THE RĀGAS OF KARNATIC MUSIÇ

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PREFACE.

It has been my aim in the course of this treatise to investigate the evolution and the structure of Rāgas, comprised in the system of Karnatic Music, and I am proud of the privilege of having worked under Vidvan M.R.Ry. K. Varadachari Avl., one of the veteran musicians of South India, and former Lecturer in Indian Music, University of Madras. The Rāgas constitute the fundamental factor which determines the character of Indian Music. It may be said that our system of Music was moulded in the past mainly in relation to the laws governing the concept of the Rāga, and its future may be very largely guided by this influence.

Though the Raga is so well known in practice, its theoretical aspects seem to have been only vaguely understood, and in many cases current ideas concerning them appear to be rather confused, partly owing to the string of differences of opinion and partly to insufficient acquaintance with the available literature on the subject. The need for a close study of the Ragas and what they stand for is therefore evident, and this work is an attempt to consider the Raga in relation to its historical background and its place in current practice, in the light of the wealth of literature preserved in palm leaves and printed books.

The historical approach to the subject needs no apology, since this sets the theme in its proper perspective for study; besides, by this means, one is enabled to unearth many ideas which have long remained forgotten but which have great practical value even today. So far as the practical aspects are concerned, the two most striking problems which call for attention at present and which have given rise to a good deal of controversy are the sancara ragas in each raga. In considering these questions, I have tried to base my conclusions after a careful scrutiny of the views of the various schools of thought, and by observing how and why they differ or agree. And in the case of srutis, I have tried to make use of methods of exact measurement as far as possible. Owing to various considerations, my treatment of the subject had to be very brief but I have taken care not to omit any data or detail which might be necessary for a proper understanding of the problems discussed.

I am under a heavy debt of gratitude to the authorities of the University of Madras who kindly encouraged me, first by awarding a scholarship to work on this subject and subsequently by undertaking to publish my thesis under their auspices. I take this opportunity to express my grateful thanks to them.

I am deeply grateful to Dr. T. R. Chintamani, M.A., Ph.D., Senior Lecturer in Sanskrit, University of Madras, for the invaluable help he has rendered by correcting the proofs and taking charge of the publication through all its stages. My thanks are also due to the Madras Law Journal Press for the attractive get-up of the book.

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Ņ. S. RAMACHANDRAN.

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5. The Väyü, Visnudhar-	
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	Sangīta Kāmada	The MS. is written in Oriya script,
	2	Dāmodarācārya's Sangīta
	1	Dāmodara is quoted in it.
40.	Gīta Prakāśa	The MS. is written in Oriya script.
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	20	Kāmada can be taken to
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	-20	Orissan works, including San-
	100	gīta Nārāyaṇa, etc.
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CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION

The logic of the theory of Karnatic Music cannot be understood without a historical study of its development. Such an estimate would show that even from remote ages the North and South were in intimate cultural contact, and legend as well as history shows how inextricably Aryan and Dravidian culture became blended even before the era of Christ. The Srutis which are of fundamental importance to both systems were conceived as 22 even before the time of Ilankovadigal. Throughout the centuries we find the North and South mutually influencing one another in the development of the arts. Mahendra Varma Pallava published by carving on stone some compositions of the musical system of the North at Kudimiyamalai in the 7th century A.D., and we find that a Tamil footnote is added to the inscription. Nanyadeva in his commentary on the Nātya Sāstra mentions Karnātapāta tānas, and gives many other references to South Indian music. Even Matanga refers to Dravidian music. Śārngadeva defines a raga called Devaravardhani. Throughout the history of Sangita literature we find a free exchange of opinion between the North and the South. Alauddin Khilji took with him musicians from the South after his invasion of the country and Pundarika Vitthala who was born in Atanur in the extreme south went to the court of Khāndesh and wrote 2 treatises on North Indian music. Northern authors also took note of the views of South Indian theorists. What is most important to note is that every author from the time of Kallinatha, who represented the music of the Vijayanagar empire, bases the theory of Karnatic music on the doctrines of Bharata and Sarngadeva.

We find from the extant literature on the music of South India that the present system in vogue is the product of evolution since the birth of civilisation in the country. We can trace in the Karnātic music of to-day some of the most striking features of the music of the Samaveda as well as the quintessence of the art as it was practised in the Dravidian country at the time of the birth of Christ. The scale of the Saman music is the current Suddha scale of South India (making allowance for slight changes that have occurred in its form during this long course of development); and the most popular among Karnātic Rāgas such as Sankarābharaņa, Kharaharapriyā, Todi, Kalyāņī, etc., are survivals of the art of the Golden Age of Tamil civilisation (Circ. the first century A.D.). Much of the literature on the music both of the North as well of the South is still not available, but there is ample material, which is helpful in throwing a good deal of light on practice and theory, scattered in libraries all over India. From a perusal of the leading works on the subject, I am led to think that the theory of music as embodied in Tamil works has been no less active and powerful than that of the Sanskrit treatises in moulding Karnātic music into its present shape. There is a school of thought which may be said to be represented by Mr. Clements (vide his 'Introduction to the study of Indian music') according to which the Sanskrit books of Bharata and Śārngadeva have nothing to do with South Indian music. There is another school headed by the late Mr. Abraham Pandithar (see his Karuṇāmṛta Sāgaram)

^{1.} Valuable information like the date, authorship, etc., concerning the available Sanskrit works is given in the articles on Sangita literature contributed to the Journal of the Music Academy, Vols. III and IV by Dr. Raghavan, M.A.

whose view is that the Sanskrit theorists including Bharata and Sarngadeva copied their system and that also wrongly from the Tamil authors. The truth is somewhere between the two hypotheses. As a matter of fact there has been the closest co-operation in the development of the art between the North and the South. From very early times the 22 Srutis and the 7 notes of the octave were accepted in common all over India. The fundamental aspects of both the systems of the North and the South have been the same. Taking South Indian writers as such, we find them quoting Bharata and especially Sārngadeva on Srutis, Svaras, Tānas, Varnas, Alankāras, Gamakas, the general technique of singing, Prabandhas, Talas, etc., in fact the whole range of music. Every one of them accepts the Suddha scale of Bharata and Sārngadeva as his own. Accepting the whole body of the theory of these two, each practically tries to interpret laksana as embodied in it and the ever changing and developing laksya. Some times the two are reconcilable; often their differences have to be admitted and are noted down. The way in which theory developed from century to century in respect of the problems concerning the subject-matter of this thesis is studied in the succeeding chapters, and we find a few germinal ideas slowly broadening into the elaborate form of the technique of the present day, in every one of its various aspects.

As regards the Svaras and Srutis Sanskrit works till the time of Sārngadeva seem to be predominant. We do not know what part the Tamil works played in influencing them. Between the Silappadikāram and the commentaries by Adiyārkunallār and Arumpadavuraiyār few works have survived to-day. But these three works are sufficiently explanatory and homogeneous to give a coherent idea of Tamil music and its influence. The one most striking feature of this system was the division of the octave into 12 almost equal divisions or 12 degrees.

We find this division to be a vital aspect of the division of the octave in Karnatic music to-day. Such a division may be made in several ways by the varied use of microtones but the principle of the division matters and is universally accepted. It may be said that this division Tamil music is only incidental to the astrological parallel employed in the consideration of the octave and its śrutis; and the hypothesis may be proposed that since the Pañca (or Catus) Sruti Ri was identified with Suddha Ga, and Satśruti Ri with Sādhārana Ga, since the lower tetrachord Sa to Ma was taken to be divided only by Suddha Ri, Suddha Ga, Sādhārana Ga and Antara Ga, since Suddha Ma and Pa were taken to be separated by a sharp Ma and since the upper tetrachord Pa to Sa was considered a replica of the lower, the division of the octave into 12 Sthānas or degrees was evolved as a matter of development, when these notions about these notes were accepted about the time of Venkatamakhin. But as against this proposition, it must be noted that the ancient Tamils reckoned a fourth as the fifth note and a fifth as the seventh note respectively from the keynote, and this would not be possible if the octave was not divided into 12 degrees. This is most remarkable since it dates from the time before the Christian era. The influence of this division and also of the music of the Nayanars and Alvars should have been persistently active in settling the form of Karnātic music, though we have not got any book on theory in Tamil after Adiyarkunallar which explicitly says this. Sanskrit being the language of the learned and the lingua franca of the educated classes throughout India, theoretical treatises continued to be written after the epoch of Sarngadeva in Sanskrit. But we must remember that these books were written at the principal courts of the South and at the behest of important rulers, and hence they can be taken to be representative of the art they dealt about.

Coming to Rāmāmātya we find significant changes noted about theory in his book. Rāmāmātya accepts the Suddha svaras of Sarngadeva but questions and corrects his Vikrta Svaras. Most striking of all, he mentions Pañcaśruti and Satśruti Rsabhas and Dhaivatas, which are not given by Sarngadeva. How did he get these notes? Surely he did not create them, since they are found in the melas already prevalent in the country (vide his list of melas). The Suddha Ri, Ga, Dha and Ni were already there. I think that only one inference is possible according to existing data on the subject. Namely, these notes were native to the South and they were probably the intervals used in the Tamil music of a by-gone epoch, which were recognised by every South Indian writer and which had survived to the present day. (There is no mention about these particular intervals in the Tamil works.) When once they are admitted, the melakarta scheme of 72 scales, built of the different combinations of these notes, follows as a natural consequence. As in this aspect, in alapa also we find the present practice based with remarkable faithfulness on the music of the ancient Tamils.

The history of South Indian music after the time of Sārngadeva (with whom the epoch of 'Grāma Music' may be considered to have come to a close) can be divided into two periods, viz., one up to the time of Venkatamakhin and the other from his lifetime. By 'Grāma music' is meant the system of the jātis, grāma rāgas, etc., based on the 2 grāmas. After Śārngadeva the authors derive the rāgas from the Sa-grāma which alone they consider to be in vogue. The Ma-grāma had become defunct according to them, its pañcama having become a variety of the madhyama. At this period we find Vijayanagar leading the whole of South India. Kallinātha, Laksmīnārāyana, Rāmāmātya and others give us important information regarding the music of this time. By the middle of the

17th century we find that the musical centre of gravity had shifted to Tanjore. Govinda Dīksita had directly transmitted the torch of musical lore from Vijayanagar to Tanjore. The cream of Karnatic music was being formed at this centre of culture, which kept itself open to the influences of the North and even to some extent of the West (because the Tanjore Court patronised all kinds of talents), under the fostering care of the Nayaka and Marāthā Rulers. The most outstanding treatise written at Tanjore was the Caturdandiprakāsikā of Venkațamakhin. It was followed up by Tulaja's Sangitasārāmṛta which popularised the system of Venkatamakhin. The Karnātic music of the present day is in conformity with this system in its main features. It may be remarked that surprisingly enough the Orissan musical literature of the 18th century, and Basava's Sivatattvaratnākara (Circ. 1715 A.D.), representative of the music of the Kannada country, do not reveal any sign of having been influenced by Venkatamakhin's work.

After Venkatamakhin, Karnātic music developed rapidly along the lines laid down by him. But there seems to have occurred a silent revolution unnoticed in any theoretical work which has profoundly changed the face of Karnatic music. This revolution has made even the Caturdandīprakāśikā a book of the past, in spite of its fundamental influence on the structure and theory of the For instance system. chapter on current the Prabandhas in the Caturdandīprakāśikā seems to be clearly out of date at present. In the reckoning of the Srutis of the Svaras occurring in various ragas there is a difference (though it is slight) between contemporary ideas and those of Venkatamakhin. Again in the names of the ragas and melas the difference noted above recurs: this is not a serious difference and except for the fact that Venkatamakhin's names for several ragas have now been superseded by other well-known names, and the conse-

quent confusion in the nomenclature of ragas, this might be passed over. Because, the substance of the most popular of the ragas of those times still remains; but this substance seems to have been much improved upon. This is inevitable in this art which is always being modified according to taste and genius, and its progress cannot be chained to a particular date or individual. And nearly three hundred years after Venkatamakhin, the art is not exactly the same as it then was. We have to make allowance for the influence of laksya. Even within the space of a century Bilahari is known to have changed the use of PDNS as a phrase into PDS. There are several instances where by the strength of usage a raga has shed off phrases sanctioned by text and adopted new phrases popularised by practice. We find at the beginning of the 19th century the melakartas and a large number of janyaragas being widely recognised by names which do not agree with those given by Venkatamakhin. Songs were composed in the 72 scales by Tyagaraja and Diksita, but they seem to have differed in the use of the vivadisvaras. A complete system of deriving Janyaragas from the 72 scales by the different combinations of Ṣāḍava, Auḍava, Sampurna and Vakra groupings resulting in thousands of ragas seems to have been understood. Tyagaraja contributed new ragas which were creations of his genius to the stock of accepted ragas. Both he and Diksita made use of Northern ragas also in composition. The list of new ragas has been increasing by the contribution of various composers down to the present day. In the book called "Samgīta Śāstra Samkṣepa" all the well-known rāgas of Tyāgarāja's songs have been defined in ślokas and illustrated by gitas. The treatment of many ragasañcāras and of the srutis assigned to the ragas found in this book differs sharply from that of Venkatamakhin,

^{1.} For a discussion of this problem, see my article "Melakarta Ragas in practice" in the Journal of the Music Academy, Vol. III.

though it is seen to correspond on the whole to current usage. But it seems that a wider view will have to be taken of the practical application of śrutis in rāgas as is shown in the chapter on "Śrutis and Svaras".

A chief factor in the transformation that has been taking place in the form of several of the ragas even within the period of the previous generation is the Desiya mode of rendering which commonly resorts to the use of notes which impart a catchy air to a particular raga but are alien to the spirit of its construction. This tendency has been strongly criticised by Vidvan K. Varadachariar Avl., Lecturer in Indian Music, The University of Madras, in the Presidential Address delivered by him at the Music Conference held in 1932 by the Madras Music Academy. In it he observed, "I believe that except in Mukhāri and Bhairavī the foreign note is a trespasser. While long prescriptive rights cannot be ignored, it is up to us to prevent further intrusion. courageous stand is not taken to prevent future encroachment, the processes of attenuation and dilution will destroy the form and beauty of our ragas". This authoritative statement not only utters a warning against Desī encroachment of our rāgas, but also suggests the method of interpreting and defining the laksana of the term 'Deśī'.

The conclusion mentioned above raises up the question whether our music is Deśī or Mārga. Rāmāmātya derives all the Deśī rāgas from the Sa-grāma, and so do all those that came after him. Venkaṭamakhin says that the Ma-grāma does not seem to exist and admits the existence of only the Sa-grāma. All the Deśī rāgas are assumed by him to originate from this grāma. If

^{1.} बरमाभिर्मध्यमञ्चामोऽप्यसत्त्राय श्तीर्यते । तथा हि मध्यमञ्चामे त्रिश्रुतिः पञ्चमः खलु ॥ वरालीमध्यमो जातः स पुनर्लक्ष्यमार्गतः ।

this is so, how could there be a conflict in making the Deśī character of Deśī Rāgas pronounced? Śārngadeva has defined "Marga" music as that discovered (Simhabhūpāla interprets 'Mārgita' as 'Drsta') by the Creator. etc., and used by Bharata and others in the presence of Siva: and Desī as that which charms the heart of the people in different countries. The latter is plain; it means the moulding of a song in any manner which is sweet, guided by popular fancy; it is not bound by any hard and fast rules of definition. There is a view that Marga means Vedic music and Desi, modern music. This does not seem to be quite acceptable. By Marga the Samaveda and Vedic music alone is not meant because Sārngadeva says immediately after his definition of Mārga and Desī that the Creator evolved this (meaning 'lay') music from the Samaveda: Bharata, who used this music in the presence of God, did not deal with Vedic but with secular music. In the Prakīrnaka Adhyāya of the

एक एव ततः षड्जञ्ञाम इत्सवधायते । स्वरप्रकरणम्
रागास्तावइशिवधा मरतावैश्वीरिताः ॥
आमरागर्थ्वोपरागा रागा भाषाविभाषिकाः ।
तथैवान्तरमाषाख्या रागाङ्गाख्यास्ततः परम् ॥
भाषाङ्गानि क्रियाङ्गानि खुपाङ्गानीति च कमात् ।
दशस्वेतेषु रागेशु ग्रामरागादयः युनः ॥
रागास्त्वन्तरभाषान्ता मार्गरागा मवन्ति षट् ।
ततो गन्धवंद्योकेन प्रयोज्यास्ते व्यवस्थिताः ॥
तस्माद्रागाङ्गामाषाङ्गित्रयाङ्गोपाङ्गसंज्ञिताः ।
रागाश्चत्वार एवैते देशीरागाः प्रकीतिताः ॥
*

प्रहांशान्यासमन्द्रादिव्यवस्था तेषु यद्यपि ॥ देशीत्यात् सर्वरागेषु नैकान्तेन प्रवर्तते ॥ —रागप्रकरणम् , चतुर्वण्डीप्रकाशिकाः

In these lines Venkatamakhin states that Mārgarāgas are now obsolete and that the current rāgas are all Deśī and therefore belong to the Sadja grāma.

I. This is expressed by Mr. M. S. Rāmasvamy Aiyar in the introduction to his edition of the Svaramela Kalānidhi, pp. LXIX and LXXIII.

Sangītaratnākara, Sārngadeva says that he will deal with the Desi and Marga laksanas of the topics there dealt with, and his subject-matter is lay music. In the Prabandha Adhyāya Śārngadeva makes it plainer that by Mārga he does not refer to Vedic music. Gāndharva is mārga music. is explained by This Kallinatha to mean that its tradition is very ancient. and that its origin is unknown like that of the Vedas. As contrasted with Gāndharva. Gāna. is Deśi. Kallinātha says that Gändharva includes all the melodies from Jātis to antarabhāṣās. This defines in indubitable language what Sārngadeva and his commentator understood by Marga.1

In the Vädyādhyāya, Śārngadeva says that the form of Deśi rāgas is chiefly determined by laksya. Kallinātha explains that this rule applied to Deśī rāgas like Rāgāngas, etc., but not to märgarāgas like the grāma rāgas, Śuddha Sādharita, etc. In the same adhyāya, the good flutist is defined to be proficient in Mārga and Deśī rāgas. The Pataha is said to be of 2 kinds, marga and deśi. Surely the Vedas were not chanted to the accompaniment of the Pataha and there is no mention of the flute accompanying it either. In the Rägādhyāya Kallinātha sums up a thorough examination of the development of Deśi music by saying that Deśī rāgas are not bound by rules. The nature of Deśī is that its purpose is the delighting of the mind of the people of each country and it is elaborated according to the will of the singer. Kallinatha quotes Añjaneya to the effect that Deśi rāgas are not bound by rules of Sruti, Svara, Grāma, Jāti, etc., and that they assume various forms in different countries. Kallinātha makes the point absolutely clear by saying that gita, etc.

^{1.} In his commentary Kallinatha says:-

^{&#}x27;' रान्धर्वं मार्गः । गानं तु देशीत्यवगन्तव्यम् । * * * । अनादिसंप्रदायमित्यनेन गान्धर्वरय वेदवदपौरुषेयस्वमिति स्चितं भवति । गानं तु वाग्गेयकारादिपरतन्त्रत्वात् पौरुषेय-मेव । * * * * स्वरगतरागविवेकयोर्जात्याधन्तरभाषान्तं यदुक्तं तद्वान्धर्वमित्यर्थः ॥

(i.e. also Vādya and Nrtya) are deśī if they are elaborated according to the fancy of the artist, and if they are bound by rules they are understood to be marga. This explains beyond any doubt the sense in which the two terms are to be understood. So it is not a misnomer to say that unwarranted invasions of alien notes or phrases into a raga are called Deśi prayogas. If a rāga is rendered according to its accepted laksana as shaped by the authority of standard compositions and texts, it can be called marga without doing violence to the term. The task before the artists and theorists of the present day is to preserve the margacharacteristic of our music, lest it should be lost irrecoverably, but this does not preclude Desi ragas (meaning by them alien melodies), from being added to the existing stock if they are worthy enough. So long as the current ragas are rendered according to definite rules they are Mārga.

In the chapters 'Srutis and Svaras' and the 'Analysis of Rāgas' the number of vibrations of the notes as they occur in practice are given. They can be taken to represent the most common forms of the usage of the notes concerned. I arrived at the figures by a close study of the problem with the help of the sonometer, and I am very grateful to Dr. Paramesvaran and Professor Appa Rao for having kindly provided me with the necessary facilities in the Physics Department of the Presidency College, Madras. The investigation was based on the laksana given in the standard compositions and texts mentioned in another chapter.

^{1.} देशीत्वादेतेषामनियमो न दोषायेति । * * * * । तथा चाहाअनेयः—

[&]quot; येषां श्रुतिस्वरशामजात्यादिनियमा न हि ।

नानादेशगतिच्छाया देशीरागास्तु ते स्मृताः ॥ " इति ।

यवं बाद्यनुत्तयोरिष कामचारप्रवित्तयोदेशित्वमवगन्तव्यम् । नियमे तु सति तेषां मार्गत्वमेव, यो मार्गित इत्यादिनोक्तत्वात् ॥

⁻Commentary on the Ragavivekadhyaya.

CHAPTER II.

ŚRUTIS AND SVARAS.

The most striking quality of Indian music is the very large use of microtones and a study of how these intervals came to be adopted serves to explain many features which are of fundamental importance to our music. All our theorists are agreed that Brahmā, the Creator evolved music out of the Samaveda which forms "some of the oldest music of which there is any record". This is more than a mythological conceit for it is possible to trace the origin of several aspects of our music to the Sāmaveda. First, if we take the musical intervals which -by evolution have undergone change and development continuously till the present day, we are able to recognise them in the accents used in the Rgveda, the Yajurveda and in the music of the Sāmaveda. We find that already during the Vedic period music had developed considerably and reached a comparatively high level of development, as is made evident for example in the Medhaprakarana of the Taittirīva Brāhmana by references to Sūta, Śailūṣa, Vīnāvāda, Gaṇaka, Tūnavadhma, Śankhadhma, etc. Theory had also received attention during the Vedic period and it is possible to infer that the intervals used in the chant of the Vedas were adopted from lay-music and that they are representative of the latter. Matanga and others say that the Svaras were taken out of the Sāmaveda. Even if it is held that the Vedic music was at the starting point of the development of lay-music a study of the notes used in it is not without value.

'Udātta', 'Anudātta', 'Svarita', and 'Pracaya' are the names of the earliest notes and the Prātiśākhyas assign

values to them only with reference to the intervals of the Sāmaveda. According to Mr. Seshagiri Sastri there are three svaras or accents in the Vedas, namely, the Udātta, 'acute', the Anudātta, 'grave', and the Svarita, 'toned'. He says that on the piano the Udātta is represented by C, the two sounds of the Anudātta by B and G, and the Svarita by C sharp (or śuddha ṛṣabha). According to him the pracaya svara as in vogue in the Taittirīya Śākhā and the Rgveda is identical with the Udātta. A long svarita in the Rgveda is split into two long sounds, the first of which is sounded as Udātta and the second as Svarita. When more than one Anudātta precede an Udātta all but the last are often sounded lower. These are illustrated by the following example:—

N s S R S n S r S N S r Ag ni mī — le pu ro hi tam yaj ñas ya N s N s S R S S R S S n de va mṛt tvi jam — ho tā — ram rat na R r S

Dhā ta mam — Rgveda.

P p N S N s S R N Co da yi trī sū nṛ tā — nām — Ibid.

Mr. Seshagiri Sastri points out that the system noted above is not scientific, that it differs between provinces and that the notes are used contrary to definition. We have to note that though the above rendering is in agreement with the specimens given by Messrs. Haug and Fox-Strangways, it is possible to discriminate them even more closely. In the above instance the three notes N, S and R differ by a semitone each. But very often, if not always, N is separated from S by 4 śrutis and S from R by 3 śrutis.

Making allowance for the passage of time since the Vedic age, and current provincial differences, I consider this to be a fact of very great importance. I have verified its truth by hearing the passages in question chanted by

various distinguished professors of the Vedas. These two intervals I consider to be at the root of Vedic music and the subsequent development of Indian music till the present day. The other intervals are easily deduced:-P and S stand a fourth apart; P is separated from N by 6 śrutis nearly, to use the terminology of current theory. We can also assume that the so-called Svarita was differentiated from the Udatta by the interval of a semi-tone. i.e., 2 śrutis. My argument for the two-, three-, and four-śruti intervals as the basic intervals is supported by the statement of Mr. Fox-Strangways that he heard the Yajuryeda recited on the notes D. E. F and also on D. E and F sharp. As regards Dr. Felber's specimens of the Yajurveda showing a compass of a 4th, 5th and 6th, the first is ordinarily met with, the second is not an exact 5th but a śruti less, and the third is rare if not altogether absent.

We will see that the intervals noted above are clearly perceptible in the Sāmagāna, in spite of contradictions between theory and practice and differences between recensions. It is said by Mr. Fox-Strangways that the scale consisted of only 5 notes for a considerable time, increased subsequently to 6 by the addition of krusta and that a seventh note was tentatively admitted in the atisvārya. Whatever be the truth of this order of development we must note that the Rkprātiśākhya mentions 7 svaras which occur in the Sāmans, their sharp and flat variations, and both the author of the Nārada Sikṣā and Sāyaṇācārya each in his own way relate the notes of the Sāman scale with the 7 notes of the gamut of lay-music. Thus it is clear that even during the Vedic period the correspondence between the notes of the Saman scale and of lay-music was perceived and theoretically analysed. Mr. S. Sankaranarayana Aiyar, in a learned article in Vol. IV of the Journal of the Music Academy, has pointed out the fundamental difficulty in appraising the value of

the Sāman notes, vis., the śruti values for the notes have not been hitherto explained by any commentator. Added to this are inconsistencies between practice and theory and differences in practice owing to the existence of different schools. For example, three readings of the same Sāman (kindly rendered in notation for me by Mr. Sankaranarayana Aiyar) are given below:—

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O gnā i — Ā yā hi — vo i to yā i — to yā — i. A — N D s — S R Ss — G r Gr GR s — Gr Gr s B — G G g — P P Pm — D d DD Pp — DDPP.
C — S S s — G G Gr — M m M M Gg — M M Gg — Gr ņā noha — vyadā to yā i — to yāi — Nāi ho tā sā A — g G RS — sGr Gr Grs — Gr GRS Gg Rs Gr GRs B — d D Pp — p D D D P p — D D Pp — Dd P D D P m C — m M Gg — g M M M G g — M M G g — MmGMMgr Tsā. i. bā . Au ho vā — rhī . sī A — G RS NSSN sn r sn ND — NSS N N d. B — D Pp M P M G R R R — M M M G R C — M G R G R S D D D — R G R S D
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Here A represents the method of singing adopted by the majority in Tanjore and Tinnevelly Districts. This has neither textual nor theoretical sanction. Ga being Krusta and Ma atisvarya, the only authority on which this is based is tradition. B is according to Sāyaṇa's interpretation, and has been advocated by the school founded by Krsnasvāmi Srautin of Varahur. This is confined to one sect, and when I listened to this mode, gave me the impression of belonging to Harikambhoji Mela; C is according to the Nārada Śikṣā. This is not sung in practice; even theoretically the allocation of srutis according to the Siksa does not agree with the śrutis of Bharata and others. Amid this confusion, one has to agree with the statement made by R. Simon in the introduction to his edition of the Puspasūtra that to the singers of the Samaveda the relation of the tones to one another was important in the first place and only in the second place the tones themselves. He very truly

observes that to suppose the tones of a scale thus built is in accordance with our twelve-note system would amount to trusting in chance too much and making things easier than they are. Nevertheless it seems that, in the face of the conflicting theories of the texts, we have to rely on what has been retained according to tradition. If we remember that the Rkprätiśākhya distinguishes between the 3 registers of the human voice, between the grave and acute varieties of the 7 yamas or svaras, and that the grāmas are mentioned in such an old book as the Mahābhārata, we are enabled to evaluate the Sāman scale with a negligible margin of error. Mr. Fox-Strangways rightly says that the highly elaborate system of the grāmas may be dated back beyond the time of Aristoxenus to the 5th century B.C. It is to be noted that all our musical theory is derived from the structure of the grāmas, and that it is with reference to the Sadja grāma, whose notes from S to S are taken to represent the śuddha scale, that the other 2 gramas are defined. This śuddha scale can be said to be the direct off-shoot of the Sāman scale in secular music. Taking the notes Ni, Sa and Ri into account around which the accents of the Rg and Yajuryedas move, and considering the necessary evolution of the 4th, 5th and the octave, the suddha scale was a necessary development. The current popular rendering of the Samaveda, (A), supports this. If according to the Nārada Siksā M G R S formed the upper Sāman tetrachord, it was the basic tetrachord of the suddha scale. The notes were arranged as S R G M and a major tone above the last note a similar tetrachord P D N S was placed completing an octave. This Suddha scale was fundamentally changed in character by lowering the 5th by an interval which was termed a pramana śruti. The new scale or group of notes was based on the consonance of the Sadja and the Madhyama as compared with the Sadja group of notes which was based on the consonance of Sadja and pañcama. The gandharagrama is men-

tioned in the Mahabharata, in some of the puranas, in the Pañcatantra, in Nānya Deva's Bharata Vārtika, in Nārada's Sangīta Makaranda and by Śārngadeva. But it is not mentioned by Bharata and is called obsolete by Sārngadeva. It is identified with the Sāman scale (which is a downward scale) according to the definition of Nārada Siksā which is believed to be a late work. It is to be noted that the Mahābhārata mentions the scale, which is thus a very old grouping of notes. Returning to the main trend of the enquiry, we have reason to infer that the evaluation of the intervals used in the gramas on the basis of śrutis was first made necessary and possible by the subtle and at the same time fundamental distinction between the two kinds of the fifths used in the Sadja and the Madhyama grāmas. This distinction was measured by one śruti which clearly distinguished between a threeśruti interval and a four-śruti interval, and which could be easily perceived on the Vina. This instrument should have readily demonstrated the relative sizes of the intervals. After making sure of the pramana śruti which became the unit of measurement, the smallest tones of the scale namely ga and ri should have been known to be equal to two srutis, ri and dha as bigger than either of them by a sruti, and sa, ma and pa being double the value of ga and ni. It may not be possible to indicate the exact order in which the śrutis for the 7 notes of the scale were evaluated but that such evaluation was easily achieved and with remarkable approach to the accuracy of just intervals is a fact. The allocation of 22 srutis for the 7 notes of the Gamut became an established and fundamental fact in musical theory at an early age in Indian history. This has been accepted by all theorists from Bharata downwards, in all parts of India including the South. It has been claimed that the South developed its arts independently. But by the time of the Silappadikāram (Circ. 2nd century A.D.) Arvan and Drayadian culture had become inextricably fused together, and the conquest of Ravana by Agastya

with the aid of music, celebrated in tradition and literature, serves to reveal how much the South was influenced by the North. The references to Samgīta in Tamil literature down to the time of Adiyarkunallar form additional evidence to prove this point. The Divakara and Silappadikāra recognise 22 śrutis. The 22 śrutis are defined as dividing the octave equally. Two notes are samvadis if they are separated by 12 or 8 srutis. Taking the two definitions into account it is possible to arrive at the value of the notes defined in terms of the srutis. But in the various attempts which have been made to interpret the notes, the method of dividing the vibrating string in different ways and measuring the resulting vibrations has been differently applied and very conflicting ratios have been given for the intervals of the notes of Hindu music.1 Mr. P. R. Bhandarkar is of the opinion that quite probably the expression of Hindu scale in terms of 22 śrutis is only an approximation and supports this position ably in the course of a series of closely reasoned articles in the 'Indian Antiquary' for 1912. Comparing the values of a major tone of 4 srutis, a minor third of 5 śrutis, a just 4th of 9 śrutis, and a just 5th of 13 śrutis with the values given by the cycle of 22 srutis, he comes to the conclusion that this system is capable of introducing an error of as many as 21 cents, or nearly a comma in expressing the minor third. The error of the other intervals is negligible. He points out the inherent inability of all systems to express accurately the so-called natural scale unless the octave is subdivided into a very large number of degrees. To express the value of the Suddha scale he considers the capacity of cycles of 22, 29, 32, 34, 41, 46 and 53, degrees and concludes that though the cycle of 53 can express it with remarkable accuracy, the cycle of 22 is the smallest that can be used for expressing the given scale. The cycle of 24 srutis is

^{1.} Vide Abraham Panditar's Karunamrtha Sagara for brief discussions of several methods of this kind.

rejected because it would be accurate if the 3 srutisinterval were the same as a 3|4 tone, which it is not.

Many attempts have been made at different periods in history to discover a perfect scale. It is interesting to note that for purposes of harmony the extent of a perfect scale is fixed at 72 tones to the octave which can be reduced to 48 or 45 tones. Thomson's enharmonic organ has 40 tones to the octave and Poole's organ 50 tones. It has also been thought possible to reduce all music to 27 or 24 tones to the octave. The possibility of dividing the octave into as many intervals as are required either for the requirements of harmony or melody becomes evident and seems justified when we note the following statement:-"As organs, harpsichords and pianofortes with 14, 16, 17, 19, 21, 22 and 24, tones to the octave have been actually constructed and used the condition of having 12 tones and no more does not seem to be inevitable." Various cycles of tones have been proposed with the aim of expressing all possible tones by a limited number of intervals. It has been said that the condition of forming a cycle is not properly speaking harmonic or melodic, but that it is arithmetic. The following are some famous cycles:-Cycles of 118, 93, 81, 77, 74, 69, 67, 65, 57, 55, 50, 53, 45, 43, 31, 26, 19, and 12 degrees. To return to the sruti system, Mr. M. Bosanquet after elaborately analysing it arrives at the following conclusion:—"The system of 22 possesses remarkable properties. It has both 5ths and 3rds considerably better than any other cyclical system having so low a number of notes. The only objection as far as the concords go to its practical employment for our own purposes lies in the 5ths. These lie just beyond the limit of what is tolerable in the case of instruments with continuous tones. For the purposes of the Hindoos where no stress is laid on harmony the system is already so perfect that improvement could hardly be expected". It is interesting to see how the octave has been divided at

various times and by different theorists into different cycles. The following figures of degrees give an idea of some prominent cycles:—30103, 3010, 301, 118, 93, 81, 77, 74, 69, 67, 65, 57, 55, 53, 50, 45, 43, 31, 26, 19 and 12.

In trying to evaluate the śrutis and svaras as they developed from early times to the present day we have to remember that the concept of ratios of musical intervals. as established according to modern physics was not known in all its details to the ancients whose attempts to express the microtonal intervals were only approximate, as has been established beyond doubt by research, but which succeeded marvellously in giving as accurate an idea of them as possible with the means at their command. Various attempts have been made to give the value of Vedic svaras but though it is true that our notes took their rise from Vedic chant their śruti values were not explained clearly in the Siksas as has been observed already. Hence the different values which have been assigned to Vedic svaras cannot be accepted as final. But it is possible to see in the chant of the Samaveda that the melody centres round G (flat) R (three śrutis) S, N (flat), and D (sharp) in the majority of the Samans, and M is added as krusta at the upper end and P as atisvārya at the lower extremity where there are 7 notes in the Saman. But the intervals seemed to have been intoned with considerable freedom, the notes partaking very much the nature of those of the Suddha scale of lay-music, and krusta and atisvārya especially treated freely within limits set by the melody. The latter two might not have conformed to their corresponding notes in the secular suddha scale but that the śuddha scale was a rearrangement of the Sāman notes is an acceptable proposition. When the grammar of music was being written we find the theory fairly well developed. The Rkprātiśākhya mentions the octaves, each containing seven notes, and distinguishes between one group of notes without intervening intervals

(probably the suddha scale which was being formed) and another group of yamas distinct from these notes. These yamas are grouped as soft and sharp (which can be taken as referring to vikrta notes).

The problem of identifying the śrutis is bound up with the music of the grama system which was in vogue till the time of Sarngadeva after whom only the Sadjagrāma survived. Bharata describes the Sadjagrāma and Madhyamagrama and the experiment of the Dhruva and Cala Vīnās. Bharata is very short in his treatment of the subject and does not mention many details regarding the śrutis like the description of their names, families, castes, etc. He does not define the grama but he describes the constitution of the Sa and Ma gramas; but he and other writers who deal with the gramas are agreed about the fundamental aspects of the system, though here and there they might have differed with regard to petty details like the names of the śrutis, etc. So the Sangīta Ratnākara's definition can be taken as representative of the theory of the grama and of śrutis as comprehended in The Ratnākara very clearly shows the assignment of śrutis on the experimental Vīnā1. Sa is fixed on the fourth string, Ri on the 7th, Ga on the 9th, Ma on the 13th, Pa on the 15th, Dha on the 20th, and Ni on the 22nd. This gives the values of the Suddha scale indubitably and this clearly shows the mistake committed by a host of writers including Sir Wm. Jones, Ousley, Paterson, Stafford, Willard, French, Carl Engel, S. M. Tagore, Grosset, Day, etc., when they defined S to R as four śrutis, R to G as

^{1.} वीणाद्धये स्वराः स्थाप्यास्तत्र षड्जश्चतुःश्रातः ॥
स्थाप्यस्तन्त्र्यां तुरीयायाम् ऋषभाखिश्रुतिस्ततः ॥
पञ्चभीतस्तृतीयाां गान्धारो द्विश्रुतिस्ततः ॥
अष्टभीतो द्वितीयायां मध्यमोऽथ चतुःश्रुतिः ॥
दश्मीतश्रुव्यां स्थात् पञ्चमोऽथ चतुःश्रुतिः ॥
चतुर्दशीतस्तुव्यायां घेवतस्त्रिश्रुतिस्ततः ॥
अष्टादश्यास्तृतीयायां निषादो द्विश्रुतिस्ततः ॥

—Svarādhyāya, S. R. (Sangīta Ratnākara)

three śrutis and so on. Mr. Fox-Strangways also accepts this wrong allocation of the śrutis in the face of the texts and practice and is therefore led into a series of errors. The Vikrta notes recognised by Sarngadeva are Acvuta Sa (the fourth śruti), Vikrta Ri (seventh), Sādhārana Ga (tenth), Antara Ga (eleventh), Cyuta Ma (eleventh). Acvuta Ma (thirteenth), Vikrta or Kaiśika (sixteenth), Vikṛta Dha (twentieth), Kaiśika Ni (first), Kākalī Ni (second) and Cyuta Sa (third). We find that almost all the Indian authors accept 22 srutis for the octave, and Nārada differs only in naming them. He defines the Gandhara grama in addition to the 2 other grāmas. The value of the suddha scale is accepted as the same by all. In the Aumanata the treatment of the subject is singular. Though the 7 svaras and 22 srutis are mentioned the infinite nature of the possibility of musical intervals becomes the keynote of the treatment of the work which enumerates systems with astounding numbers of svaras, srutis and so forth.

In the definition of svara and śruti much ingenious discussion is used. The syara is defined as the smooth charming, and continuous sound, originating after the śrutis, which pleases the listener by its own virtue.1 Simhabhūpāla comments on this verse elaborately. He points out that some are inclined to think that there is no difference between the svara and the śruti, since both of them are heard by the ear. He quotes the different kinds of relationship between the sruti and svara as propounded by various authors, e.g., he says that some think that the notes are reflected in the srutis as the face is in the mirror; others that svaras are made of śrutis as the jar is of clay; some others think that svaras are got by the transformation of śrutis as curd from milk and so forth

श्रुत्यनन्तरभावी यः क्लिग्घोऽनुरणनात्मकः । स्वतो रक्षयति श्रीतृत्वित्तं स स्वर उच्यते ॥

The essence of these views seems to be that among microtones, the notes assume those which are required. In this condition they are recognised as the distinct notes of a scale. The svara is defined by Matanga as that which shines by itself. The names of the notes have been explained by different writers old and modern, so as to give them meaning and to justify their nomenclature, and most of these attempts seem far-fetched. Kallinatha also writes an elaborate commentary on the question of śrutis and svaras. According to him the srutis are so called because they are audible. He says that in his view srutis are of one kind because they form a natural phenomenon (the manifestation of which is described by him in his own way)1. This is an intelligent view. Kallinatha then gives the opinions of different schools, as follows:-Some think that śrutis are of two kinds according to śuddha and vikṛtaśrutis. Viśvāvasu is of this opinion. Others hold that they are of 3 kinds because they occur in the 3 octaves or according to the 3 gunas; or of 4 kinds according to vāta, pitta, etc. (Tumburu is quoted to support this.) Vena and other Rsis believe that śrutis are of 9 kinds, vis., Dviśruti, Triśruti and Catuśśruti, which occur in svaras. Kohala is quoted as saying that some think that there are 22 strutis, according to others there are 66 and others think that they are innumerable.2 Regarding the nature of the origin of the svaras from the śrutis, five different views are given by Kallinatha, who condemns all except the parinama view and abhivyakti view since they are accepted by Matanga and others.

^{1.} अ्वन्त इति श्रुतयः । सा चैका अनेका वा । एकैव श्रुतिरिति । तद्यथा — तत्रादौ ताबदिहाकाश्यवनसंयोगालुरुषप्रयक्षप्रेरितो ध्वनिनीमेरूर्ध्वमाकाशादेशमाकमत भू (मन्धू) । मवत सोपानपदावस्थानं पवनेच्छ्यारोहजन्तमृतपूरणप्रस्थार्थतया चतुःश्रुत्वादिभेदामित्रः प्रतिभासत इति मामकीयं मतम् । — Kallinatha, Svaradhvava, S.R.

^{2.} तथा चाह कोहरू:-

द्वाविद्याति केचिद्दाइरन्ति श्रुतीः श्रुतिकानविचारदक्षाः । षट्षष्टिभिन्नाः खञ्ज केचिदासामानन्त्यमेव प्रतिपादयन्ति ॥

CHAP.

If we enquire about the notes that were used in the music of the jātis, we find that every śruti except the 5th, 6th, 8th, 14th, 15th, 18th, 19th and 21st was used. (This reckoning omits the consideration of the gāndhāra grāma since it was only theoretical). Inquiring into the sizes of the intervals used, we find the following were commonly employed:—

Catuśśruti (Kākalī Ni, Vikṛta Da, Kaiśika Pa, Antara Ga and Vikṛta Ri), Triśruti (Kaiśika Ni, Triśruti Pa, Sādhāraṇa Ga), and Dviśruti (Acyuta Ma, Cyuta Ma, Acyuta and Cyuta Sa). The śuddha examples for the 3 intervals are well-known. In the mūrchanas we find these three intervals occurring in different combinations.

Before leaving behind the age of grāma music, we should inquire whether it has left any impression on the music of the present day. We find that every writer down to the present day makes some reference to the grāmas and in Sangīta literature it is accepted universally that the śuddha scale is the contribution of the sagrāma starting on sadja as it does. The old writers down to Śārngadeva make the discussion of śruti, svara, tāna, mūrchana, jāti, etc., in fact that entire structure of melody known to them centre round the gramas. Mr. Fox-Strangways says that the Sa-grama is the western major with the sharpened sixth. In this he is clearly wrong because the śrutis are definitely assigned different numbers in the scale of the 22 srutis and he is again wrong in calling the Ma-grama as being equal to the major (C), whereas it is really akin to Harikambhoji meļa if it is starting from Ma. His definition of the Gāndhāra grāma also is not acceptable because he derives. it in two ways (one from the Sa-grama and another from Ma-grāma in reckoning both of which he differs from tradition and text as has been observed). According to him the three grāmas differ in their fourths, namely, the

fourth of the gandharagrama is Ma tivra and the fourth of the madhyamagrama tivratara while that of Sa-grama is suddha. The Ga-grama derived from the madhyamagrama has a perfect fourth but this is admitted by Mr. Fox-Strangways to be a mode of Sa-grama and not a distinct grama.

Kallinātha's commentary throws light on many problems concerning grāma music. He asks why two notes, namely, Sa and Ma should be associated with grāmas in the world and why not the others. He answers that it is so because of the authority of the Rsis (that is tradition) and also because of the employment of 2 kinds of svaras, viz., the suddha and the vikrta. He explains by saying that the sudda notes are found in the Sa-grama and the vikrta notes in the Ma-grama. This is an intelligent analysis making it plain that since all the notes suddha and vikrta were obtained in the two grāmas there was no need for the formulation of other gramas. Ga-grāma was taken on all hands to be obsolete. Kallinātha further states that Sadja being a prominent note, is used to form a grama and also because in this scale consonant (samvādi) intervals abound. Ma is important because it is never omitted in the tanas, and Ga is born in their race and so shines in heaven. But another answer is possible for this question, which incidentally also points out the error into which some modern writers have been led when they make scales out of the saptakas starting from each note of the Sa-grama and arrive at seven diffegrāmas as they call them. For instance, Mr. B. Svarup in his 'Theory of Indian Music' says that out of the different gramas except the three well-known grāmas, Ni-grāma was almost like the Ga-grāma, Ri and Dha-grāmas were similar except for the position of Ma and Ni, and Pa-grāma resembled almost the Sa-grāma. A similar account is given by some South Indian writers also. But this explanation ignores a vital aspect of the

problem. It must be understood that a grāma means the construction of a scale or group of notes with a definite and distinct allocation of sruti intervals. (The notes of a grāma cover a full octave). The Sa, Ma and Ga-grāmas are constituted into distinct scales or groups of notes with śrutis allocated, we might say, arbitrarily, if they were not based on tradition, in definite and clearly distinguished sequence. But to constitute the murchanas of the Sa-grāma into grāmas is a travesty of the term grāma, as understood in classical theory and would simply amount to the creation of scales which are derived one from another and which would never yield the well-known Ma and Ga-grāmas. The so-called grāmas formed out of the murchanas of the Sa-grama have to be distinguished from the three well-known gramas which represent three distinct genera and three original modes of tuning.

Mr. Fox-Strangways says: "The theory of grāma has remained barren. It is true that the system of the Karnatic music is arranged in accordance with it and that the musicians of Hindustan hold it as a pious belief". He goes on to say that the musical science of the South is over-elaborated and that the North has followed a different system of classification. We must inquire about the truth of these remarks and see if the music of the grāmas has not made any real contribution to our system. We know that the suddha scale of those times is still accepted as our suddha scale. Secondly the two-, three- and four-śruti intervals of the grāmas form important features of our present system. And the classification of melodies, even after Sārngadeva, in many places has been according to grāma, jāti, mūrchanā, etc.¹ Mr. Fox-

^{1.} To give only a few examples, Ahobala, Basava, the authors of the Sangita Nārāyaņa and the Sangita Saraņi and Tulaja refer to the jāti or mūrchanā of the rāgas treated by them. The number of such references varies according to the writer. It is interesting to note that Venkaṭamakhin and Kāmbhoji as being reckoned among Rāgāngarāgas by Sārngadeva and Kāmbhoji as being classed under Kriyāngas by Bharata and others.

Strangways is right when he states: "Bharata's is the North Indian theory of grama, though, as we have seen. it touches the South Indian theory also in one point, viz., the division of the Raga into two classes, those which have the fourth and the tritone respectively for basic intervals". But though the classification of modern Karnatic scales has been thus influenced by the gramas it is not quite in the same manner as Mr. Fox-Strangways conceives it. It is not by the divergence of the fourth but of the fifth that the gramas have established the distinction between the two main groups of our ragas. And it is the Vikrtapañcama of the Madhyama-grama that slowly evolved into the modern Pratimadhyama, as we may gather from the evidence in the works on Karnatic music written after the time of Sarngadeva, and this note is responsible for the fundamental division of modern Karnatic scales into two distinct groups.

