow, the seat of disease, harassed by pain.". (76f.)

The ills that are resolved in this <u>brahaman</u>-centered life are decidedly not the ills of the social world.

Now we turn to the Upanishads themselves, the root of the entire Vedanta tradition. I can count on your own familiarity with those famous books.

Ithink I can fount on your agreement that the breakdowns of society and the threat of social disintegration are no part of the concern that permeates the Upanishads.

The ascetic wanderers who produced these texts had had more than their fill of social responsibility and of the demands of society. What stirs them now is the hope of liberation that comes with discovery of a hidden Oneness of things. In that One, perhaps, all multiplicity, all responsibility can be absorbed.

The Oneness that they speak of does not cement social ties; it dissolves them.

In work on the Upanishads especially for this paper, my one effort was a collation of the Upanishads' words associated with Oneness to see whether, in context, to note whether the writer saw in the Oneness a tie with all beings or a separation from the world. The terms eka, ekata, ekatva, and ekadha seemed to be the significant words. Jacob's Concordance to the Upanishads turned up quickly the sentences in which they occur—a hundred odd of them. Not one of the passages use if these unitive terms understood the Oneness as significant for a bearing upon human community or social equality!

A few Upanishad passages (Katha5:5, Svet. 6:12), the Green recognized that the atmana that unifies the universe unifies all living beings also, as sarvabhūtāntarātmā, the Inner Self of All Creatures!; but nomore is said. Isa Upanishad of says of the Seer, (cf.)
"In himself does he see all beings, and all beings in himself"—

] sarvāni bhūtāni ātmany evā nupasyati, sarvabhūtesu cā tmanam.

But the final significance of forting is not the the composer's \
unity of humanity, but his own sure escape from change and death by merging into these unchanging One

that extends to all, including him!:

tatra ko mohah, kah sokah, ekatvam anupasyatah? (7b)
"Then what delusion, what sorrow, is his
who sees the Oneness??"

Dur point is that the liberation of the individual from death, and from death upon death, is for the Upanishads the meaning of identification with the Cosmic One. I illustrate with one representative passage from the Brihadaranyaka Upanishad, 1.5.23:

"...let a man perform one observance only.

He should breathein and breathe out (in yoga),

Wishing, "Let not the evil of death get me."

Summary:

Thus, using our samples, and in cursory fashion, we have braced a line of mystical religion from the Upanishads to the present day. A homogeneous and persisting kind of practice has been taken into It appears to compose a main trunk of growth from the monism of the Upanishads. study of this kind of faith, the search for any kind of social concern has been negative in result. We are entitled to conclude that monistic religions of the mystical trance do not automatically involve social meaning, social concern, or any intended or perceivable effect upon social unity or social equality. If the tree of Vedanta is rich in social fruit, we have found discovered that it is not found on every bough. It will have to be found, if at all, on some branch that has not yet been examined.

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To <u>look at a special branch</u> is what I actually propose to do now. We shall find some ancient material of a puzzling and confounding kind.

We begin with a rehandling, several hundred years later of the very weree words of the Isa Upanishad that we have just quoted.—with a new conclusion, and a new understanding of the importance of the lines. The text is in the Sixth Book of the Bhagavadgita, but before we rehearse the lines again, we need to look at the entire sweep of what the composer is saying about the Upanishadic mysticism.

Brahmayoga"

The portion of the Bhagavadgita to be considered is B ook Five and the first 32 verses of Book Six. This extended section is describing a progressive meditation that results in a realization of unity in the universal brahman. He calls in brahmayoga in 5:21; and constant use of the word brahman throughout the section (5:5, 20, 24, 38) shows his awareness of the Vedantic nature of the mysticism he is presenting. He uses Svetāśvatara Upanishad 2, and Maitri Upanishad 6:28-30 heavily, and verbally. This is not the author's own favorite meditational system that he is presenting, but it is his acceptive and reverential description of meditation as taught in the Upanishads.

The work of the author of the Bhagavadgita in all areas shows his thorough familiarity with the Upanishads. (A listing of the parallels between Bhagavadgita and Upanishads occupies 46 pages in an appendix to Hume's 13 Principal Upanishads!)