The Gāndhāragrāma can be breifly disposed of. A great deal of confusion envelopes this grāma since it is not mentioned in some of the most important among the oldest musical works. Nānyadeva mentions this grāma and describes various rāgas under it. Nārada defines it as also Śārngadeva, but they refer to it as a scale prevalent in heaven (i.e., obsolete). Ahobala after some centuries defines both this and the Ma-grāma in a way which does not agree with the old definitions and which had no reference to practice. It is not clear with

-Ibid

श्रुतित्रयसमायुक्तो यदा गो मेरगो भवेत ॥ गान्धारमाम आख्यातस्तिस्तिमः श्रुतिभिः परे ॥ चतुःश्रुतिनिषादः स्यात् षड्जोऽपि तिस्त्रमिर्युतः ॥

[—]Sangīta Pārijāta

मध्यमे मेरुसंस्थेऽसिन् मध्यमग्रामसंभवः। यदा तदैव तास्तिसः श्रुतीर्याति स पञ्चमः॥ निषादं त्रिश्रुतिं तत्र मृयुर्लक्षणकोविदाः। अन्ये तु श्रुतिभिर्युक्ताः समामस्थस्यरा इव॥

reference to which grama the Ga-grama was derived. In the absence of specific directions, it is not improper to assume that the suddha scale of the Sa-grama might have been taken as the norm. But the scale has been interpreted by recent writers in different ways. For instance Mr. Fox-Strangways derives two varieties of the Ga-grama from the Sa-grāma and the Ma-grāma. (He associates the Saman scale with the latter derivative). Mr. M. S. Ramaswami Aivar in the introduction to his edition of the Ragavibodha, besides quoting the variety of the Ga-grāma derived from Sa-grāma by Fox-Strangways. gives two derivations according to the theoretical and practical variations, as he calls them, of the Ma-grama. Without entering into the question of the validity of these inferences, we easily see the uncertainty prevailing about the exact nature of the Gandharagrama, which is confounded by the definition of this grama by such a recent authority as Ahobala. So any inference based upon the unidentified Gandharagrama cannot be regarded as valid. Hence, the statement of Mr. Ramaswami Aiyar in the same introduction that the two grāmas of Ga and Ma are living entities sung in South India needs analysis. His argument is that though the two gramas must be deemed to have been still-born, notwithstanding the elaborate way in which they were verbally dealt with, yet they are sung even to-day by the Sāman chanters. I have to differ from his premises and conclusions. His view that the primal Samika was GRS is doubtful because in Vedic music it is the intervals that count and not the Svaras, according to the leading authorities on the subject, and so to name the Svara progression of the Sāmika is not correct. Secondly, to say that the vocal scale of the Samagana proceeded in descent from the Gandhara of the upper register is also not correct. Because, even Nārada who says the Prathama Svara of the Sāmaveda began on Ga does not give the order of the Saman scale of 5 Svaras as G, R, S, N, D, as Mr. Aiyar does. In fact, Nārada's

order of the progression is a stumbling-block.1 Then there is the rival school of Sāyaṇa² and also conflicting tradition and practice which make the equation of the Saman and Gandharva Svaras well-nigh impossible. Added to this is the lack of any tangible mention of the śruti values of the notes of the Samans. All these conditions stand in the way of any generalisation regarding the Sāman scale. So the statement of Mr. Aiyar that each of the 3-Svara scale and 5-Svara scale began with Ga and that both the scales or perhaps the latter scale got the name of Gāndhāra-grāma (which, as we saw, is variously defined) is based upon two uncertainties. But Mr. Aiyar proceeds to state that when Ma and Pa were added to this pentatonic scale to form the heptatonic one, viz., M, G, R, S, N, D, P, and since this began with Ma, it naturally was named the Madhyama-grāma. He seems to base this inference on pure conjecture. He is not only going against text and tradition, which derive the grāmas and distinguish between them in an entirely different manner, but is contradicting himself. If the 3-Svara scale or 5-Svara scale later got the name of Gāndhāra-grāma, it must have been in the form of a saptaka to be called a grāma. The nucleus might have consisted of 5 Svaras but the developed Ga-grāma scale must have been, and was a heptatonic scale. According to Mr. Aiyar this heptatonic scale was of the form M, G, R, S, N, D, P, (which is not quite right). This scale according to him was called the Madhyama-grāma

यः सामगानां प्रथमः स वेणोमध्यमस्वरः ।
 यो द्वितीयः स गान्धारः तृतीयस्त्वृषभः स्मृतः ॥
 चतुर्थः षड्ज इत्याहुः पञ्चमो थैवतो भवेत ।
 षष्ठो निषदो विद्ययः सप्तमः पञ्चमः स्मृतः ॥

^{2.} लोकिक य निवादादयः सप्त स्वराः प्रसिद्धाः त एव साम्नि कुष्टादयः सप्त स्वरा भवन्ति । तद्यथा—यो निवादः स कुष्टः, भवतः प्रथमः, पञ्चमः द्वितीयः, मध्यमस्तृतीयः, गान्धारश्चतुर्थः, ऋषभो मन्द्रः, षङ्जोऽतिस्वार्थं इति ॥ सायणाचार्याः ।

because it started with Ma. But obviously the same scale cannot be called by 2 different names like the Ga-grāma and Ma-grāma which mean two entirely different scales. Ga-grāma is well-known as a peg for ancient and modern theorists to hang their own theories upon, because it was and is an obsolete scale for centuries. Nārada and others who wrote on the music of the Samaveda can be trusted to have compared their theme with the theory of lay music and it is not wrong to assume that they would not have failed to mention the parallelism between the Saman scale and the Gandhara-grama if they found any. We can also rightly assume that when an author speaks about a problem without any qualification he is referring to its aspect which is well-known. So taking Nārada Śiksā alone we may infer that Nārada may be referring to the Svaras of the Suddha scale of the Sadja-grāma. believe that he is speaking about the Gandhara-grama Svaras is to trust conjecture too much. Hence the conclu-"sions of Mr. Aiyar that the Ga-grama was the earliest and the Ma-grāma (according to his conception) the second to appear in music, that with the growth of secular music and the Sa-grāma the other 2 grāmas (according to him) along with the Samagana were driven into the temples, and that while the Sa-grama flourishes, the other 2 have perished, are not acceptable. It must be understood that the Madhyamagrama described by Bharata and others has nothing to do with the Samagana, and that it lived along with the Sa-grāma till the epoch of grāma music. After this period, the Vikrtapañcama of the Ma-grama became identified with the Tivra variety of the Madhyama (as all Karnatic theorists after Sarngadeva point out). So the Ma-grāma lives now in a modified form and is responsible for the wonderful system of classification that Karnatic music possesses to-day. Also the Ma-grama had its own contribution to make as regards intervals as we have seen. In the light of what has been said above, it seems best to leave alone the Ga-grama as

a mode of tuning which was once prevalent, but which was abandoned subsequently owing to its complex intervals, and poverty of Samvādis instead of equating it with the Sāman scale.

Before dealing with the Karnatic writers after Sārngadeva it must be noted that the Sangīta literature in Tamil exerted a most profound influence in shaping Karnatic music as it is known now. The Silappadikāram, in the light of available Tamil works, occupies in Tamil Sangīta literature the same place as the Sangīta Ratnādoes in Sanskrit literature. In respect of the number of śrutis (which are taken to be 22) and the consonance of the fourth and fifth, there is remarkable similarity between the Silappadikāram and the Sanskrit works. But what seems to be an original contribution; the outstanding importance and influence of which is felt to-day as fundamental, is the Tamil division of the octave which is conceived as a cycle divided into 12 equal units.1 The*. 5th unit from the starting note is given as the consonance of the fourth and the 7th as that of the fifth. In the cycle of the Vattappālai, alakus or śrutis are allocated in the follow-

 ^{&#}x27;ஆயஞ் சது சக் திரிகோணம் வட்டமெனப் பாய நான்கும் பாலேயாகும்.' 'வட்டமென்பது வகுக்கு ககாலை யோரேழ் தொடுத்த மண்டலமாகும்.' 'சாண எவு கொண்டதொரு வட்டக் தன்மீது பேணியீரு காலுபெரு திசை க்—கோணத் திரு கயிற மேலோட்டி யொன்பானு மூன்றம் வருமுறையே மண்டலத்தை வை.' 'எதிரு மிராகி வலமிட மாக வெதிரா விடமீன மாக—முதிராத வீராறி ராகிகளே யிட்டடைவே கோக்கவே, யேரார் தமண்டல் மென்றெண்'

⁻Adiyarkkunallar (commentary on Ayceiyar Kuravai).

ing manner: -S=4, R=4, G=3, M=2, P=4, D=3, N=2. Abraham Panditar, who has analysed the Tamil system of music very elaborately in his Karunamrta Sāgara, is inclined to read these śrutis as S to R=4. R to G=4, etc. According to this allocation of the srutis, the units or rāsis (the name for the subdivisions) are not equal to one another in the number of srutis or alakus contained. Mr. Panditar points out that, since 12 intervening śrutis indicate the consonance of the fifth, the pairs R and D and G and N are not consonant because they are separated by 10 and 11 śrutis respectively. (These 2 exceptions to this consonance occur in the theory of the Sanskrit works too). Hence Mr. Panditar attempts to rectify them by adding one sruti each to D and G, making the total number of śrutis into 24. He states that his belief is that males sang to 24 śrutis, and females to 22 śrutis, by reducing one śruti each from 2 Samvādis within the octave. In the assignment of 24 srutis to the octave, there is nothing to support Mr. Panditar except his plea for the consonance of the 2 intervals noted above. But he himself says that though the octave was divided into 24 srutis, the Tamils employed 22 śrutis in the octave. Also we have to remember that it may be generally true that the small dis-

^{. &#}x27;னத்தமிடப மல்வனுடன் சியன் கோற்றனுக் கும்பமொடு மீனமிலை—பார்த்துக் குரன் முதற்ருர மிறவாய்க் கிடந்த திரலேழஞ் செம்பாலே நேர்.' ' துலேகிலேக்குரலுக் தனுகிலேத் துத்தமு கிலைபெறு கும்பத்து நேர்கைக்கினேயு மீனத் துழையும் விடைநிலத் தினியும் மானக் கடகத்து மன்னியவிளரியு மரியிடைத் தாரமு மீணவுறக் கொளலே.' குருத்த நான்கு கிளமூன்றிரண்டுர்ங் குரையா வுழையிளி நான்கு—விரையா விளரி பெனின் மூன்றிரண்டு தாரமெணச் சொன்ஞர் களரி சேர் கண்ணுற்றவர்.'

^{2.} In the Suddha scale (starting on Sa of the Sadja grāma), Dha and Ga are separated by 10 srutis, and Pa and Ri by 11 srutis.

crepancies in consonance were made good in practical singing. The Vattappālai is said by Mr. Panditar to have employed the 22 śrutis, whereas the Ayappālai consisted of 24 śrutis, both as noted above. His argument against the 22 śrutis is that, besides the incorrect fifths noted above. the Suddha Madhyama and the Pañcama of the system deviate from perfect intervals by 8 and 7 cents respectively. But we have to see that the ancients had no means of checking these very minute deviations, and besides, they could not achieve such subtle errors even if they wanted to, because they would have naturally been guided by their ears for perfect intervals. The calculation of the errors obtained by trying to cover the śruti intervals of an octave by rotating fifths or fourths among consecutive octaves is a mathematical myth, for these experiments could never have been carried out in the days of the Silappadikāram or even the Sangīta Ratnākara. As Herschal says: "Anyone who should keep on ascending by perfect fifths and descending by octaves or thirds, would soon find his fundamental pitch grow sharper and sharper till he could at last neither sing nor play; and two violin players accompanying each other and arriving at the same note by different intervals, would find a continual want of agreement." Mr. Panditar says that the Trikonappālai and the Caturappālai may mean the subdivision of the 24 srutis into 48 and 96 śrutis respectively. An equal division of the octave is artificial and not necessary for correct or natural singing. But when Mr. Panditar proceeds to identify the Tamil gramas of notes with the equally tempered scale of modern Europe, he goes farther from truth, and it is not possible to agree with him. His conclusion seems to be wrong even if it is maintained that the minute śruti intervals may be represented by the division of the octave into 48 and 96 equal divisions. The fallacy of his conclusions is rooted in the fact that he thinks that the 22 sruti-system was incorrect in expressing the scale (whereas it was only an approximation and a correct one, as Mr. P. R. Bhandarkar points

out), and that it must be a system of 24 srutis equally dividing the octave. As against the voluminous details of his arguments, it must be remembered that a correct fifth and fourth are rightly got in any musical system which has any pretensions to development, whatever be the number of units into which the octave is divided under that system. Even otherwise the śrutis occurring in rāgas (according to the different pālais), which he gives are not quite correct, because the śrutis as they occur in practical music during singing cannot be represented by a single figure. This dictum applies to all such figures which have been given by different contemporary writers.

In this connection it is interesting to note some views regarding the real nature of śrutis as they occur in song and as they are calculated on paper. The Rev. Mr. Popley very truly observes: "A song or piece played on an instrument is a live thing and does not submit to mathematical precision. There is, it is true, only one form for each scale, and every singer and musician tries to get it right, though no one invariably manages to do so. The very fact of putting passion (Rasa) into music means that a particular note will be taken rather sharper at one time than another. The law is there of course to be obeyed as perfectly as possible. In South India the use of the term śruti for such a possible sharpening or flattening of particular notes recognises the truth of this variability. Music after all is an art and not a mere mechanism." Criticising Mr. Panditar's adoption of the equal temperament, Mr. Clements says in his "Ragas of Tanjore", "Where Abraham Panditar and others like him show a lack of imagination is that they do not attempt to realise the conditions regarding scientific knowledge under which the old Pandits lived. Science, needless to say, has not gone backwards during the Christian Era; and caprice or artificiality, such as any kind of equal temperament must be the exception; it cannot be the rule." Elsewhere he puts

the case even more strongly thus:—"Mr. A. Panditar rejects all the ancient theories of the Sangīta Ratnākara and Bharata's Nātyaśāstra and puts his faith to equal temperament. It seems to us that he does not understand the raison d'etre of temperament and its justification. Temperament is necessitated by a system of transposition scales and is intended as the nearest possible approximation to just concord. It is justified by harmony in the modern sense and by that alone. Indian music has no transposition scales and therefore has not the same need for an equal division of the octave. It is not an harmonic No Indian musician ever dreamt of tuning Sa and Pa by a tempered fifth or singing other consonant intervals purposely a little out of tune." The conclusion of Mr. Clements that the Indian system revels in a vast number of scales founded on natural intervals is perfectly legitimate.

We find the Silappadikaram giving 3 kinds of intervals, namely, the dvistuti, tristuti and catusstuti intervals.¹ Calculating the Ni of the Tamil suddha-scale from Ma it is Komal and then the suddha mela will be Harikāmbhoji. But perhaps assuming that in the cycle of 12 units the stutis are capable of being interpreted as preceding or succeeding the svaras, Mr. Panditar takes Sankarābharana as the Tamil suddha-scale. The Tamil division of the octave into 12 rāsis is quite original and epoch making. The present svara system of Karnatic music is based on this division and the melakartā system has been formulated roughly on the basis of this division.

After Sarngadeva we find that the old order had changed, giving place to a new one. The most outstanding aspect of this change was the fixity given to Sa and espe-

^{1.} Describing the Pālaiyal, Adiyārkunallar says :-

^{...}இர்நாம்பிற் பா‰ பிறக்குமிடத்துக் குரலும் துத்தமும் இளியும் கான்கு மாத்கிரை பெறும்; கைக்கினாயும் விளரியும் மூன்ற மாத்திரை **பெறம்; உழையும்** தாரமும் இரண்டு மாத்திரைபெறும்".

cially Pa which directly resulted in the disappearance of the Madhyama-grāma from usage. Kallinātha makes some important observations concerning changes that had occurred in practice in the course of his commentary on Deśīrāgas in the Rāgādhyāya.1 He says that rāgās originating in the Madhyama-grāma like Madhyamādi, Todi, etc., had ceased to start on the note Ma but started instead on the Madhya-sadja. According to him, this was one of the differences that had taken place between theory and practice. The next line is very important. Its purport is that the Sāraṇās of notes dependant on the graha-svara and situated above it are absent and that though the Triśruti Pañcama which marks the difference between the grāmas is used, all rāgas assume the same form, (i.e., do not reveal the difference between the gramas). This is a very important statement from the pen of the most important among the commentators of Sarngadeva. This reveals what a fundamental change was happening in the practice and theory of Indian music at that time. His next statement is no less important; it is that in the Kriyānga-rāga, Rāmakriyā, the note Madhyama assumes two śrutis of the note Pañcama. This is again a new thing in history. Hitherto Pañcama has been lowered a

^{1.} इदानीमधुना प्रसिद्धरागाङ्गादीनां छक्ष्य प्रतातानां छक्षणिवरोधानां परिहारार्थसुबमः क्रियते । तत्र विरोधोद्धावनाप्रकारस्तावद्धामद्धयाज्ञात्यादिपरम्परयोत्पन्नानामेतेषां
रागाणां मध्यमस्थपङ्जमध्यस्थानयोरेव तत्तन्मूर्छनारम्भपद्धाश्रयणे शास्त्रविहिते संमवस्यि
मध्यमग्रामोत्पन्नानां मध्यमादितोडिप्रभृतीनां च मध्यमध्यमारम्भं विहाय मध्यपङ्जस्थान
एवारम्भा छक्ष्यछक्षणिवरुद्धः । तथा प्रहस्त्ररायन्तोत्तरस्वरसारणानामभावश्च चित्र(त्रिच)तुःश्रुतित्वेन ग्रामद्धयभेद्कस्य पञ्चमस्यास्रोध्यत्वेन प्रयुज्यमानस्यापि
सर्वरागेष्वेकरूपता । क्रियाङ्गरामित्रयथां मध्यमस्य पञ्चमश्रुतिह्याक्रमणं नद्धेदर्काप्रभृतिष्वष्यभववयोरन्तरकाकल्यादिमश्रुतिह्याक्रमणेन प्रस्थेकं पञ्चश्रुतिता च शास्त्रशास्त्राविहिता
(१) । श्रीरागे गान्धारनिषादयोर्मध्यमषङ्जादिमैकैकश्चराश्चव(क्रम १)णेन त्रिश्रुतित्वे
शास्त्रविहितेऽपि षड्जमध्यमयोरशास्त्रविहितित्रश्रुतित्वकरणेन केशिकयोरवैशसम् । तत्रापि
कष्यभवैवतयोर्गन्थारिनपदादिमश्रुत्याक्रमणेन प्रस्थेकं चतुःश्रुतित्वं वा शास्त्रविहितम् ॥

⁻⁻Rāgavivekādhyāya SR.

śruti and that perhaps did service for the tritone, but the madhyama is now openly assuming the role of a sharp fourth as against the śuddha-pañcama. In Naṭṭa, Dévakrī, etc., Ri and Dha take two śrutis each from Antara and Kākali and become pañcaśruti Ri and Dha respectively. These again are new intervals. In Śrīrāga Ga and Ni are made triśrutis. He remarks that the Catuśśruti Ri and Dha are sanctioned by text. Putting all this together we find a complete revolution in theory and practice.

This revolution becomes pronounced in the Svaramelakalānidhi of Rāmāmātya. Some of the old šrutis had become obsolete in use, and so he says Acyuta Sa, Acyuta Ma, Vikṛta Ri, Vikṛta Dha, and Vikṛta Pa are not distinct from Suddha Sa, Suddha Ma, Suddha Ri, Suddha Dha and Vikrta Pa respectively. These are one and the same intervals in practice. His recording of the svara names of his time is important. Cyuta Sa (3rd Sruti) is called by him Cyuta Ṣadja Ni; Cyuta madhyama is Cyuta madhyama gāndhāra; Cyuta Pañcama is Cyuta Pañcama madhyama. The Rsabha which is identical with Suddha Ga is Pañcaśruti Ri; the Ri identical with Sādhārana Ga is Similarly Dha is Pañcaśruti and Satśruti. The new names of svaras indicate the use to which they are now put. One striking characteristic is that each note is now sought to be sharpened to its utmost possibility. Satsruti R and D are significant as paving the way for the prastāra of the future meļakartās. Cyuta Pañcama Ma had by this time definitely driven the Vikrta Pañcama off the field. The Madhyama grāma becomes a fossil of the past.

Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇa in his Saṅgīta Sūryodaya siṃply follows the Saṅgīta Ratnākara. In the Rāgavibodha we find more vikṛtas introduced. Somanātha accepts the 7 vikṛtas of Rāmāmātya, though the Cyuta saḍja Ni, Cyuta madhyama Ga, and Cyuta pañcama Ma, are called

by him Mrdu sadja Ni, etc. He mentions 8 more vikrta svaras, vis., Tīvratama Dha-Kaiśiki Ni, Tīvra R-8th śruti, Tīvratara Ri-Śuddha Ga, Tivratama Ri= Sādhārana Ga, Tīvratama G—Acyuta Ma, Tīvratama Ma =15th Śruti. Tīvra Dha=21st Śruti and Tīvrafara Dha=Ni.

The most striking feature of the Sangīta Pārijāta is the care devoted to the flattening of notes as well as the sharpening of them and the utilisation of every one of the 22 śrutis. Ahobala is unique in this, since no other author before or after him except the authors of the Melādhikārālaksana and the Sangīta Śāstra Sanksepa does so. According to him Purva Ri-5th Sruti, Komala Ri-6th, Śuddha R=Pūrva Ga, 8th śruti=Komala G=Tīvra R, Suddha G-Tīvratara R, Tīvra Ga-10th Sruti, Tīvratara G-11th, Tivratama G-12th, M-Atitivratama G, Tivra M=14th, Tivratara M=15th, Tivratama M= 16th, Pürva D=18th, Komala D=19th, Suddha D=Pürva N. Komala N=21st=Tivra D. Suddha N=Tivra D. Tīvra N=1st, Tīvratara N=2nd, and Tīvratama N=3rd. What is most noteworthy are the degrees of flattening and sharpening of the notes used.

The śrutis of the Melādhikāralakṣaṇa are thus enumerated by Mr. Abraham Panditar in his Karunamrta Sāgara—(0) Acyuta Ṣadja, (1) Prati Śuddha Ri, (2) Suddha Ri, (3) Prati Catuśśruti Ri-Prati Suddha Ga, (4) Catuśśruti Ri-Suddha Ga, (5) Prati Satśruti Ri-Prati Sādhārana Ga, (6) Satśruti Ri—Sādhārana Ga, (7) Cyuta Gāndhāra Ri—Prati Antara Ga, (8) Antara Ga, (9) Cyuta Madhyama=Cyuta Madhyama Ga, (10) Suddha Ma, (11) Aprati Ma, (12) Prati Ma, (13) Cyuta Pañcama Ma, Cyuta Pañcama, (14) Pañcama, (15) Prati Suddha Dha, (16) Śuddha Dha, (17) Praticatuśśruti Dha=Prati Suddha Ni, (18) Catuśśruti Dha-Suddha Ni, (19) Prati Satśruti Dha-Prati Kaiśki Ni, (20) Satśruti Dha-Kaiśiki Ni, (21) Cyuta Niṣāda Dha-Prati Kākali Ni,

(22) Kākali Ni, (23) Cyuta Ṣaḍja—Cyuta Ṣaḍja Niṣāda, (24) Niyata Sadja.

The svaras Cyuta madhyama Ga, etc., resemble Rāmāmātya's names for such notes. The intervals called Pratiśuddha Ri, etc., have their parallels in some notes with similar names in Govinda's Sangīta Śāstra Sanksepa. The use of Cyuta sadja, Cyuta pañcama and Cyuta madhyama in this modern work is noteworthy. If they were used as independant notes in scales, several more thousands of melas will have to be added to the total of 4624 scales estimated to be possible without them as madhyama, pañcama and sadja. The use of 7 varieties each of rsabha, gandhara, dhaivata and nisāda, four varieties of madhyama and two of pañcama is remarkable, but the original Ms. stops in the madhya group of melas. The constitution of these sruti melas seems to have been inspired by the example of Somanatha, and both schemes are equally devoid of practical utility.

In an article on 'Meladhikāralakṣaṇa' in the Journal the Music Academy, Vol. I, No. 1 are given the names of the notes of the Melādhikāralaksana some of which differ from those by A. Panditar, the most important being cyuta madhyama-pa (also cyuta-pañcama-ma) and cyuta-ṣadja ni for cyuta pa and cyuta sa given in the Karunāmṛta Sāgara. Discussing the value of the book the author of this article says: 'It can be easily demonstrated that the 24 Srutis are actually in use, and therefore ought to be scientifically recognised, and the merit of the present work appears to me to lie in having done this'. If it is true that the 24 Srutis are in use, the system of Venkatamakhin based on the 22 Srutis (with reference to which he explains his melas) becomes antiquated and is superseded by the system of 24 Srutis. If the old definition of the Srutis equally dividing the octave is admitted, the two kinds of

Srutis will each differ from one another by about 4-5 cents. Moreover this writer's acceptance of the scheme of 24 Srutis is subject to the same criticism as Mr. Abraham Panditar's advocacy of the 24 Srutis, since both schemes contain similar errors. Mr. Panditar seems to be on more secure ground, because he admits the insufficiency of the 24 śrutis to express our music by further dividing the octave into 48 and 96 intervals.

· Coming to the current system of svaras and śrutis as propounded by Govinda Dīksita, Venkatamakhin and Tulajā Mahārāja, we find the culmination of the process which began after Sarngadeva. According to this system, Suddha Ri=7th śruti=Gaula Ri, 9th śruti=Pañcaśruti Ri-Śrīrāga Ri, 10th śruti-Satśruti Ri-Nāta Ri, 9th śruti-Suddha Ga-Mukhāri Ga, 10th śruti-Sādhārana Ga-Śrīrāga Ga, 12th śruti-Antara Ga-Gaula Ga, 13th śruti=Suddha Ma, 16th śruti=Prati Ma=Varāļī Ma, 17th śruti=Pa, 20th=Śuddha Dha=Gaula Dha, 22nd= Pañcaśruti Dha-Śrīraga Dha, 1st śruti-Şaţśruti Dha-Nāṭa Dha, 22nd—Suddha Ni-Mukhāri Ni, 1st śruti-Kaiśiki Ni-Śrīrāga Ni, and 3rd śruti-Kākali Ni-Gauļa Ni. The illustration of the srutis in the light of ragas is important. Venkatamakhin's system becomes truly epochmaking because he formulated for the first time all the notes current in the practice of his time into a comprehensive scheme of 72 Melakartas, which stands to the credit of Karnatic music and has endowed it with a method of classification which is perfectly complete.

As regards the Melakartā scheme, in the Conference of the Madras Music Academy (held in 1934), it was

^{1.} If it is argued that Venkatamakhin stated that the Srutis are 24 in the Gunda-Kriyā gīta, it must not be forgotten that he admits only 22 Srutis in the Caturdandīprakāsikā, and that in the Melaprakarana he defines the Srutis of every svara occurring in the 19 melas of his time and for each scale he gives the total value of the svaras as 22 Srutis for an octave.

stated by Nazir Uddin Khan of Indore that the scheme now expounded as Venkatamakhin's existed 300 years before him. According to Mr. Khan this was proved by the mention of the 72 Melakarta names in 4 Dhrupadas composed by Bijou Naik, stated to have gone to the north from South India during the time of Alaudin Khilji. Similar data is found in the fragmentary manuscript of the work of Somanarya, in which are mentioned the names of the Melakartas. As against this should be set the fact that in no important work after Śarngadeva till Venkatamakhin, is the scheme of the Kartas mentioned. The material for the Kartas was available since the time, at least of Rāmāmātya, who uses Śuddha Ri, Pañcaśruti Ri and Satsruti Ri and 3 similar varieties of Dha in addition to the sharp fourth. But though Somanatha sets a precedent in the formation of the Melakarta scheme, it is not till the time of Venkatamakhin that the above-said intervals are employed to form the 72 Melakartas.

After the 72 Melakartas had remained in tact for nearly 300 years, the scheme has been criticised recently as using the same interval for 2 different names of notes and hence it is proposed that all such scales which use the same notes with different names should be reformed and that we should retain scales in such a form as would do away with the necessity of using 2 names for the same But this argument ignores several reasons which justify the constitution of the Melakartas in their present First, these notes have been taken from usage, which, at least, dates from the time of Rāmāmātya. evident that the different notes used in Venkatamakhin's scheme were adopted from the practice of the art and that they were not the fanciful creations of any individual theorist. The second reason to be urged against the above argument is that the flattening or sharpening of the notes concerned is not against their nature as Vikrtas. Vikrta has been defined as the note obtained by the devia-

tion from its Niyata śruti.' Hence in the Melakartās, the principle that has been adopted in the formation of the Vikrtasvaras amounts to this, viz., Ma is not flattened below its Suddha position and is sharpened to any extent below the Pañcama. Ri is sharpened up to the Sādhārana gandhara and Dha up to the Kaisika Nisada. Ga is flattened from the Antara position to the region of the śuddha (and in practice even slightly below) and Ni from the Kākali to the suddha position. The usage of Vikrta notes sanctions the freedom of these notes to be flattened or sharpened within the said limits. As regards the argument that the same syara is called by two different syara names, it must be noted that such scales have a distinct individuality which cannot be destroyed even though one or more notes occurring in those scales are called by different names in other scales. For instance, the combination Sa, Ri (Śuddha), Ga (Śuddha), Ma (Sharp), Pa, Dha (Suddha), Ni (Kākali), is well-known as an ancient and very prominent melody-type. Though this suddha gāndhāra may elsewhere occur as a sharp Ri, the individuality of the scale remains indestructible. The same argument applies to Calanata. These two scales alone are sufficient to afford recognition for the notes in the Melakartā scheme, bearing double names. What matters in the use of such notes is the value that they acquire as the flat or sharp of a particular note and not the strict rules of unduplicated nomenclature.

In Govinda's Sangīta Śāstra Sankṣepa a different account of śrutis is given and it merits our attention because of its intimate bearing on current practice and its difference from the theory of the Caturdandīprakāśikā. According to the author the open string gives Sa. His names for the śrutis can be tabulated as follows:—

Kāšīnātha in his Sangīta Sudhākara gives the following definition:—
 स्वराः स्वानियतश्रुताः प्रचुता विञ्चताः स्मृताः ॥

No.	Names of Srutis.	Names of Svaras.
1.	Tīvrā. (तीत्रा)	Ri (a)
2	Kumudvatī. (कुमुद्दती)	Ri (b)
3	Mandā. (मन्दा)	Ri (c) Ga (a)
4	Chandovatī. (छन्दोनती)	Ri (d) Ga (b)
5	Dayavatī. (दयावती)	Ri (e) Ga (g)
6	Rañjanī. (रञ्जनी)	Ri (f) Ga (h)
7	Raktikā. (राक्तका)	Ga (i)
8	Raudrī. (रौद्री)	Ga (j)
9	Krodhā. (क्रोधा)	Ma (a)
10	Vajrikā; (विज्ञिका)	Ma (b)
11	Prasāriṇī. (प्रसारिंणी)	Ma (i)
12	Prīti. (प्रीतिः)	Ma (k)
13	Mārjanī. (मार्जनी)	Pā
14	Kṣiti. (क्षिति:)	Dha (a)
15	Raktā. (रक्ता)	Dha (b)
16	Raktā. (रक्ता) Samdīpinī. (संदीपिनी)	Dha (c) Ni (a)
17	Ālāpinī. (आलापिनी)	Dha (d) Ni (b)
18	Madanti. (मदन्ती)	Dha (e) Ni (1)
19	Rohinī. (रोहिणी)	Dha (f) Ni (m)
20	Ramyā. (रम्या)	Ni (n)
21	Ugrā. (डम्रा)	Ni (o)
22	Kṣobhiṇi, (क्षोभिणी)	Sa.
<u> </u>	, O ~	<u> </u>
	Prefixes appended to the notes	in the above list are
he	following:—	
()	7	

- Suddha. Ъ.
- Praticatuśśruti. c.
- á. Catuśśruti.
- Prati Satśruti. e.
- Şatśruti. f.
- Pratisādhāraņa. g.
- Sādhāraņa. ħ.

- Pratyantara.
- j. Antara.
- Prati. k.
- Prati Kaiśikī. 1.
- Kaiśikī. m,
- Prati Kākalī. n.
 - Kākalī. o.

The above classification differs from all other lists in the assignment of svaras to the śrutis, tīvra. etc.¹ But like Ahobala, the author has included every one of the twenty-two śrutis. This scheme has the unique merit of taking into account all the śrutis, śuddha and vikṛta of every note, e.g., Rṣabha is sharpened up to six śrutis and every one of these six śrutis is called Ri.²

The vivādi dosa affecting 40 of the 72 scales has been considered not to, be a defect, since the time at least of Tyāgarāja and Govinda, in whose Kṛtis and Gītas the so-called vivādi aspect is entirely ignored. Mr. K. V. Srinivasa Iyengar has argued vigorously against the vivādis in his Gānabhāskara.

Mr. Fox-Strangways points out that the Karnatic system 'merges' and that it recognises not 22 but only 16 nominal and 12 real sub-divisions of the scale. It is surprising that such a keen critic as he should have made these remarks. The 'Merger' of the svaras, I am convinced and have made evident in the 'Analysis of Rāgas', is only partial. The identity sought to be established between Ṣaṭśruti Dhaivata and Kaiśiki Ni and so on does not represent the whole truth. For, taking these 2 notes as musical facts and judging from the manner of their usage, we clearly see that the 2 notes may coincide at a point, but their range, manipulation, and effect are entirely different.

^{1.} Cf. the following lines of Sārngadeva:—
तीव्राकुमुद्धतीमन्दाछन्दोवलस्तु पह्लगाः !
दयावती रक्षनी च रक्तिका चर्षमे स्थिताः ॥
रौद्री क्रोधा च गान्धारे विश्वकाथ प्रसारिणी ।
प्रांतिश्च मार्जनीत्येताः श्रुतयो मध्यमाश्रिताः ॥
श्विती रक्ता च संदीपिन्यालापिन्यपि पञ्चमे ।
मदन्ती रोहिणी रन्येलेतास्तिसस्तु धैवते ॥
जन्मा च क्षोमिणीति दे निषादे वसतः श्रुती ॥

⁻Svarādhyāya.

^{2.} Vide Appendix I,

Their values as notes in the scale are distinct in spite of their overlapping one another at some point or other. Hence Western and Indian critics are not justified in saving that the so-called merger is a duplication of the notes included in it. To argue for the deletion of such scales is inadmissible and is based on a misunderstanding of the spirit and essence of Karnatic music. Again it is wrong to say that the Karnatic system does not recognise 22 śrutis. This is to deny the truth. Every Southern writer bases his treatment on the 22 śrutis system. Taking 2 authors alone who are considered to be the most important authorities on the present system, viz., Venkatamakhin and Govinda, we find them defining even the ragas in terms of the 22 srutis. As regards the statement that there are only 12 real subdivisions of the octave, it has to be said that these alone do not determine the nature of the ragas. The 16 nominal sub-divisions are more than nominal because they have each a distinct individuality and in usage each of them differs from the other.

The Suddha scale, Kanakangi, of the Karnatic system is the same as that of the ancients. It is to be said to the credit of this system, that while the Hindustani system adopted Bilaval as the Suddhamela sometime in the modern age, in South India the Suddha scale of Bharata and his

शुद्धेः सप्तस्वरैयुंक्तो मुखारीमेल उच्यते ।

चतुश्चतुश्चेत्व षड्जमध्यमपञ्चमाः ॥

दे दे निषादगान्धारौ त्रिक्षीरिषमधैवतौ ।

इत्यस्य श्रुतयः पूर्वेद्वीविद्यतिरुदाहृताः ॥

पृवोक्तमेलप्रस्तारे भेदोऽयं प्रथमो मतः ।

[—]Caturdaņdīprakāšikā.

Govinda defining Kanakāmbarī (which according to him is called Kanaān ?), the Suddhamela, says in his Sangīta Sāstra Sanksepa :--

शुद्धस्वरसप्तवती पूर्णारोहावरोहिका । वायुवीजाक्षरा शुद्धभुखारोति वदन्ति ते ॥

successors has remained alive to the present day. The merit of the present system is that it is a happy blending of the śuddha scale of the Sanskrit theorists and the mela structure as designed by the ancient Tamils. This Śuddha scale seems to me to be more ancient than even the age of Bharata, because it is possible to link its notes with those of the Sāman Chant.

It is not possible to agree with Mr. Fox-Strangways when he quotes Day as saying that for South India quarter tones (śrutis) are 'confined to grace'. Basing himself on the popular meaning of 'śruti as keynote, he goes on to say that in the South there is a transference of meaning from 'a nice distinction of pitch' to 'that which determines pitch'. This statement is opposed to practice according to real artists in the South and also textual authority; by 'śruti' both these clearly mean 'distinction of pitch'.

How far the śrutis are real in the practice of South Indian Music? Do the 22 srutis represent the substance of Karnatic music faithfully? The answer is that without the śrutis and the distinction made by them between the musical intervals in vogue, Karnatic music will not be what it is. Are these srutis equal? Mr. Fox-Strangways observes very truly that the śruti enters into music as one of three definite intervals. Just as there are 3 diatonic intervals, so there are 3 enharmonic intervals, vis., 81 80 (22 cents), 25 24 (70 cents), 256 243 (90 cents). He adds that these intervals as such remain theoretical and that they are actually sung only as increments of other larger intervals. He is right when he criticises the view that the 22 srutis are 22 stopping places as being incorrect, because, as he says, artistically this is wrong since no 2 or 3 of these are ever sung in succession. He rightly defines that the śruti is not the smallest audible sound, but the accurately audible sound-that which is heard in accurate relationship to some other.

Are the śrutis equal divisions of the octave? The above argument denies that it is so. And the numerous attempts that have been made to evaluate the ratios of the intervals represented by the śrutis all go to show that the śrutis are not equal. Rival theories have been advanced, vis., the division of the octave into 24, 48 and 96 equal The division into 24 srutis is mentioned in the Lakṣaṇa Gīta in Guṇḍakriyā by Veṅkaṭamakhin, and also in the Sangīta Sāra Sangraha (in the Tanjore library). In the Melādhikāralakṣaṇa, scales are formulated on the basis of 24 śrutis. Mr. Clements in his discussion of Bharata and Śārngadeva adds 3 more śrutis to the 22 because according to him these alone will represent truly their music. 18 Mr. C. S. Aiyar in his valuable pamphlet 'A note on Śrutis in Karnatic music' says that 3 more śrutis should be welcome as additions to the 22 śrutis (this resembles the view of Mr. Clements), and that the South Indian ear is even sensitive to as many as 30 śrutis in all. The latter statement is important because it indicates the truth of the practice and also because it questions the validity of the 22 srutis.

To me it seems that the system of the 22 śrutis is the starting point of the elaboration of melody and that we have progressed far beyond what is represented by that system. It is true that we employ intervals which have been utilised in that system, but it is also true that we have come to make use of intervals within the octave which are more minute than the 22 śrutis. The view that the 22

^{1.} Mr. Clements writes:—"It will be seen that the ancient system required 25 strutis, and not 22, three of them being confounded with their neighbours." He explains the three additional strutis as follows:—

Name of śruti:	Number of śruti.		Value of śruti in cents
Tīvrā	1	•	22—70
Vajrikā	10		520568
Sandīpinī	16		836—884

śrutis of the grāma music are no longer current is not acceptable because according to Mr. Bhandarkar the human faculty of appreciating musical intervals must have remained constant always. My view is that according to popular taste emphasis may be shifted from age to age in the use of intervals but that these intervals are fairly the same at all times, so far as regards main intervals like the major tone, minor tone, the fourth, etc. As regards subtle intervals like śrutis, Karnatic music has to employ a vast variety of them. As Mr. Fox-Strangways has pointed out they are not used separately, and three or even two of them are not used in succession. They are used as part of the major intervals which they decrease or increase according to the requirements of song. They feature in gamakas, in which the freedom of the use of these srutis is completely manifested. I am inclined to think that the flattening or sharpening of each note by śrutis is left to the choice of the singer who is only limited by the farthest boundary line allowed for each svara. Also we find in Karnatic music that each note adopts śrutis in Gamakas in a seemingly wayward fashion, but yet maintains its personality. This phenomenon is really wonderful. Mr. Clements in his 'Rāgas of Tanjore' says truly; 'Modern India has inherited a wonderful system employing a vast number of scales capable of representing all shades of feeling. Equal temperament tends to destroy utterly this elaborate structure. The only means of combating this insidious enemy is to construct and popularise an accurate theory of intonation; I know of no other way to preserve the art of Indian music'. Every one will agree with Mr. Clements in his view, above quoted, that the śrutis current in Karnatic music can be understood only by reference to the intonation that reveals its individuality. In the chapter 'The Analysis of Ragas' the results of my experiments on the sonometer regarding. the intervals occurring in our music are given. All the figures obtained are strictly according to the theory and

practice of intonation as embodied in the compositions in each raga analysed.

One point remains to be noticed. It is the plurality of śrutis governing the notes in the Rāgas. Hitherto single figures have been given by various writers as the values of the śrutis in each rāga. But it may be clearly seen that in each rāga a note assumes different shapes (within the limits set by its individuality) and I have included the study of these variations in the śrutis affecting the same note in the same rāga. It is more or less a general tendency for the śruti of a particular note to appear sharp when that note is relinquished for a higher note and to appear flat when a descent is made from that note. Also this variation depends upon the need of the singer within the limits mentioned above. And gamakas afford a wide choice of śrutis in the treatment of a note.

Taking the śuddha scale Kanakāngī we find that Suddha Ri takes at least 2 values, vis: 10|9 and 256|243 and Suddha Dha assumes similarly the values, 5|3' and 128|81. In the analysis of rāgas it will be found that, owing to the requirements of melody, more than one interval is employed in each svarasthāna, which would be incorrect if represented by a single śruti-value.

Another very important factor regarding the usage of notes, which has not been taken notice of by theorists, is the illusory effect of śrutis in usage. This is remarkable in view of the acceptance of single values for svaras. On the Vīṇā, which reproduces the human voice, and on all other instruments, in the varek prayogas MPM, NSN, DND, SRS, etc., the second note is never fully produced. It is simply approached approximately, and the hearing of the second note is only illusory. This is clearly demonstrable on the Vīṇā and the sonometer. (The ratios for some of these notes are given in the analysis of rāgas). As regards Sa, Ma and Pa, in these cases these are only approximately produced but the effect is as if those notes

were all produced. In these cases these really may amount to Cyuta Sa, Ma and Pa, respectively. These are not used as independent forms but are used as reduced notes. These may be called illusory notes and properly belong to the subject of gamakas but their importance as regards the problem of the śrutis demand their treatment here. These illusory notes form a familiar and not ignorable feature of our music.

Some intervals occurring within the octave in the light of the intonation of the notes of the various ragas in practice are given below as they have been obtained by my experiments.

			8.0
2 <u>5</u>	$\frac{1}{1}\frac{4}{2}\frac{4}{5}$	भूभ	$\mathcal{N}_{I_{\mathcal{A}}}$
의 선명 기계 6년 기계 기계 1년 기계	24.3 200 5 4 81 04	$\frac{30}{25}$	248 128
3 <u>\$</u>	8	25	48
10		1 200	2 5
2 7 2 8	8 <u>1</u> 04	3 2 5 F1	8 O 2 7
2167 2000	320 349	200	248 148
255 226	2197 1800	24 15 .	
<u> 5 2 5</u> 5 2 6	20.	128 76	
5 5 10 23 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25	4 8 2 7	1 2 8 7 6 5 5	
. 9	4 O	2.7 1.6	
$\frac{729}{640}$	4 5	1.6	
75	6 <u>4</u> 45	27 16 19 9	
\$2 27		_	
7 2 9 8 4 0 7 5 8 4 2 2 9 7 6			

Among the intervals given above, some occur independently in the rāgas and others either as an augment or decrease of other intervals or in gamakas.

The illusory notes may be illustrated with reference to the diminution of normal intervals for example in the following vareks in Sankarābharana. S=256 vibrations:—

The middle notes in the above groups do not assume their normal values, but leave the impression of sounding true to their names on the ear.

It may be noted that the identification of Catuśśruti Dha, with Suddha Ni and of Catuśśruti Ri, with Suddha Ga. as given in 'The Music of Hindustan' by Mr. Fox-Strangways and by Mr. A. M. Chinnaswamy Mudaliar in his 'Oriental Music', is not correct because Suddha Ga is produced on the ninth snuti and suddha Ni on the twenty-second; so they are clearly sharper than the values given by both writers by one śruti. Though the Satsruti Ri, is identified with sadharana Ga, (and not with antara Ga as is done by Mr. Fox-Strangways. vide 'The Music of Hindustan', p. 1841), and Satsruti Dha with Kaisiki Ni, the two notes function as Ri and Dha sharpened, and this is enough to distinguish them from pownloaded from www.dbra the categories of Gandhara and Nisada.

^{1.} The mention of antaragandhara is probably due to an error in printing.

CHAPTER III.

The Classification of Rāgas.

With the development of music and the growth of variety in the melodies conceived and adopted in practice. the necessity arose for a system which would bring them together in a well-understood scheme of classification. The principles of such classification have been numerous. e.g., the number of notes or their quality, etc., as is evident from the history of the development of scales. It is extremely interesting to find the Puspasūtra classifying Samans according to the number of notes used in them. According to it, most of the Samans are sung to 5 notes, some to 6 notes, and 2 (called Kauthumas) to 7 notes. This is remarkably like our audava, sādava, and sampūrņa classification of ragas. The next broad division of melodies is according to Sadja and Madhyamagramas, which divide the jatis into 2 groups. The Gandhara grāma is spoken of as obsolete. The jātis are also divided into 2 groups called suddha and vikrta. The former have the note after which they are named for their nyasa, apanyāsa, amśa and graha. Their nyāsa note is never in the tara. The vikrtaiatis differ from them in these respects. The principle of classifying the species under their appropriate genera emerges when classification begins, and we see this principle working from the earliest stages of the development of the art under different names. This will show the absurdity of the views expressed by some authors that classification according to the 'genus-species' system was adopted sometime during the middle ages.

With Matanga classification expands. According to him the grama is useful for the arrangement or classifi-

cation of svaras, śrutis, mūrchanās, tānas, jātis and rāgas. He says that the Gandharagrama given by Narada is obsolete. He quotes Bharata and says that 4 jatis employed 7 notes, four jatis 6, and others 5, (and gives their names). He says that the jatis are so-called because the ragas are born of them. He cites examples of melody-types with four notes. He gives 7 gitis, vis., Suddha, Bhinna, Gaudi, Rāgagīti, Sādhāraṇi, Bhāṣā and Vibhāṣā; also Durgaśakti's 5 gītis, Bharata's 4 gītis and Sārdūla's Bhāṣāgīti. Melodies are distinguished according to these. He gives the number of ragas as 5 under Cokṣās, 5 under Bhinnakas, 3 under Gauḍas, 8 under Rāga, 7 under Sādhārana, 16 Bhāṣās, and 12 Vibhāṣās. Bhāṣās are according to him of 4 kinds, viz: Mūla, Sankīrņa, Deśaja and Chāyā Āśraya. These are established in grāma rāgas. Matanga says that the Grāmarāgas are derived from the 2 grāmas, and from the Grāmarāgas are derived Bhāsās. From these Vibhāsās originate, and from them, Antarabhāṣās. A list of them with their rāga of origin and definitions is given. The definitions of Deśīrāgas are interrupted.

Nānyadeva, who quotes Matanga, Kāśyapa, etc., in his Bharata Vārtika, gives important information regarding classification. He deals with Jātis elaborately in accordance with the standard definitions. What makes his contribution important is that he states in an introductory śloka that he will give the rāgas originating in all the 3 grāmas. Under the Gāndhāragrāma he describes a fairly big number of rāgas. He gives the equivalent rāgas of Kāpālapadas and Kambalas.

Nārada in his Sangīta Makaranda describes the Gāndhāragrāma in addition to the 2 other grāmas. He describes the different deities of the grāmas. The names of jātis are given. He enumerates the names of Rāgas. like Devagāndhārī, Dhanyāsi, Gurjari, Bhūpāla, etc. He divides rāgas into Sampūrņa, Ṣāḍava and Auḍava; and

also into masculine, feminine, and neuter groups. Nārada mentions another division of ragas into 6 male ragas and their wives.

The author of the Aumāpatam gives grāmas as 18 describing them as the janaka of jätis. His whole system is very peculiar and elaborately worked out. His theories stand out individually, and most of them do not seem to be taken notice of by later authors. He mentions jātis with curious names, viz., mārjāra, vānara, etc. He gives 36 Sudda rāgas; among them are mentioned Nāgadhvani, Tarangiņī, Ābhīri, etc. The whole book is in the form of a discourse by Siva. Twenty-one ragas are given as propounded by Rsis. Then 5 ragas are given as emanating from Siva's 5 months. Some Sālaga rāgas are given. Janyas are given as emanating from this or that raga. Those that partake the Chāyā of Śuddha rāgas are chāyālaga rāgas Rāgāngas are so because they assume the colour of ragas. "The Bhaṣanga ragas slowly emerge when the raga is thought of." When the raga emerges as the raga goes and returns it is a krivānga. When a rāga dwells near another, it is upānga.1 Examples of each class are given. Suddha ragas are of the form of Siva, Salagas of the form of Sakti; when they merge together it is Sankīrna.

The system of the Ratnākara is the subject of elaborate classification. Here only the principles of the division are noticed. The main division is that into Marga and Deśi, the former distinguished from the latter by the inexorable nature of the rules that bind them. Kallinatha

^{1.} रागच्छायानुकारित्वादागाङ्गानि विदुर्बुधाः । रागे मनोगते चापि शनैर्य उपलभ्यते ॥ स तु भाषाङ्ग इत्यक्तः क्रियाङ्गस्त्वथ कथ्यते । रागे जातेऽपि शनकैर्यतागतिविधानतः॥ कियाङ्गस्योपलब्धिः स्याद्रपाङ्गस्त्वथ वक्ष्यते । उपसामीप्यती वृत्ते रागानामप्युपाङ्गता ॥

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* points out that the Ragas are divided into 10 kinds. The grāma rāgas are divided into 5 groups according to the 5 Gitis, Suddha, Bhinna, Gauda, Vesara and Sadhārani. The total number of Grāma rāgas is given as 30. Sārngadeva deals with the grāma rāgas which yield Deśī rāgas, etc. Bhāsas, Vibhāṣās, and Antarabhāṣas, are derived from the grāma rāgas. Upāngas are given and defined as the resemblance to some extent between 2 ragas. Kriyangas are mentioned. The Janyajanaka principle is clearly established. Kallinatha in commenting on the ragas of his time remarks about the difference between the 'Melana' of the Janya and Janaka rāgas that had taken place. Sādava and Audava rāgas are mentioned by him. Bhāsāngas, Rāgāngas and Upangas are explained, and this group, according to Śārngadeva, comes under Deśī rāgas.

1. The 10 groups include respectively Grāmarāgas, Uparāgas, Rāgas Bhāṣās, Vibhāṣās, Antarabhāṣās, Rāgāngas, Bhāṣāngas, Kriyāngas and

Upāngas. Vide Sangīta Ratnākara for their detailed treatment.

Kallinātha explaining Umāpati's threefold division of rāgas states that suddha rāgas are charming without transgressing the rules laid down in the sāstra, that chāyālaga rāgas are sweet because they assume the chāyā (likeness or colour) of other rāgas, and that Sankīrņa rāgas are pleasing because they are the result of the mixture of suddha and chāyālaga rāgas. In this connection he quotes Umāpati:—

मवैन पञ्चभिनैननैः स्टाः पूर्नं कुत्इलात् ।
अतः संभूय शुद्धारते पट्तिशत्संख्ययोदिताः ॥
यतेषां छायया जाताश्छायालगसमाह्नयाः ।
असंख्याकारतु ते तेषु शतमेकोत्तरं क्रमात् ॥
शुद्धं तु शिनरूपेण शक्तिरूपेण सालगम् ।
दयोगिस्रं तु संकीर्णमतस्ते त्रिविधा मताः ॥

2. Kallinātha quotes Matanga's definition of Ragangas etc. thus:— रागाङ्गादिश्वन्दानी निरुक्तिमंतङ्गोक्ता द्रष्टव्या । यथा—

"आमोक्तानां तु रागाणां छायामात्रं भवेदिति।
गीतकैः कथिताः सर्वे रागाङ्गास्तेन हेतुना ॥
भाषाइछायाश्रिता येन जायन्ते सहुशाः किल ।
भाषाङ्गास्तेन कथ्यन्ते गायकैस्तैतिकादिभिः ॥
शोकोत्साहकरुणादिप्रवला या क्रिया ततः ।
जायन्ते च ततो नाम क्रियाझास्तेन कारणात् ॥" इति ॥
With this is to be compared the definition of Umāpati.

The ancient Tamil system of classification was also very elaborate and scientific. In the Ayappālai 4 kinds of Yāļs with 4 jātis for each, viz., Ahanilai, Puranilai, Aruhiyal and Peruhiyal, are given. These give 16 jātis on the whole. In the Ayappālai 7 main scales were obtained by forming a scale on each of the several notes of the Suddha scale. The Tamil works mention 12,000 rāgas. According to the Tamils the Pan was a scale of 7 notes, the Panniyam one of 6 notes, the Tiram of 5 notes, and the Tirattiram of 4 notes.

Sārngadhara in his Paddhati mentions that Bhāsās are derived from grāmarāgas, Vibhāṣas from Bhāṣās, and Antarabhāṣās from Vibhāṣās. He says that the origin of the raga is from the 22 Srutis. In another connection he says that śrutis are only 14. He gives Bhairava, Pañcama, Nāṭa, Mallāra, Gauḍa, and Mālava as the six well-known rāgas. Then he gives a list of Āśrita or dependent rāgas, e.g., the dependents of Bhairavi are Vangapāla, Gunakari, etc., numbering 5. Haripāla in his Sangīta Sudhākara mentions the 18 jātis and gives 36 Suddha rāgas as derived from the jātis. He gives six Uparāgas and 20 ragas derived from the Magrama. He also gives a list of Upānga, Krivānga and Rāgānga Rāgas.

Laksmī Nārāvana in his Sangīta Sūryodaya treats exhaustively about the jatis but his omission of the Deśi Rāgas current in his time is disappointing. This omission may be due to a gap in the current recension of his work.

Rāmāmātya introduces the term 'Mela' but Kallinātha has already used the name Melana in the sense in which it has been used in musical parlance. Govinda Dīksita makes a very important reference in this connection. He says that the melas in his work are defined in accordance with the 15 'Melas' given in the Sangītasāra of Śrī Vidyāranya.' Hence there is reason to believe that the melas are as old

^{1.} Vide my article on 'The contribution of Vijayanagar to Karnatic music' in the Dr. S. Krishnaswami Aiyangar Commemoration Volume.

as the era of Vidyāranya, (the first half of the 14th century). So Rāmāmātya's name 'Meļa' is not quite new. He gives 20 janaka melas which practically amount to 15, because of the identical nature of some of the notes occurring in the melas. The mela system of classification embodies the janya-janaka principle which as we saw was used from very ancient times. The principle remained to be applied in all its completeness by Venkatamakhin. The extent of the application depended upon the number and nature of the notes accepted by each theorist. Barring Venkatamakhin, each writer chose to mention only the scales obtaining in the period in which he lived. In fact before Venkatamakhin, excepting Somanatha, few writers attempted to create new Janaka scales which would complete the permutation of all the notes which were defined as belonging to the gamut. The predecessors of Venkatamakhin were chiefly concerned with the interpretation and explanation of contemporary theory and practice of music. As regards the ragas derived from the Melas, their classification under Bhāsā, Vibhāsā, etc., and Rāgānga etc. (so elaborately used and illustrated in the Ratnakara) is not to be found in the Svaramelakalānidhi. Rāmāmātya introduces a novel and rather indefinite mode of classification into the superior, the middling, and the inferior classes. The first is said by him to be free from admixture, and suitable for singing and composing thayas. The second class was used in the singing of fragmentary. portions of songs. The third consisted of light and popular airs.

Pundarīka Vitthala, like Rāmāmātya, says that all the rāgas are derived from the Ṣadjagrāma. He gives in his Sadrāga Candrodaya, a list of sixteen janaka meļās and their janya rāgas. In the same work he expresses the view that Siva divided the rāgas into three groups, vis:—

⁽¹⁾ Suddha which are independent ragas.

- (2) Sālanga in which the colour of another rāga is * found.
- (3) Sańkīrna which partakes the nature of the above two classes. He says that the Deśī rāgas have been conceived by Hanumān as not bound by rigid rules.¹

In his Rāgameļa, he deals with the classification of Hindustani rāgas. He mentions six principal rāgas and assigns five Rāginīs as wives and five putras for each of the six rāgas. In his Rāgamañjarī he includes the definition of 25 Persian airs.

Somanātha's work is unique for the system of meļakartās, which anticipated Venkaṭamakhin's system. The utility of Somanātha's scheme might have been very little since scales built upon microtones are practically useless. But it did pave the way for the present Meļakartā scheme. Somanātha enumerates only 23 meļas as being well-known in his time.

Govinda Dīkṣita deals exhaustively with the system of Sārngadeva. He gives only 15 scales as melas. It was left for his son Venkatamakhin to construct the scheme of the 72 melakartās with which begins the modern epoch of Karnātic music. It is needless to say that this system affords the most perfect method of classifying janya and janaka rāgas. Tulaja and Govinda adopt the same scheme. Recently proposals have been made to add to the list of Melakartās by the inclusion of the Vikṛta pañcama but this is not tenable since the Vikṛta pañcama has long since become obsolete and also because it would impair the consonance of the keynote and its fifth which is a vital factor in the present system of Indian music.

सर्वत्र देशीगतरागवृन्दे श्रीमद्भन्मान्नियमं न वत्रे ।
 रागाः शिवेन त्रिविधाः प्रयुक्ताः शुद्धाः सालङ्गमतास्तयैव ॥
 संकीर्णकाश्चेति तदैव शुद्धो योऽनन्ययुक्तोऽप्यतिरक्षकः स्यात् ।
 सालगकश्चान्यवराक्तियुक्तः संकीर्णकरत्भयरिक्तिद्देतः ॥ —सद्रागचन्द्रोदय

Since Venkatamakhin's time, other systems of classification have also been formulated. Ahobala uses the term Mela simply to mean a rāga. He says that Melas are made of Suddha and Vikrta Svaras and groups them into pūrņa, ṣādava and audava varieties. He arrives at a total of 11,340 melas which, he says, were discovered by him. However, he chooses to define only the well-known rāgas amongst them. In the definition of the rāgas he describes the value of the svaras. He derives some rāgas from parental scales.

Among northern authors, Locana mentions 12 Rāga Sainsthitis (another name for Janaka Melas). He also speaks of Rāgiṇīs. According to Śrīnivāsa, a mela is a group of notes revealing the rāga. The mela is of three kinds, vis., Sampūrṇa, Ṣāḍava, and Audava.

Hṛdaya Nārāyana classifies scales in the same manner as Locana. In the Rāganirūpana attributed to Nārada, ten Puruṣarāgas with five rāginīs for their wives, and with four rāgas for their sons each of whom has four wives are described.

In the Sangīta Nārāyana it is said that 16 thousand rāgas were sung by the Gopīs in the presence of Lord Kṛṣṇa and of them 180 are popular in the world. The author notes the division of rāgas into groups of males and females. He also divides them into Sampūrṇa, Sāḍava, and Auḍava. He does not mention the Melakartā scheme. The author of the Sangīta Saraṇi notices male and female rāgas. In the Sangīta Kaumudī the same classification is found, and also the classification into Ṣāḍava, etc.

In the Gītaprakāśa (Oriya manuscript) the jātis as well as Audava, Ṣādava and Sampūrna rāgas are given.¹

संपूर्णरागाः स्वरसप्तकः स्युः षड्भिः स्वरैरत्रषाडवास्याः (१) । तथौडवः पद्मिकचितो (१) यो त्रिषाश्च रागास्तदेशाच छक्ष्मा (१) ॥

In the Sangīta Kāmada the forms of various rāgas are described and eight puruṣarāgas, their strī (female) rāgas and 6 napumsakarāgas, and rāgas falling into the three groups Ṣāḍava, Auḍava and Sampūrṇa are given.

In the Sangīta Kāmada is given a very peculiar classification of rāgas. It is said that according to Nārada, Kanthagāna originates in the throat, Tālugāna in the palate and Oṣṭhagana in the lips. Śrīrāga is called Kanthauṣṭa and Madhyamādi is Kanṭhatālu. Dantyagāna also is mentioned.¹

'नत्वा तु शङ्कराचार्यं सर्वलोकगुरोग्र्रेरम् । रागमालामिथं सूत्रं तन्यते शां (१ श्रं) करात्मना ॥'.

After 'इति संगीतकामदे गानलक्षणम्' we find the expression. 'एवं ददित शांकरः ।' Hence the author's name can be taken to be शां (१शं)करः. Reference is made to संगीतदामोदर and कलाङ्कुर

About the gender of ragas the following observations are made:-- अथ रागलिङ्गभेद: ।

भैरवो भूपतिश्चैव श्रीरागः पटमञ्जरः । वासन्तिकश्च भूपालः सारङ्गो माळवस्तथा ॥ एते संगीतशास्त्रज्ञैः पुरुषाष्ट्रौ प्रकीर्तिताः । श्रीरागो देवगान्धारी भैरवी गुजैरी तथा

प्रता रागा स्त्रिय: प्रोक्ता गानशास्त्रविशारदै: ।

रागास्युष्षण्यपुंसकम् ।

According to the number of Svaras, ragas are divided into the 3 groups, sampurna etc.:—

षाडवौडवसंपूर्णा रागाः स्युख्तिविधा मताः । षड्भिः स्वरैः समुत्पन्ना पाडवः परिक्रीतितः ॥ पद्यभिः स्युरौडवः सप्तभिः स्वरैः संपूर्णा भवन्ति ।

The following classification is noteworthy:—
कण्ठाचं कण्ठगानं तु नाटस्य नारदोदितम् ।
तालक्यादि तालुगानं भूपते रिपभा (१घ) स्मना ॥
अभेष्ट्यादेर्भालनादेश्च दोष्ट्य(१) गानं प्रकीर्तितम् ।
श्रीरागस्य कण्ठीष्ठं स्यात् कण्ठोष्ठात (१) तथैव च ॥

^{1.} In the Sangīta Kāmada the section called Rāga Sūtra begins with the verse

It is surprising that the writers of Orissa do not reveal any trace of the influence of Venkatamakhin's melakartā system in their method of classification.

In a work called Rāgalaksana which is in the form of a dialogue between Matanga and Kohala (but which seems to be of recent authorship) Sadava, Audava, Sampūrna rāgas are given, as also their division into Rāgānga, Bhāṣānga, and Kriyānga and Suddha. Sālaga Sankirna.

In the Sivatattva Ratnākara by King Basava eight purusa rāgas, and their 24 wives are given and Matanga is cited as having enumerated them. A different list of 6 male rāgas, each having 5 rāginīs for wives are given and defined. In their definition the term raganga, etc., is used and the murchanas of the grama system which occur in them are mentioned by name. It is strange that this writer also is ignorant of Venkatamakhin's system.

Coming to the period after Venkatamakhin, we find that his Karta scheme is made the starting point of fresh methods of classification. These have been constructively used to derive innumerable scales. Attention has been diverted from trying to fit well-known ragas into the scheme to the derivation of fresh ragas according to the following principles of combination. The Audava and Sampūrna are intermixed in pairs in as many forms as possible (i.e., eight), which gives 483 varieties for every melakartā, making up a total of 34,776 janya ragas. Of course, from these ragas those which overlap themselves have to be deducted. Again Vakraragas can

तद (१) मध्यमादिरां (१) कण्ठतालुश्रमेदत: । कण्ठताल्वादिमेदस्य देशस्य मूधिस्तथा (१) ॥ दन्त्यादेगीनं दन्त्य स्यात् शागादेः (?) प्रभाषितम् । निवदिर (१) तथा गानं कण्ठ्योष्ठतामुदितः (१) ॥

⁽After a description of raginis, the following colophon is found:-इति सङ्गीतदामोदरे दामोदराचार्यः । समाप्तोऽयं यन्थः ।)

be combined in innumerable forms. This is practically a limitless source of deriving fresh scales. Another variety is the construction of ragas which are confined to the Madhyasthavi up to the Nisada and extend into the mandra octave. Rāgas with four notes in either ascent or descent have also been used. In the conference of the Music Academy held in 1934, a raga consisting of only three notes within the octave, vis., Sa, Antara Ga and Pa was demonstrated.1 This sort of combination opens further possibilities in the creation of fresh ragas of this type: but it remains to be seen whether these can rank as ragas. The introduction of accidentals in ragas and the importa-Downloaded from www.dbrat tion of foreign melodies can also contribute to the number

^{1.} Vide Appendix ##.\\V

CHAPTER IV.

The Structure and the Alapa of Ragas.

The music of India owes its individuality and character to the mode of singing called Alapa. By alapa our music has grown, developed and reached its present form. The alapa is a very ancient form of rendering music and for a proper understanding of the idea it is necessary to discuss the various laksanas of the raga which form its important features and which define its personality. The laksanas of the raga and the rules of ālāpa have been variously defined and they have all grown with the art and have been modified in several ways in the process of development. And without taking into account these factors the concept of the raga cannot be comprehended. The Raga is the bedrock of Indian music since every branch of music, gīta, vādya and nṛtya, depends on it. In the course of this chapter the laksana as given by every important author as well as the rules and characteristics given by him of alapa will be noticed.

Bharata gives ten lakṣaṇas for jātis¹ (and these are to be taken as applicable to the ālāpa of rāgas which have directly sprung from jātis). According to him grahas have the same importance for jātis as aṁśas. Graha is the note with which the jāti commences. Aṁśa is given great prominence by him since the rāga dwells in it. From it the movement of notes in the mandra and tāra registers proceeds. It determines the anuvādi and saṃvādi, and dwells in the apanyāsa, vinyāsa, nyāsa and saṇyāsa.

दशनिषजातिलक्षणम्—
 श्रहांशी तारमन्द्री च न्यासापन्यास एव च ।
 अस्पत्वं च बहुत्वं च षाडबीडिविते तथा ।।

Nyāsa is used in the closing of the anga (musical piece) and apanyasa is the close in the middle of the anga. Bharata gives the number of these notes used in the jatis. Taragati or movement in the tara proceeds from the amsa, and there are 3 kinds of mandragati with reference to amsa, and nyasa and apanyasa. There are two kinds of alpatva (or paucity of certain notes) according to langhana or leap and anabhyasa or non-repetition. By these methods sādava and audava are achieved; and by leaping over amsa notes when they are sung in antaramarga and by pronouncing a note only once alpatva is achieved. Bahutva indicates the opposite of alpatva and is of 2 kinds, and includes in sancara other balin (strong) notes. Antaramārga establishes the individuality of jätis and is of 2 kinds, viz., by sancāra (or elaboration) with notes which are strong on account of the amsa and by the alpatva (or minimum use) of weak notes. Sādavita is the use of 6 notes and audavita of 5 notes.

The technique of singing the ragas as embodied in jātis is very advanced. The jātis are to be sung according to the citra, vārtika and dakṣina mārgas, employing the four gītis like Māgadhī, etc. The three octaves are employed; the four varnas and an elaborate system of alankāras and gītis add to the variety. Instrumental music is also highly advanced. Gandharva according to Bharata is the music of various instruments, produced on wires, and comprises svara, words and tala. This is dear to the Gods and to Gandharvas. Its source is the human body, the Vīnā and the flute. It is of 3 kinds according to svara, pada and tāla. Bharata calculates the number of tanas (which at his time are understood as names for grouping of svaras by permutation) which are derived from murchanas. It is interesting to note that the tānakriyā or the production of the tāna on the string is of two kinds, viz., (1) by the pulling of the lower note and the smoothening of the higher note. This is called

praveśa, (2) 'by not touching'. This is called nigraha.' It is important to note that 'tāna' as applied to this kriyā shifts the reference from the grouping of the notes in prastāra to the quality and peculiarity of the tone produced.

Matanga is one of the most intelligent and lucid writers after Bharata, and he discusses the problem of rāgalakṣaṇa and ālāpa brilliantly. He quotes Bharata's definition of graha. He makes clear Bharata's definition of amsa which, he says, brings out the individuality of the raga; from it the music starts; it determines tara and mandra. It is profusely used; it is the object aimed at in the rāga.2 The apanyāsa is the medial pause and occurs in the middle of the vidārī. The vidārī is of two kinds, gītavidāri and padavidāri. By vidāri is meant the division of a pada; it is a division of a musical piece. In the middle of the first vidārī the nyāsa or final is applied and called sanyāsa. This sanyāsa is not a vivādi of the amśa. Vinyāsa is the same as sanyāsa, but is applied at the end of the pada. By these definitions he proves the truth of Bharata's allocation of ten lakṣaṇas for the amśa. After defining sadava and audava he observes that it is not 'marga' beyond four notes. He says that this kind of grouping is used among Sabaras, Pulindas, Kāmbhojas, Vangas, Kirātas, Bāhlīkas, Andhras, Dravidas, and among dwellers of forests. Four notes also occur in Avakṛṣṭa Dhruvas.3 He mentions

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द्विश तानिक्रया तन्त्र्या प्रवेशान्त्रियहात्त्रथा ।
 तत्र प्रवेशो नामाधरस्वरित्रकर्षादुत्तरमार्दवाद्वा । नियहश्चासरपर्शः ।

[—]Nātya Šāstra.

यस्मिन्नशे कियमाणे रागाभिन्यक्तिभैवति सोंऽशः।...यश्च बहुप्रयोगतरः सोऽप्यंशः। यो रागस्य विषयत्वेनावस्थितः स्वरः सोऽप्यंशः। —Brhaddeśi.

Matanga also says that the amsa is dominant because it generates and pervades the raga. (रागजनकत्वात् न्यापकत्वाचांशस्यैव प्राधान्यम् ।)

उ. चतुःस्वरात् प्रमृति न मार्गः शवरपुलिन्दकाम्मोजवङ्गिकरातदाक्कीकान्त्र-द्रविडवनादिषु प्रयुज्यते । चतुःस्वरप्रयोगोऽपि अवकृष्टभुवास्वेव वेदितव्यम् . . ।

बृह्देशी

alpatva and bahutva and antaramärga (which according to him is of two kinds).

Matanga says that the method of raga, alapa. etc.. had not been defined by Bharata and others and that he would define them according to theory and practice. This statement is noteworthy. The raga delights the mind of the hearers by means of the excellence of svaras and varnas and the different qualities of tone. The rāga is adorned by varnas and svaras. The word rāga is derived from the root indicating the act of pleasing. Matanga adds that the word raga has an etymological as well as a special or conventional meaning like the word pankaja." He mentions seven gītis which are modes or styles of song, viz., Śuddha, Bhinna, Gaudi, Rāgagīti, Sādhāranī, Bhāsāgīti and Vibhāsā. He quotes Durgaśakti's gītis as Śuddha, Bhinna, Vesara, Gauda and Sādhārita. According to the school of Bharata the gītis are Māgadhī, Ardhamāgadha, Sambhāvita, and Prthula. The 'great soul', Yāstika is quoted as mentioning three gītis, Bhāsā, Vibhāsā and Antarabhāsā; Matanga is said to propound Bhāsagīti and Vibhāsā. The Śārdūla school is said to approve of one giti only, viz., Bhāṣā.

Matanga then proceeds to give Rāgalakṣaṇas. According to him Coksāgīti has sañcāra in mandra and tara octaves and consists of straight, sporting and even svaras and śrutis. In the Răgagīti sportive and

^{1:} रागमार्गस्य यद्वपं यन्नोक्तं भरतादिभिः। निरूप्यते तदरमाभिर्लक्ष्यलक्षणसंयुतम् ॥ स्वरवर्णविशेषेण ध्वानभेदेन वा पुनः । तत्रादौ रज्यते येन यः कश्चित् स रागः सम्मतः सताम् ॥ योऽसौ ध्वनिविशेषस्तु स्वरवर्णविम्षितः । रक्षको जनचित्तानां स च राग उदीरित: ॥ रञ्जनाष्ट्रायते रागो व्युत्पत्तिः समुदाहृता । अश्वकणादिवत् रूढो यौगिको वाचि वाचकः॥ योगरूढोऽथ वा रागः ज्ञेयः पङ्गजशब्दवत् ।

variegated gamakas which are also pleasing, even and issuing from the chest, and pleasing combinations of svaras are used. In the Rāga (gīti) the rāga is made bright by the use of four varnas. In the Sādhāraṇagīti prayogas which are subtle and soft, and svaras well mixed with kākus are used. The Bhāṣāgīti is made of prayogas issuing from the body, smooth and beautiful, coloured by kākus, and kampitas which are delicate, illumined with mālavīkākus, sportive and beautiful and consisting of well-controlled phrases. Vibhāṣāgīti should be sung in such a way as to charm the listeners; in it should be used gamakas which are sportive, manifold, as well as lustrous, and kampitas, issuing from the chest, even, belonging to tāra and atitāra, soft, lighted with the madhyama in the madhya octave, pleasing to the ear, sportive and according to the fancy of the singer.

After the above definition of gitis he proceeds to enumerate the number of ragas as follows:-- 5 Cokṣās, 5 Binnakas, 3 Gaudas, 8 Rāgas, 7 Sādhāraņas, 16 Bhāṣās, and 12 Vibhāsās. Under each class he mentions rāgas with their names. In the light of existing literature he is the first author after Bharata to mention ragas, and discuss their laksanas. We come across names which are current in present day music like gamakas and ragas for the first time in Brhaddeśi. He then defines the laksana of Suddha, Bhinna, etc., which are categories and are equal to the janaka groups of later times. According to him in the Suddha group the melodies are independent of foreign jātis and remain in their own jātis. The Suddhas seem to be the same as the Coksas. The Bhinnas are differentiated in four ways, viz., by śrutis, jatis, śuddhabhinna and svaras. The Gaudas are distinguished by ohadi and quick kampitas without resting in the 3 sthayis. Then Matanga raises the question how the Vesaras can be called rāgas and justifies their appellation by quoting Kāśyapa according to whom the application of the 4 varnas makes a rāga. And Durgasakti is quoted as stating that Vesaras

are ragas because in them the notes move quickly. The Sādhāranas partake the nature of the gītis of the foregoing rāgas and Kāśyapa is quoted in support.

Matanga asks what the difference is between gita and raga and answers by saying that the music characterised by the 10 laksanas is to be called raga.1 (Here we find the 10 laksanas being attributed to the raga in unmistakable terms for the first time). Gīta has 4 angas or 5 angas, including Dhruva. This is known through received text or authority. He quotes Kāśvapa as stating that Grāmarāgas are to be used on the stage with amśa, nyasa, sadava, audava, alpatva, bahutva, graha, apanyāsa, mandra and tāra appropriately. Here we have a remarkable formulation of the factors which go to make up raga alapa which prevails up to the present day. The ragas given by Matanga are all illustrated with sañcāris. The book Brhaddeśi, obviously incomplete, professedly deals with Desi music, and is the most important treatise after the Natyasastra. In what respects it advances farther than the latter work has been shown above.

Matanga gives a descriptive list of alankāras which adorn songs like gamakas. Mūrchanā etymologically indicates, he points out, swooning and increasing or elevating. Mürchanä is that by which the raga is made to emerge prominently or conspicuously. It indicates the ascent and descent of 7 notes.2 It is of two kinds, viz., of

ननु गीतरागयो: को भेद: ? उच्यते । दशलक्षणलक्षितं गीतं रागश्च्दा-मिथेयम् । गीतं चतुरङ्गोपेतम् । ध्रुवायोगात् पञ्चविधम् । कृतः एवं विक्रायते । आप्तवचनात् ।

and the state of 2. ननु मूर्कनाशब्दस्य ब्युत्पत्तिः कीवृशी ?

[्]राप्तिः— ''मूर्छा मोहसमुन्छाययोः ।'' अारोहणावरोहणक्रमेण स्वरसप्तकम् ॥ / मूर्छनाशब्दबाच्यं हि विशेषं तद्विचक्षणै: ॥— बृहद्देशी ।

7 notes and 12 notes. The murchana of 7 svaras is of four kinds, viz., Pūrņa, Ṣāḍava, Audavita and Sādhāraņa. Pūrņa indicates 7 notes, and Sādhāraņa shows the inclusion of kākalī and antara. Matanga points out that the murchana differs from the tana in moving in ascending order whereas the latter is in descending order. He gives the different tānas of the Ṣadja and Madhyama grāmas. Sādhārana tānas are given. He makes clear the two kinds of tānakriyā mentioned by Bharata in the following manner:-Praveśa produces Ri by pulling away at a note which is to be omitted and which is below Sa. The second variety of pravesa is by the smoothening of an upper note, e.g., to get Ni by the loosening of Sa. Nigraha reveals another by suppressing itself (the text here is not clear). Considering the octaves used for the prayoga of notes, he says that murchanas are applied to the middle octave, with the aim of realising 'mandra' and 'tara'. The distinction between mürchanas and tanas is made for the pleasure of the singer and the hearer. Murchanas are used in the jātirāgas and tānas are used to distinguish the jātis and rāgas of the 2 grāmas. The mūrchanās of 12 svaras are used to realise mandra and tara octaves. Nandikesvara is quoted as stating that the 12-svara murchanas are used to get jäti, bhāsās, tāra and mandra. Matanga says that though the murchanas of seven notes have been propounded by the Ācāryas, the mūrchanās of 12 svaras only are used to get the three sthanas.

By Varna is meant singing. It indicates the movement of singing, as is plain by the definitions. In the sthāyivarṇa, the notes are even and without being impaired or struck. In the Sañcāri the movement of the notes is the main characteristic. Arohi and Avarohivarṇas are literally understood. The alankāras go together with varṇas. Alankāras mean according to Matanga adorn-

^{1.} वर्णशब्देन गानमभिषीयते ।

ment. They serve the same purpose in song as jewels in adornment. They are 33 in number. All these go to show the high development of raga-singing at the time in which Matanga lived.

Nānyadeva in his Bharatavārtika quotes Matanga and Kāśyapa in giving the laksanas for rāgas. He describes the ālāpaka and rūpaka when he deals with the sañcāri of every rāga. In the sañcāris he gives the amśa, graha, nyāsa, gamakas, the rasas and other important details of the ragas. He mentions 7 gitis and discusses them in a very detailed manner. He notices kākus and varnas in the manner of Bharata. He gives a full account of the tānas. He accepts 10 laksanas for jātis which agree with those handed down on the authority of Bharata and others. In giving their laksana he quotes Devarāja, Dattila and Bharata. He also gives a well-developed technique of playing on the Vīnā. He describes the Kāpālikas and Kambalas and their equivalent ragas, and the vocalising syllables used in them will be noticed later in the discussion of the Sanigita Ratnākara in which they are narrated. In the Dattila is given an account of murchanās, tānas, and the 10 laksanas of jātis, varnas and alamkāras.

Nārada in his Sangīta Makaranda describes the 4 varnas and the alamkāras pertaining to them. mentions gamakas as consisting of 19 kinds. there are two kinds of ālāpas, viz., rāga ālaptī and rūpa (ālapti. Rāga ālapti consists of tannana, etc., while rūpaka is called gīta. (Evidently he meant it to be a prabandha). This division becomes the subject of elaborate classification by Sarngadeva.

^{1.} सप्रसिद्धास्त्रयोदशालंकाराः अलंकारशब्देन मण्डल(१न)मुच्यते। यदा कटकादिना पुरुषो माण्डतः शोभामावहेत् तदा पतरलकार: अलंकता गीतिर्गात्श्रोतणां सुखावहा भवति । -Ibid.

At the time when Pārśvadeva was writing the ālapti had become very extended in technique. Alapti according to him is of two kinds, vis., viṣama and prāñjala. This is again divisible into two kinds, vis., sākṣara and anakṣara, and is so of 4 kinds. These 4 varieties become 8, according as they are sung to tālas or not. By belonging to śuddha or chāyālaga, this again consists of 16 kinds. It is to be noted that all these varieties can be recognised in the practice of the present day. The music of the nāgasvara gives the instance of rāgas played according to tāla. The several kinds are explained below:—

The Śuddha viṣama ālapti consists of sthāyi and other varṇas which are clear in all the 3 octaves, various alamkāras, gamakas and akṣaras. Its graha and nyāsa are unperceived, and its establishment is viṣama or rugged.

The Śuddha prāñjala ālapti is endowed with the 4 varņas. It shines by the śuddha rīti or style. It consists of pleasing prayogas in all the 3 octaves and of appropriate nyāsas.

The Sālaka Viṣamālapti does not conform to the rules of sthāna, varṇa and order of repetition. It makes use of beautiful gamakas, alamkāras and the proper sthāpanā.

The Prānjala ālapti in sālaka is characterised by different styles and the essense of the rāga. Its tone is līna, reclining or melting and it is adorned by a sporting and dallying nyāsa.

The Sākṣara ālapti makes use of varṇas like 'tam', 'hamsā', etc., or the akṣaras used in playing the muraja (a kind of drum), or the akṣaras used in gītas or other akṣaras and countings.

The Anaksara alapti is bereft of words.

The Alapti with tāla has the 3 grahas and the 3 layas, anubjāyi (this is not explained), nyāsa and apanyāsa, and

vikṛtāmśa laya. A reference about vidārī yati is made which is not clear in the text.

The alapti without tala is bereft of tala and employs the 4 varnas:

It is remarkable that we have all these kinds of alapti as defined by Pārśvadeva in one form or another in the practice prevailing now.

Pārśvadeva then refers to varņas and alamkāras.

In the second adhikaraṇa of his work Pārśvadeva explains in detail the technique of ālāpa. His treatment is valuable since he takes notice of the development of the art in various places and as explained by Bhoja, Someśvara, Paramardi, Bharata, Matanga, etc. He states that Ālapti is of 2 kinds—Rāgālapti and Rūpakālapti. The first is explained thus. Svarāpāpādika is to be done in the first svasthāna. The form of the rāga in an apasthāna is called vātsurāgottha. The deviation in a note which is stationary and in the svasthāna and where the rāga is beautifully revealed, spoils the charm and introduces the colour of other rāgas. That note is called jīva-svara (lifenote) or amśa or vādi which among the 7 notes reveals the rāga well.

Anuvādi, samvādi and vādi notes are to be used profusely, more profusely and most profusely in their respective order. Vivādis are to be sparingly used. This use of vivādi is interesting since it has been pronounced by different authors to be the enemy of the other notes).

The pracchādana or covering of a note means the omission or removal of a note or the touching of it to a slight extent. When one vivādi note is omitted it is called ṣāḍava, and when two vīvādi notes are omitted it is called auḍava. (This is an interesting view of these terms.)

The establishment of the nyāsa note on the amśa is the first sthāyin. This establishment is known as

rāgavaktraka (or the countenance of the rāga). The dvyardha notes, etc., are to be moved above this sthayin in any note and the raga again established on the sthayin. This is the first svasthana of the alapti. From dyvardha the raga is to be moved and established in the second svasthāna. The fourth note from the sthāyin note is dvyardha. It is called devathaya. The notes between the dvyardha and the octave are called ardhasthitas or ardhaniyas. The raga is to be moved in the ardhasthita and the raga is to be established on the nyasa note. When the raga is moved up to the dviguna sthavin and established on the nyāsa note it is known as the fourth svasthānaka. The form of the śuddha rāga is made of the 4 svasthānas; in each sthana the notes are to be established gradually in the regular order, with the profuse application of jīvasvaras and groups, ending on the nyāsa note. The Suddha rāga is thus to be established on the sthāyin note. The flutist should develop the raga by stressing the raga in this manner, and the singer should make out the form of the raga and establish it in the above manner. Ragalapti has 'Ksetraśuddhi' and is without tāla. By Ksetraśuddhi is meant the purity of the raga. Because the raga is the origin of gīta (song or prabandha) it is called kṣetra. In rūpakālapti the rāga is briefly developed with tāla and also with titti[?]. By pratigrahana is meant the repeated catching of the sthayin in the rupaka in various ways. The above exhaustive treatment of alapti by Parśvadeva has a close resemblance to that of Sarngdeva but differs in several respects, vis., in the enumeration of more varieties, in the manner of the use of vadi, vivadi, etc., and also in the introduction of new terms like Ksetrasuddhi, etc.

Before discussing the Sangīta Ratnākara, which is outstanding because it contains a digest of the theories of the predecessors of Sārngadeva and guides all his successors, it is useful to take account of the contribution of Tamil literature to the theory of ālapti. The Silappadikāram

and its commentaries are the most important treatises and practically the only books which are available now. Though the original and the commentaries are separated by nearly 1,000 years, and the commentaries reveal the influence of Sanskrit books to a large extent, they can be taken to represent together the Tamil or Dravidian system of music. This system has had very important contributions to make to the present system. In fact, the latter is only a development of the former. menting on the verses in Arangerrukādai of the Silappadikāram, Adiyārkunallār elaborately explains ālapti or ālatti as he calls it.1 He states that when first one begins to sing it should be with the consonant 'M' and when the music is developed it is by the use of long and short letters. They are called accu and pāranai. Accu is rendered with tāla and pāranai with dance. When ālapti is rendered it is by tennā or tenā, or combining them into tennātenā. (These vocalising syllables are important and will be

He enumerates the sthanas and kriyas thus:

பெருக்தான மெட்டாவன: கெஞ்சம் மிடறும் காக்கும் மூக்கும் அண் எத்தும் உதடும் பல்லும் தூலயுமென விவை. கிரியைகளெட்டாவன: எடுத் தல் படுத்தல் எலிதல் கம்பிதம் குடிலம் ஒலி உருட்டு தாக்கு என விவை.

Other interesting details are found in the Arumpadavurai and reproduced by Adiyārkunallār; in explaining கவிஞனமை தி Arumpadavuraiyār says:

^{1.} In this connection he quotes the verses:—
'மகாத்தி இனைற்றுற் சுருதி விரவும்
பகருக் குறினெடில் பாரித்து—கிகரிலாத்
கென்னு தெனுவென்ற பாடுவரே லாளத்தி
மன்னுவிச் சொல்லின் வகை.'
'குன்றுக் குறிலேக்துக் கோடா கெடிலேக்து
கின்றுர்க்த மக்கதாக் தவ்வொடு—கன்றுக
கீளத்தா லேமு கிதானத்தா னின்றியங்க
வாளத்தி யாமென் சுறி.'

^{&#}x27; இசைப்புலவன் ஆளத்தி வைத்த பண்ணீர்மையை முதலும் முறை மையும் முடிவும் கிறைவும் குறையும் கிழமையும் வலிவும் மெலிவும் சமனும் வரையறையும் கீர்மையு மென்னும் பதிஞெரு பாகுபாட்டினுனுமறிக்தி அவன் அவை தானகிலேயில் எய்தவைத்த கிறம் தன் கவியினிடத்தே தோன்ற வைக்க வல்லன யென்ற வாறு.'

Pārśvadeva refers to the letters used in the Sākṣarālapti (Vide p. 71) as follows:—

^{1.} As contrasted with the Tamil system which lays down the rule that alapti is to be rendered by the syllables tenna tena, the Sanskrit texts do not mention any such dictum. Nevertheless, some of them contain valuable references to the letters used in the elaboration of the raga. For instance Narada in his Sangitamakaranda says that ragalapti consists of tannana etc. (रागालिक्तज्ञनादि). His statement 'रागरतञ्जनतानाबस्पतः शब्द उच्यते' can be taken to mean that a raga, by the use of tannana, tana and such other vocalising forms, is termed 'Sabda.' This is significant.

song, were all made the subject of regulation by the Tamil writers.

The Sangita Ratnākara deals with the subject exhaustively and its authority is followed by all subsequent writers. Kallinātha in his introduction to the Jāti prakaraņa points out that varņas and alankāras make up the act of singing as much as they adorn it. Sārngadeva gives 13 lakṣaṇas for jātis, which are as follows:—

Graha.—This is placed at the commencement of a song. Where either of the graha and the amsa is mentioned, it is understood that both are meant. Kallinātha says that therefore in each jāti there are as many amsas as there are grahas. Simhabhūpāla in his commentary on the Sangīta Sudhākara, asks what the difference is between graha and amsa if they are to be employed identically. He answers by saying that by amsa the vādi alone is meant, but by graha is meant the 4 kinds of notes called vādi, etc. He adds that the amsa is predominant because it generates the rāga and the graha is unimportant; this is the difference. This is an important point.

Amsa is defined by Sārngadeva as the note which manifests the sweetness of the music, whose samvādi and anuyādi are numerous in the vidāri, from which the disposition of the tāra and the mandra prayogas is arranged,

तं इंशा आदनेवंणैः अथवा मुरजाक्षरैः ॥ गीताक्षरेश्च यद्दान्येरक्षरैगंणनैरपि ॥ क्रियते यदि सालसिः साक्षरेति निगचते ॥

Surprisingly enough Sarngadeva says nothing on this topic, but only refers to the absence of aksaras in gamakalapti.

Somanarya repeats Nārada's definition of Rāgālapti thus: 'रागालप्तिस्तन्नसायै:'

In the Sangita Nārayāṇa, the following interesting statement is made:— आलापे प्रवेश: वर्णालङ्कारस्तु निरर्थकहुङ्कारादिश्राज्य: संगीतोक्तसरिगमे-स्यादिवर्णालङ्कारस्य । Defining Suddha alapti the author says,

आलापोऽत्र सार्थकपढेरेवेति साम्प्रदायिकाः । हरिनायकस्तु, 'आलापो गमकालन्तिरह्यरै-वीजिता मता' इति ।

Evidently here Harinayaka has quoted from the Sangita Ratnakara.

which is its own samvadi and the anuvadi of which is a different note, which comes in the capacity of nyasa, apanyāsa, vinyāsa, sanyāsa and graha, and which is the vādi and numerous in use. Kallinātha shows that the sweetness revealed by the amsa is not only that of individual notes but of the entire musical piece, and hence the word 'Geye' is used in the definition. He points out that the copiousness of its use is because of its assumption of the roles of apanyasa, etc., and quotes Bharata's śloka giving the 10 laksanas of the amsa. Kallinātha also brings out the difference between amsa and graha by quoting Matanga who says that amsa is the vadi alone, while graha can be the other 3 of the 4 varieties vadi, etc. Simhabhūpāla explains that by the vidāri is meant a section of the song, and that its two varieties gitavidāri and padavidāri will be discussed by him in the commentary on the tālādhyāya (which is not available). Sārngadeva gives copious usage as the invariable laksana of amsa.

Tāravyavasthā.—Simhabhūpāla writes a lucid commentary on the original verse treating of this lakṣaṇa. The note which is the amṣʿa in the madhyasthāyi is to be taken in the tāra octave, and from it the ascent can be made up to its fourth note, and not above, that being the boundary. Below that the sañcāra can be made according to the option of the singer. Simhabhūpāla says that even omitted notes are included in the tāra octave, and draws attention to

^{1.} The commentary on Kallinatha says:--

रक्तिन्यक्षकत्वादिधर्मयुक्तो यः स्वरः (स)संगीतमागत्वादंश इति न्यपदिश्यते गेथे । रक्तिन्यक्षक इत्यत्र रक्तिन्यक्षक इत्येतावत्युच्यमाने स्वरगतरक्तिमात्रव्यक्षकत्वं स्वरान्तराणाप्य-विशिष्टमितीह स्वरसंदर्भभेदप्रतिनियतरिक्तिविशेषव्यक्षकत्वं (स्वस्य) विषक्षितत्वाद्रेय इति विशेणम्।

In this passage Kallinātha explains that if 'amśa' is defined as manifesting sweetness without any qualification, its power to manifest sweetness would be applicable to all svaras without any distinction. Hence he points out that by the use of the specifying, adjunct 'na' the amśa's function of manifesting the peculiar sweetness characteristic of the different groupings of svaras (in the musical piece) is indicated.

Bharata's admission of tāragati till the fourth, fifth and seventh notes.

Mandravyavasthā.—Simhabhūpāla explains that from the amsa of the middle octave the descent should be made down to the amsa in the mandra octave. or up to the nyāsa or the notes Ri or Dha in the mandra octave. Within these limits the saficara is optional.

Nyāsa is used at the close of a song. According to Kallinātha this note brings the song to a close by its own authority and independently of other factors. Simhabhūpāla writes that the song closes on or with this note.1

Apanyasa closes the vidari or the limb of the song. According to Kallinatha this resembles nyasa by its closing the intermediate divisions of song. Simhabhūpāla quotes Matanga in support.

Sanyāsa.—This is a note which is not a vivādi of the amśa and this closes the first vidāri. Simhabhūpāla quotes Matanga to this effect.

Vinyāsa exists on the sides of the parts of vidāris. Kallinātha points out that vinyāsa is the note used at the margin of groups of notes which are varnas and alankāras and parts of vidāris. Since the vinyāsas could be any note which is not a vivādi, their number is not given.

Bahutva is of two kinds, namely, by alanghana and abhyāsa which are synonymous with vädi and samvādi respectively. Kallinātha says that langhana means the touching of a note very slightly and the incomplete manifestation of the note. The reverse of this is alanghana, i.e., producing the note in all its fullness which is one kind of bahutva. The other is got by the constant or frequent repetition of the note.

^{1.} गीतजात्यादिप्रयोगे समाप्तिक्रित्रिरोधावसानकारी स्वरो न्यास: 1 - Kallinatha. यस्तु गीतसमापकः गीतस्य जात्यादेः अन्ते तिष्ठति स न्यास इत्युच्यते। न्यस्यते खब्यते यरिमन् येन वा गीतिमिति न्यार्सः। -Simhabhūpāla.

Alpatva is achieved by anabhyāsa and langhana which are the exact opposites of abhyasa and alanghana defined above. Anabhyāsa is held to be applied to notes which are not amsas and which are to be omitted. Sarngadeva says that the touching of a note slightly is langhana, and is often applicable to lopya or omitted notes. Simhabhūpāla in his commentary adds that it is the view of some that langhana is applied also to notes which are not amsas.

Antaramārga is used generally in Vikrtajātis. Kallinātha explains that this results from the varied and beautiful combinations with amsa, graha, apanyasa, etc., (in aroha, avaroha, etc.,) of notes which are applied in the two kinds of alpatva and which abandon their allotted places of nyāsa, apanyāsa, vinyāsa, sanyāsa, graha, and amsa, but come in between any two of them. These combinations are beautifully equipped with tanas, etc., and consist in some places of anabhyasas, and in some other places of langhanas.

By Sādava is meant a prayoga of 6 notes. Kallinātha says that among the 7 notes, when a note is omitted according to the rule of laksana, the music got out of the remaining 6 notes is sādava. Simhabhūpāla is of the opinion that this combination of 6 notes is called sadava because it protects (reveals by emphasis) the jātis, etc.1 It is also interpreted as a combination made out of 6 notes. larly audava means a grouping of 5 notes.

It will be found that almost all these laksanas, except those which are peculiar to the music of the jatis, are features of the present day music. Matanga's assignment of the 10 laksanas to ragas remain almost intact even to-dav.

^{&#}x27;सप्तसु स्देरेषुं रुक्षणवद्यादेकस्मिस्त्यक्ते तदितरषट्स्वरप्रयोगप्रपञ्चवद्याज्ञातं गीतं -Kallināthà. षाडवाख्यव्यपदेशवदिति

षट् मिलित्वा ये प्रयोगं जात्यादि अवन्ति रक्षन्ति ते पाडवाः स्वराः

In the Rāgavivekādhyāya, Kallinātha begins with the remark that the 10 kinds of ragas derive their name from their characteristic of pleasing1 and quotes Matanga's definition of 'rāga'. Grāmarāgas are divided into 5 classes according to the 5 gītis. Among them the Suddha gīti consists of straight and smooth svaras; the Bhinna of subtle and crooked notes and sweet gamakas; the Gaudi of deep notes with gamakas in the three octaves and svaras sportive with uhātī (this according to Kallinātha indicates mandra notes); and the Vesara of restless movement in all the three octaves, with uhātī kampitas, notes in the mandra octave, and quick movement. The Sädhārana shares all these characteristics. These gītis have their application to notes and are different from Magadhi and other gitis which are mainly concerned with pada and tala. Kallinātha points out that Śārngadeva has defined the five gītis according to the view of Durga. He refers to the gītis mentioned by Matanga and Bharata.

In the second prakarana of the Rāgādhyāya, ālāpa, etc., which are common to all the rāgas are stated. Sārngadeva defines that in rāgālāpa is found the manifestation of graha, amśa, mandra, tāra, nyāsa, alpatva, bahutva, sādava and audava. Kallinātha commenting on this says that only the lakṣaṇas already defined have their application in the piece of music alluded to. This distinguishes ālāpa from prabandha consisting of dhātu and

Kallinātha.

^{1.} दश्रविधानाम् एतेषां रागत्वं रज्जनात् । For Matanga's definition, Vide Note 2. Page 65.

^{2.} ग्रहांशमन्द्रताराणां न्यासापन्यासयोस्तथा ॥ अल्पत्वस्य बहुत्वस्य षाडवौडवयोरिप ॥ अभिव्यक्तिर्यत्र दृष्टा स रागालाप उच्यते ॥

^{—\$}ārngadeva.

Explaining the passage Kallinātha says:—
तेषां प्रहांशादीनामेवाभिन्यक्तिः स्वरूपप्रकाशनमाविभीव इत्सर्थः । न तु स्वरूपप्रकटाकरणमात्रम् । . . . । साभिन्यक्तिर्दृष्टा ज्ञाता भवति । . . . । सं स्वर्-संनिवशविशेषो रागाळाप इत्युच्यते ।

angas. Kallinātha points out that by the 'abhivyakti' of the rāga is meant the 'āvirbhāva' or complete exhibition of graha, amśa, etc., and not merely the manifestation of the form of the rāga. The latter is the characteristic of ālapti which is defined elsewhere and from which ālāpa is distinguished. The assemblage of the notes defined above is rāga-ālāpa.