He regards the Upanishads as sacred books, revealed by Krishna himself (15:15). It is; his intention to relay the Upanishad teaching on yoga/ faithfully, according to his lights. So he speaks in Upanishad language of selecting a site for meditation (5:10f.0; of holding body and head erect (6:13); or restraining one's vision (6:13), preserving chastity (5:140); eating and sleeping in moderation (6:16), fixing the sight between the eyebrows (5:27), gazing at

thetip of one's nose (6:13), contemplating Kṛishṇa (6:14), and concentrating intellect and soul on brahman (5:17ff.) The meditator's mind will become like an unflickering lamp burning in a draftless room (6:19); clods stones and gold become the same in the meditator's eyes (6:8); he attains a state of consciousness in which all though ceases (6:25); a supernatural bliss is experienced (6:21), the meditator becomes one with the stainless brahman in a bliss that is perceived to be endless (6:27f.)

Comment.

The methods of the Upanishads have been used, the goal of the old aspiration has been attained: it is atyantam sukham, immortal bliss, interrupted no more by death.

The author of the Bhagavadgītā too has confidence in this immortality. But he is content to affirm it and pass on; he does not dwell on the matter, because he feels entitled to add some important remarks of his own, now, about the full understanding of the experience's true meaning. Verses 6:29-32 are an interpretive addition that is strictly his own.

There is nothing like it in the Upanishads or other earlier literature that is known. In the Upanishads, when brah man is reached, the summum bonum is reached, and the story ends. There is nothing meaningful that could be added; all has been said. Yet here in the Bhagavadgītā a last word, a final meaning, is now added in the verses beginning with 6:29:

He sees himself in all beings and all beings in himself, the yoga-disciplined soul, seeing the same in everything.

sarvabhūtastham ātmānam, sarvabhūtāni cā tmani īkṣate yogayuktātmā, sarvatra samadarsanah.

(of Jee)

The social attitude that should flow from this visoon of the sameness of the nature of all beings is then elaborated upon in verse 32:

He who in comparison with himself in all beings sees sameness,

Whether it is pleasure of pain.

is deemed to be the <u>supreme</u> yogi, Arjuna
When the <u>Isopanishad</u> had spoken of this same unifying
interpenetration of beings by the one universal essence,
the bottom line and final meaning was the end of the
yogī's personal sorrow. That blessing is acknowledged
here, but the matter of <u>final</u> importance is a <u>parti-</u>
cipation in each other's lot in a sympathetic sharing
of feeling. In the discovered Oneness the Upanishad
writer found a tie between himself and immortality in
brahman; this writer goes on to perceive in it a tie
with all other living things.

This tie between persons would in the end of courfse be no tie, if in the trance all persons should disappear. The writer of the Bhagavaægita knows teachers who teach an illusion doctrine with regard to persons. So in verse 30--another of his innovative interpretations-- he gives assurance, vital to all moral meaning, that

in <u>true</u> vision no such dissolution of persons occurs:

"He who sees Me in all beings

and sees all in Me.

For Him I do not vanish and he does not vanish for Me.

In monistic experience that is genuine, he means to say, the meditator keeps grip upon the reality of personal beings both human and divine, and awareness of the Divine Presence in all gives rise to a reciprocal sympathy of all present living beings for each other.

The author of the Bhagavadgītā stresses still further this point about compassion by use of another literary device. Again and again at critical points in his discussion of yoga he injects the adjectival phrase, "delighting in the welfare of all beings", sarvabhūtahite ratah. Not found in earlier literature, it appears to be of the author's ewn coining.

In 5:19-24 for instance the matter of discussion is the unending bliss that comes upon the yogī who masters his senses and his passions and enters into the state of brahman:

They obtain brahama-nirvana,
the seers whose sins are destroyed,
Whose doubts are cleft, whose souls are controlled-(and now:)
who delight in the welfare of all beings.