Rūpaka is the same as ālāpa, but in it the pieces or parts or divisions of music are separately sung. That is to say, Kallinātha states, the ālāpa proceeds in its entirety without stopping at the apanyāsas. (It is a whole, and not divided into parts). The same ālāpa when it pauses again and again over the apanyāsas and proceeds thus, it is known as the rūpaka.¹ By this we understand that the ālāpa was used to indicate the elaboration which gave the impression of the rāga as a whole and the rūpaka to indicate the elaboration of the rāga in detail by the individual treatment of its numerous vidārīs.

Sārngadeva defines 'Ākṣiptikā' as made up of svaras and padas, sung according to Cañcatpuṭa and other tālas, and adorned by the three mārgas. The 'pallayi' receives similar treatment at the present day. Kallinātha states that this is a variety of nibaddhagīta. In it any one of the mārgatālas is applied. In this is used one of the three mārgas, viz., citra, etc., and this is sung according to the rules applicable to jātis. The svaras sa, ri, etc., and words are arranged in it. Because the padas and tālas are thrown up, as it were, it is named 'ākṣiptikā'. This is so considered by Matanga and others.

For some of the ragas karana and vartani are given, and these are defined under prabandhas since they are variations of the latter. Sarngadeva says that according to Matanga and others rupaka is used only for bhasas,

अपन्यासेध्वविरम्यैकाकारेण प्रकृत आलाप: । स एव अपन्यासेषु विरम्य प्रकृत रूपकामति । — Kallinātha.

vibhāsās and antarabhāsās. Kallinātha infers that they are not used in grāmarāgas and rāgāngas.

In giving rāgaprastāras, Sārngadeva uses different names for the divisions of alapa. They are of great interest. For Suddhasādhārita he gives ālāpa and karana; for Suddhakaiśika, ālāpa and vartanī (or vartanikā as it is called elsewhere); for Rūpasādhāra, ālāpa, karaņa and again ālāpa; for Nartharāga two karaņas; for Revagupta, ālāpa, second and third karanas; and for Travanā, ālāpa and rūpaka.

In commenting on Śuddhakaiśika, Kallinātha quotes Matanga's dictum distinguishing 'raga' from 'gīta' namely, that 'raga' is the combination of notes according to the 10 lakṣaṇas—graha, amśa, etc., and that gīta means Dhruva, etc., consisting of those svaras, and also talas, parts and four angas.

Kallinātha makes very important observations concerning the laksanas of the Deśi rāgas current in his time. (They are significant from the fact that he wrote two centuries after Sarngadeva. He added a list of Deśī rāgas in his commentary and he represents the art of the Vijavanagar empire). According to him wherever tara and mandra rules are not mentioned, the sancara is unrestricted. His remarks about the distinction between Sadia and Madhyama grāma rāgas are of immense importance since they explain the progress of the art from grama music to the music of the present day. He points out the various differences between the practical and theoretical aspects of Deśi rāgas and he, 'knowing the truth about the views of Matanga and others', as he says, writes to reconcile these differences. Because they are Desī it is not a flaw if they do not conform to rules. They derive their title 'Deśī' because their development is according to the will of the singer and their one effect and aim is the delighting of the minds of the people in different countries.

In this connection Affianeya is quoted as saying that Deśī rāgas do not conform to the rules of śruti, svara, grāma. iātis, etc., and that they take the complexion of the modes of different countries. Kallinatha says that in vadva and nrtva also similar sañcāra or elaboration at will results in their becoming Deśī. If they are restrained by rules, the gītas become mārga.1

Alapti.—Rāgālapana, according to Sārngadeva, is alapti or the manifestation of the raga. It is of two kinds. according as it pertains to raga or rupaka. Kallinatha very elaborately discusses the etymology of the word ālapti and arrives at the conclusion that when 'ālapana' indicates primarily 'disappearance' (Tirobhāva) it means the same thing as alapti: when it indicates 'manifestation' (āvirbhāva) it is synonymous with ālāpa. According to the context, he points out that prakatikarana conveys the same sense as alapti: it means that the apprehension of the raga is possible to some extent. Alapana also denotes the same thing. In other words he says alapti and ālapana are synonymous and a rāga, manifest already, is hidden by the use of a beautiful variety of varņa, alamkāra, gamaka and sthāyas in profusion: prakatīkarana indicates this 'concealment' of the manifestation of the raga.2

^{1.} In commenting on the definition of melāpaka, a vādya prabandha, Kallinātha states that the exponents of mere laksya (as opposed to laksana) were known as विद्यावन्त:, and adds that they were called विद्यावन्तर by the Karnatas (विद्यावन्त: केवले लक्ष्यप्राक्तार:। तानेव लाके 'विद्यावन्तर' इति कर्णाटाः वदन्ति t). The use of the Kanarese synonym is very interesting and shows that the distinction between Laksana and Laksya (in other words marga and desi) was as live an issue in Kallinatha's time as ever

^{2. &#}x27;रागालपनमालप्ति: प्रकटीकरण मतम। -Sārngadeva. सा द्विषा गदिता रागरूपकाभ्यां विशेषणात ॥

In his commentary on this verse, Kallinatha states:-....आरूपनमारूप्तिरिति बारूपनमारूप इति वा न्युत्पादियत् शन्यते नान्यथाति गतमेतत् । . . . अत्र प्रकृतत्वाद्वागस्य प्रकटोकरणाभाति गम्यते । रागप्रकटी-करणमध्यालादेतस्त्रेन संमत्तामस्यर्थः । प्रकटाकरणामस्यत्र प्रकटाति च्वरमततङ्कावार्थत्वात् किञ्चि-

Rāgālapti is independent of rūpaka (which is a prabhanda). It has 4 svasthānas, which are the places of rest for rāgālapana, like mukhacāla, etc.

That note is called sthäyin where the rāga is established. Kallinātha shows that it can be one of the 7 notes of the octave and is the amśa svara of the rāga. The 4th note from it is called Dvyardha and Kallinātha reckons it as the 4th in ascending order, including even a varjya note when there is one. Movement (cālanam which means 'display') below this dvyardha is called mukhacāla. This is the first svasthāna; movement in the dvyardha svara with nyasanam (or reaching the nyāsa) is the second. The 8th note from the sthāyisvara is called the dviguṇa, and the notes between the dvyardha and dviguṇa are called Ardhasthita. Movement in the ardhasthita with nyāsa is the third svasthāna and movement in the dviguṇa is the fourth. Rāgālapti consists of these four svasthānas.

Explaining the foregoing definitions by Sārngadeva, Kallinātha says that, in the first svasthāna not only the notes below the dvyardha down to the sthāyin but also those below the latter are used, since the rāga is not manifested in a single note. By the cālana of mukhacāla is meant the singing or playing of each rāga with its appropriate gamaka like sphurita, kampita, etc. By all this is indicated the singing by beginning at the sthāyin, and making the dvyardha the limit, using all the notes below it in whichever way is suitable and making the sthāyin the final, i.e., closing on that note. The second svasthāna

स्प्रतायमानार्थस्य विवक्षितम् । आलपनीमत्यत्रापि तिरोभावस्याप्रकटार्थावरणरूपस्वातत्रापि किचिःप्रतायमानार्थस्यं विवक्षितम् । तेनोभयत्रापि फलमृतं रागस्य किचित्प्रतायमानस्वभवालपितशब्दप्रवृत्तो निमित्तामित्यवगन्तव्यम् । तथा हि——आलप्तौ प्रकारद्वयं न च (तच्च) पर्यायेण संभवति । यदा तावदाविर्मृतस्य रागस्य विचित्रवर्णालंकारगमकस्थायप्रयोगभाक्षभेदेन तिरोभावः कियते तदा आलप्तिशब्दसमानार्थना । यदा त्वत्र तस्य रागस्य तावृश्चेव प्रयोगभदेन तद्वावः संप्रवृत्ते तदा प्रकटाकरणशब्दसमानार्थना चिति रहस्यभेततः ।

is the same as the first except in that it includes the dvyardha also in the cālana. The third svasthāna excludes the dviguna and covers all the notes below it, closing on the sthayin. In the 4th svasthana, the dviguna is meant to include the notes above it also. All of them are made use of and the sthavisvara is the closing note.

Śārngadeva concludes rāgālapti by remarking that the establishment of the raga (the 'sthapana' of the raga) is accomplished by the limited use of sthayas, varied and permeated by the jīvasvara or amśa.1

Kallinātha says that the import of the above passage is that by the application of the 4 svasthanas and by the use of a few raga avayavas (limbs of raga) in the elaboration of the rāgālapti, the rāga is made manifest instantly, and this manifestation only reveals the raga to a limited extent because of the use of sthayas which other ragas. The expression common to are partial.2 He illustrates this the only by the following two examples:-When one Devadatta comes towards an assembly his personality is clearly manifest, but when he sits in the assembly his form is concealed by being mixed with the likeness of dress, language, etc., of others and he is said to be manifest to a limited extent. Again when a pearl assumes the colours of the different gems with which it is woven, its manifestation is said to be partial.

Rūpakālapti is executed by the tāla and rāga of the rūpaka and is of two kinds, namely, pratigrahanikā and bhañjani. The former consists of first rendering a part of rāgālapti and then taking up any desired part of a prabandha (rūpaka), suited to the sthāya treated. Bhañjanī

स्तोकेस्तोकेस्ततः स्थायैः प्रसन्नर्वेहुभाक्षिभिः॥ जीवस्वरन्याप्तिमुख्यैरागस्य स्थापना भवेत् ॥

⁻Sārngdeva.

उक्तस्वस्थानचतुष्टयप्रयुक्तायामारुप्तावुक्तलक्षणै: स्वल्पै रागावयवैविस्तार्यमाणाया-मापाततोऽभिन्यक्तस्य रागस्य रागान्तरसाधारणस्थायादिप्रयोगात् स्वरूपातरामाव किंचित्रतीयमानता भवेदित्सभग्रायः । -Kallinātha.

is of two kinds:—(1) Sthāyabhañjanī. This consists of the varied treatment of the sthaya (or limb) of the rupaka according to the value of the viśranti or rest belonging to the padas or intermediate (vidărī) divisions of the rūpaka. (2) Rüpakabhañjanī consists of elaborate and varied treatment of the entire rupaka including all those intermediate divisions or limbs of the prabandha according to the time measure given above. Kallinātha explains that the variegations referred to indicate the adoption of some alien Dhātu in the places of the Dhātu concerned. When the entire prabandha is rendered by a repeated use of parts in which the thayas and sthayas concerned are replaced by other suitable gamakas, etc., it is known as the rūpakabhañjanī. This replacement indicates the variety. In the Rūpakālapti, Kallinātha sums up, the rāga is partly manifested through sthāya, pratigraha and bhañjanī. It is as when Dēvadatta, unmanifest in an assembly, becomes somewhat manifest when he goes about on some errand, or as when a pearl, woven with gems of different colours, becomes manifest to a limited degree.

Summing up, Sārngadeva defines ālapti, as endowed with varņa and alankāra, adorned by gamakas and sthāyas, and charming by the variety of its treatment. Kallinātha explains that the ālapti, by means of the four svasthānas, reveals the rāga here and there and conceals it, as a maiden, adorned by varna, alankāra, etc., shows and hides her features before her lover. The concealed rāga is brought out by pratigraha and bhañjanī. The ālāpa always brings out the rāga as a male displays his whiskers, etc. Ālāpana or ālapana, like a hermophrodite assumes the nature of both ālapti and ālāpa.¹

^{1.} वर्णालंकारसंपन्ना गमकस्थायचित्रिता ।। — Sārngadeva. आल्लानिरुच्यते तज्ज्ञैनीरमाङ्गमनोहरा ।। — Sārngadeva. यथा वर्णालकारादिसंपन्ना कामिनी कामुकदर्शने स्वाङ्ग किचिइर्शयखेवं साविल्लास तात्तरोमावयति कदाचित्रिराभृतं तदेव सञ्याजं प्रकटीकराति तथोक्तलक्षणा आल्लाप्रराप्

In the Vādyādhyāya, Sārngadeva notices the disagreement between practice and theory and observes that the arts are always influenced and dominated by practice. He lays down the rule that the regulations regarding graha, amśa, and nyāsa only are determined according to sastra or textual authority. The combination of other notes (Kallinātha explains them as meaning apanyāsa, etc., including antaramarga) is taken according to practice and this is not contrary to sastra. The differences between practice and theory in Deśi rāgas are to be reconciled in this manner in all cases, according to Sarngadeva. Kallinātha explains that by Deśī rāgas are meant rāgānga, bāṣānga, kriyānga and upānga rāgas. Only among them is this reconciliation allowed. Among margaragas like grāmarāgas, etc., lakṣaṇa or theory is dominant.

It is unnecessary to say that instrumental music had at that time reached a very high state of development. Sarngadeva treats about it in a very exhaustive manner in the Vādyādhyāya. Instrumental music was considered to be a complement and also an aid to vocal music. We can identify many of the features of the practice of the present day as having been in vogue then. The flutist is directed to present first the tanas of the raga which the vocalist is to sing; he is to conceal the defects of vocal music, so that the raga may not seem to be spoiled for the listener. By his skill he should manifest the raga even in apasthanas (those that are not syasthanas, defined already) as he would in the svasthanas like mukhacala, etc. Gamakālāpa in an asthāna was considered to be a deed of great skill. This gamakālapti was an ālāpa without akṣaras or

स्वस्थानचतुष्ट्येश्च तत्र तत्र रागं किंचिंद्रशैयन्तां तं तिरीभावयति । कदाचित्तिरीभूतं तमेव प्रतिग्रहमञ्जर्नाभ्यां तत्र तत्र रागं प्रकटीकरोतीति । स एव प्रतिभाविषय प्रवार्थः । आकापस्तु पुमाञ्चमश्रादिकमिव सदा रागमाविर्मावयति । नपुसकमिव आला(ल)पनं तदुभयसाधारण-स्थिति दर्शयतीति सक्ष्मेक्षिकयावगन्तव्यम् ॥ Kallinātha.

letters and otherwise called prayoga.1 The vīnā was considered to be second only to the voice but the lutists are taken to task by Sarngadeva for having deviated from the laksana in many rāgas. The mardala or drum was used As ālāpti was rendered without false notes in the three octaves, so also on the mardala, sthapana has to be rendered, purely and without overlapping, in the three sthānas, in vilamba, madhya and druta speed. Kallinātha adds that sthapana otherwise is rendered according to The drummer should play on the drum in agreement with the ragalapa, and frequently in the course of it should beautify it with his play. At present the rāgālāpa by the nagasvara player is similarly accompanied by the 'tavil'.

All subsequent development in the theory and the practice of the alapa has proceeded along this system expounded by Sarngadeva. It remains to deal with the vocalising syllables used in ālāpa. It is remarkable that while the Tamil writers give the various syllables to be sung in alapa which tally with modern practice, the Sanskrit writers do not give similar information under this heading. So we have to make inferences with the data we have. One kind of alapa, we found, made use of pada and tala and this is a convenient group since the padas or words are clear and offer no problem. must know how the alapti without words was sung. Probably it was with the syllables mentioned by the Tamil books, because they are musical, but there is no authority to prove this. We find in the singing of the Kapāla padas mentioned by Sarngadeva the syllables hau, jam, hrīm, raum, haum, hum, ka, ha, kaha, and bhuntam or ihuntum, were used besides the regular words of the

I. Kallinātha explaining the passage quotes: आङापो गमकाङित्रक्षरैर्वार्जेता मता। सैव प्रयोगशब्देन शाङ्गंदेवेन शब्दिता ॥

song. Nānyadeva in his Bharata Vārtika similarly deals with the subject. These seem to be the survivals of the vocalising devices of the music of an older epoch. In the chanting of the Sāma Veda we find among others the following stöbha padas used:--

Auhovā, idābhā, āyidā, iyā iyā, ā, āi, hāi, āu, hāu, ō, öi, hōi, vōi, mōi, hum, ēhiyā, up, has, bibi, hi, hāuvā, yē, yā, hā, ham, ha, hī, ya, va, ba, i, u, ōm, idā, nam, sam and nrmne nrmnam.2 Some of these syllables can be seen to be used in the Sülādi prabandhas of the present day. In the chant of the Gathas in the Vedic period syllables like 'hillu, hillu', 'haimahā' were used.3 Coming to modern times interesting information in this connection is given by the Gitaprakāśa, which may be taken to be representative of similar authorities. In dealing with the prabandhas sung to the Manthatala, the author gives the following grouping of syllables to be sung after the sahitya, viz., Āi - Āi - Ā - iā iā - iā - ā - iā - iā iyā - tiyā - oī - ō - ā - ā ā - ā | | ā - ā - ā - ī - ā - ā - ā - ō - ō - ā - ā - ō - ā |ā - ī - ō - ō - ī $-\bar{o}i - \bar{a} - \bar{a}$ - re. These are explained by the author to be meaningless words used for endowing the Gita sung to a tāla with grace and loveliness. The word 'Arē' is also used.

^{1.} हो, जं, हो, रों, हो, हूं, क, ह, कह, भुण्टं भुण्टं and also झुण्टुं.

^{2.} औहोना - इटाभा - आइटा - इया इया - आ - आई - हाइ - आउ -इ।उ - ओ - ओइ - होइ - बोइ - मोइ - हुं - एहिया, उप् - हस् - विवि हीं - हाउवा - वे या - हा - हं - ह - हि - य - व - ब - इ - उ - ओं - इटा - नम् - सम् - नृम्णे नृम्णम् -रलादि ।

^{3.} ननु गावो मङ्कीरस्य गङ्गाया उदकं पपुः। पपः सरस्वतीं नदीं प्राचीं चीजनाहिरे॥ —हैमहा - इदं मधु - हिल्लु हिल्लु—

[—]संवत्सरगाथा

मण्ठलक्षणोदाहरणं गीतम् । दारावतीपुरमनुबलसंयुत उद्धवसहितो नियतमयं अक्रुरोत्तमसचिवो नम्दक्तिरूपम समितिति आइअ आरे । मुकुन्दनृपति राजति आविपुला मंजित या इरिचरितम् इन्तमनिध्विलमनुकरोति आह आह आ इआ इआ इआ इआ इआ इस तिया औई ओ आ आ आ आ आ आ आ ई आ आ आ ओ ओ आ आ ओ आ। मा ई ओ ओ ई मो ई आ आ रे। इत्यादये। निरर्थकाः शब्दाः सोतालगीतलालित्यार्थः प्रयोक्तव्याः...।

Another important group of vocalising syllables used is dealt with in the Prabandhadhyaya by Sarngadeva. Among the 6 angas of the prabandha namely, svara, biruda, pada, tenaka, pāṭa and tāla, tenaka is important in the present context.1 'Tena' is taken to express auspiciousness. Sārrigadeva explains that tenapāṭa is a grouping of aksaras used in instrumental music. This heightens its importance. Tenakas are extensively used in prabandhas. In Nānyadeva's Bharatavārtika, Karnapāṭatāna and other similar pāṭas are given as well as tēnakas. In my opinion they have survived till the present day. Now they exist in the form of 'tanam' singing. The tenakas used according to tala in prabandhas must have been employed in alapa without tala and gradually become the tanam familiar to us. To support this view in some places in Malabar and elsewhere and among vidvāns of the old type who represent classical tradition, we find the practice of singing tanams according to tala. (The term 'Tena' is also used in some of the prevalent prabandhas). 'Tanam' (in the modern sense of the term) is not mentioned in the Sanskrit books but the syllables given by Adiyārkunallār as sung in ālatti can be combined to form the word 'tanam'. In Tamil alatti the syllables 'tennā tenā' are used, and they resemble tena very closely. Putting these facts together it is possible to infer that the word 'tena' which is of hoary age has been extended from its use in the prabandhas and utilised in ordinary ālāpa (without tāla); and that by the authority

प्रवन्धोऽङ्गानि षट् तस्य स्वरश्च विरुदं पदम् । े तेनकः पाँटताली च प्रशन्धपुरुषस्य ते ॥ भवन्त्यद्ववदङ्गानि मङ्गलार्थप्रकाशिके ॥

तेनेति शब्दस्तेन स्यान्मक्र्लार्थप्रकाशकः ॥

तदिति बहा तेनायं ब्रह्मणा महलात्मना ॥ लक्षितस्तेन तेनेति पाटो वाद्याक्षरोत्करः ॥

of convention it has become converted into the syllable 'tanam' which is now interpreted as being a transformed and abbreviated form of the word 'ananta'. 'tanam-singing' now preserves two features which have come down from the old theorists, i.e., it is a development of 'tena-singing', and the tala regulation of the tena now features as the arrangement of the tanams in a rough kind of rythmic groupings.1

Haripāla, the next writer to be considered here, in his Sangītasudhākara gives the limbs (avayavas) of iātis as 15. They are as follows:-

1. Even Venkatamakhin sticks to the old definition of 'tana' as indicating the elaboration of notes. His definition of the 'Suddha tana' as expressing one single raga, and of 'kuta tana' as manifesting the identical aspect of a pair of ragas is interesting. He writes as follows:-

" निरूष्यतेऽधुना तानः स्वर्धिस्तारलक्षणः । ेतानो दिधा शुद्धतानः कुटतान इति कमात्।। रकैकरागमात्राभिव्यक्तिसंपादकस्त यः 🛝 स शुद्धतान इत्युक्तः कृटतानः स उच्यते ।। यस्त रागद्वयस्फृतिसाधारणतया स्थितः ॥ "

The author of the Sangita Kaumudi (circ. 1900 A.D.) states that the Rāgālāpanam is to be rendered by beginning in the madhya octave, and then proceeding to the tara octave. Next the saficara is to be carried on in the madhya and mandra octaves and finally in the madhya octave. The Bhavas and mūrchanās appropriate for the rāga as well as the three kālas, vilamba' madhya and druta should be used. "Tahanam' (the popular term for 'tanam' accepted by the author) is explained thus:-

नाटरागं समारभ्य मन्द्रे स्थाने तथैव च ॥ मध्यमे तारके चैव स्थाय्यामपि यथाक्रमम् ॥ संचार्य मध्यमस्येव कालस्याकारकैस्तथा ॥ अनन्तत्वमितीशस्य नामोचार्य पुनः पुनः ॥ तत्तद्वागस्य संप्रोक्तान् रागभावांश्च मूर्छनाः ॥ तत्तत्स्यानेषु च व्यक्तं यद्गीतं गायकोत्तमैः ॥ तन्नाम तहनं चेति प्राह मे पार्वतीपतिः॥ दात्रिंशद्दनरागाश्च एवं गेया: क्रमेण वै ॥

The tahanam (tānam) is to be sung in the 3 octaves by the frequent use of the word 'ananta' (a name of God) with the aid of the letter a, in the madhya kāla. The proper bhāvas and mūrchanās of the rāga should be expressed. This method is common for the 32 ghanaragas (enumerated by the author). This definition serves to explain what is at present rendered as 'tanam' (or colloquially 'tahanam').

Graha is the note sung at the commencement of the song. Amśa is the same note sung repeatedly. Haripāla differentiates the graha from the amsa by the plurality of the use of the latter; and while the form of a graha is single, i.e., whereas it is confined to one note, the amsa's forms are numerous. The nyāsa note returns after repeatedly touching its upper note. The apanyasa note maintains the colour or form of the raga which is rendered. The vidaris are met with in the middle of the nyasa and the apanyasa. When the amsa is used only two or three times it is known as alpatvam; when the amsa is used many times it is known as bahutvam. Graha and apanyāsa, he says, are of the same form. The singing of the higher notes is called tara, and the singing of the lower notes mandra. Sādava is the use of 6 notes, audava of 5, khanda of 4, ardhakhanda of 3, and kuśa is the use of 2 notes (this is also spelt in the original as krśa, which seems to be right as indicating the small number). varnas and 33 alankāras are mentioned by Haripāla. The 4 kinds of notes are interpreted with reference to the raga. Vādi is used plentifully in the place of the note (svarasthana). The samvadi is that which does not break or mar the raga. When a note is used in agreement with the rāga but which is found in another rāga it is anuvādi. a note mars the raga which is rendered it is called vivadi. With the foregoing account is to be compared the definition of Särngadeva.

According to Sarngadeva the note which is profusely used is vādi. Two notes separated by 12 or 8 śrutis are samvādis. Ni and ga are vivādis of other notes or of ri and dha. The other notes are anuvādis.1 Simhabhūpāla

^{1,} शतयो द्वादशाष्ट्री वा ययोरन्तरगोचर: ॥ मिथः संवादिनौ सौ स्तो निगावन्यविवादिनौ ॥ रिधयोरेव का स्यातां तौ तयार्वारिधाविष ॥ शेषाणामनुवादित्वं

in his commentary explains that the vadi is synonymous with the amsa and that this brings out the individuality of the raga. He points out that Matanga and Dattila separate samvadis by 13 and 9 srutis, and that they may be taken to include the samvadi śrutis also and that hence the two views are reconcilable. Discussing the use of the samvādis, he gives several instances to show that when a note is the amsa in a song its samvadi can take its place without injuring or marring the raga. He points out that Matanga gives the notes separated by two śrutis as vivādis. According to Simhabhūpāla the state of vādi, samvādi and anuvādi is destroyed by the vivādi. explains that the anuvādi establishes or fulfils the rāga which emerges by means of the vadi, etc. Vadi is compared by Sarngadeva to the ruler of a kingdom, the samvadi to his minister because it supports the former, the vivādi to an enemy, and the anuvādi to the servant as it subserves the king, and the minister. Matanga's explanation of the terms is given by Simhabhūpāla (as shown above).

According to Saringadeva the regular ascent and descent of 7 notes is murchana. These are 7 for each grama. Tānas are mūrchanas with 5 or 6 svaras. The complete and incomplete murchanas by being permuted in irregular order become kutatanas. The method of calculating their total number is given. Simhabhūpāla points out that the murchanas are used in the jati ragas and bhasas, etc., and that the tanas are used to get the difference of the jati ragas as between the two gramas.

To return to Haripāla, he quotes Tumburu as stating that the murchana is the smoothness of the śrutis. can be interpreted as the soft intonation of the śrutis or the smoothness of their effect on the ear. Haripāla also

क्रमात् स्वराणां सप्तानामारोइआवरोइणम् ॥ मुर्छनेत्युच्यते यामद्वये ताः सप्त सप्त च ॥

quotes Köhala as saying that the murchana makes the mind of the singer and the listener bathe in the nectarean lake of the raga.1 The names and forms of the mürchanās, he says, are not repeated by him as they are of fixed form and have been described by other authors. What is striking here is that the definition of the murchana shifts the emphasis of the term from a grouping of seven notes to their musical effect. By murchana we mean to-day the colour of the raga as embodied in a prayoga and not so much the number or mode of ascent or descent. To-day we do not mean by the murchana of the notes. the regular ascent and descent of seven notes in a raga. This is noteworthy. The ascending order of notes alone according to Haripāla is called tāna. These definitions are peculiar to the author.

Laksmīnārāyana in his Sangīta Sūryōdaya follows Sārngadeva in defining mūrchanās and tānas. He gives the mūrchanās of the Gāndhāragrāma also. Among tānas besides sāḍava and audava he gives ārcika, sāmika, and svarāntara. The varņas and alankāras are mentioned by him as well as the 13 laksanas of the jātis according to Sārngadeva.

In the Gitaprakāśa the excellences of song are given. Graha, laya, yati, mānam, etc., are mentioned. The music originating merely on the notes is called Dhātu. Mātu indicates the sāhitya. The author calls the sweetness of the rāga obtained (on the strings) in the 3 octaves by the name 'Rāga Ramyam'. He mentions śuddha and vikrta jātis, and he is to be understood as implicitly accepting the jātilaksanas. For rāgas he mentions amśa, lōpyasvaras, etc.

Rāmāmātya in his Svaramelakalānidhi does not deal separately with rāgalakṣaṇa, but makes mention of a few

श्रुतेमादिवमेव स्यात् मूछनेत्याद्व तुम्बुरः ॥
गायतां श्रुण्वतां चापि भवेद्रागामृते हदे ॥
भनसो मज्जन यत् स्यात् मूछनेत्याद कोइछः ॥

laksanas in a verse which can be translated thus:- 'All the Deśī rāgas originate from the Ṣadjagrāma. In these (Deśī) rāgas, because they are Deśī, the graha, amśa, nyāsa, mandra, etc., and the division into ṣāḍava, auḍava and pūrna may, or may not occur (i.e., they are not governed by any fixed rule)." Nevertheless he gives the definition of a number of uttama, madhyama and adhama rāgas, following the theory and practice of music, as he says. In giving the lakṣaṇas of rāgas he does not mention anything beyond graha, amśa and nyāsa. A peculiarity of the ragas is that the majority of them have sadja for all the three laksanas. We are left to infer that, since the apanyasa, vinyasa and sanyasa are not mentioned, these were not looked upon as important and that these were not given the same authority as in the 'grāma' music of the jātis. But such indispensable and easily definable laksanas like the alpatva, bahutva, tāra, mandra, etc., might have been given for the rāgas. This lack of completeness in definition we find in almost all of the writers of this and subsequent periods.

Somanatha bases his exposition of this subject on the principles enunciated in the Ratnākara. Like Rāmāmātya he divides ragas into uttama, madhyama, and adhama. The uttama ragas according to him are fit for alapa, ālapti, and the rendering of the prabhanda called vastu. He defines alapa as consisting of the manifestation of graha, amśa, nyāsa, apanyāsa, mandra, tāra, alpatva,

देशीरागाश्च सकलाः षड्जयामसमुद्भवाः । अहांशन्यासमन्द्रादिषाडवाँडवपूर्णताः ॥ दैशीलात सर्वरागेषु भवन्ति न भवन्ति च।

^{1.} According to MS. No. 13031 of the Madras Oriental manuscripts Library, the text is

In Mr. S. Narayanasami Aiyar's edition of the Svaramela-kalanidhi, instead of पूर्णती: in the second line of the above quotation we find पूर्णका: पूर्णता can be admitted to be the better of the two expressions.

bahutva, ṣāḍava, and auḍava. He quotes Śārngadeva in support and adopts his definitions of alapti and prabandha. In defining his rāgas he tries to give besides graha, amśa and nyäsa, the copiousness (bahutva) or otherwise of notes, etc. And in a separate chapter, by the use of the remarkable notation of his invention he has tried to illustrate the sañcāras of a number of rāgas. These definitions, since they give an idea of the gamakas also used, are superior to those of other writers in completeness and exhaustiveness. Most of the ragas defined by him have for nyāsa sa; some have for nyāsa ga, ri, dha, etc., some have sa for all the three laksanas usually given. He says that in every raga are found the graha which is found at the commencement of the song, the amsa which is copiously used and the nyāsa or the final. He considers that therefore these laksanas alone are enough to define the raga. Compare with this the importance attached to every one of the 10 laksanas in a prior age. His treatment of vādis, etc., mūrchanā, tāna, varņa, and alankāras agrees in principle with that of Sarngadeva.

The same can be said of Pundarika Vitthala's treatment of mūrchanā, tāna, varna, alankāra, etc. The three lakṣaṇas graha, etc., are given for each rāga. He defines ālapti as adorned by varņa, alankāra, sthāyas and the variegated use of gamakas, etc. He says ālāpa is wellknown as manifesting graha, nyāsa,mandra, apanyāsa, tāra audava, ṣāḍava, pūrṇa, madhya and amsa (10 lakṣaṇas). Rāgālapana is the clear exhibition of the forms of both of them (viz., alapti and alapa). It is of two kinds according to raga and nibaddha. That which is independent of vastu is rāgālapti. This is explained according to the 'sages' (and agrees with Sarngadeva's account). Rāgālapti is endowed with the four svasthānakas. If the vidārīs are separated distinctly the ālāpa is called thāya. Nibaddhakālapti is endowed with the tāla and rāga of the vastu. It is divided into pratigrahanikā and prabhañjanikā (defined according to the Ratnākara). The räga's samsthāpana or establishment is to be done by charming and very brilliant sthayas, subtle and varied svaras, and pervasive with the power of the lifenotes or amśasvaras:

Govinda Diksita marks an epoch. He takes us forward and gives a turn to the theory of the alapa which has profoundly influenced the foundation of the art and we feel his influence at the present day. He has given in the Sangīta Sudhā a masterly exposition of 'the limbs' of the rāga (rāgāngas), viz: āksiptikā, rāgāvardhanī, vidāri, sthāyī, vartanī and muktāyi. These limbs can be described as an elaboration and expansion of the alapti of the Ratnākara in terms of the musical practice of his time. Dīkṣita has built on the theoretical structure of the old authors. He deals with tānas, alankāras, varnas, etc., all on the lines of the Ratnakara. This reveals that the system of the Ratnākara was not a dead-letter at this time because its principles were still active. In fact, Govinda Diksita even goes to the extent of an exhaustive treatment of jātis and other rāgas pertaining to the 'grāma' group. He mentions the 13 characteristics of the raga and deals elaborately with them.1 In his definition of the ragas he devotes great attention to the employment of these lakṣaṇas. For instance, the nyāsa, graha, and amsa notes, the vadi and samvadi, the derivation of the sadava by the mention of the lopya svara and similar details are clearly given in the definition of the laksana of the ragas dealt with by him. Besides these, the treatment of the 6 angas

^{1.} Govinda Dikṣita says that the jātis defined by him and the rāgas derived from them possess the following 13 Laksanas:-Graha, amśa, tāra. mandra, nyāsa, apanyāsa, sanyāsa, vinyāsa, bahutva, alpatā, antaramārga, sādava and audava.

He defines alapa thus: ब्रहृशियोस्तारकमन्द्रयोश्च न्यासस्य चापन्यसनस्वरस्य । तथा स्वराल्पत्वबद्धुत्वयोश्च संपूर्णभानौद्धवषाडवानाम् ॥ यत्रास्य सर्वं परिदृश्यतेऽभिन्यक्तिः स आलापपदासिधेयः ।

of the raga, which figure prominently even to-day, is remarkable. The use of dialectical names in describing the rāgas for example, yadupu, muktāyi, etc., is significant. His definitions of the sancara of ragas are remarkable for their completeness and precision; he explains every detail in the singing of each raga.

His exposition of the limbs of the ragas is unique as already observed. According to him each raga has 6 limbs. They are:-

- (1) Aksiptikā.—In defining this he says that the raga is first thrown up (i.e., revealed) by this anga or limb and is hence called 'Aksiptika'. He adds that this is proper. This anga is popularly known as āyitta.
- (2) Rāgavardhanī.—The rāga which has become manifest in the aksiptika is developed (literally increased). It is popularly called yadupu. Some call this by the name Karana.
- (3) Vidārī has the function of dividing 2 rāgavardhanis. The 2 vidārīs are known by the names yadupu and muktāvi.
- (4) Sthāyī.—This is the establishment of the tāna groups on the note which is first taken up.
- (5) Vartani.—The collection of the tanas of different notes abide in this. This is also called the makarini according to laksya.
- (6) Muktāyi.—The rāga is brought to a close in this anga. This is well-known as Muktāyi.1

आक्षिप्यते स प्रथमं हि रागैराक्षिप्तिका नाम तदस्य यक्तम् । सैवोदितायित्तपदेन छोकैराक्षितिकेयं तदिहादिमाङ्गम् ॥

ागवर्धनी-

आक्षिप्तिकायां स्फूटतां गतस्य रागस्य वृद्धिः क्रियतेऽनयेति ॥ सा रागवर्थन्यदिता दितीयमङ्गं च लाका यद्धपाख्यमादुः॥ तद्रागवर्धन्यधुनाभिधानमङ्गेत केचित कर्ण वदन्ति॥

आक्षिप्तिकादीनि निरूपयामी रागाङ्गभृतानि निरुक्तिपूर्वभ्। आक्षिप्तिका-

Govinda gives the definitions of 50 ragas with reference to these angas. He defends the use of the dialectical terms like Muktāyi, etc., since they are synonymous with the standard terms of theory. It is very instructive to follow his definition of ragas, and to give an indication of his treatment, his description of Natta is explained here. The Āksiptikā for this rāga begins in tāra sa, descends to madhya ri, from there regularly ascends to tara sa by the use of the desired number of tanas, and closes on tāra sa. The Rāgavardhanī begins on the madhya pa, ascends to tara pa, comes down to ma, uses tanas, and ends on madhya sa. The vidārī goes up from the madhya ma to tara ri, descends to madhya ri, and after the rendering of tānas ends on sa. This is otherwise called muktāyi, and resides within the Ragavardhani. The second Ragavardhanī ascends to the tāra ma, goes up to the tāra ni, comes down to the madhya sa, and after the singing of various tānas ends on madhya sa. The vidārī of this rises from the madhya ma to tāra ga, comes down to madhya ri, and again using tānas ends on tāra sa. The ṣadja sthāyī begins on tāra sa, goes up to tāra ni, and after the singing of 10 tānas severally on ṣadja, ṛṣabha, madhyama, pañand nisada, by including every previous note and excluding every higher note, and by arohana on tāra sa. The pañcaand avarohana, ends

विदारी

सा रागवर्धन्यभिधाङ्गयुग्मविभाजकोपाधिरसौ विदारी। युद्धप्पमत्तायि गिरा विदायौँ भाषानुरोधन भणन्ति लोकाः ॥

स्थायी-आदौ गृहीतस्वर एव तानगणे स्थितिः स्थायिपदामिषानम् । तच्छास्त्रलोकव्यवहाररीत्या लभेत रागस्य चतुर्थमञ्जम् ॥

वर्तनी-

नानास्वराणामिह तानवगो यहतते तेन तु वर्तनीयम्। एषैव छोके मकरिण्यभिख्यामाभोति लक्ष्मप्रवणप्रयोग ॥

यन्न्यस्यते राग इहैव रागन्यासाह्यं तेन तु षष्ठमङ्गम् । अस्यापि लक्ष्येद जनाः प्रयोगे मुक्तायिसशां मुद्दुराद्रियन्ते ॥ - masthāyī (beginning on madhya pa), madhyamasthāyī. rsabhasthāyī, and madhyamasadjasthāyī (in all of which 12 groups of tanas are mentioned) are described according to similar principles. Each sthayi begins and ends on the note after which it is named. The vartani begins on the madhya sa, goes up to tāra ni, comes down from sa. and after the gradual singing of tanas ends on madhya sa. This is otherwise called makarini. The nyāsa starts on the tāra ri, descends to madhya ri, goes up to tāra sa, and using tānas gradually ends on tāra sa. So also in every other raga we find all these limbs treated. More than one 'Sthāyī' is usually given; in many cases they are 3 in number, in some 4. For Mukhāri 5 sthävīs are given.

In the light of existing data, this is the first book on the present system of Karnātic music to be written in Tanjore, which entered now into a new age of renaissance and flourished as one of the most important centres of Indian culture for some generations. In music as in other arts. Tanjore took the lead and close on the heels of this book followed Venkatamakhin's work, which further helped to decide the nature of Karnatic music as it exists to-day. Thus in respect of both the theory and practice of music, Tanjore henceforward exerted a predominant influence. In view of the kinship of the literature, Venkatamakhin and Tulajā will be discussed in succession and then other writers.

As regards vādī, etc., varna, alankāra, mūrchanā, etc., Venkatamakhin accepts the principles already established. He admits 10 laksanas for ragas, according to Matanga and others, vis., graha, amśa, mandra, tāra, nyāsa, apanyāsa, sanyāsa, vinyāsa, bahutva, and alpatā. He defines all of them in accordance with the traditional definitions. It is interesting to note his definition of nyāsa, etc. Nyāsa is the final of the music, it brings the rāga to its final close. Apanyāsa marks the intermediate closes of the raga. Sanyasa is the final of the first division

of the song. Vinyāsa rests on the edge of the limbs of the rāga like the gīta-khaṇḍa or a section of music in a whole piece. He quotes Bharata as saying that in elaboration the sanyāsa and vinyāsa are inherent in the apanyāsa note. So they are not defined in giving the rāgalakṣaṇa; and the apanyāsa also is not defined, probably because the author intends it to be used in the light of lakṣya.

Venkatamakhin devotes one prakarana for discussing alapa, which he popularises in the form expounded by his illustrious father. He says that the aksiptika is always at the commencement of the alapas. It is otherwise called Ayittam. His explanation agrees with his father's that the aksiptika casts up and manifests the rāga. After this the Rāgavardhanī is rendered, otherwise called yadupu. This rears the raga which has emanated from the aksiptika, and hence so-called. It is also known as karana. Then the vidārī known as muktāyī is sung. Because it divides the first and second Ragavardhanis it is called the vidārī; it is to be understood in this sense in its subsequent applications. Then is to be sung the second Rāgavardhanī. It is popularly called the second yadupu. Its vidarī is the second vidārī. Then the third rāgavardhanī and the third vidārī are rendered; this may or may not be sung in some contexts. Then is sung the sthavi. The sthavi means that note on which the tana is established. First the madhya-sadja-sthāyī, beginning on madhya sa and going up regularly to tāra sa, is sung. In the sampūrna rāga these form 8 notes, in the sādava 7. in the audava 6, and on each of these notes 2 tanas are to be sung. When a pair of tanas is sung on a note, the notes above it are not taken, but only the notes below it. down to the mandra in ascending and descending order. The vinyāsa or close should be on madhya sa. In avaroha or descent, the same rules hold. Two tanas are to be sung in tāra sa, and two in tāra ni; pa and ma are not to be touched; when pairs of tanas are being sung on ga, ri and

madhya sa separately, the lower notes are not to be touched. Accordingly in ascent too the lower notes are not to be taken. In aroha the foregoing notes are not to be included; in aroha and avaroha two tanas are to be sung to each note. In the first tana their exit should not be made, but only the touching of the note. In the note of the second sthana, a momentary pause should be made and then the tana is to be finished. These are the rules for the madhya-ṣadja-sthāyī. In the same manner those notes among the svaras from madhya ni to mandra sa which are acceptable should be made sthayis; then by way of ascent 8 notes with reference to each of the sthavi notes are to be taken, and their foregoing notes are to be touched. Similarly in the mandra notes, 4 tanas each in ascent and descent should be rendered and the nyāsa made on the sthāyī notes. This is said by Venkaṭamakhin to be the traditional practice. After finishing the sthayis they are to be supplemented by the vardhanī. This is popularly known as 'makarini'. This commences on the mandra sa and the nyāsa also is in the same note. Then the fourth Rāgavardhanī and its accompanying vidārī are to be sung. This is the ālāpalakṣaṇa common to all rāgas. Venkaṭamakhin adds that this definition of alapa was made by him in the 50 raga-ālāpas given or rendered by Tānappa. It may be added that though the details of this elaborate rāga-ālāpa-laksana is not widely known among the practical exponents of the art, the influence of tradition and practice has been strong enough to preserve on the whole the main features of the above defined laksana.

Venkatamakhin supplements his definition of ālāpa in the thayaprakarana of his work. According to him, in thavas any note of a raga can be chosen as the sthavi as is suited to the rāga, and four tānas are to be sung in āroha on four notes ahead of the sthavi, according to the requirement of the raga. Similarly four tanas are to be sung in avaroha. The nyāsa is to be on mandrasadja; the yadupu of the thaya or makarini and muktayika are mentioned. After giving this lakṣaṇa common to all thayas, Venkaṭa-makhin alludes to the thayas composed by Tānnappā-cāryaśekhara described as 'परमो गुरुरसाकम्' for all rāgas in accordance with this definition.

The most important treatise written in Tanjore after Venkatamakhin was the Sangīta Sārāmṛta by Tulajā Mahārāja. He follows Venkatamakhin in every respect. He defines the 10 laksanas of ragas in the same manner as Venkatamakhin. His verses on the nyāsa, apanyāsa, etc., are identical with those of the Caturdandiprakāśikā. He can be said to have propagated and popularised the system of Govinda Dīksita and Venkatamakhin. He gives the sañcara of each raga in elaborate detail, and the description affords very interesting and instructive reading. His method is as follows. He gives the graha, amsa, and nyāsa (which are sa in many rāgas); he says whether the rāga is sampūrņa, sādava or audava, whether it is vakra or otherwise, and whether it is upānga, rāgānga, etc. He supports his definition by quoting prayogas from thāya, gīta, sūļadi, the udgraha and muktāyī, (of compositions), etc. He quotes the names of the sthavis used in thaya. He mentions, in some cases, the exclusion of ṣāḍava and audava tānas, also the langhana of a note wherever it occurs, and the groupings of notes which are copiously used and characteristic. His name for sañcāri is svaragati. He explains the mela from which each raga is derived. He is most thorough in his method of explaining ragalapa. It can be said without exaggeration that Govinda Dīkṣita, Venkaṭamakhin and Tulajā can be regarded as the three pillars which support the structure of modern Karnātic music in its theoretical and practical aspects.

Govinda, the author of the Samgīta Śāstra Samksepa which explains the rāgas current at present with surprising faithfulness, can be assigned to the first half of the 19th

century, because his information shows no trace of the influence of the Trinity mentioned above, at least as regards the details in the nomenclature of ragas and it is reasonable to believe that he attempted to embody in his work the names and lakṣāṇas of rāgas which had somehow lost their connection with the rules laid down by the school of Venkatamakhin, but which had become widely accepted and popular. The argument that Govinda's system was older than Venkatamakhin's does not seem to be right, because Govinda Diksita, Venkatamakhin and Tuļajā were not expressing in their works their private views but they tried to describe the art as it prevailed in the courts that they adorned. They can without contradiction be taken as authorities representing the art of their times. When they set themselves to the task of writing a text-book it was with a view to treat the system as a whole and as a reality, and hence they would not have omitted to refer to Govinda's system if it was a rival school. Govinda in fact takes notice of other views than So there is clear historical evidence to show that Govinda must have written his book sometime in the beginning of the 19th century, and he remains an authority at present who cannot be ignored because the views advanced in his book have influenced the practice of Karnātic music for nearly a century and more and still retain their influence. Govinda is to be understood as accepting the 10 laksanas of the raga, and for his ragas he mentions, only the graha, amsa and nyāsa (which as usual are represented in most cases by sa), both in the defining ślokas and gītas.

Some other authorities may now be discussed. In the fragmentary rescension of the Natyacudamani by Somanārya, a writer later than Somanātha in date, the graha, mūrchanā, āroha, avaroha, sañcāra in the 3 octaves, āyuta, pratyāyuta, edupu, dalu, thāya, udgraha, muktāyi, and kampita are all mentioned in this confused order in

connection with ragalapa. The author says that the singer should know vādī, samvādī, etc. He defines mūrchanā, alankāras, etc., and also sthāya. The text is not accurate throughout and the interpretation follows it. Kriyā is the ascent and descent of 7 svaras. As the tāra śrutis are sharp they should be omitted. The commencing mandra svaras are sthaya. The singing of 2 notes in the tāra is svara. Āhata, āyata, pratyāhata and anāhata are not clearly defined. Kampita is said to mean the quick sañcāra of notes in 3 registers. Edupu is at the sthāna where the notes are prolonged. The sweet pervasiveness of notes is mukta. The 10 excellences of song given in the Nāradaśiksā are mentioned and attributed Śārngadeva.

Ahobala deals with mūrchanās (which he classifies as of 7 notes, ṣāḍava and auḍava), varṇas and alaṅkāras and the 5 gītis. He defines 'rāga' as a pleasing combination of notes. In the definition of rāgas he mentions graha, amśa, and nyāsa, the lopya notes, the particular kinds of gamakas and mūrchanās used, and the śrutis of the notes used.

Basavappa in his Sivatattvaratnākara gives an account of alankāras. He defines the rāga as the peculiar structure of tones, adorned by svaras and varnas, and delightful to the hearers. He mentions the jātis. In describing the lakṣana of rāgas, he gives their graha, amśa, nyāsa, mūrchanā, the notes omitted and accidentals which are included.

In the Sangīta Sarani the anibaddha form of music is called alapti which is in its form alapana. Alapana reveals the raga without tala, through humkara and tena, etc. The author quotes Harinayaka as saying that alapti is sung by one who knows gamakas and the octaves, etc., with varnas and alankaras and is given variegated treatment. Alapti is of 2 kinds according to raga and rūpaka. Nibaddha is sung to Dhātus and angas. It is of 3 kinds,

vis., suddha, chāyālaga and kṣudra. The first consists of ālāpa, dhātu and angas; this is called prabandha. Because the suddha is nibaddha, what distinguishes it is ālāpa. By the alapa is meant the presentation of the whole (raga) with tala and words with meaning. According to the author the vādī note is copiously used, and makes the rāga prominent: 'it determines that a certain raga is such and such'.1 'The samvādī is equal to the pañcama or the madhyama of the vādī. G and N are vivādīs of R and D. The remaining notes are anuvadis. Notes are of 3 kinds according as they are graha, ainsa, or nyāsa. Again they are of 3 kinds according as they are graha, amsa or anamsa. Graha is at the beginning of the song. Amsa and nyāsa are defined as usual. Mūrchanā is defined as emanating from the grāma, and it is called 'mūrchanā' wherein the effective application of the note establishes the rāga.2 The mūrchanās of all the 3 grāmas are given. Tānas develop the mūrchanās. Thus everything is said to be contained in the murchanas. The ragas are said to delight the mind in the 3 worlds.

The Sangita Kaumudi which belongs to this group repeats that the 'anibaddha gīta is the same as the ālāpas'. · In the Kavi Cintāmani it is repeated that in a mūrchanā, svaras by being intensified ('murchita', i.e., applied effectively) enter into the state of a raga.8 Tanas are said to be the same as murchanas distinguished by being suddha and applied in ascent. The definition of the Sangīta Sarani that a raga is that which delights the minds of the dwellers in the three worlds is repeated. In the Sangīta Nārāyana, which is one of the most important books of

वादी स गीयते प्रचुरो यः प्रयोगेषु वक्ति रागादिनिश्चयः । बहुधा प्रयुक्तोऽसुकरागोऽयमिति विश्वयं करोति । संगीतसराण:

स्वरः संमुख्ति। यत्र रागतां प्रतिपद्यते । मूर्छनामिति तामाद्यः कवयो ग्रामसंभवाम् ॥

^{3.} यत्र स्वरो मूछित एव रागतां प्राप्तः तामाह मुनिश्च मूर्छनां

this group, the definitions of the vādī, etc., mūrchanās, tānas, graha, amśa and nyāsa are repeated. The definition of the rāga given above is attributed to Bharata and others. The graha, amśa, nyāsa, mandra, etc., for rāgas are given.

Taking the group of North Indian writers (circ. 17th. century), we find that Locana mentions nibaddha and anibaddha (and calls the former ālāpa; the text is not clear here). Śrīnivāsa Pandita mentions the mūrchanās for rāgas, also variya notes, udgraha, sthāyi, sañcari, amsa and nyāsa, etc., for his rāgas. Hrdayanārāyana in his Hrdayaprakāśa says that nyāsa brings to rest the rāga or tāna, and is pleasing note. Tanas are pleasing notes which are 2, 3 or 4 in number. Five or more notes make a rāga. When nyāsa and amśa are not defined, sadja stands for them. The charming effect of notes in ascent and descent is called mürchanā. Among modern writers Kāśinātha defines samvādīs and vādīs in their accepted sense. Vivādī is varjya, to be omitted, and spoils the beauty of the rāga. In some rāgas, the vivādīs are also touched slightly, and this the author says is not objectionable from the Deśi point of view. According to him the ālāpa is the manifestation of graha, amśa, mandra, tāra, nyāsa, apanyāsa, alpatva, bahutva, ṣāḍava, and auḍava. It is of 2 kinds, vis., rāga and rūpaka. In these respects Visnusarma agrees with him.

Modern theorists of South India base their treatment essentially on the system propounded by the Trinity headed by Govinda Dīkṣita. Mr. K. V. Srinivasa Aiyangar in his Gāna Bhāskara deals with the subject exhaustively. According to him some works define ālapti to be a brief treatment of the rāga, and ālāpa as elaborate treatment. He mentions Venkaṭamakhin's ākṣiptikā, the four Rāgavardhanīs and vidārīs. In all this he follows the method

^{1.} रत्यारोहानरोहश्च स्वराणां मूर्छना स्मृता

of Venkatamakhin. In addition he gives the duration of of the first Rāgavardhanī as 20 minutes, of the second Rāgavardhanī as 10 minutes, of the third Rāgavardhanī as 5 minutes, of the fourth as $2\frac{1}{2}$ minutes. The idea, a contribution by the author, is obviously that the time allowed for each of the items should be gradually diminished, and the treatment intensified in proportion. The author also mentions that there is another method called sthāyī-sañcāra. This is of 2 kinds, viz., ārohana sthāyī and avarohana sthāyī. The former proceeds from madhya sa to mandra sa and back to madhya ri. Thus every one of the 7, notes of the madhyasthayi should be made a 'sthāyī' note and sañcāra based on it similarly. If similar development is rendered in avarohana order, it is called avaroha sañcārī. We saw that the principles of these sthayis were discussed by Govinda Diksita. The author adds that Bharata propounded a kind of makarinī called-ālāpa, which, according to him, is akin to a variety of the second and third Ragavardhani.

The views of some prominent Western writers may be noticed here. Captain Day says that 'raga' is best explained as a 'melody-type' since it is a melodic extension of certain notes of a particular scale or mode (that) according to certain fixed rules called the murchana. His definition of the murchana of the raga as the style and the time of the raga giving the relative values of the different notes, the accentuation and any peculiarity of expression or tempo is not quite according to the text. His definition of the alapa and madhyamakala, is very elaborate, and true to practice.

The term "murchana" has now been extended in connotation by popular usage and is taken as representing the entire "personality of the raga". This is explained by Mr. Popley thus:-"All the characteristics of the raga are embodied in its murchana or 'that' which are the names now given in the South and North respectively to

the rāga basis expressed in the notes. The amsa and also the peculiar sequences and grace notes of the rāga are shown in this, which includes both ascent and descent. It includes all the essential facts about the Rāga". It will be seen that this modern acceptance of the significance of term is not contrary to that of its definition by Matanga and especially by Kohala. It will be remembered that in the 'grāma' music by 'mūrchanā' was understood a grouping of notes employed to bring out an aspect of a 'melodytype', but it was not taken as expressing all the features of the rāga as now.

What does the term 'Rāga' connote? The personality of sound created by the progression of musical notes according to some accepted laws of melody is known by the name 'rāga'. These laws which govern the progression of svaras are the product of a long process of evolution, and they form together the technique of the ālāpa. The rules of ālāpa have varied from era to era in one or more aspects of their application, but their aim has always been to establish the individuality of each rāga and keep it distinct from that of other rāgas. Matanga's description of the 'rāga', quoted by Kallinātha is as follows:—

योऽसौ च्वनिविशेषस्तु स्वरवर्णविभूषितः । रक्कको जनचित्तानां स रागः कथितो बुधैः ॥

This definition is acceptable even now. According to current theory, the rāga usually consists of five, six, seven or more notes of the octave, with or without accidentals, in either the ascending or descending order or both, in regular or irregular sequence ranging from the keynote to its octave. The order of this sequence is a most essential feature, subject to which the svaras of the rāga are strung together in innumerable combinations. These combinations must always be such as to bring out the melodic idea which constitutes the rāga: this is

achieved by the repeated emphasis on one or more notes, or one or more phrases which always keeps the spirit of the raga before the mind's eye. Exceptional sancara, the demarcation of octave-limits and other features are determined by their power to preserve and develop the individuality of the raga. The notes of the raga cohere in the interpretation of its personality by means of the device known as the gamaka. The gamaka assumes an infinite variety of form in its function of expressing the various śrutis revealed by each note as it occurs in the scheme of the melody of the raga.

A general estimate of the development of the technique of the raga may be made here. In the Ratnakara we find it developed in a very advanced form as is demonstrated by the use of varnas, alankāras, mūrchanās and a complex variety of gamakas and the variations of tempo. In the alankāras used, we find an abrupt mixture of mandra and tara sthavis. This is suited for instrumental music, and would be easy for vocal music if it is in slow speed. The alankaras offer a rich variety of svaracombinations. Some of them are striking in their possibilities of depicting various rasas. Some of them are appropriately named after their motion, e.g., urmi or wave has a wavelike movement. Mürchanās and tānas supplied the warp of the music in the shape of innumerable patterns of svara groupings. The emphasis laid on the vādī-samvādī relationship is noteworthy. The fixing of the tara and mandra limits is again notable in contrast with modern practice, which takes more freedom in range, though in some exceptional cases like Punnāgavarālī, Kurañjī, etc., the limits are final. The other laksanas were also important in the singing of the raga. But these gradually came to be regarded as subordinate, and only the graha, amsa and nyāsa are mentioned from the time of Rāmāmātya. The point that all these are 'sa' in many cases probably indicates that their significance had rather

waned. At the present day the nyāsa is in almost all cases the sadja, and the amsa is not defined by artists as one note. There are musicians who assign more than one amsa to some ragas. But this seems to point to the significance assumed by what are called 'murchanas' which consist of prayogas which stand in the same relationship to the raga as 'amsa'. Now whole phrases take the role of the single note occurring as amsa, though often it is found that one note helps to bring out the features of the raga more emphatically than any other. Though instrumental music has been responsible in bringing about changes in the practical laksanas, vocal music has been also actively influencing the 'Raga'. Down to Venkatamakhin's days we find free use made of the three octaves in gitas and songs, which is only possible of production now-a-days on instruments; but now the range of music is confined, in compositions and the singing of ragas, to two and a half octaves at the most, i.e., the mandra, the madhya, and the tara octaves, the last up to the pañcama. On instruments the tara octave is also freely used. The inclusion of foreign scales, many of which resort to accidental notes, had been going on throughout the course of the history of Karnātic music. The tendency of masters like Tyāgarāja has been to appropriate Deśī melodies and even Western airs to the system of Karnātic music if they felt that this would enrich the art., e.g., Tyāgarāja's songs in Hamīr Kalyānī and Yaman Kalyānī, Pratāpavarāļi, Suposaņi, etc., and Dīksitar's songs in Hindola and Hamīr Kalyānī, etc. To-day the magnificent structure of Karnātic music rests upon a foundation which is built on an elaborate system of principles evolved during centuries of the development of melodic music. And the Raga system of South India has a place among the noblest contributions ever made by human genius to the world's culture.

CHAPTER V.

Gamakas and the Embellishment of Song.

The idea of grace is inherent in all music. Grace or gamaka, through the refinement of sound, adorns song. It makes all the difference between a plain and a pleasant note, and by endowing a note with beauty makes it eloquent in music. Melodic music, consisting of a succession of notes as it does, has to make its appeal through the ornamentation of these single notes, and therefore has to subsist almost entirely on the use of grace. Even harmonic music employs grace wherever necessary. Gamaka has been defined by Sarngadeva and others as the ornamentation of a note by shaking it. But evidence from their works can be cited to show that the idea of gamaka is more extensive than the connotation of this definition; it has been used to convey the idea of beautifying a note not only by the shake but by any other means which seem to be efficient or adequate. For instance by the adjustment and control of the volume of a single note it can be made to assume different shades of colour, and these effects can be, and have been legitimately classed under the category of gamakas. This has a bearing on some methods of classification which have recently been propounded such as that mentioned by Mr. Fox-Strangways in "The Music of Hindoostan". He says that for practical purposes gamakas on stringed instruments can be classed under two categories, viz., the glide and the deflect. But, besides this being confined to instrumental music, this classification does not take into account, the grace effects which can be got out of a note, though the manipulation on the instrument is stationary and confined to the note, i.e., a gentle prolonged tremor in the svara, which cannot strictly be

classed under either the slide or the deflect. The classification of gamakas is much more complex in vocal music. This complexity in the nature of gamakas, as used in vocal and instrumental music, has been noticed and exhaustively treated in Sanskrit treatises on music. They offer an abundance of material on this subject as well as on others.

The employment of gamaka is as old as the Vedas. It was a dominant feature of the Samaveda; but in the other two Vedas, the Svarita ('sounded') was used, and it can reasonably be said to have fulfilled the function of gamaka in the secular music of later times. Mr. Fox-Strangways is inclined to believe that the Sanskrit language might have been a contributory cause in the evolution of gamakas, and traces the development of the deflect to the treatment of vowels when they coalesce in Sanskrit and that of the slide to the similar treatment of consonants. But it seems far-fetched to base the evolution of gamakas on the grammatical structure of the Sanskrit language. It should rather be related with the peculiarities of intonation in song and the requirements of melodic music. In the Samaveda, we find many musical phrases used which have a surprising similarity to some well-known varieties of modern gamakas. In the music of the Sāmaveda we find lay music being pressed into the service of religion without losing some of its distinct characteristics in the process. Disjunct motion is employed often, and in it, we can recognise the "Zārus" of the present day. Pratyutkrama, where a note moves forward to a higher note, with its eight varieties (vis., from the 6th note to the 5th, 5th to 4th, 4th to 3rd, 3rd to 2nd, 2nd to 1st, 5th to 3rd, 5th to 2nd, 3rd to 1st); Karsana, which is movement down the scale, occasionally applied to the fifth note meaning that it is drawn beyond the mandra with its five varieties (up to the 2nd, 3rd, 4th or 5th tone, the last being drawn from the 4th or 6th tone), Namana, Pranata,

Vinata, Vyutkrama, Samprasārana, Abhigīta, Udghāta, Nighāta, Vṛddhi, etc., show how many different devices partaking the nature of one or the other of the Gamakas which are well-known to us were used in the chant of the Sāmaveda. We find the Udghāta (the raising of a tone) and Nighāta (the sinking of a tone) which were employed in different kinds of transilient motion and Vrddhi (the stress on a note) are quite frequently resorted to, in musical practice in our own day. Apart from evidence of this kind in the chant of the Samaveda, we find in the various siksas, which deal with the laws governing the chanting of the Vedas, much material which has a close correspondence with the gamakas dealt with by Sarngadeva and others under the heading "Sthāyavāgas". For instance, Kṛṣṇavāmi Śrautin, in his famous edition of the Sāmaveda, quotes the "Śikṣā" as saying, that in the morning the Veda is to be chanted with the notes of the chest, in the manner of the growling of a tiger, in the noon with the notes of the throat similar to the notes of the bird Cakra, in the third service, with the notes of the head, i.e., the tara register. This register, whose tones resemble the notes of the peacock, the swan and the cuckoo, is to be used always. These directions evidently have a strong resemblance to the Sthayavagas, which were evolved later. The siksas give numerous references of this kind. The Yājñavalkya Siksā lays down rules regarding the nature of the tones to be produced while chanting various words of the Vedas. We note only the tone effects without reference to the context of the words in the following instances. The sound of the notes is to be like the roaring of a lion, or the thunderclap or the noise of the dundubhi heard from a deep lake. It is to be like the noise of a cloud in a gorge during the month Bhadrapada. Some words have to be pronounced in the manner of monkeys jumping from branch to branch in a tree. Some other words should be like the kissing of a child by its mother; others should resemble the blooming of plants on a

mountain's sides, some words should be pronounced like the panting of those that carry heavy loads or like the notes of an amorous cock or mare or woman. Others should resemble the still flight of kites which draw in their wings dazed in mid-air, or the carrying by a tigress of her cubs in her mouth without hurting them, or the gait of an intoxicated elephant. Words should be intoned in a sweet, clear, and distinct manner without being tortured and should be coloured as the japa flower which resembles the red ruby. In the Nārada Šikṣā 10 excellences of lay and religious music are defined which have a stronger resemblance to sthavavagas than the previous references from other Śikṣās. According to the Nārada Śikṣā, Rakta means the oneness of the notes of the flute and the Vīnā; this indicates according to the commentary, the sweetness got by the agreement of the music of the two instruments and of the singer. Pūrņa is the result of the fullness of Svaras and Srutis. Alankrta transfers what belongs to the throat to the chest and the head, i.e., adorns by change of register. Prasanna indicates clarity of music. Vyakta is akin to this. Vikṛṣṭa is the increase in the volume of the tone. Slaksna indicates the observance of the rules of vilamba, pluta, high, low, etc. Sama is akin to this. Sukumāra consists of the soft pronunciation of words, and the squeezing out of indistinct words. These good qualities of singing later multiply themselves into scores of vagas in musical treatises of a subsequent

Though the employment of gamaka in music is plain enough it is a long time before we come across the term gamaka in Sangīta literature. Bharata does not use the word gamaka in his Nāṭya Śāstra. He defines Pāṭhyaguṇas (the good qualities of dramatical speech) as consisting of 7 notes, 3 Sthānas, 4 Varṇas, 2 Kākus and 6 Alankāras. Of these kāku is a singnificant term and occurs under gamakas in later literature. Bharata says that out of the

period.

three registers in the voice and the vina, issues forth the svara or kāku. This is of 2 kinds, Sākānksa and Nirākānkṣa; Bharata gives the octaves in which these occur. Alankāra is of 6 kinds, viz., (1) Ucca, this is a note of the head in the Tāra Sthāyī, used in instruments, for accosting one at a distance, for representing wonder, etc. (2) Dîpti is in the region of the head, and is Tāratara. (3) Mandra is in the chest (4) Nīca belongs to the chest and is Mandratara (5) Hrsva is svarita in the throat (6) Vilambita is a Mandra note in the throat. The various emotions that these express are also given. Bharata also mentions the Käku which is Ucca and Dipta and when the kāku which is Mandra and other similar kākus are to be used in a drama. For instance, he says that Vilambita Kāku is to be used to depict humour, love, and pathos. These kākus have characteristics in common with Sthāyavāgas; it is noteworthy that the moods they express are enumerated in detail.

Bharata enumerates the four varnas and the alankāras which belong to them. These alankāras have a special importance besides their value as beautiful groupings of notes. It lies in their power to adorn notes or groupings of notes, just as these are adorned in gamakas or sthāyavāgas. There are many alankāras which would naturally fit into the scheme of sthayavagas without disturbing their character, and it seems that they fulfilled the function of these gamaka varieties in an age when these had not been elaborated as a separate category. A study of alankāras is very interesting from this point of view, and only a few examples are noticed here, just to bring out their similarity to sthayavagas. "Prenkholita" moves forward and returns. 'Mandra' is elaboration in the Mandra register. The Alankara produced by the obstruction of the air in the throat is called 'Kuhara', and so on. In the Sangita literature of the age of Bharata great importance is attached to the topic of alankaras,

which obviously played the part of gamakas in music. In the Vāyupurāṇa several alankāras are mentioned. Dattila treats varṇas and alankāras in his work. It is interesting to find him defining the 'Bindu' as an alankāra which stays long on a note, then leaps up to a tāra note like a flame and returns. According to him, when the notes of the chest, throat and the head are shaken by three śrutis, they are known as Kampita, Hārita and Recita respectively.

Among authors who came after Bharata, Nārada in his Sangīta Makaranda and Matanga in his Brhaddeśī mention gamakas though they do not enumerate any list of them or seek to define them. Along with the idea of gamaka, the expression 'gamaka' was perhaps being slowly evolved. Nārada in dealing with alankāras says that he will describe 19 gamakas but their definitions are missing in the existing recension of his treatise. Matanga freely uses the term gamakas in the definition of ragas and gītis. As in so many other respects, he is the writer who gives the most important information on this subject between the time of Bharata and Śārngadeva. According to him Rāgagīti consists of beautiful groupings of svaras adorned by gamakas which are lovely and graceful, of variegated colour, pure and bright, produced from the breast, and even. Here probably he is referring to the various kinds of gamakas that he knew. His description of Sädhāraņa gīta is even more interesting. It consists of smooth and subtle combinations of Kākus and Svaras well connected. Bhāṣāgīti consists of delicate combinations, coloured by Kākus, endowed with Mālavī Kāku which are shaken, tender and splendrous, and rich with beautiful Vibhāsā gīti, according to him, should make ample use of different gamakas which are pleasing to hear, smooth, illumined, shaken, produced in the breast, even, soft, emanating in the tara and atitara registers, and in the Madhya lit by the Madhyama. All these go to show that at the time when Matanga was writing the function and

significance of gamakas and kākus had become well understood, and these came to be freely used in music.

Nānyadeva, among the commentators of Bharata's Nātya Sāstra, mentions gamakas by the following names:-Sphurita, Kampita, Līna, Tiripa, Āndolita. Ahata and Tribhinna.1 The manuscript of the commentary being very faulty, a free rendering of his definitions is given here. Sphurita illumines every note. The Kampita shakes the note in all the three octaves. Līna indicates the relinquishing of a note and the joining of it to another. Tiripa is very quick in tempo and is applied to Samvādi notes. Andolita means the swinging of a steady note. Ahata beats all notes quickly again and again. Tribhinna, is difficult to render, is in quick time, the notes being illumined from the Mandra to the tara octave, and in that register is loudly sung. The most striking features of Nānyadeva's account of gamakas is that he gives their total number as seven, and that he has defined as well as enumerated them.

Abhinavagupta's commentary is incomplete, and we do not come across references to gamakas, but his remarks concerning alamkāras in this connection are valuable. According to him an alankāra makes one varna blaze forth, another passes through it like a thread, a third makes it blossom and a fourth dyes it in rich hues. Of course the great Alankarika, by these references, appraises their value as Vāgas.

According to Pārśvadeva, when a note produces the colour of śrutis other than those which are its own, it is known as a gamaka.2 He gives the number of gamakas as seven. Sphurita is equal to an anudruta in speed, and

^{1.} गमकानामतो वक्ष्ये नाम लक्षणसंयुक्तम् । स्फ़रितं करिपतं कीनं तिरिपाटिकतं (तिरिपान्दोक्तिम् १) तथा ॥ आइतं च त्रिभिन्नं च गमक्याम (१) सप्तथा। नात्यदेव:

स्वभतिस्थानसंभतां छायां शुखन्तराश्रयाम् । स्परो यहसपेदीतो गमकोऽसौ निरूपितः ॥

in it the śrutis shine in the ascending order. Kampita is the shaking of the notes, in a speed double that of a druta. When a note softly merges into another note, in druta speed, it is called Lina. Where the Srutis whirl in the form of an eddy, it is called Tiripa. Ahata proceeds in ascending order, beating the note that goes before it. When notes are swung in laghu speed it is called the Andolita. Tribhinna touches all the 3 octaves without pausing and assumes the characteristics of all these octaves. He says that gamakas are useful in bringing out the characteristic features of a raga.1

In the second adhikarana of his book, Pärśvadeva gives many laksanas which were found in the practice of his time and which were defined by Bhoja, Someśvara, etc., in the Bhāṇdīka bhāṣā. He treats sthāyas very exhaustively. Sthaya is according to him the state of notes when they are blended together with gamakas or any foreign rāga.2 He gives an important list of sthāyas, many of which become specially important because they bear vernacular names. Some of them are left without any definition. Vena is a sthaya where raga-elaboration is done by strange notes. Gati is a collection of notes which is sweet in music and seems to exist only by Srutis. Jāyi is established in the place of a similar note. Anujāyi exceeds the established order by a note. Ovara almost always is used in ascending order. Vali, like a group of waves raised by the wind, is a group of śrutis emanating from a good voice. Vahani consists of the shaking of śriitis in the octaves like Mandra, etc., and belongs to the chest, throat and the head. Vahani is of 2 kinds:-Avilapti and Sīta Sīta. It is again of 2 kinds Khutta, in which the notes seem to enter in and shine, and Utphullā in which notes shine by going up. The Valī is

-पश्चिदवः

रागव्यक्त्यनुकूला हि गमका रागेऽपि संचारिणः ।

^{2.} गुला गमकयोगन रागणान्यन केन वा। स्बरैर्वृत्तिः स्वरवृत्तिष्ठाय इत्याभिशीयते ॥

also to be similarly understood. In Dala (or Dhala) the śruti moves quickly like a round pearl on a ground of crystal. In Prasara (or pasara) the note is sweetly and softly extended to another note. In lalita-gadha the note softly reaches the tara sthana. Proccagadha proceeds gradually from a thick to a soft note. In Apakhalla the note moves in the mandra octave very sweetly. Nissārada goes very smoothly to the highest reach of the tara octave and falls down to the mandra. Langhita leans over another note and partakes the nature of ahata a little. Svaralanghita is the same, but leaps over an interval of 2 or 3 notes. Durvāsa is difficult to produce and consists of the joining of tara and mandra. In Petthi (patho, pettho) a phrase which has been already used makes its appearance again. Phelli (phella-lo) proceeds in ascending order, and in it a note pushes against its neighbour with force. In Modamodi the notes are lifted and divided up in descending order. Gumphāgumphi is made up like a garland with seven different prayogas used continuously and together. In practice this is known as Gunthagunthi. In Khacara the note proceeds into the tāra register with force. When a thāya is mixed charmingly with gamakas it is known as Ganacethaya. Tarahara the thaya consists of notes which are shaken by a quick āhati or beat. In Tattavaņa a very delicate ālapti is superimposed on the gīta in the thāya. In Savidārī the alapti which is prominent by its rhythm, consists of separated notes and is without support. In Bhramaralīlaka the note is very sweet and goes from the tāra to the mandra octave and again upward. Kālasacethāya remains in the raga already begun and is sweet. Citta cethaya signifies the rendering of the thaya in a penetrating manner according to the state of the listener's mind. When the thaya is endowed with Kanuna Kaku, pathos and the qualities of raga, or when it is contrary to the mind of the listener it is known as Karunā thāya. In Gītācethāya, the thāya is rendered by ālapti. Jodiyacethāya

redoubles again the excellence of a prayoga and is difficult to render. Śārīrācethāya produces a brilliance in the voice sportively. When the notes reaching the tarasthana end with sweet sound it is known as Sādācethāya. (In all these definitions the word thava seems to be used as a corrupt form of "Sthāya"). Kartarī means the loud and rapid sounding of the wire with four fingers of each hand separately. In Ardhakartarī the right hand looks like scissors and the left hand renders Konahati. In Nakhakartarī the wire is struck by four fingers of the right hand. Kuruleya indicates the śrutis generated in the very quick and sweetplaying of Labuthakkuli. When the muddayam of the flute (known in laksya as Mutteyam), is produced vocally it is known as Mukulitam. These consist of a plethora of gamakas which are difficult to render. What in musical terminology is known as tara and mandra is popularly known as Uccanīca. When a note commencing with sphurita touches the tārasthāyī it is known as Ninukhāyi. When the Sthāna or octave is made clear it is lekakhāyikā. Nirata signifies the use in ālapti which is crooked and which is rendered by the control of breath. Nigīti forcibly re-establishes a developed thāya by a copious use of tānas. Vattuda consists of prayogas in the Mandra sthayi (the definition in the original is not clear). The same is called Parivadi when it reaches its end without a gap. Evasam (called Esruta in laksya) proceeds refreshingly. The thaya without baisiki is known as Uttundulam. Very rapid movement in music is known as Bahila. Adhikam captivates the listener by proceeding sportively and leisurely. Murakhuda (in laksya "Anmukha") is a thaya in which the music does not have its full complement of notes. When a rare oddavanā occurs in a rūpaka ālapti it is called Napāyi. Bharanam consists of the fulfilment of the raga in rūpaka or alapti; its contrary is known as Haranam. Sanagitā (dā?) indicates sweetness in music and nikaradā its opposite. Bhajavaņam means

the manifestation of the raga with a good voice. Nijavanam indicates the movement which is not hampered by breath. The rendering of Komala Svaras (or delicate notes) is called subhava. Holava pleases the mind by swinging the raga. When the charm of a raga and all its colour partakes the nature of Desī, it is called Rīti. The mixed colour resulting from the fusion of rāgas is known as Anukarana. Dharani is rich with the wealth of foreign śrutis from the tara octave (the definition in the original is not clear). The catching and releasing of of a note is called Dharimelli. Vivandhayi is the rich variety of notes. Mitthavi indicates the extreme sweetness of sound. The brilliance of a full blown note is called Gītajyoti. The throbbing of a note resembling hakāra is - Homphā. Kalā is sound diminished in volume. Chavi is of a tender colour. Kākus are of 6 kinds. Rāga Kāku brings out the native lustre of a raga. It is of great importance and is called Bhāṣā. Svara Kāku brings out the effect of individual notes. Desa Kāku introduces into a raga the complexion of a foreign raga. When the nature of another raga is found in a particular raga it is known as Anyarāgaja. It is also known as Uparāga Bhāṣā, and popularly as Thaya. When the genius of a singer is reflected in a raga it is known as Ksetra Kāku and Yantra Kāku is found in the Kinnarī, the flute and the Vīnā. When a smooth tender note is bent easily without effort it is known as Namana or Navani. When the limb of a rāga occurs in another rāga it is known as Amsa. This is of the following 7 kinds. The amsa of a janaka raga is Kāranāmsa. The amsa of a foreign rāga is Kāryāmśa. The amśa of secondary categories is Sajātīyāmśa. Sadrsamsa is similar in two different rāgas. Visadrsāmsā, as applied to different ragas, stands in the relation of vivādīs. Madhyastharāgāmsa is like the amsa called Desa. Amsamsa is the occurrence of a foreign amsa in a particular amsa, (It is to be noted that Pārsvadeva's

treatment of Kākus and amsas is similar to that of Sarngadeva. In fact the whole of the treatment of this subject by the two authors has close kinship). Ghatanā is like the creation of a craftsman-artist. Akramana catches a note and makes it dominate over other notes which are heard. The crookedness of a note resembling the zigzag pattern of a streak of lightning is called Vankāyi. Kalarava is the sweet emanation of notes. Devadhvani is like the chanting of vedas. Ahata is of 3 kinds, viz., upward, downward and transverse. Avatirnaka is the descent of music from Tara to Mandra like vocal music. Bokala indicates Sthavas small in form. - Sukarābhāsa seems easy to be rendered though really it is difficult. Ucita is that after which Khāca shines (the text is not clear). Buddāyi is the development of ālapti in both a relaxed and an intense manner. Baisiki is the grouping of the notes in the lower reaches of a raga in a suitable manner and is of 3 kinds, viz., without shaking, partially shaking and shaking completely. The definitions for the Sthāyas Handupāyi, Svasthāna, Avasthāna, Apasthāna, Kandharane, Ghanatva, Duskarābhāsa and Asādhārana are missing in the text.

Sārngadeva, the greatest theorist of the medieval age after Bharata, differentiates between four qualities of tone, vis., Khāhula which is born of Kapha, smooth, sweet and beautiful. When it is heard as a full and strong note in mandra and madhya it is called āḍilla. Nārāṭa is a deep note in all the 3 octaves, and is born of pitta. Sārngadeva says he had formulated Bombaka, which is sapless, hard, high in pitch, thick and produced by vāta. Their mixture produces the mixed varieties of which numerous examples are given by him. These distinctions in the quality of tone form an important feature of gamakas.

Sārngadeva defines the gamaka as the shaking of a note which pleases the mind of the hearer. Kallinātha in commenting on this definition says that this characteristic of sweetness will alone make the tremor of a note a gamaka. Sārngadeva enumerates and defines fifteen kinds of gamakas, vis:—

I. TIRIPA.

This is a beautiful gamaka resembling the tender quivering sound of the damaru. This is one-fourth of the druta in tempo.

II. SPHURITA.

This is one-third of the druta in tempo. Literally interpreted this would mean the throbbing of a note. Kallinatha has refrained from explaining the definitions of these gamakas which according to him are

1. The gamaka is defined as follows:—
स्वरस्य कम्पो गमकः श्रोत्चित्तसुखावहः ॥ —Särńgdeva.
श्रोतृचित्तसुखावह इलानेन विशिष्टस्यैव कम्पस्य गमकत्विमष्टम् । अन्यथा
विपरीतस्यापि तस्य गमकत्वे स्यात् ॥ —Kallinātha.

2. लघिष्ठडमरुध्वानकम्पानुकृतिसुन्दरः। द्रुततुर्याश्ववेगेन तिरिपः परिकीर्तितः ॥ वेगे दुततुरीयांशसंभिते स्फुरितो मतः । द्रतार्थमानवेगेन कम्पितं गमकं विदुः ॥ लीनस्त इतवेगेनान्दोलिती लघुवेगतः। विविविधनकत्वयुक्तवेगवशाद्भवेत् ॥ त्रिभिन्नस्तु त्रिषु स्थानेष्वविश्रान्तधनस्वरः । कुरळी विलेरेव स्याद्यन्थिलः कण्ट्यकोमलः ॥ स्वरमञ्जगमाहृत्य निवृत्तस्त्वाहृतो मतः । डल्लासितः स त प्रोक्तो यः खरानुत्तरोत्तरान् ॥ ऋमाद्गच्छेत् प्रावितस्तु प्लुतमानेन कम्पनम् । हृदयंगमहङ्कारगम्भीरी गुम्फिती भवेत् ॥ मुखमुद्रणसंमतो भुद्रितो गमको मतः। स्वराणां नमनादुक्तो नामितो ध्वनिवेदिभिः॥ पतेषां सिश्रणान्मिश्रस्तस्य स्युर्भरयो भिदाः । तासां (तेषां) तु स्थायवागेषु विवृतिः सविधास्यते ॥ -Prakirnakādhyāya; Sangita Ratnākara.

		plain enough to be clearly understood.
HII.	KAMPITA.	This is half of a druta in tempo. This means the shaking of a note, but except for the difference in speed Sārngadeva does not clearly explain how this gamaka differs from
		sphurita.
IV.	LINA.	This is executed in Druta speed.
V.	ANDOLITA.	The tempo of this is laghu.
VI.	VALI.	The tempo of this gamaka is irregular.
VII.	TRIBHINNA.	This indicates a thick note produced continuously in all the 3 sthanas.
VIII.	KURULA.	This is the same as Vali, but differentiated from it by being a soft knotty guttural sound.
IX.	AHATA.	This strikes the preceding notes and returns to its origin.
X.	ULLASITA.	This reaches the notes which are placed one over another in regular ascent.
XI	PLAVITA.	This is a shake which is a pluta in tempo.
XII.	GUMPHITA	The deep, restive and charming sound of the humkāra is indicated by this.
XIII.	MUDRITA.	is the gamaka produced by the closing of the mouth.
XIV.	NAMITA.	is so-called because it bends

down the notes which are com-

prised in it.

XV. MIŚRA.

is derived by mixing up all the foregoing varieties and its forms are numerous. Sārngadeva refers the reader to his treatment of sthāyavāgas for their definition.

Kallinātha in explaining the Miśra, points out that the combination of two, three or four, as the case may be, among the gamakas will make a Miśra, and not all of them taken together. Otherwise the latter would constitute just one category and not numerous varieties according to the definition. أفاثك أربط

Before examining the sthayavagas, an estimate of Särngadeva's contribution on the subject may be made. Sārngadeva leads all succeeding theorists in this respect as in others. Later writers look up to him as their authority on the subject. Considering the contribution of his predecessors. Sārngadeva might be said to have given authoritative and exhaustive expression to the quintessence of the theory and practice in this respect of his own days and of earlier times. But his definitions of gamakas are limited by the fact that they are rather descriptive than analytical. In describing gamakas, stress is laid on their duration. In fact this is the only characteristic which we are enabled to know with a fair amount of accuracy. But the actual use of the gamakas is not illustrated with the aid of svaras either in the text or the commentary. This neglect of the need and importance of employing notation to convey an exact idea of the graces resulted in the lack of completeness and precision in the definitions which are otherwise valuable and comprehensive. (A form of notation is employed in the Ratnākara to illustrate rāgas, etc., but is not used in the exposition of the gamakas). And Sarngadeva, unlike Somanatha, omits the explanation of how the graces are produced in instrumental music, i,e., on the Vīṇā and thus

fix their forms. So we are left with descriptive notes mostly explaining the different impressions created by the gamakas on the hearer's mind.

The stress laid on the duration of gamakas is a valuable contribution of the Ratnākara to the definition of this complex theme. The time values of the gamakas are definitely fixed and so far their nature is made definite.

In some cases the names of the gamakas are alone enough to explain their nature, e.g., Sphurita can be taken to indicate the throbbing of a single note, Kampita may mean a larger shake, and Andolita a free swinging of the note. A Vali, from definition, can mean a composite gamaka produced by different modes of the shake at different velocities. A Lina is the merging of a note into another. The Tribhinna consits of a leap extending as far as an octave up and down from a given note, in other words, an exaggerated Zāru. The Plāvita is a shake with duration equal to a pluta, the largest unit of time employed. The tempo of the Nāmita is not given but from the description we can infer that they resemble the Varika. (In this connection it may be noted that the definitions of the Gamakas given in the Ratnākara are merely repeated by the succeeding Sanskrit writers, but freely paraphrased and explained in terms of contemporary practice by recent authors who have expounded the subject in the vernacular languages. The latter will be noticed separately.)

The Kurula lays stress on the tonal quality of the gamaka, indicating the peculiar colour which the voice can impart by sounding gutturally. The definition does not throw further light but is sufficiently explanatory. To the same category belongs the Tiripa, the Gumphita (the name itself indicating the nature of the gamaka), and the Mudrita produced by closing the lips when singing.

The Miśra being a mixed variety is indefinite though real and frequently employed.

Taking into account all the gamakas dealt with, they can be placed in the following categories:-

- (1) Generally descriptive. Under this head can be placed the Sphurita, the Kampita, the Andolita, the Vali, the Lina and the Tribhinna.
- (2) Gamakas differentiated according to their tonal quality, vis:-
 - (a) Varieties which have reference only to vocal music, i.e., the Gumphita, the Mudrita and the Kurula.
 - (b) Those which have reference to instrumental music. Among the fifteen, there is no explicit reference to these varieties. These are dealt with separately.
- (3) Gamakas differentiated according to the order of the svaras they govern, e.g., Ahata, Ullāsita and Tribhinna.
- (4) The Miśra is a separate category by itself and is of infinite variety being made up of more than one of the several gamakas.
- JONNIO (5) Gamakas distinguished by the time of their duration. Śārngadeva gives the time value of only a few gamakas, e.g., Sphurita, Līna, etc.. Can all the gamakas be limited in respect of their duration? It would seem that not all of them can be formed by the hard and fast rule of time value, since at least a few gamakas would shape themselves according to the exigencies of song. Hence there is justification for a separate group of gamakas distinguished by the extent of their duration.

STHAYAVAGAS.—As has been observed already, Śārngadeva says that the various forms of the Miśra gamakas are made manifest in his exposition of Sthayavāgas. He defines Sthāya as a limb or part of the rāga, and Vāga as denoting gamakas.1 Kallinātha explains that vāgas are gamakas employed in the limb of a rāga which is called a sthaya; the limb or avayava of a raga. being a collection of some notes like the Amsa and others, resting or basing itself on any one among the Nyāsa, Apanyāsa, Sannyāsa or Vinyāsa notes. Gamaka is dialectically known as Vāga.

The Sthayas are 96 in number as enumerated by Särngadeva and are divided into the following four groups:--

- I. The ten well-known and distinct (असंक्षिणं अक्षणाः प्रसिद्धा दश स्थायाः) They are:-
 - (1) The Sthāyas of Sabda. (शब्दस्य) This indicates a cycle of Sthayas each commencing at the tone where its predecessor ended.
 - (2) Of Dhāla. (दाल्ल्य) This indicates throbbing movement like that of a pearl.
 - (3) Of Lavani. (लवन्याः) This consists of a very tender bending of a musical phrase.
 - (4) Of Vahani. (बहने:) The Vahani is either an ascending or descending or Sañcārī shake.

Among its subordinate varieties are two which differ with reference to their application to gīta or ālapti (which, as Kallinātha points out, mean nibaddha and anibaddha gīta respectively). Again it is of two kinds, vis., Sthirā and Vegādhyā. (स्थित, बेगाट्या) Also it originates in three ways, sweetly from the throat, from the head and from the body taking its rise in the heart. There is

^{1.} शास्यावयवः स्थायो वागी गमक उच्यते ॥

- another division of the Vahani into two varieties:—
- (a) Khuttā [खुत्ता (सुता?)] in which the notes seem to penetrate into this Sthaya.
- (b) Utphullā (বস্তুন্তা) in which the notes gush forth from it upward. Vali which was defined among gamakas has the same varieties as this Sthava.
- (5) Of Vādyaśabda. (बाद्यशब्दस्य) In this sthaya the raga is rich with the sounds of instrumental music.
- (6) Of Yantra. (यन्त्रस्य) This sthaya is mostly found only in the playing of Yantras (Instruments).
- (7) Of Chāyā. (छायाया:) Sārṅgadeva says that Chāyā is Kāku, which is explained by Kallinātha to be a modification of sound. The following kinds of Kāku are defined:-
- (a) Svarakāku. (स्वरकाकु) This is the effect of foreignness produced in a raga, owing to the excess or deficiency of śrutis. Explaining this passage Kallinatha shows DOMUJOS how the Svarakāku is got by deviating from the number of Srutis fixed for each note by giving the following illustration. When Sadja, (consisting of 4 Srutis) falls short by 2 Srutis it gives the impression of Nisada, and Niṣāda (composed of 2 Śrutis) appropriates 2 of the Srutis of Sadja and assumes 4 Snutis on the whole it is conceived as Sadja. Also in the case of other notes, the impression created by such tonal modification is known as Svara Kāku.

- (b) Rāga Kāku (যাৰাড্ৰ) expresses the native colour of a rāga.
 - (c) Anyarāga Kāku (সন্থান্যান্ত্ৰ) imports into a rāga the complexion of another rāga.
 - (d) Deśa Kāku (ইয়নামু) expresses provincial characteristics.
 - (e) Kṣetra Kāku. (ইন্মান্ত্ৰ) The body is known as Kṣetra and the varied and peculiar characteristics of each individual give rise to this Kāku expréssed in numerous forms in rāgas.
 - (f) Yantra Kāku (ব্নস্থান্ত) is produced on Yantras like the Viṇā, the flute, etc. Those Sthāyas are of Chāyā which acquire a foreign colour in the manifestation of a chāyā (complexion), not belonging to them.
- (8) Svaralanghita. (ন্যানভূষির) This consists of frequent leaps over many notes in the middle.
- (9) Prorita. (प्रेरित) In this Sthāya notes are pushed forth up and down as well as transversely.
- (10) Tīkṣṇa. (বীহ্ন) In this the notes of the tāra octave sound sharp with the strength of all their śrutis.
- II. The 33 well known and mixed Sthayas
 (त्रयस्त्रिशद्गुणकृतभेदाः प्रसिद्धाः स्थायाः)

Kallinātha explains that these differ from one another chiefly by the peculiarity of their attributes and that they are not intermingled for this reason.

CHAP.

- (1) Of Bhajana. (भजन्य) Bhajana is the bringing forth of all the excellences of a raga by special effort, and characterises this Sthaya.
- (2) Of Sthāpanā. (स्थापनायाः) The Sthāyas under this head are executed by being established at each step, i.e., after each movement they are fixed and subjected to elaborate treatment.
- (3) Of Gati. (गते:) The movement of the music of these sthayas is like the gait of an intoxicated elephant, sportive, resplendent and sleek with sweetness.
- (4) Of Nāda. (नादस्य) In these the tones are full and resounding.
- (5) Of Dhvani. (ध्वने:) Here the notes are sustained and considerably prolonged.
- (6) Of Chavi. (ভব:) These are bright with tender brilliance.
- (7) Of Rakti. (रक्तेः) These abound in sweetness and charm.
- (8) Of Dhṛta. (धृतस्य) These Sthāyas are literally borne or supported. Cf. the definition in the Saṅgīta Sudhā.
- (9) Of Bhrta. (भृतस्य) These are so named because the tones here are carried along.
- (10) Of Amsa. (अंशस्य) The Avayava of an alien rāga in a particular rāga is called amsa. This is of seven kinds. Kallinātha explains that when a group of notes forming a limb of a particular rāga is inserted for the sake of effect in another rāga, it is technically called amsa. This is not the same as the well-known note amsa. What is the difference between a Kāku and Amsa as defined

in a rāga? By Anyarāga Kāku is meant the chāyā of a rāga belonging to it but strongly resembling that of another raga. Amsa means that a phrase, though not belonging to a particular rāga, is borrowed from another rāga like jewellery and made to adorn the former. The 7 kinds of Amsa are:-

- (a) Kāranāmśa.
- (b) Kāryāmśa.
- (c) Sajātīyāmśa.
- (d) Sadrśāmśa.
- (f) Visadršāmša.
- (g) Madhyāmśa.
- (h) Amśāmśa. Cf. Pārśvadeva.
- Joratillorary.orgi (11) Of Avadhāna. (अवधानस्य) These can be perceived by the mind by its own action.
- (12) Of Apasthana. (अपस्थानस्य) When a full and rich note emerges at its place without effort, it is known as Svasthana. When it rises as a result of special labour, it is called apasthāna. The Sthāyas of apasthāna —, वा apasthāna.
 (13) & (14) Of Nikuti (निकृते:) and Karuṇā.

(करुणायाः)

These are named according to their etymological significance.

- (15) Of Vividhatva. (विविधानस्य) These consist of a series of phrases remarkable for variety and charm.
- (16) Of Gātra. (गात्रस्य) These subside within the body after having made a sharp sound.
- (17) Of Upaśama. (उपशमस्य) In these a tranquil effect is produced.

- (18) Of Kāṇḍāraṇā. (काण्डारणायाः) Śārṅgadeva says that these are well-known; the music of these sthayas is easy and fluent, sweet and tender, impassioned and is made gradually very thin. The final treatment is evidently what is known as pianissimo in Western music.
- (19) Nirjavanānvita Sthāyas. (निजंबनान्वित) These are at the commencement of the note.
- (20) Gādha. (गाउ) This is released in a dilatory manner.
- (21) Lalita Gāḍha. (ভতির্গার) This is the same as the above characterised by smoothness.
- (22) Lalita (ਲਹਿਰ) is sportive.
- (23) Lulita (ন্তুলির) is smooth and shaking.
- (24) Sama (सम) is without rapidity or slowness.
- (25) Komala (क्रोमल) is true to its sense, i.e., tender.
- (26) Prasrta (प्रसत) is stretched out or extended.
- (27) Snigdha (कि.स) is bereft of roughness.
- (28) Ukṣa (उक्ष) is luminous.
- (29) Ucita (ভৰিন) is self-explanatory, i.e., appropriate.
- (30) Sudeśika (मुदेशिक) is loved by scholars.
- (31) Apekṣita (अपेक्षित) is sought after for the completion of a previously rendered sthaya.
- (32) Ghosa (योष) is pleasing in a Vali, Vaha(?) and Vahani, and is very loud in the Mandra Sthäyi.
- (33) Svara Sthāyas (स्वर) are sonourous and sweet in the Mandra octave.
- III. The twenty distinct Sthāyas. (ईषत्यिसहा विंशतिसंकीर्णलक्षणाः ।) Kallinätha remarks that though these do not differ from the Sthāyas already explained in

distinctness it must be noted that this list is not so very well-known as the other. The Sthayas are:-

- (1) Of Vaha. (वहस्य) In these the notes shake as if they carry a load.
 - (2) Of Akṣarāḍambara. (अक्षराडम्बरस्य) In these a prominent display is made of syllables or letters.
- (3) Ullāsita. (মন্ত্রামির) In this the notes are sent up with speed.
- (4) Tarangita. (ব্যক্তির) The notes in this toss like the waves of the Ganges.
- (5) Pralambita. (মুল্টিবর) In this sthaya the music moves like the swinging about of water in a half-filled jar.
- (6) Avaskhalita. (अवस्वलित) stumbles downward from the Mandra with speed.
- (7) Trāṭita (সাহিব) pauses long at a svara, reaches the Tara octave like fire and returns. (Dattila's Alankāra Bindu is identical in definition.)
- (8) Sampravișța (संप्रविष्ट) denotes a loud note in avaroha, similar to the above.
- (9) Utpravista (ত্তমেৰিষ্ট) is the same as the above
- (10), (11) & (12) Nissāraņa (निःसारण) out; Bhrāmita (भागिन) out; Bhrāmita (भ्रामित) is swung round or revolved; Dīrgha Kampita (दीर्घकिंग्पत) is a prolonged shake.
 - (13) Pratigrāhyollāsita (प्रतिग्राह्मोल्लासित) is beautiful like the ball which in the game is thrown up again and again and caught.
 - (14) Ālambavilambaka (आलम्बविलम्बक) is quick in the beginning and ends in vilamba (slow) style.

- (15) Troțitapratișța. (त्रोटितप्रतीष्ट) Taking "Tāra" and "Mandra" this sthāya first tears either of the two as with a bill or beak and then seizes the other.
 - This (16) Prasṛtākuñcita. (प्रस्ताकुञ्चित) sthaya extends and contracts its form.
 - (17) Sthira (हियर) is the shake applied to the Sthāyivarņa.
 - (18) Sthāyuka. (स्थायुक) The disposition of this sthaya consists of pausing again and again on one or two or three notes.
 - (19) Kṣipta (धिस) is extended upward.
 - (स्थ्मान्त) becomes minute (20) Sūksmānta towards its close
- IV. The 33 mixed and unfamiliar sthayas. (त्रयस्त्रिशत्संकीर्णलक्षणाः स्थायाः) Kallinātha says that these do not differ much from Bhajana, etc., already explained. Like them they are differentiated by the difference in their characteristics, but unlike them these are not very wellknown. The Sthayas are:-
 - (1) Of Prakṛtistha (प्रकृतिस्थस्य) in which the tone shines of its own accord bereft of Dhrti, Bhrti, etc.
 - (2) Of Kalā (কুজাৰা:) in which the notes are made thin.
 - (3) Of Akramana (आक्रमणस्य) which are exceedingly admissible.
 - (4) Of Ghatanā (घटनायाः) which look like the creation of a mechanic artist.
 - (5) Of Sukha (मुखस्य) which yield joy.
 - (6) Of Cāli. (चाले:) Cāli is known as Jakkā which gives the name to these Sthayas.