In dealing with the same question kk later in 12:3f., the author makes the same demand in describing yogic meditation that shall be regarded as being authentic. The question is the legitimacy of revering the impersonal Unmanifest rather than the personal Lord, and the author says that too is valid, if certain standards are met. He says in verse 4:

Restraining the throng of the senses, with mental attitude alike to all, They (also) reach none but Me,

delighting in the welfare of all beings.

The literary form, these lines bever the form of a second place and old mild description referring to commonplace and old requirements placed on yogīs. But the last line is not an old saw; it is a social moralist's brand new requirement for mystical soundness: sages must emerge from trance with an impartial sensitivity to all beings and a delight in their welfare.

The author presents this new sensitivity as something inherent in the unitive experience itself. Mystical trance, though it can be socially storble, need not be so. Unity with all thingen is more than a rational deduction from knowledge of Oneness; it can be a living experience giving birth to a community of feeling.

Does the author really draw Howxdeeplyxthexauthorxxeens this affirma-

tion of persons out of a Vedantic mystical life of his own, or out of some other source of conviction? When we see that Professor Radhakrishnan was able to relatd Hindu social ethics with the V-danta tradition all his life, even though he was a professional philosopher with no known love for the mountain caves and the; yogic vigils of traditional holy men, we hae to consider the possibility that the author of the Bhagavadgita is making an adventitious connection between his social visions and a mystical laife that supports his social message in his hopes rather than in history or in fact. One has to allow the possibility of such a shallow personal manupulation of incompatibles bringing together mysticism and social activism only for a moment and only in claim. I at least cannot point; to a long wmd successful and dynamic grafting of these two interests in a tradition lasting until the present dayk, and what shall come of Neovedanta's effort to reaffirm the connection made by the Bhagavadgita is still unsure. But I object on principle to assuming unnecessarily that writers do not mean what they say The author of the Bhagavadgita knows the Vedantic yoga practices too well to be ignorant about its possibilities. Though he is no more than compaliasant and permissive about itsxxx brahmayoga, and though his own preference is for a theistic discipline of meditation that he calls buddhiyoga, that buddhiyoga is only a special form of the Upanishad practice, using many of its introspective disciplines. The doctrine oflthelbrahman

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andkthe brahmanic trance have great place in his meditations also. I think this man will not deal with the brahmanic experience as a name-dropping outsider. What we must be warned against is not insincerity, but kthelprobability that the EXPERIENCE of realization of brahman in his experience may not be kthe same. The question of the applicability of categories is raised.

manu, too! Social Implications

(tap 27 midder)

At least one other wise man of ancient India believedxthetxmeditationcofxmonisticxkind stood with the author of the Bhagavadgita in holding in believing that medicion of monistic creates kind increases the social and moral sensitivity the meditator. It is the writer, whoever he may have been, who composed the comclusion to the Laws of Manu. As the twelfth and last book draws to a close, he thinks of the difficulties in providing fair interpretation of the laws whe has set forth in his book In 12:110-115 he describes the personnel that simil be included in a parisad or tribumal to decide doubtful points of the law, and When he comes to verse 118 he is think of the even broads responsibilities interpretation that will fall on one who read the book professionally to administer justice among the population, and in verse 118 we have his statement regarding the place of meditation in juridical impartiality:

sarvamātmani sampašyet sac cā sac ca xm samāhitah sarvam hy ātmani sampašyan Nā dharme kurūte matim.

"Practicing meditation, let him fully recognize all things, both the good and the bad, in himself; For he who sees all things in himself does not, they say, commit injustice."

Manusmriti (Calcutta, Mansukhray Mor, 1971, vol. 2, p.1158.)

De question, Social implications of som a dhi! what a

implications of the intuition of Oneness? Two answers! incompatible truths! One body of in formation tells us of a tradition that produced, early and late, mystics who were separated from the world both in body and in mind, and who found in the One a refuge personal refuge from meaninglesspess, bein and

tensions of social existence and assurance of eternal life at a transcendent level of being.

But we have found a small second method filterature that adds to the assurance of immortality an even more important vitalization of social sympathy and the reawakening of a sense of kumunxu the unity and fellowship of all living souls. For this second type of mystic the problem of greatest record is not narrowly personal but the cultural problem of alienation, and of the preservation of the social order.