- (7) Of Jīvasvara. (जीवस्वरस्य) Amsa is called Jīvasvara and is predominant in these Sthāyas.
- (8) Of Vedauhvani. (वेदध्यने:) In these the notes are like the sound of the Vedic Chant.
- (9) Of Ghanatva (धनत्वस्य) These are strong inside, (heavy and ponderous).
- (10) Sithila (গ্লিথিন) is languid and relaxed.
- (11) Avaghata (খ্ৰম্হ) is difficult of execution.
- (12) Pluta (দ্পুর) is extremely slow.
- (13) Rāgesta (নৌছ) is what is desirable for the completion of a rāga.
- (14) Apasvarābhāsa (अपस्वरामास) looks like a false or unmusical note.
- (15) Baddha (ৰম্ভ) denotes a suppressed or paralysed sthāya.
- (16) Kalarava (কল্ডৰ) Sthāyas abound in sweet sounds.
- (17) Chandasa (छान्दस) is liked by skilled persons.
- (18) Sukarābhāsa (सुकरामास) means a sthāya which seems to be easily executed but is really difficult to render.
- (19) Samhita (বহিৰ) approaches the mandra octave from the tāra like the sound of a bell.
- (20) Laghu. (ন্তু) In this the Dhruva and the Abhoga are without heaviness.
- (21) Antara. (সন্বা) The definition of this in the original is not explicit. Probably this indicates the Sthāya used intermediately between others.
- (22) Vakra (वक) is tortuous but easily rendered.

- (23) Dīptaprasanna (दीसप्रसन) is rendered in the Tärasthāvī.
- (24) Prasannamṛdu (ম্বন্দুরু) is soft in tone and easy.
- (25) Guru (ग्रह) is heavy.
- (26) Hrasva (इस्व) is diminutive or small.
- (27) Sithilagāḍha (शिथिलगाढ) is relaxed and again tightly pressed together.
- (28) Dīrgha (दीर्घ) is prolonged.
- (29) Asādhāraṇa. (असाधारण) This is easy and very musical because of the excellence of tone or voice; this belongs to one category and is not common to all.
- (30) Sādhāraṇa (साधारण) resembles all categories.
- (निराधार) (31) Nirādhāra does not demand Vahani, etc., for its execution, i.e., is independent of others.
- (32) Duşkarābhāsa (दुष्कराभास) is easy but seems difficult to render.
- (33) Miśraka (মিপ্সক) is defined to be the result mixture. Šārngadeva says that 'the JONIFIC miśrakas' are of endless variety and that only a few of them are given in order to give a general survey of their nature. A Miśra is named after a particular sthāya if that is predominant; if that occurs as often as others, the Miśra has a composite name, e.g., Tiripāndolita, Līnakampita, Kampitāhata, Tiripasphurita, etc. Śārngadeva mentions 36 of these and adds that others of this kind are to be reckoned in a similar manner.

The contribution of Sarngadeva is as great in this subject as in others. His treatment is comprehensive and. thorough; it has the uinque characteristic of having been influenced by the views of his predecessors, many of whose works are not available now, and of being considered as the standard by subsequent writers.

Śārngadhara in his Paddhati says that gamakas are of seven kinds, vis., Sphurita, Kampita, Līna, Stimita (probably Tiripa), Āndolita, Āhata and Tribhinna.¹ It is surprising that Śārngadhara takes no notice of Śārngadeva's classification of gamakas but follows Nānyadeva and Pārśvadeva.

Haripāla also, in his Sangīta Sudhākara gives the gamakas as consisting of 7 kinds, vis., Kampita, Sphurita Līna, Tribhinna, Tirupa, Āndolita and Āhata. His definition of gamakas is the same as that of Pārśvadeva. The lakṣaṇa of each gamaka, as regards time value and other features is the same, according to the two writers. Only Haripāla uses new metaphors to describe the general effect of one or two gamakas. For instance he compares Sphurita to the throbbing of lightning and Tirupa to the sound of the drum.

Laksmīnārāyana's work, Sangīta Sūryodaya is of special importance since it was written in the heyday of the Vijayanagar Empire. He gives the excellences and defects of sound mentioned in the Ratnākara. He defines gamaka as the shaking of a note which charms the ear. All the 15 kinds of gamakas enumerated by Sārngadeva are given by him. Their definitions are the same. Laksmīnārāyaṇa also gives the names and definitions of the 96 Sthāyas of the Ratnākara, besides the vāgas given therein.

Rāmāmātya in his Svaramelakalānidhi does not treat the subject of gamakas, but only makes a reference to their use in singing.

स्फुरितं कस्पितं लोनं स्तिमितान्दोलितानि । आहतं त्रिकासितं च गमकं सप्तथा स्मृतम् ॥

Puṇḍarīka Viṭṭhala in his Sadrāgacandrodaya merely reproduces the account of gamakas given by Sarngadeva in the same order. For Ratnākara's Gumphita he gives the name Humphita. His definitions are the same as that of the Ratnākara. A brief account of Sthāyavāgas based on the Ratnākara is given.

Somanatha is one of the most important writers after Sārngadeva. His treatment of the subject is striking, and he improves on Sarngadeva himself by employing an efficient system of notation to illustrate gamakas. Basing the exposition on the technique of Vīṇā-playing he explains the use of various gamakas with reference to different Ragas. This is an unique feature, which specially distinguishes his work and which we miss in the most famous of the authors of later times. His is the first work to explain the topic with reference to the playing of the Vīṇā. The names of the gamakas are all new and coined by him, though many of the graces can be identified with Sarangadeva's. But there are some graces which can be called original contributions like Paratā, etc. At least they are not mentioned in older works in such clear detail and defined with such precision. As regards the notation employed, it might be said that in this as well as in the Prastara of Melas a rare type of originality is revealed by Somanatha. In the light of existing data, he is the first writer who invented an elaborate system of notation, capable of expressing some of the most complex gamakas. An elementary form of notation did exit previously and Sarangadeva employed it in the illustration of Ragas. But there is no proof to show that that system expressed gamakas. The expression of gamakas was exactly what was achieved by Somanātha's notation. But curiously enough Somanātha makes no reference to the gamakas or Sthāyavāgas of the Ratnākara, but deduces the use of gamakas from the technique of the playing on the Vīnā. In his commentary he speaks of Vādanabhedas

prominent among which are twenty. These, according to him, are the most popular among gamakas like Tiripa, Sphurita, etc., and Sthāyas, and prominent in Deśi music. Most of the names are coined by him so as to be explanatory of the technique of the Vinā. The varieties are:---

(1) PRATIHATI. This consists of two pluckings of the string and producing the same note. The string is to be struck; by very moving up the quickly finger the first note should be slightly revealed and a second stroke equal to the first should be made. (2) AHATI. FROM resulting sound resembling humkāra is Pratihati. This is descriptive of the sound produced. No time value is

given.

This amounts to the same as pratihati in effect without humkāra. Also the method of producing this grace is different. After a note is produced, another note should be revealed without a separate stroke. It is to be noted that from the description that this grace is applicable in both ascent and descent.

(3) ANUHATI.

This belongs to the same class as Pratihati but differs only in technique. A note is produced by a single beat, and

by a quick movement of the finger revealing the previous Svara. The resulting sound resembling humkara is the characteristic of this gamaka.

(4) AHATI.

It is the same as Anuhati but differs in emanating without nakhāghāta (stroke of the nail) and results in a majestic sound. The tonal quality of the gamaka places it in a category by itself. This is an important gamaka and familiar in modern usage. The method of producing it is well explained in the commentary.

(5) PĪDĀ.

This is produced by touching with force a note with the "stomach" of the finger and instantaneously revealing the foregoing note by a dexterous movement.

(6) DOLANA.

This consists of akarsana, vikarsana, āgamana and $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{y}$ nivartana. this meant the pulling of the note to a particular point (of the octave), pulling away from the octave, the leading of a śruti towards another, and releasing that note from that point to its position. Somaformer nātha explains that with a

single ghāta a note is to be stretched to its utmost limits, so as to reach the boundary of its śrutis and even beyond, and gradually to be resolved into the note from which it started.

(7) VIKARŞA

is the same as Dolana with the difference that there is no returning to the starting point. It is arrested in a state of progress.

(8) GAMAKA.

The repeated application of dolana is gamaka. By one stroke dolana is to be executed slowly three or four times. The use of the Downloaded from w term gamaka is noteworthy inasmuch as signifies a category or species, and not a genus as in the Ratnākara. It is here the proper name of a particular grace and this has to be distinguished from the connotation of the word gamaka as understood at present. No time value is given.

(9) KAMPA'.

This is produced by shaking the note twice or thrice and executing the whole within one-fourth of the time taken by a dolana. This is produced by a single beat. Thus Gamaka and Kampa

differ chiefly with regard to tempo.

(10) GHARŞAŅA.

This is produced by a single beat revealing other notes rapidly. After the stroke by gharsana the preceding or succeeding notes are

manifested. This is a glide.

(11) MUDRĀ.

A note is struck, and by the power of that stroke its preceding note is revealed; then by fixing the finger on the original note the other note is hidden or muffled and this muffling is denoted by mudrā. This differs from anuhati in the fact that the latter results in a deep sound as the effect of the quick movement of the finger. This difference is pointed out by Somanātha

(12) SPARSA.

This is the same as Ahati. Only here the abandoned note is released rapidly. When sounding a note the next higher note is to be lightly touched and the original note is quickly revealed.

in the commentary.

(13) NAIMNYA.

This results from a strong beat. The wire seems to go down by the forcible plucking.

(14) PLUTI.

By pulling eight notes are got. By one stroke and pulling the string, eight notes are produced in quick succession. The commentary explains that it is a lengthened form of gharsana.

(15) DRUTI

is quick playing with the aim of getting notes other than the initial svara.

(16) PARATA.

This is the process of producing the next note from the position of the original note. Somanātha explains it as being produced by placing the finger on the fret of Sa, etc., and by pulling the string, sounding Ri, etc.

(17) UCCATA.

This indicates the production (by the same process as Parata) of the third note from the initial Svara.

(18) & (19) The two kinds of NIJATA:-

- The Nijatā of Paratā. By this is meant the gradual descent of the extended note (by the loosening of the wire) to the starting note, e.g., the resolution of Ri, etc., in Sa.
 - (b) The Nijatā of Uccatā. This consists of the gradual descent of the grace from gandhara to sadja by the same process as indicated in (a).
- Both kinds of Nijatā, according to Somanātha are to be executed by one single stroke on the wire. However according to laksya, he observes in some

places there occur 2 beats, the second coming in the middle of the grace.

(20) SAMA. This indicates slow movement. (This is opposed to Druti). According to Somanātha. Sama is the pause accompanying the production or revelation of a note.

He calls the foregoing 20 varieties as Vādanabhedas and adds two more terms to the nomenclature of graces, vis.. Mrdu and Kathina which, he points out, indicate Sthāna. The Mandra octave is Mrdu and the Tārasthāyī is called Kathina.

The whole of Somanatha's treatment is characterised by originality of the first order and to-day we can faithfully reproduce these vadanabhedas with almost absolute accuracy.

The next outstanding treatise is the Sangīta Sudhā of Govinda Dīksita. To Govinda Dīksita belongs the credit of building on the foundations supplied by Sarngadeva. In fact we owe to his tremendous influence the continuity of tradition which links together the basic principles and the fundamental factors of the system of Śārngadeva and the Karnātic music of the present day. Govinda Diksita's definition of gamaka is the same as that of Sarngadeva. He quotes with approval the definition of gamaka by Pärśvadeva. He enumerates the fifteen varieties, which, it is important to note, he says, was in accord with contemporary practice. The definitions of the various gamakas are akin to Śārngadeva's. Gumphita is called by him Humphita. Dīkṣita deals with vāgas and the 96 Sthayas, according to the school of Matanga and others, as he says, in detail; he enumerates them in the same order as the Ratnakara. In fact the whole topic is freely paraphrased from the Ratnakara. Taking the

treatment of the subject as a whole, Govinda Dīkṣita might be said to have popularised the system of Sarngadeva which, it is essential to note, was in agreement with the then prevailing laksya.

Venkatamakhin defines gamaka as the charming shake of the note, and adds another definition which is virtually a paraphrase of Parsvadeva's definition. He mentions all the 15 varieties of the Ratnakara: Vali according to him consists of the shake of notes which move in a crooked manner with irregular velocity. The Vali when it becomes straight is called Kurula. Otherwise his account of the gamakas is the same as that of the Ratnākara. He does not deal with Sthāyas or Vāgas. He cites the gamakas as propounded by Bharata and others, though in the current rescensions of the Nätya Sästra the gamakas are not mentioned.

In Ahobala's Sangīta Pārijāta, (according to the available edition) the treatment of the subject is fragmentary. Some of the names of gamakas are similar to those given in the Ratnākara and some are new. The total number of gamakas defined is 17 and they are as follows:-

(1) KAMPITA Download

This means the production of a pair of notes by two beats. This explains only the mode of producing the gamaka, for which no time value is given. In these respects it differs from the Ratnakara.

(2) PRATYAHATA.

A pair of notes is produced by a single beat. The

स्वरस्य कम्पो गमकः श्रोतृचित्तसुखावहः ॥ स्तीयस्थानश्रुतिगतच्छायामन्याश्रयामपि । छायां गमयतोत्येष गमकः परिकीतितः ॥

production is not distinguished as belonging to either ascent or descent, as is done in modern practice.

(3) DVIRAHATA.

This is explained as a repetition of a stroke on a single note (Both numbers two and three are defined in the manner of Somanātha's Pratihati and Ahati, from which they may be derived. It is important to note that these gamakas are peculiar to and characteristic of the Vīnā, though they are capable of being distinctly produced vocally.)

(4) SPHURITA

This denotes the production of a pair of notes by a single beat in the manner known as fortissimo. Emphasis is laid on this characteristic. The Ratnākara gives time value for the gamala but Ahobala does not.

(5) ANAHATA.

This is the note produced after the beat. This is described as being mild (Säntasamiña) by reason of its softness.

(6) TIRIPA.

The time value alone is given, The definition is

an exact copy of that of the Ratnākara. (7) GHARSANA. This results from producing or touching eight notes from the starting svara. This is the same of Somanātha's Pluti. (8) AVAGHARSANA is interpreted in the same manner as gharsana. This probably means the gharsana in descent. (9) VIKARŞANA is explained as a grace starting from a note and extending to others, while remaining in its place (the original fret). This corresponds to Somanātha's Paratā Uccatā. (10) SVASTHANA extends forward and retreats to the original starting point. (11) AGRASVASTHANA starts on a note, goes backward or down the octave. and returns to the starting point. This is an important grace consisting in the production of a Varna with This has refe-Repha. rence to the whirring noise in the turn given to a musical phrase. is produced in order by the (13) VAHI middle and forefingers.

This definition is some-

what vague and the reference is evidently to the Vīnā.

(14) SPHUTA

The Kriyā (or a musical elaboration) has this as the aim, i.e., ends on this. This may be treated as a variety of svasthāna, with the emphasis on the final.

(15) NAIMNYA

corresponds to Somanātha's Naimnya but is rather vague. Ahobala that this occurs when one note overcomes another.

(16) DHALA

pervades two notes. nature of the exact gamaka is vague. gadeva defines it in a different manner.

is stated to be a variety of Humphita, and is not defined separately.

(17) MUDRA, OH Ahobala is not bound by the classification of Sarngadeva. He seems to base his definitions on the strength of practice and to borrow some terms and concepts from Somanātha. They agree when they illustrate graces produced on the Vīṇā. Ahobala has to his credit a number of graces which can be called his own contributions to the existing number.

Somanārya (whose date is later than Somanātha's) in his Nātya Cūdāmani gives much valuable information (which however is fragmentary). He mentions Ayuta, Pratyāyuta, Dhālu, Kampita, Āhata, and Pratyāhata. For some of these the definitions are lacking. Kampita according to him is quick movement in the three Sthayis. Where

the notes are elongated it is called Edupu. Dhālu pervades 'the long and the short and the three' (according to the text); the notes in the middle are called agra. The charming expansion of notes is called Muktā. Śārngadeva is quoted as giving the following excellences of musical rendering:—Clearness, fulness, lustre, beauty, adornment, evenness, colour, softness, richness of tone and sweetness.

Basavappa Nāick in his Siva Tattva Ratnākara enumerates the 15 kinds of gamakas found in the Sangīta Ratnākara. He deals with alankāras, but not Sthāyavāgas. His adoption of the classification of the Ratnākara throws light on the practice in his time in the Kannada country,

Passing on to the group of Oriya works of the 18th century, we find the Sangita Sarani enumerating only seven kinds of gamakas in all, viz. Kampita, Sphurita, Līna, Tribhinna, Tiripa, Āhata and Andolita. Kampita is the shake of the note with Druta speed; Sphurita is one-third of a Druta in Tempo. The shake is of charming tone. Lina is of Druta speed. Tribhinna is of restless gait and moves in the navel, heart and throat. Tiripa is like the gentle sound of the drum. It is one-fourth of a Druta in speed. Ahata beats its foregoing neighbour and returns. Andolita comes to a rest in laghu speed. From the text (which is not very clear) the author is to be understood as stating that the wellknown division of gamakas into 15 kinds suffers from the defect of overlapping.1

The account of gamakas in the Sangīta Nārāyana is the same as in the Ratnākara. But the author adds that gamaka, which consists of a slight shake of the Svara, is of 7 different kinds owing to the difference of notes. The explanation is that the gamakas are of 7 different forms based on the difference of the seven notes. The

^{1.} यत्तु कचिद्र (?) गमकस्य पञ्चदशविधत्वं दृश्यते तत्परस्परं साक्षिण (साङ्क्येण?) –सङ्गीतसरणि<mark>ः</mark> बेध्यम् ।

author adds that this classification is found in the Nārada Samhitā, but says nothing more to elucidate the definition.

In the Gita Prakāśa, Gamaka is defined as usual. Gamakas are devided into seven kinds based on the seven Svaras. They are:—

- (1) Tripañcaka (thrice the Druta is speed).
- (2) Sphurita (same speed).
- (3) Kampita (twice the Druta).
- (4) Lina (Druta).
- (5) Andolita (Laghu).
- (6) Tribhinna moves in Druta speed in all the three sthānas.
- (7) Ahata strikes the foregoing note (it is called Antra in the text, probably a mistake).

The gamakas are to be practised at dawn, during singing and also standing in water.2

Locana Pandita in his Rāgatarangiņī refers to graces as Kampita and others and for their treatment refers the reader to his Rāga Sangīta Sangraha (which is not available at present).

Śrīnivāsa Pandita in his Rāgatattva Vibodha discusses the subject minutely and makes references to the playing of the Vīnā. He defines gamaka as the characteristic property of the excellence and distinction achieved in execution. Gamakas achieve beauty out of it and hence

किञ्चित्तु स्थरस्य कम्पो गमकः स्वरमेदात् सप्तथा इति सप्तस्वरमेदेन सप्तप्रकारी भवतीत्वर्थः । इदं तु नारदसंहितायां दृष्टम् ।

[—]सङ्गीतनारायणः

^{2.} स्वरस्य कम्पो गमकः श्रीतृत्वित्तसुखावहः ॥ सप्तस्वरसमायोगात् सप्त भेदा भवन्ति च ॥ रफुरितं कम्पितं लीनं तथा चान्दोलिताभिथम् ॥ श्रिपञ्चकाल्यं गीतहैस्त्रिभिन्नं चेति कीर्तितम् ॥

शरीरस्थोऽपि गमकः साधनीयः प्रयक्ततः॥ प्रस्युवे गतिसमये जलेऽभ्यरतक्ष सिक्दिदः॥

are so called.1 The steady note resulting out of the contact of the right hand fingers with the wire attains exclusiveness, without shake, etc. If a note resembles humkāra it is humkrta. A note is born of one throbbing movement, its throbbing being perceptible and imperceptible with many notes in the middle, and it again emerges clear when the chin is placed at the region of the heart and the voice gives forth the sound 'hum.' When a note, though produced at a high pitch, goes to a low pitch, and when it is produced in a low pitch with imperceptible middle notes, emanating as the result of a gentle stroke, it is known as cyāvita svara. The cyāvita notes are so called because out of them rises a falling motion. The voice is also to be known by the throwing up of the mouth; (the definition in the original is not clear). When a note fades and expands, it is known as Udgharşana. Avagharşana is to be known similarly from practice. In Vikarsana a foreign note is drawn at a particular spot. The overcoming of the note by the finger is naimnya. Purvähata is named after the kriya that is meant by the expression. In Hatāhata two notes are sounded at one and the same place. Hata and Tārāhata are indicative by themselves. Tiripa exceeds others by one fourth of Druta. By Sruti and time values these are thus distinguished in different When at a spot a note is struck twice it is dvirāhata. By ārohana and avarohana, it (the gamaka) is differentiated in two ways. In Dhālu the Kriyā of the left fingers overpower two notes and go up or down. Anāhata indicates what occurs over the stroke. Sphurita gamakas are soft and are otherwise called Śantasamjña. (According to Ahobala, Anāhata is called Śāntasamjña). Mudrā is not separately defined, since it is a part of Humphita; (the same statement is made by Ahohala). This is because Mudrana of the Sangīta Ratnākara which

क्रियाविशेषजन्यो यस्तद्धमी गमको भवेत् । गमयन्ति इ तद्रिक्त तस्मात्ते गमका मताः ॥

is the equivalant of Mudrā has the same quality as the tone of humphita.

Hrdayanārāyana in his Hrdayaprakāśa gives the same definition of gamaka as Śrīnivāsa Pandita and refers the reader to other (standard) works for information about 'Humphita', etc.

King Tulajā's Sangīta Sārāmrta has an intimate bearing on the practice of the present day. He gives the usual definition of gamaka and also repeats Pārśvadeva's definition. He freely paraphrases the definitions of the Ratnākara, generally explaining them and sometimes improving on them. He repeats after Venkatamakhin that the 15 gamakas are defined according to their treatment by Bharata and others. He says that Dhāla is mistaken popularly for Tirapa, and that this is a fallacy because Dhāla has been defined by pūrvācāryas as the throbbing movement like that of a pearl. His definitions of Kampita, Līna, Vali, Tribhinna, Kurula, etc., are similar to Sārngadeva's. He defines nāmita gamaka descending down into the Mandra. He deals with Sthayavagas after the manner of Sarngadeva. He gives 10 Asankīrņas, 33 Sankīrņas and adds that in the same way other sthayas have been defined by Bharata and others and that these are not dealt with by him for the sake of brevity. He follows the Ratnäkara closely.

Coming to treatises of the present day we have a few standard works written in Sanskrit as well as in the vernaculars. These derive their authority from ancient works, tradition as well as practice. Among them, the following are important.

Kāśinātha (a North Indian writer) in his Sangīta Sudhākara enumerates only 10 varieties of gamakas, viz., Tirupa, Sphurita, Līna, Āndolita, Vali, Āhata, Ullāsita, Humphita, Gharsana and Miśrita. All are defined according to the Ratnākara except Gharsana which is

described as the production of several notes by one single gentle stroke. Miśra is a variety got by admixture.

Vișnu Sarmā (North Indian) in his Abhinavarāgamañjari gives the definitions of both Sarngadeva and Pārśvadeva. He however says that the gamakas have been stated by Bharata and others to be 15.

The Catvārimsacchata Rāga Nirūpana (attributed to Nārada but which appears to be modern work) mentions the traditional varieties of 15 gamakas.

In the Sangīta Kaumudī (South Indian, written in Sanskrit, 20th century) 10 different kinds of gamakas only are described and a large number of vernacular texts follows this classification. The gamakas are:-

- (1) Ārohaṇa, which is a grace embracing notes in ascent.
- (2) Avarohana covers descent.
- (3) Dhālu, e.g., sp, sm, sg, etc.
- (4) Sphurita proceeds in the order sr, rg, gm, mp,
- (5) Kampita is like ppppp, mmmmm, etc.
- (6) Ahata progresses like ss, rr, gg, mm, etc.
- (7) Pratyāhata like ss, nn, dd, etc.
- (8) Tripuccha consists of graces like sss, rrr, ggg, etc.
- (9) Andolita proceeds like srs Dd, srs Pp, etc.
- (10) Mūrchanā consists of uses like srgmpdn, rgmpdns and so on.
 - (These are noticed by Mr. K. V. Srinivasa Aiyangar in his Gānabhāskara where he points out that arohana, avarohana and

^{1.} आजनय उवाच--ब्रह्मपुत्र महाप्राञ्च यथोक्तं हरिणा पुरा । दशानां गमकानां हि लक्षणं श्रुणु तत्त्वतः ॥

आरोहश्रावरोहश्च ढालुस्फुरितकम्पिताः । सगीतकीमुदी । आइतप्रसाहते च त्रिपुच्छान्दोळमूछनाः ॥ इत्यादि ॥

mūrchanā are not gamakas since they lack 'kampa', i.e., are not shaken).

In the Sangīta Kalānidhi, Taccūr Singrachari and his brother give the same 10 varieties of gamakas as the Sangīta Kaumudī, with the same definitions. (These 10 gamakas are defined identically in "Sangīta Vidyā Darpaṇam' by V. Naidu, in "Samgītamṛtanidhi by M. Pillai, and in 'Bharata, Sangīta Prabodhini' by Johannes, all publications in the vernacular.)

In the Ganabhaskara Mr. K. V. Srinivasa Aiyangar defines the 15 gamakas given by Sarngadeva in the light of modern practice. From this point of view they are important. Tirupa according to him stops at a note, presses it down and reveals the colour of the next note. In Kampita the note is moved without bringing in the colour of neighbouring notes. In Sphurita a note is repeated, and in the repetition the lower note is faintly heard. Lina stops at a note and merges the sound into that of its neighbour. Andolita stops at a note for four or five Aksarakālas, pulls the note straight and reveals the next note faintly. Vali is got by pulling the wire at a note and producing the next notes. Tribhinna is produced by placing the finger at the same time on three strings (of the Vīnā) and sounding three notes. This is common on the Vīnā. In Kurula from a note another is produced with force; ND, PM, is played N, sD, nP, dM. Kurula also means the production of 2 or more notes by one stroke from one note. Ahata is called ravajāti; when descending from one note to another if the next note is subtly revealed it is Āhata. Ullāsita is zāru; it is of 2 kinds, viz., ekkuzāru and diguzāru. This consists of gliding over intermediate notes when going up or down from one note to another. Plāvita halts at a note for the period of a few mātrās and brings out the colour of the neighbouring notes. Gumphita is also called Humphita, producing the sound 'hum'. Mudrita is defined as the sound produced by closing the

mouth. Namita is got when the notes are moved in such a way that their tone is diminished and made subtle.

Mr. Subbarāma Dīkṣitar in his Sangīta Sampradāya Pradarśini deals with the 15 gamakas of the Ratnākara with exhaustive reference to the technique of the playing on the vīnā. He considers that Līna, Andolita and Plāvita are only varieties of Kampita. Under Sphurita he brings Pratyāhata. Under Āhata he gives Ravai and Khandipu. Vali, according to him, can be applied to one, two or three notes. Under Ullasita he mentions ascending and descending Zārus. Under Kurula he mentions 2 varieties, viz., odigimpu and orika. Tribhinna is explained solely with reference to the Vīnā. Taking the whole of his explanation into account, we find that the definitions do not agree entirely with the definitions of the Ratnākara in all cases. In many cases we find the definitions are extensions of the original meaning of the terms have reference to the Vīṇā. Mr. Dīkṣitar's definitions and the definitions by others based on his may find support from prevalent usage and tradition pertaining to Vīṇā-playing. In this connection we have to note that in the Vādyādhyāya, Śārngadeva elaborately deals with the various methods of playing on the Vīnā, which according to him can be considered alankāras. Similar to these are the gamakas of the Vīnā mentioned in the ancient Tamil treatise Pingala Nighantu which are as follows:-

Kalittal, Summai, Kambalai, Alungal, Silaittal, Tuvaittal, Silambal, Irangal, Imildal, Vimmal, Irattal, Engal, Kanaittal, Talangal, Karangal, Aranal and Isaittal.

These are called the several qualities of tone got on the wire of the lute and are remarkable for their variety. Otherwise the gamakas are not explained in the available Sangīta literature in Tamil. The 5 Jātis into which the 22 Srutis have been divided also bear names like Dīptā (i.e., illumined), etc., which seem to have some affinity with those of the above list.

The gamaka has come to occupy a vital place in our system of music. It is not simply a device to make melodic music tolerable, and it is not its function merely to beautify music. It determines the character of each raga, and it is essential to note that the same variety of gamaka appears with different intensity in different ragas. The function of the same gamaka in different ragas varies subtly and establishes all the fine distinctions between kindred melodies by an insistence, which is delicate but withal emphatic, on the individuality of their constituent notes. The gamaka makes possible the employment of all the niceties in variation of the pitch of the notes used and is therefore of fundamental importance to our music. personality of any raga is to be understood it cannot be of s of som white of the sound without appraising the values of the gamakas which

CHAPTER VI.

The meaning of the ragas.

Theorists from the earliest times have attempted to analyse the significance of the different notes as they occur in a piece of music which aims at the expression of some mood or emotion. From the time of Bharata not only a melody type or raga but every note of the scale was assigned a particular rasa which it was supposed to represent. This has been condemned by some modern critics who however have not taken into account the views of such distinguished authorities like Helmholtz, Curwen, etc., who have not hesitated to define the emotional significance of individual notes. It need not be gainsaid that every note has in it the power of expressing some emotion or other. Mr. Swarup in his "Theory of Indian Music" has interpreted the moods expressed by the 22 śrutis, but his interpretation is of doubtful value since it is based on the etymological significance of the names of the śrutis. The forms ascribed to the ragas and raginis in old works are mostly based upon the sentiments which are expressed by the names of those melodies. Bharata and Śārngadeva very elaborately deal with the Rasas of the Jatis and Rāgas and lay down rules as to when they should be used on the stage. The allocation of the different hours of the day and of the seasons to the singing of the different ragas seems to be primarily based upon the emotional significance of the particular ragas. For instance, if a raga is sung at dawn or at dead of night its significance is best brought out as opposed to the effect produced by its rendering at some other time of the day. A modern example can be cited. The raga Bhūpāla produces a very pathetic effect if it is sung before sunrise and it is not so well suited to any other hour of the

This fact has been recognised by even Sri Tvāgarāja who has composed a song in this rāga invoking the Deity to awake from sleep. But it must be understood that a raga cannot be labelled as expressing one particular rasa alone. The power of a raga to express different complex emotions is brought out in the compositions of Tyāgarāja and others. The same rāga is employed in the rendering of different rasas by Tyāgarāja. In the Rāma Nātaka of Kavirāya, Madhyamāvatī is employed to express anger. joy and also the narration of the rout of Rāvana's forces. To express grief through lamentation such different ragas as Ānandabhairavī, Kāmbodi, Āhiri, and Bhūpāla are used. Such examples are innumerable and can be quoted by reference to the works of Gopālakṛṣṇa Bhārati, Kavikuñjara Bhārati, Śrī Nārāyana Tīrtha, etc., whose works are operatic in form and hence afford valuable material for study in this connection. The nature of emotional experience should be correctly understood in order to appreciate its expression through a raga. Mr. F. Howes says that emotion is rarely experienced pure (i.e., as pure fear, pure anger, etc.). "The complexity of the experience of the civilised adult is such that he rarely experiences any of these crude (primary) emotions in a pure form. Far more frequently two or more emotions are aroused simultaneosuly and blend to form secondary and tertiary emotions. These primary and derived emotions are blended with one another and modified in a hundred ways. Sometimes, an instinct may be aroused pure but more frequently our feelings are blends of several instinctive emotions." The raga has in it the power of expressing all this complexity of emotional experience. It is wrong to say that a raga possesses only one psychological property. An infinite variation in the expressive power of a raga can be effected by the use of suitable gamakas, adequate intonation, emphasis and rhythm. Allied to this topic is the genetic theory of the raga, advanced (vide The Hindu,

December, 14, 1934) by Dr. R. Vaidyanathaswami, Reader in Mathematics, The University of Madras. says that the raga must be looked upon as 'a form created by a psychic movement of self-expression and moulded into shape by the operation of inevitable aesthetic laws'. He calls this the genetic theory of the raga. His view is that the 'raga may be considered as the complete musical expression of a single definite mood or as the total musical functioning of a definite mental being'. We are not here concerned with the other aspects of the theory. But it seems that the mood of the raga is more easily understood than expressed. Music expresses through suggestion, and not through direct speech. The ragas are eloquent vehicles of emotion with a limitless but inarticulate power of ex-Downloaded from www.dbf pression. A genius bends them to his purpose and makes

CHAPTER VII.

The Analysis of Rāgas.

Prefatory note.—The aim of this chapter is to define the laksana, as embodied in standard compositions and texts, of the most popular among the ragas that have been recognised as belonging to the system of Karnātic Music. Among the authorities Venkatamakhin and Govinda (the author of the Sangīta Śāstra Samksepa which may be said to represent the school of Tyagaraja) are taken to be the foremost. The evidence of compositions is treated as a fundamental factor in the definition of the laksanas. Among the thousands of ragas that are obtained as a result of permutation in the Melakarta scales, only those that are well-known and seem to be specially important from the points of view of different authorities and are embodied at least in Gītas are considered here. This allows room for the inclusion of new ragas on similar lines when they are popularised by composers and artists, and since there is practically no limit set to the use of such new material, no list of ragas and their laksanas can be final. So at any period of time when the laksana of ragas is sought to be defined, nothing more can be attempted than the understanding of the laws that govern them. This may be helpful in preserving their forms and protecting them from Desi encroachment.

The amsa, graha and nyāsa alone are mentioned in most of the lakṣaṇagītas and ślokas. But they lack an air of reality, because in almost every case one single note, viz.. Sa is given as representing all the three. As regards the Amsa, as has been pointed out already, one note is not always sufficient to represent the character of a rāga; only

a group of notes is able to do so in almost every case. Hence it seems advisable to take the Amsa as indicating a characteristic phrase. (Kallinatha has admitted this interpretation in his commentary). The Amsa is also given as a single note whenever textual authority and practice warrant such usage. The Graha is, according to modern practice, usually any note of the archana or the avarohana of a raga. The Nyasa is always the Sadja. No distinction is now made between Apanyasa, Sannyasa or Vinyāsa. These were distinguished in Grāma music; for instance, Sannyāsa was the final of the first Vidārī, but in modern practice, practically no difference is made between the first and subsequent vidārīs, so far as the rules of their structure go. Hence all these terms mean only the notes on which intermediate phrases in a song end, and these can be any one of the arohana or avarohana. Bahutva and alpatva play a vital part in current music and Bahutya and alpatya play a vital part in current music and Mandra limits are also significant and a number of ragas are assigned a definitely fixed range within the madhya and mandra octaves, e.g., Kurañji, Punnāgavarālī, etc. Sādava and audava are constituted freely in accordance with the spirit of the raga; so also antaramarga, which has lost its old significance as applied to grāma music.

A list of the abbreviations of the names of authorities quoted is given below:—

- V.—Venkaṭamakhin. Mr. Subbarāma Dīkṣitar (SD) has admirably explained his lakṣaṇas in the Saṅgīta Sampradāya Pradarśinī.
 - G.—Govinda, the author of the Sangīta Śāstra Samkṣepa, (The gītas attributed to him are also included in this group):
 - T.—Tulajā (For many of the rāgas he gives the equivalents in grāma music.)

GD.—Govinda Dîksita.

A.—Ahobala (Many of his definitions agree with current usage.)

RL.—Rāga Lakṣaṇa (from a manuscript of Tanjore, Published in Poona.)

SK.—Sangīta Kaumudī (A work in Sanskrit, of recent composition, dealing exhaustively with rāgalakṣaṇas. Hanumān is made the exponent.)

RV.—Rāga Varņa Nirūpaṇam (A fragmentary copy in the Madras G. O. Mss. Library. The Sañcārīs given are classical.)

SV.—Sangīta Vişaya (A fragmentary copy found in the G. O. Mss. Library, Madras.).

RS.—Rāga Sāgara (Ditto).

RP.—Rāga Pradīpa (Dītto)

The vibrational values of the notes as they occur in the different ragas are given under each heading. The figures are based on the prayogas of the standard compositions, and were derived by observations on the sonometer. Every care has been taken to render them as accurate as possible having in view the capacity of the instrument.

The names of the 7 notes are denoted by their initial letters; a capital letter is assumed to indicate a long svara. The number of the vibrations of the svaras noted are given with reference to the keynote Sa=256 vibrations per second. It must be remembered that often when a note ascends to another which is situated higher, its śruti value is slightly increased, and when it descends to a lower note this value is slightly decreased; and also that frequently in a slow 'Varek' proyaga covering two notes (which are consecutive or otherwise) the second note is not completely reached (vide Chapter II, Svaras and Srutis).

The melakartā rāgas are given their current names and are reckoned by their serial numbers. Under each of them, the name given by Venkatamakhin is also noted. The Graha, Amśa and Nyāsa are Sa except where otherwise stated.

Pūrņa or 'Sampūrņa' means regular; 'Vakra' is irregular; 'Varjasvara' is an omitted note.

In giving the number of vibrations of svaras, three kinds of values are usually given, viz.:

- (i) Number of vibrations of the svara in its usual form.
- (ii) Number of vibrations of the svara when it deviates from its usual form in ascent or descent.
- (iii) Number of vibrations of the svara in Kampita.

This Kampita is assumed to represent the simplest form of the gamaka applied to a note, *i.e.*, the note is shaken in a leisurely and prolonged manner without touching either of its adjoining notes. With this gamaka the maximum period of pause is possible on a note. As contrasted with this gamaka is its variety which touches or seems to touch the adjoining note.

Sa and Pa being of fixed value, vibration numbers are given only for the remaining notes. Ma is evaluated only wherever necessary, for similar reasons.

No. (1) KANAKANGI.

Venkatamakhin gives the name Kanakāmbarī for this rāga. According to him the G and N are omitted in ascent. N is Vakra. Under this definition of the rāga he describes Mukhāri as also omitting G and N in ascent; he states that it is Sampūrna and consists of Suddha Svaras. He describes Mukhāri Meļa as one of the 19 popular Meļas of his time, and identifies it with the Suddha scale of Bharata and Sārngadeva. Accordingly, S, M and

P, are of four śrutis, N and G of two śrutis, and R and D of three śrutis. This establishes the fact that the original Śuddha Svaras of the Sanskrit texts are still alive in the Śuddha scale of Karnātic music.

Govinda in his Sangīta Śāstra Sanksepa gives a somewhat different definition. He describes Kanakangi as consisting of the seven Suddha Svaras which are Pūrna in ascent and descent. This qualification is common to all But like Venkatamakhin his definitions of Melakartās. he makes the Aroha of Kanakāngī Vakra-Sampürna namely S G R G M P D N D S. The avaroha is Pūrna. In the gita, however, both the aroha and avaroha are called Sampūrņa. (This prayoga seems to be supported by the evidence of Tyagaraja's songs in similar scales). This scale is called in the gīta 'Meļādhikāra Kanakāngī'. This name is repeated in S.V., and in R.L. In them, excepting omissions, the names by which the melas are well-known are given. All the modern names of the 72 scales are mentioned in the Drupadas attributed to Bijou Naick.

(It may be pointed out that Govinda uses Venkaṭa-makhin's names of Melakartā but in the body of the lakṣaṇa ślokas gives the popular names as opposed to Venkaṭamakhin's. But Venkaṭamakhin's names are given in a corrupted form, e.g., Enadyuti for Phenadyuti, Rūpyanaga for Rūpāvati, Vasantabhairavī for Vātī-vasantabhairavī, etc. Thus Venkaṭamakhin's names as reproduced by Govinda often lack their mnemonic syllables.)

In its unalloyed (Suddha) form Kanakāngī takes the following values:—S=1, R=10|9, G=75|64, M=4|3 P=3|2, D=5|3, N=225|128, S (Octave)=2. These represent the strutis in terms of intervals which are well-known at present, and also other intervals derived from these. The ratios, if strictly based on the values of Suddha Svaras, would be:—

Sa=1, R=25|22, G=27|22, M=31|22, P=35|22, D=19|11, N=20|11, and Sa (Octave)=2. (These Svaras do not seem to differ from those employed in the chant of the three Vedas). This easily shows that the identification of Catuśśruti R with Śuddha Ga and Catuśśruti D with Śuddha N is not quite correct (vide Chapter II, Śrutis and Svaras), because the values of these notes fluctuate round the absolute values assigned to them, though in some phrases the above identification occasionally holds good. Sometimes R=16|15 or 256|243 and D=8|5 or 128|81.

The number of vibrations of the Svaras of the scale are:—

S.		R	G. M.	P D	N. S.
I.	256	284.4	300 341.3	384 426.7	450- 512
II.		273 6	287.9	409 6	432
	٠	269 7		404•4	
III.		273.6	287 9 341 3	409.6	455
		to	to to	to	to
		28 7 ·9	300 345.6	5 43 2	460.7
IV.		284.3	307 352	432.1	454.

Group IV indicates the vibrational values of the Svaras produced in strict accordance with the Suddha Scale.

No. (2) RATNANGI.

(a) Sampūrņa in ascent and descent; Meļādhikāra—G.

do. do. -RL and SK.

This'is called 'Phenadyuti' by V who defines that in it Ga is omitted in ascent and ni is vakra.

(b)	R. G. M. D. N
I.	Same as those for No. (1). 455.1
II.	do. do. 460.7
III.	do. do. 455·1
	to 466.2

No. (3) GĀNAMŪRTI.

(a) Sampūrņa in ascent and descent—G, RL and SK; called Gānasāma Varāļī by V according to whom Sāma Varāļī is sampūrņa. (But in his gītas generally the notes supposed to be affected by Vivādidoṣa are given Varja-Vakra treatment.)

(b) R. G. M. D. N.

I. 4799

Same as those for No. (1). II. 4860

III. 4799

to

4915

No. (4) VANASPATI.

(a) Sampūrņa in ascent and descent—G, RL and SK. Named 'Bhānumati'; Sampūrņa—V.

(b) D, N. Ĩ. 426.7 455.1 Same as No. 1. Η. 432.0 460·7 III. 426.7 455 to to 435.5 469.3

No. (5) MĀNAVATĪ.

(a) Sampūrņa in ascent and descent—G, RL and SK.

Named 'Manorañjanī', sampūrņa; Ga is vakra in ascent.—V.

(b) R. G. M. and D. N.

Same as for No. (4). I. 479.9

II. 486

III. 479.9

to

491.5

No. (6) TANARŪPI.

(a) Sampūrņa in ascent and descent—G, RL and SK.

Named 'Tanukīrti'; D is vakra in descent.--V.

(b) R. G. M.		D.	N.
	I.	455.1	· •
Same as for No. (5)			Same as for No. 3.
	11.	460.7	
		466.2	
	111.	455 to	486.

No. (7) SENAVATI.

(a) Sampūrna—G, RL and SK. 'Senāgraṇī'; Ma and Dha are vakra—V.

No. (8) HANUMATTODI.

(a) Sampurna-G, RL and SK.

'Janatodi'; defined as Todi, pūrņa, sung in the evening. V has Komala Ri and Dha; Nyāsa is Dha and amśa Ga—A. Under this meļa 'Suddha Todi' which omits Pa in ascent and descent is given as a janya by G; A's 'Mārga Todi' and RL's Todi are the same. Now practically no distinction is made between the two varieties of 'Todi'. In the sancārī given in RV, Pa is very sparingly used.

(b)		R	G.	М.	D.	N.
. ,	I.	273	303-3	341.4	409.6	455·1
	II.	266.7	307.2		404-4	460.7
		269.7	297.5		399.9	464.1
		284.4	312.9		398.5	459.1
						469.3
	HI.	269.7	303.3	341.4	409.6	455
	200	to	·to	to	to	to
	· -	287:9	330	345.6	444.6	469

JANYAS OF TODI (i) BHŪPALAM.

(a) srgpds—sdpgrs—G.

do. but assigned to Kartā No. (9)-V.

Omits ma and pa, and belongs to Bhairavi mela—G.D. R and L are Komala; g is amsa. Sañcārī: g p d s r g r s s d p g p g r g r s d S etc.—A.

RL and SV agree with G.

(a) g and n are omitted in ascent and the descent is regular.

srmpds—snspdmprga—G.

Born of 'Gauri' mela; in ascent g and n are omitted—A.

Derived from Todi Mela; in ascent g and n are omitted—RL.

Derived from srmpds—snspdpGrs—SK.
Todi Mela. srMPdSSn—ddPmggrS—SV.
Omitsgandrin ascent—V.

(b)		R.	G.	M.	D.	N.
,	I.	273	303.3	341.4	409.6	460.7
	II.	269.7	307.2		404.4	455.1
		284-4				
	III.	273			409.6	455.1
٠		to			to	to
		278	•		449.3	469
	A					,

(a) Pūrna in ascent and descent; 'madhya rāga' meaning that the 'tāra' octave is not reached.

srgmpdn—ndpmgrsn—G.

(iii) PUNNAGAVARALI.

Its range is from mandrasadja ni to the dha above—V.

'This is the embodiment of sound'; sampūrņa in ascent and descent; N S R G m P P D—d p M G r s s N—SV.

RL and SK agree with G; RV gives a good sañcārī. The rāga assumes the Catuśśruti R in phrases like g r g m p.

	_		 			
(b)		R.	G.	Jan Bridge	D.	N.
	I.	269.7	303.3	4	04.4	455· 1
	11.	266.7	 307.2		40 9 6	460.7
		273		4	126·7 (*	1
		284.4	· :		10.	
	III.	266.7	303.3	(1)	O,	
		to .	 to		V-	国际运动 预
	٠.	284 4	 310.	10		
			 	2	· .	

(iv) DHANYASI.

(a) s g m p n s—S n d p m g r s—G and RL. n s G m p N S—n d p m g r s; classed under the 20th Melakartā—V.

Omits r and d in ascent, and consists of suddha svaras—A.

Belongs to 'Srī rāga meļa' and is bereft of r and d;

D is an audava. (This classification is akin to Venkaṭamakhin's)—G.D. Govinda Dīkṣita's definition is repeated by Tulajā.

The following sañcārī is given in R.V.—S n s—n n d n s n n d d p—n n s—n s g g r—S g r m g g r r s—n s g g m g m p—m p d—m d p d—m p m p—g m p n n d n d—p d d—m p p—etc.

(b)	1.	R	G. D. N.
(0).	T	273	307.2 409.6 460.7
	11.	269.7	303·3 404·4 455·1
	III.	266.7	307.2 399.9 - 455.1
·-		to	to to
		273	317 409.6 464.1

(v) AHIRI.

(a) Sampūrņa vakra in ascent and sampūrņa in descent.

Srsgmpdns—SnDpmgrs—G.

Classed under the 20th mela by V. The notes of the raga are:

srsgmpdns-SnDpmGrs.

Govinda Dīkṣita's definition includes several of the rāga's current aspects. According to him, Sa, ma, pa and dha for this rāga are śuddha; ri is pañcaśruti; ni is kākalī; ga is sādhāraṇa.

According to Tulajā this is a Takka Bhāṣa, and derived from Bhairavi Mela; pūrṇa, to be sung in the evening; in the ascent and descent the notes occur in vakra combinātions. He gives the sañcārī: Mgrs—nsrrS—ggrgmpddppS—Snddp—mpdppmgrsnS etc.

RV gives: m p n s n s r—n s m g m p—g m n d p, etc.

RL agrees with G; SK classes the raga under the 14th mela with the saficara:—S r s g m p d n s p n s—s n D p M g r s.

The current lakṣaṇa of the rāga includes all the features noted above; śuddha ri and dha, sādhāraṇa ga and ni predominate; sharp ri and dha, antara ga and kākalī ni are accidental notes.

(b)		R	G.	D.	N.
	Ï.	273	307-2	-409·6	460-7
	II.	266 [.] 7	303 3	404-4	455.1
٠.		269.7	320	426.7	479-9
		284.4	324	432	486
. /		28 7 ·9			
	III.	269·7	307	409.6	460· 7
		to	to	to .	to
		287	322	435	479

No. (9) DHENUKA.

(a) Meļādhikāra and sampūrņa—G; called Dhuni bhinna sadja by V.

(b)		R.		G.	D.	N.
	I.	269.7		303.3	404-4	486
	II.	280	• .	311.1	409 6	479.9
	III.	269.7		303.3	404 4	479.9
		to:		to	to	to.C
		273		320	426	491
			-		the state of the s	e 5 25

JANYA (i) TAKKA.

(a) Ri is varja-vakra in ascent; s g m p m d n s—S n d p m g r s—G and RL.

Assigned to the 15th mela by V who defines it as omitting ri in ascent, and ni in descent, with a meagre use of pa in both. Its sañrāra is given by Mr. Subbarāma Dīksitar as S g m d d n d S or S g m p m g m d n s—S d m g r g s or S n d m p m g m r g s.

R and D are komal; D is omitted in aroha—A. 15th mela; p is meagrely used; in ascent and descent distant notes are combined; sañcari:—M g m r r g m d d N S—n d m m r g r r g m S—s m p n g s m etc.—T.

(b)	R	G.	D.	N.
	I. 269:7	303 ·3	404 ·4	455.1
	T. 273	307.2	409.6	460.7
	T. 266·7	303	39 9·9	 455
11,	to	to	to	to
Un.	280	311	409.6	464

No. (10) NATAKA PRIYA.

(a) Sampūrna—G, RL and RS; Called 'Naṭābharaṇam' by V who says ri is omitted in ascent and Dha is vakra in ascent and descent; SD's sañcāra is given as 's g m P n d n s S—S n d n P n p m g g r r s'.

(b)	R. and G.	D.	N.
·	Same as for No. (7).	I. 426·7	455 1
		II. 432	460 ·7
		III. 426.7	455 1
		to	to
100	化二氯基酚 化自动电流 有名的复数	455	460

No. (11) KOKILAPRIYĀ.

(a) 'Sampūrņa'—G and RL; according to V, ga is omitted in ascent.

> R. G. and D. (b) Same as for No. (10)

NI. I. 486

No. (12) RŪPĀCĀTI.

(a) 'Sampūrna'—G; according to V, ga dha and ni are successively omitted in ascent, and dha is vakra in descent.

> G. and N. (b) Same as for No. (11)

D. 455.1

II. 460.7 435.5

ilbrary

440

No. (13) GAYAKAPRIYA.

(a) 'Sampūrna—G; V calls this 'Hejjajji' rāga, which omits ni in ascent. His name for the scale is Geya-Hejjajji.

> N. (b) 409.6 450 449 4 & 436 8

JANYAS:

- (i) HEJJUJJI (a) omits n in ascent—G, RL & SV. GD describes this as a mela with antaraga and the rest śuddha syaras; Tulajā gives the same laksana and observes that from this mela 'Hejjajji' and other ragas originate. He gives the phrase D n d d p m-g m p d D S.
 - (b) Svara values same as for No. (13).

(ii) JUJAVALI.

- (a) Ri is varja-vakra. Sañcāra: s m g m p d n ss d n d p m g s—G; RL names it Jujāhuli or Sujaskāvali with the same sañcāra with descent as s n d p m g r g s; SV gives the Sañcāra: s M g M p D n s—d N d p p M g S, naming it Jujāhuri.
 - (b) Svara values same as for No. (13).

N.

III. 450 to 455.1.

(iii) KALGADĀ.

- (a) s r g p d n s—s n d p g r s—G. SV gives the sañcāra: S r G p p D N S—S n D P p G R S; it is named Kalangadā in RL.
 - (b) Svara values same as for No. (13).

 No. (14) VAKULABHARANAM.
- (a) Sampūrņa—G, RL, and RS; V gives the mela the name 'Vaṭī Vasanta Bhairavī' and adds that 'Vasanta Bhairavī' uses pa sparingly. Tulajā gives the same description under the name Vasanta Bhairavī, and adds that in ascent the phrase s r g m does not occur and in descent pa is omitted.
 - (b) R. G. and D. N.
 Same as for No. (13). I. 455:1
 II. 460:7
 474:
 III. 455:1 to 469.

No. (15) MAYAMALAVAGAUDA.

(a) Sampūrņa according to G, RL and SK. V gives the same lakṣaṇa. Tulajā repeats it but adds that in ascending from madhya to tāra ṣadja ga and ni do not occur regularly, e.g., d s s r—s r m g r—m p d s S etc.

(b)		R.		G.		D.	N.
		273		320		409.6	479.9
	II. 2			324	3 1	399.9	486
		284-4	100			404.4	491.5
		•		X	orining dispersion of the second contract of	426.7	497.6
	III. 2	266 7		320		404.4	479
		to		to		to	to
		284		337		426	486

JANYA RAGAS.

(i) SAVERI.

(a) srmpds—sndpmgrs—G, RL, SK; Venkaṭamakhin defines this as pūrṇa, ga and ni being omitted in ascent, and sometimes used as triśruti notes (which is still true); classed under 'Gurjari mela' as an auduva by omitting ga and ri—GD; T agrees with V; RV gives the phrases:—d n d p d—r s r g s r s—r g s r m g r—S g r g p d n d p n d etc.; A omits ni altogether, but otherwise agrees with G.

(b)		R.	G.	D.	N.
	Ι.	273	320	426.7	479.9
	Π.	266.7	307.2	399.9	486
		269.7	324	409.6	406
		284.4		404:4	
	III.	269·7	320	404.4	460
		to	to	to 🎺	y to
		273	324	426	479

(ii) GAULA.

(a) D is varjavakra in ascent and descent; s r g m r m p n s—s n p m g m r s—G and SK; RL gives s r m p n s for ascent; V says it is ṣāḍava by omitting D, and uses G irregularly:—s r m p n s—s n p m r g m r s; A says it omits G and D; GD says it is ṣāḍava by omitting dha and has for amśa ni and ri; Tulajā's treatment of ga is significant and illustrated in the sañcārī: r m P n s r g m r r s s n p—p m r s—S R G M R R S etc.

(b)	R ₄ O	G.	N.
I.	266·7	320	479.9
II.	269·7	324	486
5	273		• -
105	266·7	• •	<i>47</i> 9∙9
70	to		to
di	273		491.5
2.3.7			

(îii) BAUĻI.

(a) Srgpds--sndpgrs--G, RL and SK; V defines it as omitting ma, and without ni in ascent. SD says that ni is sparingly used in ascent; according to GD ni is omitted but ma is amśa; Tulajā calls it Bahulī and defines it as Ṣādava by omitting ma: the phrase pdn s in ascent is rare according to him.

(b).	R	G.	D.	N.,
	I. 269·7	320	409.6_	479.9
100	AT. 1273	324		

111. 269·7 32·	409-6
to to	- to
273 330	426

(iv) NADANAMAKRIYA.

(a) Sampūrņa in āroha and avaroha. 'Madhya rāga'. Sañcāra: Srgmpdn—ndpmgrsN—G; RL defines it as sampūrņa and vakra and gives the sañcāra:—Srgmpdpns—nsndpmgrs and an Andhra reading: srgmpdn—ndpmgrsn; V describes it as pūrņa; it is adorned by m, and omits g in ascent according to Ahobala, who gives the phrases s MsrgmMgmpdnddpmppmpMM—SrMM; Sampūrņa, has antara ga and not sādhāraṇa ga—GD; in ārohaṇa and avaroha the mūrchanās are not irregular—T; V, T and GD call it Nādarāmakriyā.

(b) R. G.	D. N.
I. 273 320	409.6 479.9
II. 269 7 307	2 404.4 460.7
III. 269 [.] 7 320	409.9 479.9
to	to to
273 324	426·7 491·5

(v) MECABAULI.

(a) s, r g p d s—s, n d p m g r s—G. RL identifies this with the Andhra reading, and in an alternative reading includes ni in ascent; sampūrņa and without ma and ni—V. T calls it pūrņa and gives the phrases: r s d r s—d s r G—r g d d p p m m g g p d S—n d p M p d n d p m g r S r s n.

 $(b) \qquad \qquad R. \qquad G. \qquad D. \qquad N.$

Their values are the same as No. (15).

(vi) REGUPTI.

(a) Srgpds—Sdpgrs—G, and RL which calls it Revagupti; V gives the same definition; T says it is audava by omitting ma and ni.

			G.	D ,	N.
T (vi f	$\mathbb{C}^{n}(\mathbf{I}_{i})$	273	320	409	6 479.9

(vii) MALAHARI.

(a) Srmpds—sdpmgrs—G and RL and V;—do—in avaroha the flow of notes in complicated and dense T.

(viii) MANGALAKAISIKA.

(a) ri is varja vakra in ascent. Sañcāra: s m g m p m D n s—S n d p m g r s—G. RL gives S m g m p d n s in ascent.

(a) s r m p n s—s n p d p m r s—G. RL names it also as Pahādi. V defines it as ṣādava, omitting ga and using dha irregularly; in ascent dha is leapt over—T;

(x) GAURI.

(a) Srmpns—sndpmgrs—G. According to V cyutapañcama is also used. SD gives the sañcara 'Srmpdns—sndpmpmgrs,' and remarks that cyutapañcama is used in descent.

(b) R.	G.	D.	N.
(b) R. I. 273	320	409.6	479·9

(xi) SINDHURĀMAKRIYA.

(a) Sgmpdns—snpdpmgs—G. (Under this name T defines an uttaranga mela).

(b)	G.	D.	N.
	I. 320	409·6	479·9

(xii) GAUĻĪPANTU.

(a) Srgrmpdpns—sndpmgrs—GandSK; V describes it as sampūrņa, and without g and d in ascent; T says it is a Bottabhāṣā, Pūrṇa and in Āroha g and d are omitted and the descent is regular. RV gives the phrases:

Dpnsrs—nsrgrs—nsrmgrs—rmpmdpmppmpdndp—mpnsr—srNdppdMGr—DMGr—rrgrs.

(xiii) SAURASTRA.

(a) Srgmpdns—snDpmgrs—G and RL. According to S. K. the sancāra is 'srgmpDns—sndnd pmgrs'. V says that it is sampūrna and uses occasionally pancaśruti dha, which is true to modern practice, which almost exclusively uses the sharp d; the Kaiśiki ni is an accidental note; RV gives the phrases: Sgrsnsrs—nsdnsr—ndnsrs—SSdpmgr—pndpmgretc. T classes it under this mela and says the notes are regularly and irregularly applied. He gives the phrases: srsnDp—pdpdndpdndpmgrgmPpetc.

(1	b) -		R.	. •	G.N.	-	$\mathbb{P}^{\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{T}}}}}}}}}}$	N.
٠.	1.1	1.	273		320	; ·	409.6	479.9
:	٠.	. : :		: • •	21,	٠.	426.7	460.7

(xiv) GURJARI.

(a) srgmpidns—sdnpmgrs—G. According to V it is sampūrna and has ri for graha; T says it is pūrna with the phrases: r s n p—d s r s n s n s—r s n s—d s r s—r g P m g s—D n s d p M—p m g g r—r s n s S: Ahobala says 'Dakṣiṇa Gurjarī' omits m and n in avaroha, e.g., g p d s r g r s d n d p d p g m g r S.

(xv) PARAJU.

(a) Sampūrņa according to G, V and RL. SK gives as sancāra: S G m p d n s—s n d p m G r s.

(b)	I I	ξ.	, G .		D	N.
	I. 2	73	320		409'6	479.9
(xvi)	PURV	I.	1. 18 to 10 to	\$ \$500 3 0		

(a) s r g m p d n d s—s n d p m d m g r s—G. V calls it sampūrņa. RL calls it pūrņa but gives an Andhra

reading which agrees with G's. Tulajā gives the phrases: SgrgmpdNddpS—sndpmgpmgGrs.

(b) R. G. D. N. I. 273 320 409·6 479·9 (xvii) VASANTAM.

(a) s g m d n s—s n d m g r s—G. V says it is sampūrņa with vakra ga in ascent, r being varja: it takes the cyutapañcama. In present practice, this rāga uses sharp d more often than the flat.

(b) R. G. D. N.
I. 273 320 409·6 479·9
... ... 432
(xviii) LALITA.

(a) Omits pa—V. Ahobala gives the same lak-sana and gives the phrases: s r g m d n s s n d m—g r s r s n s n d n n s r g m g r s n s etc.; GD gives the same lak-sana; Tulajā says it is a Takkabhāṣā. He gives the phrases: n s r m g r—r s n s n s n d—m d n s r—r m m d—m d n S n d n d m m g r r S etc.; Tyāgarāja's song beginning with the word 'Sītamma' has been traditionally handed down as composed in Lalita with the sañcāra 's m g m d n s—s n d m g r s', using sharp dha.

(b) R.	G.	D_{\bullet}	N.
I. 273	320	409.6	479-9
XO~		432	• •

No. (16) CHAKRAVAKAM.

(a) Sampūrņa—G, RL, SK and RS. V gives the name 'Toya Vega Vāhinī'. According to him 'Vega Vāhinī' is Sampūrņa.

(b)	R.	G.	D.	÷ .	N.
	I. 273	320	432		455.1
	II. 269·7	324	426.7		460.7
	No. (17)	SURYAKA	NTAM	*: :	

(a) Sampūrna—G, RL, SK and RS. V gives it the name 'Chāyāvatī; and says it omits Pa in āroha.

(b)	R	G.	D.	N.
I.	Same as	for No. ((16).	479.9
II.	그건 글로부			486

JANYA RAGA BHAIRAVAM.

- (a) s r g m p d n s—s d p m g r s—G. RL says it is vakra pūrņa in descent. V calls it pūrņa and assigns it to the 16th mela; Subbarāma Dīksitar gives it the sañ-cāra:—s r g m p d n s—s d p m p m g r s.
 - (b) Svara values same as for No. (17).

No. (18) HATAKAMBARI.

(a) Sampūrņa—G, RL, SK and RS. V calls it 'Jaya Suddha Māļavi', pūrņa using vakra dhaivata.

(b)	R. Ga	nd Ni.	Dha.
	Same as for	No. (17)	455,0
Π_{*}			440
No. (1	9) <i>JHANK</i>	$\bar{A}RAD$	HVANI.

(a) Sampūrņa—G, RL, SK and RS. According to V, its name is 'Jhankāra Bhramari' and ni is omitted in ascent.

(b) R.	, Gl	D.		N
I. 287·9	307.2	409	6	450
\mathbf{H} .	\wedge			436.8
37. (20)	37 4/21 4/21 7			

No. (20) NATABHAIRAVI.

(a) Sampūrna—G, RL, SK, RS and RP. V calls it 'Nārī Rītigauļa'; according to him Rītigauļa omits dha in ascent. S. Dīkṣitar gives the sañcāra s r g m p d p n s—s n d m g r s; Tuļajā defines the Bhairavi meļa with śuddha m and d, sādhāraṇa ga, Kaiśiki ni and pañcaśruti dha. This is to be noted, cf. V. Govinda Dīkṣita also similarly defines the Bhairavi meļa.

(b) R	G.	D. N .	
I. 287·9	3 07·2	404.4 455.1	
П.		409.6	

JANYA RĀGAS.

(i) BHAIRAVI

(a) G defines it as 'pavarja vakra' in ascent and 'pavarja' in descent:—s r g m n d n s—s n d m g r s. According to RL, it is sampūrna in ascent and omits pa in

descent. According to SK it is sampūrņa. V defines it as sampūrņa and as taking pañcaśruti dha occasionally. According to RP it is sampūrņa. A assigns it only flat dha, with the phrases:—s r g m p d n—s n d p m g r s—s g m g m g m p m g r s. T says it is Upānga, named 'Bhairavī': Dha is amśa: Sampūrņa with the phrases:—g r s—s r s n n d—p d n d p m—p d n s—n s g m g m—g m n n d n—p d n—s n n s. Present practice assigns it sharp and flat dha.

				•	< ~ >
(b)		R.	G,	D_{\bullet}) N.
	I.	287.9	307.2	404•4	455.1
				432	
	II,	284.4	303-3	409.6	449•4
		291.6		426.7	460.7
				436•8	
	III.	287.9	307.2	404•4	455-1
		to	to 🚫	to	to
		300	31 7 ·7	419	374
			els.	432 to	
			els.	449 .	

(ii) RITIGAULA.

(a) 'Sampūrnavakra' in ascent and descent: s g r g m n d m p n s—s n d m p d m g r s—G. According to RL it is pūrnavakra in ascent and pa is omitted in descent: S g r g m p m n d n s—s n p m g r s. SK defines it as S g r g m n s—s n d m p m g r s. According to GD, n is amsa, and the rāga is pūrna. Tulajā says that in descent r is omitted and mūrchanās ending in pa are many. In descending from s to p, d is omitted. He gives the phrases:—g m g r G r s—g m n d m N N—d m G r—n n n—g r s etc. Dha flat and sharp are used.

(b)	R. I. 287 9	G. 307·2	D <u>.</u> 404·4 432	N. 455·1
			432	*

(iii) JAYANTASRI.

(a) sgmdns-sndmpmgs-G.

(b)	• :	.;		G.	-	\mathbf{D}_{\bullet}		:		N.
या अमेर	1.	8.60 (15.15)	'	307*2		409.6	-	٠.	1.	455.1

(iv) HINDOLAM. The street is to say

(a) R and P are varja and vakra is ascent: s m g m d n s—s n d m g s—G. RL defines it as S g m d n s—s n d m g s. V calls it auduva by the omission of ri and pa; ditto, A and GD.

(b)		G.	D.	N.
I,	10.17.2	307.2	426.7	455.1
II.		303.3	404•4	460 7

(v) $\overline{A}BHERI$.

(a) S g m p n s—s n d p m g r s—G, RL, and SK. According to V it is pūrņa and omits pa in ascent. SD gives it the sañcāra:—s m g m p s—s n d p m g r s. GD classes it under Āhari meļa, which gives all the above notes. He calls it pūrņa. Tulajā puts it under Bhairavi, and names it Pañcama Bhāṣā. He gives the phrases:—g m p s s—r s n s—n d p m g m—p s S M—m m g g s n S S—P m m g g s s—S m g m P s n n—s S n d p—m M m g r s; RP classes it under the same meļa. Dha sharp is at present used, contradictory to lakṣaṇa.

(b)	I.	R. 287·9	G. 307·2	D. 409 6	N. 455·1
	The second	9.	ing a paragraphy	432	1 00 1

(vi) UDAYARAVI CANDRIKA.

- (a) Sgmpns—snpmgs—G. V admits the sancara but places it under No. (9). Tulajā derives it from Nāṭamela with dha and ga omitted. He gives the phrases:—snp—snpmrpm—psns—rrpmp—snnsetc.
 - (b) Svara values same as for No. (20).

(vii) ĀNANDA BHAIRAVI.

(a) G calls it sampūrņa vakra in ascent and sampūrņa in descent. According to V, ri is omitted and dha is vakra in ascent, and the rāga is sampūrņa. RL defines it as Sgmpns—sndpmgrs and also sgrgmpdpns—sndpmgrs. SK gives sgrgmpdps for

ascent. A derives it from Bhairavī and gives:—n n s g G g r s r r s n s—n n m g g m m p m g g m g G g r s n N s M—D p m m p m g g m g G g g g G g r s n n s g g r s n n S S as sañcārī. Tulajā says that the ascent and descent of notes are not regular but complicated e.g.:—P d p m P m m g g r s n n s—g g s—P p S s—n n d—d p p m—m g g r s—n n s g G S etc. RP gives Dha as amsa and gives m p d P S n—d p M G r s n S etc. Antara ga Kākalī ni and sharp dha are admitted now as accidental notes.

(b)	R.	G_{\star}	D. 🚫	N.
1.	287.9	307.2	409.6	460.7
	11.7	-324	432	479.9

(vivi) DEVAKRIYĀ.

- (a) 'Madhyarāga'. Pa is varjavakra in ascent and dha is vakra in descent:—s r g m n d n—p d m g r s n—G. This sañcāra is called 'Āndhra' by RL, which gives also s r g m d n s—s n d m g r s. (V's Devakriyā corresponds to G's Suddha sāveri) RP describes it as pūrņavakra under No. (20) with dha for amśa. T agrees with V. Gatuśśruti dha is also used.
 - (b) Svara values same as for No. (20).

(ix) MANJI.

- (a) Sampūrņa—G and RL. SK defines it:—s r g m p n d n s—s n s p d p m g m r g s. V calls it sampūrņa and SD defines it:—n s R g m p d n s—s n d p m g r s. Sharp dha is now used as an accidental.
 - (b) Svara values same as for Bhairavī.

(x) NAYAKI.

(a) Ga is 'Varjavakra' in āroha and sampūrņa in descent:—s r g m p d N d p s—s N d p m G r s—G. RL calls it 'Andhra' in form. V says it is sampūrņa and sung according to practice and classes it under No. (22). Now the rāga adopts sharp dha only.

(b) R.	G .	D.	N.
I. 287 9	303:3	432	455.1
II. 291.6	307.2	437:4	460.7
III.	303-3		432
	to		to
	311 1		455

(xi) GHANTĀRAVAM.

(a) Sampurna with dha for graha-V. SD says that this is traditionally called Ghanta and gives its murchanā as sgrgmpdpndns—sndpmgrs. In this rāga, suddha ri, sharp ri, flat and sharp dha occur. In current usage śuddha ri and śuddha dha predominate. RL under this mela gives the sañcāra:—s g r g m p n d n s—n s n d p m p m g r s. SK classes 'Ghantāravam' under No. (8) with the sañcāra:—srgmpns—sndpmgrs; it adds the phrases S n D p d n s and G r g m p and calls the raga 'sankrama'. A calls it Ghantā, assigns it komala dha, and gives the sancari:—g m p d n s—r s n s n d p m g m p d p mgmpmgrssrssn—gggmpdpmgrssrsn -gmpdnsndpmpmpmgmgrgrsn-pdnS r s n S. RP classes 'Ghanta' under No. (20) and calls it sampūrna vakra in ārohana and avarohana. GD puts Ghantā under Śrīrāgamela, with dha for amśa; it is pūrņa. T gives for it the following sancari under Bhairavi mela:-Pmpgrsgrnsgrgmp—ndP—NS—nsndP mpndp-pmpmgrsgrnSS-Nsgr-gmgr-Sgrrsddp—mpdPsSS—nsndpmp—ndp—p ppmgrsgrnSS.

(b) R.	G.	D. N.
I. 273	307-2	409.6 460.7
287.9		432
No.	(21) KĪRAVĀNĪ	

(a) Sampūṇa—G, RL, and SK. V calls it Kiraṇā-vaļi, with pa vakra and ma omitted in ascent and in descent vakra dha and ma.

b)		G.	D.		N.
	I. 28 7 ·9	307-2	409.6	S. College	479.9

No. (22) KHARAHARAPRIYĀ.

(a) Sampūrņa—G, RL, SK and RP. V calls No. (22) by the name Śrī with pūrņa āroha and the slight use of dha, and vakra ga in descent. SD gives Srmpns—s n p d n p m r g r s.

(b) R. G. D. N. 1. 287·9 307·2 432 460·7 JANYA RĀGAS.

(i) \$R\bar{I}.

- (a) Avaroha is sampūrņa vakra. Srmpns—sn p dn pmrgrs—G and RL. A says it omits g and d in ascent and gives the sañcārī:—rrpmgrgrsSSns ndpmpnns—nSrmmppnnSrgrsnsndpmpmmmgrrgrgrsnnS. GD calls it pūrņa. T says it is very popular, 'the prince of rāgas', the first of meļas and pūrņa: its sañcārī according to him is:—Ssns—rgrs—snp—mrmpnp—nsnsrgrs—snnpdnpmmPetc. He says that it belongs undoubtedly to the ṣadjagrāma.
 - (b) Svara-values same as for No. (22).

(ii) MADHYAMAVATI.

(a) Srmpns—snpmrs—G, RL, SK and V. GD puts it under Śrīrāga mela. A gives r, m and n as amśas, with the sañcārī:—mpnsrmrsnspmpnpmpmpmrmrs. T calls it rāgānga under Śrīrāga mela and gives the phrases:—pPmnpnpmrmrmmmpnns etc.

(b) R. N. I. 287 9 455·1

(iii) MAŅIRAŅGU.

(a) Dha is varjavakra in ascent, and dha is omitted in descent:—s r G m p n s—s n p m G r s—G. RL gives it as the Andhra reading: it also gives:—s r m p n s—s n d p m g r g r s. V agrees with G. RP says it is pūrnavakra in avaroha. According to T it is ṣādava by

the omission of dha, and has the phrases:—h s r g r n n s n —g r r s n—s r m p—m p n—s n p m g r—r S S etc.

(iv) SAINDHAVI.

(v) USENI.

(a) R is amśa; Sampūrna. Sañcāra:—S R G m p d n s—s n d p M g r s—G. RL says this is the Andhra reading; its other reading is S r g m p d n s—s d p m g r s. V calls it a sampūrņa rāga. According to SK the sañcāra is S r g m p n d n s in ascent. RP gives ri as amśa, and calls it pūrna and pūrṇavakra in ārohaṇa and avarohaṇa. T calls it pūrṇa, with sa for amśa, and gives the phrases:—r g M g r S—r g m p n m n d p m—n d n S—n d p m—p d m g r s—r g r r s. RV gives the phrases:—n d n s r—s r g r—s g r r s—r g m p m g r g s r—r p M g r m g r—S g r r—s s r g m p d p n d n p d m—d n d n s—n d n s r S n d p—m p d n p d—m p m g r s etc. Suddha dha occurs as an accidental in current usage.

(b)	,-		R.		G.		D.		N.
		I,	287 9		307.2	A 44	432		460.7
	-		. A	5,		100	300.C	. 4. 1	A STATE OF STATE OF

(vi) KAPI.

(a) SrGmrpmpdns—sndpmgrs—G. This is an Ändhra reading according to RL which describes the sancāra as sampūrņa also. V describes it as sampūrņa. RP says it is famous and sampūrņa in āroha and avaroha. Tuļajā calls it pūrņa and gives the phrases:—Rggrs—rgmpdns—sndpmgrs—Rggrs—ndp—DNS—pdnsrgmpmnn—snpmmpmpgrsrnn—dpmpdns—rrnpmgrs.

('Hindustāni Kāpi', which is the popular form of Kāpi, uses antara ga, śuddha dha and Kākalī ni in addition.)

(a) Srmpdns—SNdpmGRS. The descent is sampūrna and in it ri and ga are shaken—G. RL gives the same sañcāra.

(b) R.	G.	D.	N.
I. 287.9	307:2	432	460.7
III.	307.2		
.00	to		
-95	337		17.

(viii) MUKHĀRI.

(a) In āroha dha is varjavakra. Saficāra:—s r m p d n d s—s n d p m g r s—G and RL. According to SK it is s r m p n d s—s n d p m g r s. V puts it under No. (20) and defines it as omitting g and n in ascent. (GD identifies it with the 'suddha' meļa.) A assigns komala ri, pūrva ga, pūrva ni and komala dha and gives the phrases:—d S r m m P n n d p m g g r s r s s—d s r m m p d s s r g g r r s n d n n d p m p M g r s r s s D S. At present suddha dha is also used.

(b) R.	G.	D.	N.
I. 28 7 ·9	303-3	409.6	455-1
		432	

No. (23) GAURI MONOHARI.

- (a) Sampūrņa—G. V calls it Gaurī Veļāvaļi: according to him Veļāvaļi omits ga and ni in ascent.
 - (b) R. G. and D. N.
 I. Same as for No. (22) 479.9

 No. (24) VARUNAPRIYA.
- (a) Sampūrņa—G. V calls it Vīravasantam: It is gavarja, with vakra dha, omits dha in ascent and is sampūrna.
 - (b) R. G. and N. D.
 I. Same as for No. (23) 455.1

 No. (25) MARARANIANI.
- (a) Pūrṇa—G. V calls it Sāravati, which omits ri and ga in ascent according to him.
 - (b) R. G. D. N. I. 287.9 320 409.6 450

No. (26) CARUKESI.

- (a) Pūrṇa—G. Called Tarangiṇī by V according to whom it omits ri and ga in ascent, and in descent uses the phrase p d n r g M g r.
 - (b) R. G. and D. N. I. Same as for No. (25). 460.7.

 No. (27) SARASĀNGI.
- (a) Sampūrņa—G. 'Saurasena' omits ri in descent—V.
 - (b) R. G. and D. N.
 I. Same as for No. (25). 4799

 No. (28) HARIKAMBHOJI.
- (a) Sampūrņa—G, RP etc. Called 'Harikedāra-gauļa' by V who defines Kedāragauļa as Sampūrņa and omitting g and dha in ascent. Govinda Dīkṣita calls Harikāmbhoji by the same 'Kāmbhoji' mela.
 - (b) R. G. D. N. I. 287.9 320 432 455.1 II. 291.6 324 437.4 460.7

JANYAS.

(i) KÄMBHOJI.

(a) Omits ni in ascent and is pūrņa in avarohā—G. V calls it sampūrņa and without ga and ni āroha. A says ma and dha are amsas and gives the phrases:—g p d s s n d s d s—d s r m m g r s—d s r m g r s s r g g r g r s—s n d p D p m g p d S r s n d p d p m g g p d s r g r s r m g r s s r s s s n d p d p m g r g r s etc. According to him m and n are omitted in ascent. Tulajā calls it a bhāṣā of Kakubha, omitting m and ni in ascent and gives the phrases:—g p d s S n p—p d n p d p m g r s—s r g m r s—d n p P D D S etc. The kākalī ni is now used in the phrase 'sNp'.

(b)	•	R.	G.	, D	N.
	Ι.	287.9	320	432	455.1
			. 80		479·9
	II.	284.4	324	426.7	460 ·7
		291.6	The same of the sa	437.4	• •
	III.	287.9	320	432	455.1
		to 🕔	to	to	tő
		291.3	327.4	440	464 1

(ii) KEDARAGAULA.

(a) Srmpns—sndpmgrs—G and RL. GD describes the mela of the raga as pūrņa with pañcaśruti ri and dha and the other notes given above. RV gives the phrases:—n srgrs—n nSrgsr—Sgrgrs—m grgrs—m dpmg—r mpdpdmpd—mpnndp—pndnpdmdpmgr—dpdmpndp—sndpdmpnS—sndpdmpnS—snddMggS. Tulajā derives it from Kāmbhoji mela; calls it pūrņa and gives the sañcārī:—S sndp—nndpmgr—r mpnNd—n sndpm—pnnS etc.

(b)	,	\mathbf{R} :	 G.	D.	N.
	I.	287.9	320	432	455.1
,	ΙÌ.	284.4	••	426.7	460.7
	100	291.6		437.4	

(iii) MOHANA.

(a) Srgpds—sdpgrs—G and RL. Classed under No. (65) by V. Tulajā calls this 'Mohanakalyāni' putting it under Kämbodi mela with the phrases:-Srsd p-dsrgrgp-gpdS-dpdsdp-dpgr-gpgdpd gpgdpG-pG.rgrRS; he says the svara groupings are vakra in this rāga.

(b)		R.	Ģ.	D.
,	I.	287.9	320	432
	II.	291.6	•	437-4

(iv) JUNJHUTI,

ary.org.i (a) 'Madhyarāga'; mandra ni is omitted in āroha and avaroha is sampūrņa; Sañcāra:—d s r g m p d n dpmgrsndpdS-G. SK gives the sañcāra:-dsrg m p d n-n d p m g r s n d p. The sādhāraṇa ga is also now occasionally used.

(b)		R.	E G	D.	N.
	I.	287.9	320	432	455.1
			303.3	•	1111

(v) SAHĀNA.

(a) N is amśa. Sañcāra:—s r g m p m d n s—S n d p m g m r g r s—G. RL says it is pavarja and vakra in ascent:—Srgmdmdns, and in descent sampūrņa. V classes it under No. 22, with pa as vakra in ascent and as pūrna. There is nowadays a tendency to introduce the Kākalī ni as an accidental: This is not sanctioned by traditional laksya and laksana.

(b)	R.	G.	D.	N.
I	[. 287 ·9	320	432	<i>4</i> 55∙1
II	[. 2 84·4	311.1	426•7	460.7
		30 7 ·2		

(vi) NILAMBARI.

(a) In āroha it is sampūrņa vakra, and dha is varjavakra in avaroha; the sañcāra is:--s r g m p d p n s -s n p m g r g s-G. SK classes it under the same Mela,

but gives the avaroha as s n p d n p m g r g r m g s. RL classes it under Mela No. (29) with the sañcāra:—s r g m p d n s—S n p d p m g r g m g s. V puts it under No. (29) calls it sampūrna, with vakra dha, and vakra ri in avaroha; SD gives it the sañcāra:—S r g m p d p n n s n d n s—P n p M g r g s. RP puts it under No. (28). Current laksya makes use of Kākalī ni generally with Kaisiki ni as accidental. RV gives the phrases:—n s S s n s g g m g g r m g s—S n p n n S—n s g r s—n n S m—g g r m g—S g r g m g m p—g m p d p m p—m p d n p m g m—p d p m g s—p S n p d p m—g m p n n s n n d—p n d n d m g m r m g s etc.

(b) R.	G.	-3OD	N.
I. 287·9	320	432	479-9
••	₹?	~	460.7
- II. 291.6	307 2	426.7	455-1
(vii) SAMA.	ani.		

(a) S r m p d s—S d p m g r s—G. V accepts this sañcāra, but classes it under No. (29). Tulajā puts it under No. (28), and gives the phrases:—S r s r m g r—m m d d p—d D S—S d p m p m g s r s s etc.

(b) R.	G.	D,
(b) R. I. 287·9	320	432

(viii) DVIJĀVANTI.

(a) Āroha is sampūrņa vakra, avaroha is sampūrņa visamavakra. Sañcāra:—s r g m p d n s—s n d p m g r g s—G. RL says it is pūrņa in āroha and vakra in avaroha; gives the sañcāra of the descent as S n d n d p m p g r s, calling G's rendering as Āndhra. V calls it sampūrņa and as sung according to laksya; SD gives the sañcāra:—R g m p d s n d n s—n d p m g r s—r m g r s. Sādhāraṇa ga is a visiting notē.

(b) R. G.	D. N.
I. 287 9 320	432 455-1
207.2 ·	1. 等价等等的 建镍铁铁铁

(ix) YARUKULAKAMBHOJI.

(a) Srmpds—sndpmgrs—G, RL and V. RV gives Yarukulakāmbhoji tānam as:—MPndPndp—mdpdpdpndp—mpmdpmgr—srmpdndd—mpdpdmgr—ddpmgr—pdsndd—pdmpdmpd—sndpmgrs—rmpdsnd.

(b)	R.	G.	D.	N.
I.	287 9	320	432	455 1
II.	291.6		437.4	460 7
	284.4		426.7	0)

(x) SURATI.

(a) Srmpns—s NdpmgpmRs—G. According to RL, g is omitted in aroha and in avaroha. V defines it as omitting g and d in ascent: calls it Surata.

(b) R.	G.	. 82	D.	N.
I, 287·9	324	1 4	32	455.1
II. 284·4	N	1. 1. 6. 6. 6.		460.7

(xi) KHAMAS.

(a) G defines it is bereft of ri in ascent, and in avaroha is sama-visama-vakra, and mixed with catusśruti ri. His sañcāra is S g m p d n s—n s n d p m g s.

Now kākalī ni is occasionally used as an accidental.

(b) R. G. D.	N.
I. 287·9 324 432	455.1
	486
II. 320 426.7	460.7

(xii) NAŢAKURAÑJI.

(a) Srgmdns—sndmgs—G. According to SK, it is Srgmdns—sndmpmgs. V says it omits p and r in descent. T calls it pūrņa, and says pa is leapt over; he gives the phrases:—Sndns—nsr—Gmrsnd—nsnpD—ndmgs—mgmndns—etc. RV gives:—Sndnpdndns—nsrrsr—mgs—gmpmmg—smgmmnndns—etc.

(b)		\mathbf{R} .	G.	D.	N.
	I.	287.9	324	432	455·1

No. (29) DHĪRASANKARĀBHARAŅAM.

(a) Sampūrņa—G and V. SK and RL class 'Sankarābharaṇam' as a janya under this scale with the sañcāra:—S r g m p d n s—s d p m g r s. GD calls it a sampūrṇa rāga with pañcaśruti ri and dha and describes its meļa. Tulajā makes an interesting distinction between the meļa and the rāga named Śankarābharaṇam; he says that this rāga is derived from Śankarābharaṇa meļa, and uses pañcaśruti dha. He gives the phrases:—s s n d n S d p —m g r g m p d n S n D—g—g r s—s n d n S—S n P—D p —g p d S N S D M G m R s etc. RV gives the phrases:—n s d n p d n s r s—g m r g—s m g m p m g etc.

(b)		R.	G/V	D.	N.
		287.9	324	432	479.9
	II,	291.6	320	437.4	486
	III.	287.9	324	432	4 7 9·9
		to 🦽	to	to	· to
		291:3	330	440	490

JANYA RĀGAS.

194

(i) KURANJI.

(a) 'Madhya rāga'; n s r g m p d—d p m g r s n s
—G. RL gives n s r g m p d n—n d p m g r s n; its
Andhra reading is S n s r g m p d—d p m g r s n s. V defines it as sampūrna omitting dha in ascent, with vakra
dha in descent. T calls it pūrna and upānga: in ascent
according to him g and d, and in descent d are leapt over:
he gives the phrases:—P m g r s—n n s r m g g r s—s n n
p m m— m g g r S—n n s—r m m g m p n n S etc.

(b) N.	R.	G. D.
I. 243	287•9	320 432

(ii) KEDARA.

(a) R and D are varja and vakra in āroha, and the avaroha is sampūrņavakra. Catuś-śruti dha is in-

cluded. Sancara:—s m g m p n s—S n p m g m d p m g r s—G. According to RL, s r g m p n s—s n p m g r s; the Andhra reading being s m g m p n s—s n p m g r s. V says it is an audava, by omitting dha, and its ga is vakra. T says it is saldava by the omission of dha and gives the phrases:—m g m p P n M P n SS—m g m g r s n s etc.

(b)	R.	G.	D.	N.C
	I. 287.9	324	426.7	486
	II.	320		479 9
(iii)	BYAG.	•		7,0

(a) Sgmpndns—sndpmGrs—G. Kaiśiki ni is now used as a visiting note.

(b)	R.	G.	D.	N.
	I. 287·9	· 324	432	479 9
	•		X	460.7

(iv) HAMSADHVANI.

(a) Srgpns—snpgrs—G and V.

(b)		R,	~	G	N.
	T.	2 87·9	0/1	324	486
	II.	273	\sim		474 1

(v) DEVAGANDHĀRĪ.

(a) In archa it is sampūrņa vakra, and sampūrņa in avarcha. Sañcāra:—s r g r m p d n S—s n D p m g R S—G. According to SK it is s r m p d s—s n d N d p m R S. (GD and T class it as sampūrņa under Śrīrāga meļa) Kaiśiki ni is used as a visiting note. V describes it under No. 22 as sampūrņa with vakra ri and dha.

(b)		R.		G.		D.	 N.
	I.	287.9		324	· ·	432	479.9
	: '	1.55		,			460:7
	II.		$\mathbb{T}_{k} = \mathbb{T}_{k}$	320			455.1

(vi) ĀRABHĪ.

(a) S r m p d s—s n d p m g r s—G. V says it omits g and r in ascent, and occasionally uses ri in ascent. RL gives ri as amsa. According to GD it is sampūrņa.

T gives the sañcārī:—S D R S—M g r S N—d n s—d d p—p m p d n d n s r M g r—r n s—D N N S. Tyāga-rāja avoids the open use of ni in his Pañcaratna Kṛṭi in Ārabhī. In current usage g and n are very sparingly applied.

(b) R. G. D. N.
I. 287·9 324 432 479·9
(vii) NAVAROJU.

(a) Madhyarāga. P d n s r g m p—m g r s n d p—G. RL repeats this lakṣaṇa and gives dha as amṣa. V says it is a sampūrṇa rāga, its range being within the two pañcamas (i.e., mandra and madhyama).

(b) D. N. -R. G. I. 216 243 287.9 324 (viii) ATĀŅĀ.

(a) In āroha g and d are omitted. Srmpns—snDpmgrs—G. Sampūrna according to V who classes it under No. (28). RL classes it under No. (28) giving the sañcāra:—Srgmpdns—Snpdpmgmrs; dha is amśa. Kaiśiki ni is now used as an accidental.

(b) R, G_x D, N.
1. 287.9 320 432 479.9

HII. 303.3

to
341.4

(ix) BILAHARI.

(a) Srgpds—sndpmgrs—G. V calls it Bilāhuri with vakra ma in ascent and occasionally using ni. T calls it Bilāhuri and gives the phrases:—srgpmggrs—rgpdsndsndsndpmgrsn—drS—nsdpmggrs—etc. Kaišiki ni is also occasionally used.

(b) R.	G .	D4.		N.
I. 287·9	3 2 0	432	a territoria	479.9
			,	

(x) SUDDHASAVERI.

(a) Srmpds—sidpmrs—G. With the same sancāra, classed under No. (28) in RL. According to V, it is classed under No. (1) as an audava omitting ga and ni. T classes it under Māyāmāļava with the above lakṣaṇa and gives the phrases:—sids—ddssrrMM—rmpddP—pMp—DS. We may believe that somehow ri and dha became sharpened and T's Suddhasāveri attained the modern form.

(b)	:	_	R.	 <i>i</i> .	D.	
		I.	287.9		432	

(xi) BEGADĀ.

(a) Sampūrņa vakra in āroha, and sampūrņa in avaroha. Sgrg Mpd Ndps—SNdp Mgrs—G. V defines it as sampūrņa and as omitting ri in ascent. RL says r and d are omitted in ascent and the rāga is sung with sampūrņa prayoga in descent: it gives the sañcāra:—sg mpn sor sgrg mpd Ndps—sndp mgrs. Ma and ni give character to this rāga and their peculiar values are given below.

(b) R.	G.	М.	D.	N.
I. 287.9	324	341.4	432	479.9
IV.		345.6		486
200		349.9		460.7
7O.		352		469.3
W III.		341.4		455.1
12,		to		to
		380 6		485.5

No. (30) NAGANANDI.

(a) Sampūrņa G. 'Nāgābharaṇam'; vakra d in āroha and no d in descent—V.

(b) R.	G		D .
I, S	ame as for No.	(29).	474·1
No	(31) YAGA	PRIYA.	

(a) Sampūrņa—G. 'Kalāvatī'; omits n in ascent and g is vakra in descent—V.

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(b)	. I. 3	R. 307·2	G. 324	D. 409 6	N. 436·8
	No. (32) <i>RĀG</i>	AV ARDI	HANĪ.	
			i. 'Rāgad R is varja-	cūḍāmaṇi': —V.	omits g in
(b)	I.	R. Same as	G. s for No. (3	D. 1).	N. 455·1
	No. (33) <i>GA</i> .	NGEYAB.	HŪŞAŅĪ.	10
(a are vakra		-	. 'Gangā	taranginī':	D and r
(b)		R. Same as	G. s for No. (3	D).	N. 479-9
	No.	(34) V	ÄGADHĪ.	\$VARĪ.	
	•			yānāṭa': o varjya—\	omits d in
(b)		R.	Th.	N.	D.
	I.	~	s for No. (3 5) <i>SŪLI</i> A	•	432
				eśākṣi' by cent, and g	
(b)	. 0.~	R.	G. for No. (34	$\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{z}}$	N. 479·9
JANYA.	,				
	EŚĀK.				
\vee (a)	Define	d by G a	s consistin	g of satsru	ıti ri, anta-
ra ga, cat	us-sruti	dha, kā	kalī ni, an	d omitting	g m and n
in ascent.	rne av	arona is	sampūrņa	vakra. G	adds now-

ever that the raga is derived from Harikambhoji meļa.

RL calls the rāga Deśākṣarī' and defines it as omitting ni in ascent and as being vakrapūrņa in avaroha; It gives the sañcāra Srgmpds—sndpmgmrs. SK classes it under No. (35), which is supported by a gita by Subramanya Aiyar of Tiruvaiyar.

GD defines Deśākṣī meļa as having śuddha ma, pañca-śruti dha, ṣaṭśruti ri, antara ga and kākalī ni, T derives Deśākṣī from the above meļa and gives the sañcārī:—g p d d s—m m m r—s s s n—p d r—P d—S n p p m m r s—r s s n d S S—d d p d S s—d s n p p m r—g p D S etc. V defines that Śailadeśākṣī omits r and n in ascent and g in descent.

(a) Sampūrņa—G. Under this meļa, G describes Nāṭa as of sampūrṇa āroha and as omitting g and d in descent. This agrees with V's definition. A gives the sañcārī:—r g m p d n s s n p m m p m m R S r g m r g m p d n s d n—etc. T calls it a Bhāṣāṅga derived from Nāṭa meḷa; he says ga is omitted and gives the sañcārī:—S S S n p—r g m d n s s n M p p—rl p N S—S S S n p S S S n—S S R r r g m p d n S n p etc.

(b)	''R. 💉	G.	D.	N.
. I.	307.2	324	460 7	479.9
II.	303.3		435.5	486
	311 1		440	
MI	303.3			
00	to			
100	317.7			

The foregoing are called 'Pūrvānga rāgas' by Venkatamakhin. The melas No. (37) to No. (72) are called 'Uttarānga rāgas' by him and differ from the former group only by the presence of the 'Pratimadhyama'. This single note is enough to establish a different rāga-personality as between two scales which have all other notes in common. Hence the values of the notes given in the melakartās in the Pūrvānga group apply generally to this group also, which can be taken to be distinguished solely by the value of the 'Pratimadhyama' in almost all the cases. The difference in nomenclature and sañcāra between the schools of G and V can be perceived by reference to the gītas by

G and V, the Caturdandi-prakāsikā and the Samgītasampradāyapradarśinī. Therefore only a few well known scales and ragas of the uttaranga group are analysed here.

No. (39) JHALAVARALI,

(a) Sampūrna—G. V calls this Dhāli Varālikā: he describes Varālī as pūrna. This definition of Varālī can be taken as final. GD defines it as having Suddha S. p, d, and g, kākalī ni, and satśruti ma. T says Varālī is pūrna, derived from this mela, a Bhinnapañcama Bhāsā, with the sañcārī: g r g m p d-m p d s S n d p m G r-Srgmpdns-rgmpdndp-mdndmggrS, etc.

(b) R.	G.	м, 🛷	D. N.
I. 266· 7	300	364.7	399.9 491.5
II. 284·4	291	379.2	409.6 505.6
273.0		10°	
III.	287.9	2,	486
	to O	*	to
	293.3		505.6

No. (45) SUBHA PANTUVARALI.

(a) Pūrna—G. V calls it Śaiva Pantuvarāļikā. He defines 'Pantuvarāļi' as pūrņa. Here also there is remarkable agreement between the 2 authorities, which should give Pantuvarālī a final definition. RL defines it as Sampurna in aroha, and omitting pa in descent. According to T this is purna and derived from Sindhurāmakriyā Meļa (consisting of Śuddha ri, sādhāraņa ga, 'antara' ni and Vikṛta Pañcama ma) with the sañcārī: Sr gmddndNs—ndpmgrS—rGrrS—grndNS etc.

(b) R. I. 273	G.	M.	D. N.
	307·2	364·1	409·6 486
No. (51) R	ZIN ATZ	ADDITA	1 3 7 7

(a) Pūrņa—G. Called Kāśīrāmakriyā by V, according to whom it is sampūrņa but with vakra ri in ascent.

VII]		THE ANA	LYSIS O	F RĀGAS		201
	(b)		G. 824		D. 409·6	N. 486 🛓
		No. (53)	GAMAN.	A\$RAMA	1.	
	(a)	Pūrṇa—G.	Called G	amakakri	yā by V.	
٠.	(b)		G. 324		D. 432	N. 479 9
JAN	YA.					
	(i) P	JRVIKALY	ĀNĪ.			'9',
~	(a)	Sañcāra: S	rgmpd	n d s—S	ndpmg	(I)S
G.	(b)	R.	G. Same a	M. is for No. (53) ^C OC	N.
		No. (65)	MECAK	ALYĀŅ.	Ľ	
	(a)	Samūrņa—	G. Calle	d Śānta K	alyānī b	y V.
	(b)	R. I. 287 9	G. 324 33 7	M. 364·1 368·6	D. 432 437·4	N. 486 497 6

JANYAS

(i) YAMUNA KALYĀŅĪ.

(a) Ni is varjavakra in ascent and descent. Sañ-cāra: Srgpmpds—Sdpmpgrs—G. V defines it as sampūrna, and as using śuddha ma; SD gives the sañcāra: Srgmpdns—SndpmGRS. SD gives g, r and d as amśa. Śuddha ma is also used as an accidental.

(b) R. G. M. D. 364·1 432 341·4

(ii) HAMIRKALYĀŅĪ.