What shall we do about this conflict in testimony about what the nature and fruits of genuine mystical experience?

the integrity and continuity of the social order.

How can we put there findings together in any intilligible social assessment of mystical experience? It would certainly simplify the

of mystical experience?
It would certainly simplify things
ef we could find the Bhagavardgita's to be specious
mishicism, a bund of social gospel only pretending
to be part of the old time prety. We will choose

One possible assumption is that our word

2 Mysticism" designatis accurately a single entity a , single lunambivalent reality that is one in nature one in experience and one in effect, and that we must The uponeshods therefore ichoose between these two pictures. delineated the original and the real, mysticism that proved its capacity for autonomous existence by its Survival of the Upanishady which existed alone for 500 years of the Upanishada before the Bragavadgita's attempted innovation, much The Upanisheds show us the actual Social fruits of mysticum. of my ticism for the social slife. The author of the Bhagavadgītā must be understood, then, to have brought to this old established mystical practice new enth usiasms and concerns that are adventitious. and imposed them wishfully in a composite religion that was of short life. @mmxxxixi History has known similar efforts graftings in the care of various various efforts at and the way, Doutschohreston thun a marxist Christianity, oreven th fort of intellectuals of modern india; to base a dynamic and equalitarian

Any effort to dismiss the Bhagavadgītā's social meanings as a lifeless implant of a non-mystic brings difficulty, however. Admittedly, lecture-hall mystics do exist, who toy with mystical teaching though they have no taste at all for the mountain cave and the lonely vigil. But the author of the Bhagavadgītā is not a trifler with mysticism. He has given very deep attention to two related systems

social order upon the acosmistic monism of San kare.

egfmonu

Weare are compelled, then, to acknowledge
the samādhi experience as having more than one set
of social correlations. The attitude of the monistic
mystics can vary between utter indifference to the
world, to warm social concern. We can if necessary
accept this difference as a fact without understanding
it, but an unrest within us would be set at peace
if we could accommodate this ambivalence within a
reasonable understanding of mysticism.

Ixproposexthatxwexmustxgetxridxofxthexidexx conceptionxofxmysticism

that we in our minds we reify the word mysticism, in and conceive it as an entity external to ourselves, acting upon us in the surveying way that is characteristic of attenty separate bersons and things.

Mysticism, even in its own self-description, is a working activity of realities that are intimately our end within us.

It is not shocking, then, to acknowledge that mystics makes mystical experience, just as truly as mystical experience shapes mystics.

Carry this point further,

this point let me make use of the insights into the nature of mystical vision that we find in the writings of Ramanuja, who may be presumed to have been familiar with many forms of myetical practice. My source is Robert Lester's important little book, Ramanuja on the Yoga (Madras, Adyar Library, 1976. We are not concerned with Ramanuja's entire system of meditation, but only with his explanation the content of the mystic's inser awareness. He declares emphatically that what the mystic perceives--even though her perceives it with all pessible vividness of something arranged that is directly before the eyes-is not objective reality, but a revival in intense recollection imagination of moreowy of objects perceived previously.

Yoga is a kind of remembering in which one comes to but in which we become aware, with an intense know what one has already known in a commonplace manner Consciousness, of what we had known only anvantionally now with an imprecedented intensity (p. 131)& passim.

The fact that yogic visions are subjective does not of course make them unimportant in Ramanuja's system; an absolutely essential revitalization of faith and devotion arises out of long continued inner perceptions.

The region medition, Thought one does not see God, in yoga, does come to see what one actually and deeply believes.