(a) Spmpdns—Sndpgmgrs—G. SD gives sampūrņa āroha and avaroha, for this rāga, and mentions g, d and r as amśas. Suddha ma is used as an accidental.

(b)		R.		G.	Μ.		D.	N.
	I.	28 7 ·9		324	364 1	(ar	432	
		-	٠.		341.4	,		

The foregoing rāgas represent perhaps the most important among those prevalent in the Karnatic System. Their lakṣaṇa is not summed up merely by a description of their sañcārī, but its essence is embedded in lakṣya. According to this their constitution is found to be rich with colours endowed by usage and constant refinement. What this compositeness means with reference to the problem of the śrutis is the aim of the study of the vibration numbers of the svaras occurring in these rāgas, and their values have been recorded in the light of my observations.

Generally there is agreement between different Schools as regards the sañcāra of the rāgas other than those recorded above, making allowance for differences in the name's used by Govinda and Venkaṭamakhin. For their ārohaṇa and avarohaṇa reference may be made to the gītas by Govinda, Venkaṭamakhin, Paiḍāl Gurumūrti Śastrī, Tiruvaiyar Subramanya Aiyar, etc., and to the list of rāgas given in the Gānendu Śekharam, Gāyakalocanam, Gānabhāskaram, Sangīta Sampradāya Pradarśinī and other standard texts.

It is to be noted that many compositions of Srī Tyāgarāja in uncommon rāgas are from time to time being brought to the notice of the public. There is reason to believe that these rāgas have been created by Tyāgarāja in most cases, according to the Meļakartā scheme, and the lakṣaṇas for them are determined by the songs themselves. This adds to the difficulty of drawing up a final list of rāgas. Moreover, songs are being composed at present in many rare rāgas, the nature of which is therefore being defined for the first time. In Appendix V are given the ārohī and avarohī of some rare rāgas in which songs have been composed in recent times.

APPENDIX I.

SOME INTERVALS COMMON TO VEDIC AND KARNATIC MUSIC.

In the following passage:-

R S S Ņ S R S r S Ņ S S R s n S r s s yo(a) pām puṣpam veda—puṣpavān prajāvān paśumān bhavati —(Yajurveda)

R is sometimes intoned as a suddha rṣabha of less than 3 śrutis (corresponding to the dviśruti ṛṣabha of Karnatic music) but more often as a catuśśruti ṛṣabha. When rarely the verses are chanted at twice the normal pitch, R partakes the nature of a ṣatśruti ṛṣabha. N is sometimes akin to Kākali ni (15|8) but usually occurs as an interval divided from Sa by a tone.

In the line-

s R N s s R n S N s R s N S S R yatbānaś śamasa dvipade catuspade viśvam pustań gräme N S s R s S

asmin anāturam— (Yajurveda)

the intervals divided by asterisks are divided from one another by six srutis approximately. These can be treated as satisfuti intervals, which however do not occur as independent intervals but only result in the course of the particular piece chanted. There are numerous instances of this kind of interval in Vedic music of the above type.

The following Sāman using 7 notes, the only example of its kind, affords interesting and important material for study. The rendering in notation (the same as is given in Chapter II) is by Mr. Sankaranarayana Aiyar.

मो 5 मुत्वा वा व त क्ष ना 6 ए। आ 2 रे 1 अ

- A. सा स निस रीस समा स मा स नीथ। री स गा गा
- B. रीरीरीरीरिरीरिरीसारी। पाधाधा
 - C. धाथाधाधाधाधाधाधानीधा।गामामा स्मितिरिमाऽ² न्—इर्डिट का कवाऽ² र्—
 - A. या ग गा ग गा इ री स-गा री स मारि गारि गा री सा-
 - B. धा घ धा प भा पा—पाऽपाधाधाधाऽपाप—

- C. मास माम मागाः गागामामामागाग-्ऊ7—आरात्ता दास थमादाऽ² म्—
- A. मा-रीस गारि गारि गारि ग ग गारि गा री सा-
- B ती—पांधाधाधाधधधाधापाप---
- C. पा—गामामामाम मामागाग हा S² ऊ ऊ वा S² इ—ऊ⁷ S²—न आ गा³ S²³⁴ ही ॥
- A. गारीस गारि गारि गारी स-मारी स-स सा नी सा सा नि नी थ।
- B. पापाधाधापाप—नीपा—पपामापामागारी॥
- C. गागामामामागाग—पागा—गगारीगारीसाधा॥

- _ ८ 5 आ इ.ह—चासी वाओ ऽ 234 वा॥ उपश्रूऽ 23 गागद्यी—-गारी सासानी स्थला A. गा ग बी---गारी सा सा नी सा सा सानि नीध ॥ स गा गा री स
- B. धार्थधा—धापामापामागारी॥पथाधापाम
- C. मा म मा— मा गा गा री गा री सी था॥ ग मा मा गा री

धाऽ 343 इ—ओ ऽ 2345 इ ॥ डा ॥

- A. सानी था सा सा—गारी सानी था पा सा॥ नी था
- B. पा मा गा मा म—था पा मा गारी दि ॥ री ॥
- C. गारी सारीरि—मा गारी साधाध॥ धा॥

This Saman makes use of seven notes, a complete Saptaka from Krusta which occurs three times (under the number 7) to atisvarya. The notes according to A mode (representing current practice) may be seen to have close affinity to those of the sadja grāma. But it is very difficult to formulate a general rule governing the Saman notes of A mode. Because, very often, the first note or prathama is represented both by ga and ri and the mandra or fifth note by mandra pa; the atisvarya is taken to and rendered as sadja; the closes on the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th notes are often inexplicably rendered on the sadja svara; and there is no conscious effort to intone krusta as madhyama, though it is perceptibly raised above the prathama svara. these conditions, each Saman according to current has to be studied by itself. Most Sāmans are now sung to the notes ga (flat), ri (sharp), sa, ni (flat) and dha (sharp), the first three in the madhya octave and the other two in the mandra octave. Sadja, from its dominant influence, can be said to function as the keynote, and the nyāsa is too often on this note though it may be against the note prescribed as the final of the melody.

In the above Saman the progression of the scale is from madhya madhyama to mandra pañcama. The Krusta is rendered as a suddha madhyama though it is sometimes slightly less in pitch. In the music of the Gandharva Veda the 3 notes in mandra sthana, 'n, d and p' seem to have been raised by an octave and superimposed on the tetrachord 'm g r s' which gives the madhya Saptaka. inference is based on the assumption that the current rendering of the Sama Veda represents the ancient method.) The Saman notes in the form of this Saptaka correspond to the murchana of the sadia grama called 'Uttaramandra' (can it be that the name 'Uttaramandra' contains a reference to the raising of the mandra notes to the madhya sthāna?) In this Saptaka, Krusta is equal to ma (śuddha) and is literally a madhyama or middle note. This gamut, spreading over the 3 sthanas, i.e., the lower, middle and higher registers, (already mentioned in the Rkprāti-śākhya) is at the starting point of the practice of secular music.

The Nārada Siksā, though presenting difficulties regarding the śrutis and the order of svaras used in the Saman chant, goes a long way towards the elucidation of the general nature of the svaras of the Sāman scale. The relation of the Sāman notes and the notes of the flute in the Siksa is very important. The latter are mentioned simply by their names, without any other qualification, and as such, in my opinion, they refer to the suddha notes of secular music. This inference is supported by 2 facts. First, Saringadeva refers to the notes of the flute in the same manner without any qualification, meaning by them the suddha notes, and Kallinātha accepts this usage (vide verses 441 to 446, the Vādyādhyāya of the Sangīta Ratnākara). Secondly, the current intonation of the notes of the Saman chant is not incompatible with the Suddha notes of lay music taken to be mentioned by the Nārada Sikṣā, but closely corresponds to them. It is true that there is no strict uniformity in the notes in the current modes of rendering Sāmans, which generally are allied to the scale Kharaharapriyā. But if it is accepted, that the Sama Veda was chanted to the Suddha svaras mentioned by Bharata and Śārngadeva on the basis of the illustration of the Nărada Siksā with reference to the flute, the intervals used in the Saman scale must be the same as those of the sadja grāma, consisting of two, three and four śrutis.

APPENDIX II.

SOME UNFAMILIAR INTERVALS USED IN CURRENT RĀGAS.

In addition to the intervals given in Chapter II, the following also occur in the rendering of various ragas:—

	-	- (
256/225	40/27	128/75
	36/25	225/128
729/640	128/75	160/81
75/64	2187/1600	JIP.
243/200	1280/729	D.
2187/1600	50/27	<i>"</i>
176/128	243/125	

The vibrational values corresponding to these ratios are to be found in Chapter VII. It is to be noted that the more complex intervals often occur as modifications of the main notes which sustain a melody-type, oscillating about them freely within the range prescribed by the nature of the raga, and acting as the vehicle of gamakas while being shaped by them. It is with reference to such intervals that the full significance of the gamaka or the shake of a note being a vital manipulation of melody can be adequately realised.

In chapter VII some values of 'illusory notes,' (mentioned in Chapter II) which cannot be ignored in the practical rendering of music, are also given. For example, in Todi, G=312:9, and N=469:3; in Bhūpāla, G=301:7; and in Bhairavī, N=450:7. Other instances may be found in this chapter.

APPENDIX III.

VENKATAMAKHIN AND GOVINDA.

According to Mr. M. Ramakrishna Kavi copies of the Sangīta Sāstra Sankṣepa are available in the Andhra country, in Mysore and in the south, besides the copy in the Adyar Library. He is of the opinion that the work is more ancient than the Caturdandīprakā-śikā. But any criticism of the scheme of 72 meļakartās may be dated perhaps only since the time of Venkatamakhin. I consulted Mr. K. V. Ramachandran's copy of the Adyar manuscript. There is a printed version of the gītas contained in this rescension, and other written versions similar to this are stated to have been in circulation among artists in the Tanjore district for the past one century and more.

The differences between Venkatamakhin and Govinda in their treatment of theory are striking and fundamental and indicate the progress of the art. In Chapter II it was shown how Govinda departed from the Caturdandīprakāsikā in adopting 6 varieties each of rṣabha, gāndhāra, dhaivata and niṣāda, and 3 varieties of madhyama. He defines (evidently) suddha svaras thus:—

बहवो मेलकतौरो वर्तन्ते झादिसंकराः ॥
तेषां मध्ये (ऽ) च्युते (त ?) रायमेळवीणानुसारतः ॥
दे दे निषदगान्धारी त्रिस्त्री ऋषभधैवतौ ॥
पद्म पद्म चतुश्रैव षड्जमध्यमपद्ममाः ॥

The reference to the Acyuta Rāya Meļa Vīṇā may be associated with the Vīṇā of the same name mentioned by Rāmāmātya. The assignment of five śrutis to ṣadja and pañcama respectively is intriguing. Govinda's reason for this seems to be the fact that śuddha niṣāda and ṣadja according to his reckoning are separated by five śrutis and that śuddha gāndhāra and śuddha madhyama are similarly separated by five śrutis. Even according to him pañcama consists of four śrutis. He divides the octave into 12 sthānas, by combining the first and second śrutis into the first 'graha', the third and fourth śrutis into the second 'graha' and so on. These 12 sthānas are explained as the basic constituents of the 72 melas.

In the treatment of melas and their janya ragas, the differences between the two theorists are no less sharp, in spite of many points of agreement. The janaka melas of Venkatamakhin are treated by Govinda as janya rāgas in most cases. The assignment of śrutis to some notes in the case of many melas and rāgas, and the naming of several rāgas make the difference marked. Govinda defines several rāgas not found in the Caturdandīprakāśikā.

Venkatamakhin groups rāgas according to their graha, amsa and These 3 are represented by a single note, and the resultant groups are seven according to the seven notes of the gamut. He calls Nāta a Bhāṣānga Rāga, and a samenumerates 7 gaulas. pūrņa (though it has varjya svaras in avarohana). Suddha vasanta is described by him to be a rāgāngarāga and a janya of Śańkarābharana. Śrī, Ārabhī, Kedāragaula, etc., which have lopya svaras in their sancara, are called purna. His idea seems to be that a Rāga can be called pūrņa if all the 7 notes in the octave are used taking both aroha and avaroha into account. But Govinda restricts the term 'pūrņa' to apply to rāgas or scales with 7 notes in consecutive or regular succession in both aroha and avaroha. Current usage conforms to this application. Venkatamakhin's use of the terms 'sadava' and 'audava' are still accepted; according to Venkaṭamakhin, Dhanyāsi, Bhūpāla, Nāgadhvani, Gurjarī, Karnāṭa bangāla, Madhyamādi and Gaula are rāgāngas; Bhairavī and Chāyā gaula are upānga rāgas (vide the Rāgaprakarana of his work). This classification, excepting Chayagaula, does not agree with that of the anubandha appended to-the Caturdandiprakāśikā. classification in the anubandha is the same as that adopted by Mr. Subbarāma Dīkṣitar; in it is found another division of rāgas into ghana, rakti and deśīya. Venkatamakhin states that Sāmavarālī emanated from the Sāma Veda and that the sweetness of Madhyamādi is best expressed through the flute. Kalyāni, favourite among Mahommedans, and Pantuvarāli, popular amongst common people, are condemned by him as unfit for use in gita, prabandha, etc.

Venkatamakhin and Govinda differ fundamentally in their treatment of the melakartā rāgas. Govinda defines everyone of the 72 scales as sampūrņa in ārohaņa and avarohaņa. Consequently he classifies Venkatamakhin's scales as janyas wherever they are not sampūrņa in ascent and descent. He seems to be guided by the rule that a scale should be pūrņa in āroha and avaroha. In defining the scales Govinda gives the name of the kartā given by Venkaṭamakhin (which is often corrupted), secondly his own name for the kartā, and the sañcāra for Venkaṭamakhin's kartā (which according to him is a janya). The svaras and in many cases even

their srutis are given by him in ślokas. What is noteworthy is that Govinda renders even the ārohī and avarohī of each scale and rāga in anustubh metre. In the gītas for scales the svaras, śrutis (wherever necessary) and the sañcāra are explained: what is very important to note is the pūrna sañcāra of the āroha and avaroha of each scale in 2 consecutive bars before the close of each gīta.

In the following list of Govinda's scales, (a) represents the name of the scale given by Govinda and which usually corresponds with Venkatamakhin's name: (b) indicates Govinda's own name for the scale, which in each case is sampūrna in āroha and avaroha; and (c) gives Govinda's sañcāra for Venkatamakhin's scale mentioned in (a). This comparative study will show the place assigned by Govinda to Venkatamakhin's scales in his statement of theory. The rāgas under (c) are described by Govinda as janyas of scales given under (b). The definitions under (c) are reproduced here as found in the original.

- No. (1):—(a) Kanakāmbarī
 - (b) Kanakāngī
 - (c) Kanakāmbarī: सगरी गाम पाधानि। धसनी मा पमागरी॥
- No. (2):-(a) Phenadyuti
 - (b) Ratnangi
 - (c) Phenadyuti: स री मा पा थ सा नी सा । स नी था पा म गा रि सा ॥
- No. (3):-(a) Sāmavarāļī
 - (b) Gānamūrti
 - (c) Sāmavarāļī: सरिमा पाधनी सानि । धपमागा रिसानिसा॥
- No. (4):-(a) Bhanumati
 - (b) Vanaspāti
 - (c) Bhānumātī: सरिगारिम पासासा। सनि थापाम गारिसा॥
- No. (5):—(a) Manorañjanī
 - (b) Mănavāti
 - (c) Manorañjanī: सरिमापाध नी सानि। सानिधा पाधमागरी॥
- No. (6):-(a) Tanukīrti
 - (b) Tānarūpi
 - (c) Tanukīrti: सरिमापानिसासानि। धनिपामाग मारिसा॥

No. (7):—(a) Senāgranī

(b) Senāpāti

(c) Senāgraņī (The śloka-definition is missing: according to the gīta, pa is varjavakra in

ascent, and descent is pūrna)

No. (8):-(a) Todi

(b) Hanumattodi

(c) Todi: सरिगामाधनी सास । सनिधामागरी स

सा 🛭

No. (9):-(a) Bhinnasadiam

(b) Dhenuka

(c) Bhinnasadjam: सरियारी पमापानी। सिनिया मागरी सरी 🕡

No. (10):—(a) Natābharanam

(b) Näṭakapriyā

(c) Natabharanam: स रि गा मा प भा भा नि । स नि भा प्रमिगामरी॥

No. (11):=(a) Kokilārāva

(b) Kokilapriyā

(c) Kokilārāva सारेगारिम पाथानि। सनिधापम गारिसा॥

No. (12):—(a) Rüpyanaga

(b) Rüpāvatī

(c) Rupyanaga: समपाधाधनी सानि । धनिपामा गरीससा॥

No. (13):-(a) Hejjujji

(b) Vakulābharaņam

(c) Hejjujji: सरिगामाप था घासा । स नि घापाम गारिसा॥

(14):—(a) Vasantabhairavi

(b) Vakulābharanam

(c) Vasantabhairavī: सरिगा माधनी सानि। धम पा मा गरी रिसा॥

No. (15):-(a) Māyāmāļavagauļa

(b) Ibid (c) Ibid.

No. (16):—(a) Vegavāhinī

(b) Cakravāka

(c) Vegavāhinī: सारिगा साप भानी थ। सनि भाषास गारिसा॥

- No. (17):—(a) Supradīpa
 - (b) Sūryakānta
 - (c) Supradīpa: स रिमा पा घ नी नि सा। नि घ पा मा य मा रिसा॥
- No. (18):—(a) Suddhamādhavī
 - (b) Hāṭakāmbarī
 - ्(c) Suddhamādhavī: सगरीगामपाधानि। घ स नीधापमागरी॥
- No. (19):—(a) Jhankārabhramarī
 - (b) Jhankāradhvani
 - (c) Jhankārabhramarī: सगरी गाम पाधानि । धस नीधाप मागरी ॥
- No. (20) := (a) Bhairavī
 - (b) Natabhairavī
 - (c) Bhairavī: सारिगामाधनी सानी। धममागारि सानिसा॥
- No. (21):—(a) Kiranāvaļi
 - (b) Kīravānī
 - (c) Kiraṇāvali: सरिगामपथानी स। ससपामाग रीरिसा॥
- No. (22):-(a) Śrī Rāga
 - (b) Kharaharapriyā
 - (c) Sri Raga: सारे मापानि सानी पाध निपामारिगा रिसा॥
- No. (23):—(a) Velāvalī
 - (b) Gaurīmanoharī
 - (c) Velāvalī: सरिगामनपाभास। सनिभापूमगा रिसा॥
- No. (24):—(a) Vīravasantam
 - (b) Varunapriya
 - (c) Vīravasantam: सारेगामा पत्तापा स। निभनी प
- No. (25):-(a) Sāradvatī
 - (b) Mārarañjanī
 - (c) Sāradvatī; सरिगामपथानी थ। सनिधायम यारिसा॥
- No. (26):-(a) Taranginī
 - (b) Carukeśi
 - (c) Tarangini: स रिमा गारिमा पाष। स नि भा प म गारिसा।

No. (27):—(a) Surasena

(b) Sarasāngī

(c) Surasena: सारिगा मा पथा सा नि। घगमा मगरी

रिसा॥

No. (28):-(a) Kāmbhoji(di)

(b) Harikāmbodi

(c) Kāmbhoji; सरिगामपथा थास। सनिधापम

गारिसा॥

No. (29):-(a) Sankarābharana

(b) Dhīraśankarābharana

(c) Ibid.

No. (30):-(a) Sāmanta

(b) Nāgānandinī

(c) Sāmanta: सरिसामागमापाधा। निसासा नीधनीपमा॥ गगरीसारिसा...

No. (31):-(a) Kalahamsa

(b) Yāgapriyā

(c) Kalahamsa: सारिमा षा ध नी धा स । स नि धा प म री रिसा॥

No. (32):—(a) Rāgacūdāmaņi

(b) Rāgavardhani

(c) Rāgacūḍāmaṇi: सारिगामामपासासा। निधमा रिगसागसा॥

No. (33):—(a) Gangātaranginī

(b) Gängeyabhūsanī

(c) Gangātarangiņī स रिगा मा प सा नी थ। प मा गा म म री रिसा॥

No. (34):—(a) Chāyānāṭa

(b) Vāgadhīśvarī

(c) Chāyānāṭa: सरिगामपमापास। सनिधानिप गारिसा॥

No. (35):—(a) Desākṣī

(b) Śālinī

(c) Deśākṣī: सरिगामं पथा सानि। धपमामगरी रिसा।

No. (36) := (a) Nāṭa

(b) Calanāta

(c) Nāṭa: तरिगामपथानीस। सनियाममरी रिसा॥ No. (37):-

(b) Sālaga

No. (38):—(a) Jaganmohana

(b) Jalārņava

(c) Jaganmohana: सारिगमापभासानि। स निधापमगारिसा॥

No. (39) :- (a) Varāļi

(b) Jhalavarāļi

No. (40):-(a) Nabhomani

(b) Navanitam

(In the gita it is defined (c) Nabhomani आरोह्यनिवर्जवक, अवरोहसंपूर्ण.)

No. (41):-(a) Prabhāvatī

(b) Pāvanī

(e) Prabhāvatī: सरिमा प ध नी सानि ध म पा म रिगारिसा॥

No. (42): (a) Raghulīlā

(b) Raghupriyā

(c) Raghulīlā: स रिमाप निसानी घ। प मागम री रिसा॥

No. (43):-(a) Gīrvāṇa (b) Gavāmbodhi

(c) Girvāṇa: सरिगारिमगामाभ। निस्नीधसनीधपा॥ मगरीरी ...

(a) Bhavānī

(b) Bhavapriyā

(c) Bhavānī: सारेगमधानिसानि। र्भूष मागृगरी रिसा॥ -

(45):—(a) Pantuvarāļī

(b) Subhapantuvarāļī 🛊 🦮

(c) Pantuvarālī: सारेगा मणधानी स। स निधापम गारै सा॥

No. (46): (a) Tīvravahinī

(b) Şadvidhamargini

(c) Tivravāhinī: सरिगाम् पथापानि। ्स निधाप म गारिसा॥

No. (47):—(a) Sauvīra

(b) Suvarnāngī

(c) Sauvīra: सारि गारिम पाधानि। सनिपाषपमा गरी॥

No. (48):—(a) Jīvantinī

(b) Divyamani

(c) Jīvantinī: (the gīta defines it as आरोइरिगवर्जित and अवरोइरिधवर्जित)

No. (49):—(a) Dhavaļāngam

(b) Dhavalāmbarī

(c) Dhavalangam: समागमापधानीस। सनिधापम गारिसाध (in the gita it is called धनळाती)

No. (50):—(a) Narmadā

(b) Nāmanārāyaņī

(c) Narmadā: सरियामाधनी सानि। धनपामाय र रिसा॥

No. (51):-(a) Rāmakriyā

(b) Kāmavardhanī

(c) Rāmakriyā: सरिगामप थानी स। सनि थापामगा रिसा॥

No. (52):—(a) Ramāmanoharī

(b) Rămapriyā

(c) Ramāmanoharī: सरिगामापधायास। निनिया पामगारिसा॥

No. (53):—(a) Gamakakriyā

(b) Gamanaśrama

(c) Gamakakriyā: सारिमापाधनीसानि। धपमागा मरीरिसा॥

No. (54):—(a) Vaiśākha

(b) Viśvambhari

(c) Vaisākha: सरिगामा पथानी सा। निधनी पामगा

No. (55):—(a) Syāmala

(b) Syāmaļāngī

(c) Syamala: सगरी गैंम पाश्चानि। े घसानी वपसा गरी।।

No. (56):—(a) Trimūrti

(b) Şanmukhapriyā

(c) Trimurti: सारेगामा थ मा नी सा। स निभामगरी

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No. (57):=(a) Sīmantinī
          (b) Simhendramadhyama
           (c) Simantini: सरिगामपधानीसा
                            रिसा॥
No. (58):—(a) Simharava
          (b) Hemavanti (Hemavantini)
           (c) Simharava: स रिमापा नि सा।
                        ैं निपमारिगरी सनि॥
No. (59):—(a) Dhaumyarāga
          (b) Dharmavatī
           (c) Dhaumyaraga: सारंगा मप वा वा स। साने था
                              म गारिसा॥
No. (60) := (a) Niṣāda
           (b) Nītimatī
           (e) Nisada: सगरी मणसा निधा।
                         रिसा॥
No. (61):—(a) Kuntala
          "(b) Kāntāmani
           (c) Kuntala: सरिगामपथानी थ।
No. (62):—(a) Ratnabhāsurā
           (b) Rşabhapriya
           (c) Ratnabhāsurā: स रिमा ग रिमा पा नि । ध नि धा प
                               म गारिसात
No. (63):-(a) Gotrări
           (b) Latāngī
           (८) Gotrări: सरिमापाप घाषासः। निथाम गरी
                         रिसा ॥
No. (64):-(a) Bhūṣāvaļī
           (b) Vācaspati
           (c) Bhusavali: सिरिगाम पथा था स। स नि था प म गा
No_{\sim}(65) := (a) \text{ Kalyānī}
           (b) Mecakalyānī
No. (66): (a) Caturangini
           (b) Citrāmbarī
           (c) Caturangini: समगामपनी सानिः भ सिपागा
                             म गारिसा।
No. (67):—(a) Satyavati
         (b) Sucaritra
           (c) Satyavatī; स्रिमपथनीथास। निघपामगगा
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No. (68):-(a) Jyotismatī

(b) Jyotissvarupini (c) Jyotismati: संरिगाम पसासानि। निधमापम् रागिसा॥

No. (69):—(a) Dhautapañcama

(b) Dhātuvardhanī

(c) Dhautapañcama: स रिंगा म प नी पा स । नि ध पा म रिंगा मंदी ॥

No. (70):—(a) Nāsāmaņi

(b) Nāsikābhūşanī

(c) Nāsāmani: सारेगाम पथा नी स। , स निधापम गारिसा॥

No. (71):-(a) Kusumävali

(b) Kosala

(c) Kusumāvli: सगमाम्पधाना स। मारिसा।

No. (72):—(a) Rasamañjarī

(b) Rasikapriyā

(c) Rasamañjari: सरिगामपधानीस । सनि पान मरी। रेसा॥

In the above list of Govinda's scales, the names under (a) for numbers 12, 17, 30, 36, 41, 42, 46, 50, 54, 56, 57, 59, 62 and 63 from those given by Venkatamakhin. In some cases Venkatamakhin's names are either not stated fully or differently In the case of the scales Todi, Māyāmāļavagauļa, Bhairavī, Kāmbhoji, Śańkarābharana, Nāṭa, Varāli and Kalyāṇī, (c), (b) and (c) are similarly treated by the two authorities, except where (a) occurs as (c). It is noteworthy that Venkatamakhin's definitions of 'Bhairavī meļa', 'Kāmbhojī meļa', 'Sankarābharaṇa meļā', 'Suddhavarāļi meļa', 'Pantuvarāļi meļa' and 'Kalyāṇī meļa', (vide the Ragaprakaraņa of the Caturdandiprakāsikā) are accepted by Govinda along with the names to which he adds his own prefixes. Govinda differs from Venkatamakhin in substituting catuśśruti-rṣabha and-dhaivata for the pañcaśruti-rṣbha and -dhaivata used by the latter in the scales. There is close agreement in many cases between Venkatamakhin's sañcăra for (¢) and Govinda's sañcara for (c). It would appear that Govinda, having found that Venkatamakhin's scales partook the nature of janya ragas in the light of his own scheme of scales, propounded his own names corresponding to those of Venkatamakhin; and defined his

scales as pūrna in āroha and avaroha, and the scales of Venkatamakhin as janya rāgas classified as such under his own meļakartās.

The sancara of Govinda given in Chapter VII for scales and janyas is in the shape of formulae expressing the metrical definitions in the original. The following list gives some popular janya ragas of Govinda which have not been defined by Venkatamakhin.

No.	Name of Raga	Mela of	Govinda's Sañcāra.
		origin	
(1)	Suddhasimantini	N o. (8)	सरी गासापथाथासा । सथपा मागरी रिसा॥
		*	सरिगापुष्यानीस । सनिधा
(2)	Kalgadā	No. (13)	पार्वेभारिसा॥
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	No. (15)	सगमापानिसं चैव। सनिपामा
(3)	Jaganmohini*	140. (13)	गरिगसा॥
(4)	Sindhurāmakriyā	No. (15)	स गमा पार्थ नि धनी। स नी प ध
(. ,	•		प्रमगस्॥
(5)	Devakriyā	No. (20)	स रिगामाप धानी धानी पापम
	Vasantavarāļī	N	गरी रिसा॥ सरी सरिमापाधनी सानी। धपगा
(6)		No. (20)	सारमा पायना साना। प्राप्त री सरी ससा॥
<u>.</u>		No. (22)	सगगाममधाधास। निध्याम
(7)	Phalamañjari 💍	140. (22)	ग मारिसा।
(8)) Jayantasenā	No. (22)	्संगमाम पृपाथासा। स निथाप
(0)	100		मगासनि॥
(9) Ābhogi	No. (22)	
<	50.	*	गरीरिसा॥
(10) Jayanārāyaņī	No. (22)) सारिगामपथासानि। थपमाग रिसाथसा।
		N - (22)) सगरीगामपाधासा। धपमागा
(1)	l) Manoharī	No. (22)	(रेसाथसा॥
71	2) Kalānidhi	No. (22) सरिगामसपामा ४ । निसनीय
Ü	-,		प मा गरी
(1	3) Pañcama	No. (22) सारे भाषानी सानि। भागा
	* ** **	14.9°	रिसानिसा॥ र्ं≉

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(14) Siddhasena No	(22) संगरी गमपाधासा। निभ्नाप
	ति ति दि मरी गरी ॥ विभिन्न विभिन्न
(15) Suddhabangala No.	(22) सरिमाप घसाधाप। इमारिगारि
	संधाधसा॥ अधिके
(16) Mañjarī No.	(22) सूगरी, गमगनी था। तिसनी थ पमाग्री॥
(17) Nārāyaņī No.	(28) से रिमाप पंसानी था प्रमरी सस नी धसा॥
(18) Māļavī No.	(28) संदिंगामपनीमापः निसासानि धनीपमा॥
n de la companya de La companya de la co	म गराँ स च युक्तम्॥
(19) Pratāpavarāļī (Ac- No.	(28) समामाधानिधानिधासा—
cording to the	नि धेष मा मु स सा नि सा॥
Sañcāra, this	10°
must be Kuntala-	M'GDI S
varāļī. The error may be due to	70.
the scribe.)*	2.
(20) Sarasvatīmanoharī No.	(28) सरिगामधासाधानि।पनगारेस
	री ससा॥
(21) Sāma No.	(28) सरिमाप घसाधापा। मगरीस
7,	थसाधसा॥ -
(22) Bangālā No.	(28) सरिगामपमारीपा। सनिपामा
20	मरीगरी॥
(23) Rāgapañjaram No.	(28) सरिमापाथनी धासा। सनिधा
AL.	म रिसाधसा॥
(24) Ravicandrikā No.	(28) सारिगामधनी थास। सनिधास
*	गरी ससा॥
(25) Kokiladhvani No.	(28) सिरिगाम घनी थास । निभनीप म गारिसा॥
(26) Navarasakannada No	(28) सगमापसनी आमागरिसा हति
(The use of the	्य्छना॥
term मूर्छना in the	- April II
definition is sig-	
nificant.)	
(27) Nāgasvarāvaļi No.	(28) सगगामसपाधासा संघास

No. (28) सगगामसपाधासा

(28)	Bahudāri	No. (28) सगमापधधानी सा। सनिपा
•		म ग सा नि सा ॥
(29)	Kolāhalam	No. (29) स.प मान म पा घानी। स नि घाप
	· ·	म गारिसा॥
(30)	Janarañjani	No. (29) सरिगाम पनी सास । सथ मान
		रिसानिसा॥
(31)	Candrajyoti	No. (41) सरिगामपधाधास । सधधाप
		म गा रिसा॥
(32)	Mandāri	No. (50) संरिगामपनी नी सः सनिपामग
		. री रि सा ॥
(33)	Hamsanādam	No. (60) सारमा पृथनी सानिः धनीपमा
		रिरी संसा॥

Kharaharapriyā and Harikāmbodi, embodied in gītas by Govinda, are not mentioned or dealt with by Verikatamakhin.

In classifying the following ragas according to their melas, Venkatamakhin (V) and Govinda (G) agree in most cases and do not in others.

A STATE OF THE STATE OF	No. (8)—G.
(1) Bhūpāla	No. (9)—V.
(2) Saurāṣṭra	No. (15)—G and V.
×	No. (20)—G: सारेगामा पथानी सा । सानिधा
(3) Āhari	ं है के के कि एक है। दे ग मना दिसा ॥ है के हैं है।
200	No. (20)—V.
10,0	No. (20) — G: सगमापानिसासानि। प्रथमा
(4) Devagandhāri	मागरी रिसा॥
a de la	No. (22) - V. A.
0	∫ No. (20)—G: स गमापानि सानीसा । स नि पा
(5) Udayaravican- drikā	ि १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १ १
	(No. (9)—V
	No. (20) — G: , संगरी गमपानी घः निसनी थ
(6) Ghantāravam	र्रों अपने के विकास के दिया मार्गित शिक्षा विकास के दिया है। भारता के के के दिख्या के किस्सार क
	$\{$ No. $(20)-V$.
e de la companya de l	No: (20)—G: सगमापनि सासानि। शपशाग
(7) Dhanyāsi	्रिक विकास स्थापन हों रे सां नि सा वार के राजिस्स
	No. (20)—V.

	No. (21)—G:	सारिगामपधानीस। ससपाम
(8) Kiraņāvali	- {·	गरीरिसा॥
	No. (21)—V.	
	No. $(22)-G$:	संगगामम् पानीस। सनिपाम
(9) Suddhadhanyās	i	म गा ग सा॥
-	No. (22)—V.	
	$\{\text{No. } (28) - G:$	सारिमागम पाःनी सः। निथपाम
(10) Chāyātaranginī	}	गरी रिसा॥
	No. (28)—V.	'Q',
•	No. (28)—G:	स रिमाप घसानी थ। पमरी मग
(11) Balahamsa	-	सानि घा॥
	No. (28)—V.	(D),
(12) Nilāmbarī	¶No. (28)G.	(10)
(12) Iviiampari	No. (29)—V.	71,
	√No. (29)—G:	सरिमापध्याधास । सघपां म
(13) Suddhasāveri	80.	रिसाधसा॥
	No. (1)—V.	
	No. (29)G:	सः रिगाम पमाधानि। धपंमाप
(14) Kannada	73	ग मारिसा॥
	No. (28)V.	
(15) Sāma	∫No. (28)—G:	
(10) Sama	No. (29)V.	

There are a few discrepancies in the manuscript of Govinda's In the manuscript, a preliminary catalogue of janyas is given for each mela, and in a subsequent section these ragas are defined in the same order. Suddhasaveri is enumerated in the catalogue under No. (28), but defined under No. (29) in the śloka and the gīta. The śloka defining Pratapavarali differently from the gita describes it as as आ**रोहगधानिवर्जित** and अवरोहनिवर्जितः this shows that the sañcāra given in the śloka, as already pointed out, must belong to Kuntalavarālī. The definitions of rāgas for the catalogues under Numbers (15), (22), (28) and (29) do not complete the list in each case. In the printed version of the gitas, the gītas of the manuscript are in some cases amended or modified, and new ragas are defined. The printed version defines the following ragas, which are not found in the manuscript:-(1) Vasanta, (2) Paraju, (3) Māñji, (4) Nāyakī, (5) Khamās, (6) Byāg, (7) Aṭāṇā, (8) Pūrvikalyāṇī, (9) Yamunākalyāṇī,

(10) Junjhuti, (11) Sahānā and (12) Darbāru. This version also defines Devagāndhāri under No. (29) as आरोहसंप्राविक अवरोहसंपर्ण : Subbarāma Dīksitar calls this Desiya Devagändhāri and classes it under No. (29). Deśākṣi is called मेलजनित in the manuscript gīta, but हरिकाम्भोदिजनित in the printed gita and classified accordingly. The printed version Countoaded From Man distraction of the control of t derives Ahari and Dhanyasi from No. (8), whereas the manuscript

APPENDIX IV.

NEW RĀGAS.

Venkatamakhin's permutation of the melakartā rāgas contributed a large number of new scales to the Karnatic system. Tyagaraja and Dīksita composed in many of these scales and their janya rāgas, thus making the melakartā system serve the practical needs of the art. With the development of the elaborate method of deriving janya ragas in all possible ways of permutation and combination of the notes of each scale, the seventy-two kartas yield thousands of new ragas. Tyagaraja made use of many of them which were unknown before his time, and himself conceived many rāgas. Northern rāgas were frequently incorporated in Karnatic music, e.g., Hamir Kalyānī, Yaman Kalyānī, etc. Kavindra (latter half of 18th century) in his opera called 'Pārvatī Kalyānam' has composed songs in Mohana Kalyānī, Rūpakakalyāṇi, Mangalakaiśika, Brindavana Saranga, Gauri, Pantuvarālī Mālavaśrī, etc. Mahāvaidyanātha Aiyar has composed a rāgamālikā including the 72 meļakartās; this composition is interesting because it gives the definition of all the scales by a supreme master of the art. The sañcāra for some unfamiliar or new rāgas which have been used for composition in recent years is given below, with the names of the composers.

Paṭṇam Subrahmaṇya Aiyar:—
 Kadanakutūhalam 29 Srmdngps-Smdpmgrs.
 Tiruvaiyar Subrahmaṇya Aiyar:—
 Name of Rāga. Mela. Sañcāra.

Sañcāra.

Mela.

(1) Mălavaśrī 10th Sgmpndns-Sndpmgs. (2) Bhujangini Srsmgmndns-Sndmgrs. 16th (3) Surasindhu Smgmpndns- Sndpmr 15th (4) Ähirināta 17th Smgmpdns-Sn pdnp (5) Kannadagaula 22nd Srgmpns-Sndpmgs. (6) Deśāksi 35th Srgpds-Sndpmgrs.

III. Śivarāmiah:-

Name of raga.

(1) Svambhusvara rāga 29th Sgps-Spgs.

N:	ame of rāga. 🕞	Mela.	Sañcāra
IV.	Muthiah Bhaga	vathar:-	
(1) Pu	spalatikā	22nd	srgmpns-snpmgrs.
(2) M	äyäpratīpam	22nd	smgmpdns-sdpmgrs.*
(3) Vi	ṇādhar ī	16th	srgpdns-sndpmgrs.
	ohanakalyāņī 💎	65th	srgpds-sndpmgrs.
	rinārāyanī	28th	srgmpmdns-snpmgrs
(6) Su	ddhalalitā	17th	srgmdns-sndmgrs.
(7) La	litā	15th	Do. Do.
Γ)	he distinction ma	de betwe	een 6 and 7 is noteworthy). 🗼 🧣
(8) Ga	uḍamallāru	29th	srmpds-sndmgrs.
(9) Ca	krapradīpta	22nd	srgmpmdns-sndmgs.
(10) Vi	jayanagarī	58th	srgmpds-sdpmgrs.
(11) Ŭr		57th	srgmpns-snpmgrs.
(12).Va			sgpdns-sndpgs.
	tharañjani	28th	
	ivaratnavilāsam		srmpns-sndmgrs.
• •	ıdhamanoharī	28th	srgmgps-spmgs.
	śupatipriyā	2 9th	A-3 -2
	mhavāhinī 🥶 🦠		sgmpdns-sndpmgrs.
	nṛtavarṣaṇī	66th	sgmpns-snpmgs.
	ırnarañjani		srgmgpds-sndpmgrs.
(20) Su	manapriyā	28th	srgmgpdps-sdspgm
		ζO`	rs.
	igabhūṣaṇī		srmpds-sndpmrs.
(22) H	amsänandi 🔔 🕒	53rd	srgmdns-sndmgrs

APPENDIX V.

THE DRONE.

The drone plays a very important part in our system of music. It keeps manifest the keynote which by being constant controls the music, for which it also supplies the background. The structure and spirit of every rāga can be understood only by reference to the keynote which synthesises the various interpretations of each rāga which together go by the name ālāpa. Considering how essential it is for the melodic system, the drone can be said to have been employed from the time since music was practised in this country as a fine art.

The original nature of the drone is shrouded in mystery. Mr. Clements in his 'Introduction to the Study of Hindustani music' states that in the system of Bharata and Sārngadeva the drone-strings were dha (low natural), ri (low natural) and ga and the speaking string upon which the air was played was ri. According Mr. Clements, this conclusion is inferential but nevertheless valid and based on Captain Day's inference. With this view is to be compared Śārngadeva's description of the Vīnā called Alāpinī as producing sa and ma on the open strings. Though Messrs. Clements and Fox-Strangways are of the opinion that Bharata and Śārigadeva are silent about the drone, their texts are not without references to it. Sarngadeva refers to the employment of the 3 (octaves) in music and lays stress on the accurate rendering of the svaras in each octave according to their respective srutis. the Rkprātiśākhya refers to the mandra, madhyama and uttama (i.e., tāra) sthānas and the 7 svaras which belong to each. 3 sthanas are thus used from very ancient times and especially in lay music. For the exactness of intervals used, the help of a device like the drone would appear to be indispensable. Secondly the unity of instrumental and vocal music is emphasised by authorities from Bharata downwards. According to Bharata the oneness or unison of the voice, the viņā and the flute is praise-worthy (शारीरवैणवंशानां एकीभाव: प्रशस्यते). Sārngadeva holds this agreement between these sources of music to be the measure of sweetness: वंशविणाञ्चरीराणाम् एकीमावेन यो ध्वनिः। तत्र रक्तिविशेषस्य प्रमाणं विद्वधा जगुः॥

The Silappadikaram expresses the same idea in the lines

'வாங்கிய வாரத் தியாழுங் , குழல மேற்கிய மிடற மிசைவண கேட்பக் உருகிர்க் காணங் குறியறிக்கு சேர்த்தி '

் (அரங்கேற்று காதை)

The prominence attached to the agreement in music is seen in the explanation of the terms and and varies in the Natyavarga of the Amarakośa (circ 6th century A.D.), in the commentaries of Sarvānanda (1159 A.D.) and Bhānuji Dīkṣita (close of the 16th century A.D.). This unity of music is hard to realise without the aid of the drone. Thirdly, in the works on musical theory, the description of musical instruments and concerts, though lacking in any direct reference to the drone, points out the part it must have played. Describing the avanaddha kutapa, Bharata lays down that among those to be scated on the stage are the maurajika, pāṇavika and dārdarika (drummers with different drums), and in the kutapa the performers according to him are a songster, a player on the viṇā, two flutists and songstresses. It is difficult to imagine how these concerts can perform without a drone.

The Sangita Ratnakara throws a good deal of light on the problem of the drone. Sārngadeva mentions several kinds of vīņās but none of them is described as having a drone-string. various references in the work I conclude that the flute, besides being one of the main musical instruments, was also used to fiulfil the part of the drone in the system described by Sarngadeva. The good flutist, according to Sarngadeva, presents, exhibits or keeps manifest the three octaves (mandra, madhya and tāra). original text is गातूणी स्थानदायिता. Kallinātha accepts this as also another version (तानदायिता) in his Commentary 'गातृक्षिगौतुमिण्यमाणस्य तानस्य रागानुगुण्येन प्रथमं प्रदर्शनम् । स्थानदायितेति पाठे तु स्थानानि मन्द्रमध्यताराणि तेषां प्रदर्शनम् । . Since the editor of the Sangīta Ratnākara says that the reading तानदायिताः is nowhere in the original rescensions of the work and as Kallinatha himself recognises the other reading, we may accept स्थान दायिता as a valid basis of argument. This is supported by a reference in the Nartanadhyaya where Sarngadeva, in describing the gundalividhi, refers to the stopping of all instrumental music and the subsequent singing of the vocalist to the octave prescribed by the flutists and accompanied by them (निवारितेषु वाद्येषु दत्ते स्थानेऽथ वाद्यिकै:। सह गायति संयुक्तेस्तै: साधमथ गोण्डली ॥). These and similar references show

that the flute was used for the purposes of a drone. This might have been due to the volume of the tone of the flute which is greater than that of the vīṇā, and because the notes on the flute were of fixed and invariable pitch, which should have easily provided a drone of standard pitch, as contrasted with the freedom with which the wires of the vīṇā could be turned to different pitches. Sārigadeva says that when the flutist played the madhyasaptaka, there was a perfect blend of the notes of the flute, the vīṇā and the voice; प्रशिक्षितेन (चितार फूल्कारान्मध्यसक्षके,। जायन्ते वैणशारीरस्वरसंवादिन: स्वरा भ

This shows that the flute was turned to the middle register adopted in vocal music, and even when used as an accompanying instrument determined the pitch in the rendering of music. The flute has been retained as an accompanying instrument in the music used for the dance down to modern times.

In the light of extant literature, the first work to mention explicitly and define the drone is the Svaramelakalānidhi of Rāmāmātya. He describes several varieties of Rudravīnā (which, closely corresponds to our modern vinā) with different modes of tuning. In defining the Suddha Mela Vīṇā, he says that the 3 wires below the 4 mainstrings are to be tuned to madnya sa, mandra pa and mandra sa. These three are called the śruti . (अधःस्थानां त्रितन्त्रीणां स्वरयोजनमुच्यते ॥ * * * एतास्तिस्रोऽपि तन्त्र्यस्त This definition employs the term 'sruti' to कथ्यन्ते श्रुतिसंज्ञकाः ॥). indicate the drone. Hence when Mr. Fox-Strangways says that the śruti in the south means the keynote, which he points out is a transference of meaning from 'a nice distinction of pitch' to 'that which determines pitch', we must remember that the term is used to mean both, and that this usage is at least four centuries old. Venkatamakhin's Madhya Mela Vīņā exactly corresponds to the modern Viņā in tuning, and among the sidestrings the one tuned to tāra şadja is called tipi (दीप्यभिषा). The same string is now known by the name tip sarani or tipsadia. It may be noted that Sarrigadeva describes the playing of the tara notes on the flute by the term टीप or टीपि:) तारस्था सुखसंयोगसंकटसुखरन्त्रके रि तं वादनप्रकारं च दीपामा चक्षते जनाः ॥ Rāmāmātya uses the term आधारमति to mean keynote.

The tambura may have been the offshoot of the vina after it was endowed with the drone strings. The principle of its construction is the mounting of the drone-strings on the frame of the vina

without the firets. The Kalpadrukośa of Keśava (1660 A.D.) mentions Tumburu's vīnā among others by the name Kalāvatī (चुनरोस्तु [तुनुरोस्तु !] कलावती). The tamburā might have been after Tumburu. The system of tuning been named mentioned by Ramamatya and subsequent writers could have been adopted only after sadja and pañcania became invariable notes fixed in relation to one another as fifths. If so, the system might be even as old as Śrī Vidyāranya's time. The drone-strings of the tamburā, at present are tuned to mandra sa, mandra pa and madhya sa (the same, it is essential to note, as the tuning of the gruti strings of Rāmāmātya's Suddha Meļa Viņā): this is known as the pancamaśruti tuning. If mandra ma is substituted for the mandra pa given above, it is known as the 'madhyama-śruti' tuning. drone-strings of the vīnā are at present tuned to madhya sa, madhya pa and tāra sa. This pañcamaśruti tuning is changed to madhyamasruti by altering the madhya pa into madhya ma. In the latter case the melody starts on madhya ma on the main wire and gives a beautiful effect, e.g., in the ragas Kuranji, Junjhuti, etc. A famous? Vainika of the past generation used to have madhya sa, antara or sādhārana ga, and tāra sa for drone in the case of some rāgas. The drone with antara ga gives a good effect for ragas like Kalyani, and that with sādhārana ga suits Udayaravicandrikā and similar rāgas.

* The Nāgasvara is mentioned in the 'Krīdābhirāma' of Vallabharāya (1420 A.D.) edited by Mr. M. Ramakrishna Kavi as follows:—

> నాగస్వర సుషీరభర్మా x వరాళ్యాడి సివిధనానారాx-ప్రాక్ట్ముక్క బకటక్టమ్హాభోగములైయాడుజో చ్చే భోగింద్రంబుల్ ,॥

According to Mr. Kavi the Nāgasvara is referred to in a much older work. A lexicon of similar age is stated by a scholar to refer to the instrument as also Nāgasura or Nāgasara. If this is so, the employment of the drone can be credited with greater antiquity than what is indicated by other textual references. The Nāgasvara is supported by a drone of very loud quality consisting of a single note viz., the 'ādhāra śruti' represented by the mandra ṣadja.