I should like to push on from Ramanuja's convincing observations into axximilarxanaly a further analysis of the content of yoga that seems to me to be just as obviously sound. We b experiences not only our individual store of conceptualizations, fancies, and visital memories; to but we bring to them also our values, and our anxieties about the security of those values. (telegron, whether mystical or not, involves a produce of clarification of values and a struggle for the procession of ill controlled webus he even extraordinary means) For centuries after the iron cage of caste settled down upon the people India, no value was more precious to senerat of people their recovery of outeres, and no hope stood higher than the hope of liberation from rebirth, in whatever realm that liberation might be attained. In the transcendant Ocean of Oneness known in yoga, the tedium endless hobbled Lives wes found. Refuge from

rebirth was not the only for the meaning that could have been seen in this universal spirit, but that was the meaning that had meaning to the persons of those first seemed centuries of classical Hinduism.

The mysticism of the Bhagavadgite is different

the Upanishads, not because a newfed

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from the mysticism of the translation the because the

property of the mysticism of a new genus is operating,

phase of history was different and the values were

different that were the center of concern. Death is

remained unpleasant as before, and rebirth to further

baringali painful lives remained unwelcome, but to

the responsible middle classes that produced the

Bhagavadgītā, who wrashiya wanted who khald at the world

together (lokasams reha) seemed a desperate and essential need.

resistence of pany, carrying nothing for the world, were by

desertioning the world apart. The hidden Oneness

known to mystics, that had meant only liberation from

bondage and death, became the focus of a hope of resist reunion

**Social healing in a Reality that bridged all social divisions, both

meda physicals, and emobionally.

encompacing all members of society without dissolving

them. Brahman-belief is as on congenial rationally (endx

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The drive toward self-realization in the mysticism of the world, it may be because there is a great deal more

World, it may be because there is a great deal more

of self-concern than of social concern in the world.

We end with a few words to the Neovedantist who would base a new civic spirit upon the ancient monism and its meditational tradition.

- (1) There are strands of that tradition that will belhelpful and there are strands that are not. Know the difference.
- (2) What creates in a human being a knum concern

 a self-transpending love and concern for llow-being.

 Per office human being to a number of appears to be a mystery. The cibrishing of succession is itself/is supply not an automatic mystical experience

in itself/is surely not an automatic creator of such concern. There is even one concern in one's heart, meditation may be able to blow it into flame.

(3) The promotion of the vedents of the promotion of the vedents of the promotion of the use as a catechism or relations in the new India. To be used effectively a political point have that effect, however. Its meditational model is essential.

Its meditational model is essential.

As the Laws of

Manu says in some (unnoted) passage: "Muddy water does not become crystaline at the very mention of the name of the clearing-nut." Talk about Oneness will have just the power of talk.

(4) Just as mystical experience is not an cause, it is not unlimited in what it can bring autonomous and white distributions what it can bring autonomous and white distributions what it is not unlimited in what it can bring autonomous and white distributions where the contract of the c

existence xxit x is x not x untitated con she not the into effect. The Unitive experience is the source impulses toward social equality. (We have noted some passages of the Bhagavadgita that see were buds

of such equalitarian feeling.) But a culture's frames

rebirth held this equalitarian development under strict control.

Dyungan

who apaproach the brahmen mystically.

The accomplishment of the BB in promoting Whether the Bhagavadgita's mysticism encourages

known, the author of the Bhagavadgita was not a rebel against the caste system. He regarded the four-varna system as a divine creation (4:13a), associated with a Hol-given duty unbreshably obligation to perform inherited tasks fin.

(3.35, 18:47), and he retionalized the inequalities were of the Dome Substance, the body and the body fall body fate of each person was very different, the lat of each complex of rebirths into different, the lat of each person having her created by the force of his own former act enough to the force of his own former act.

In the sections of such ideas, impulses toward equalitarianism do not thrive easily. In 5:18, the levelling implications of the omnipresence of the brahman is carried as far as any orthodox Hindu scripture carries it:

In a brahman perfected in knowledge and discipline,

In a cow, in an elephant,

Even in a dog and a dog-cooking outcaste,

The wise see the same thing.

But the equalitarian impulse that is so boldly stated here has to be interpreted in terms of an utterance of a soberer moment, in 13:30,

When the various states of beings (bhūtapṛthagbhāvam-He perceives as established in One
And expanded just from that,
Then he obtains Brahman.

Letter of the shows and are act one in the second are act one in the second are act on the second are act of t