レーコニュナー

About 300 A.D. a mutation occurred in the mythology of Krishna that was radical in the extreme. The central section of the Harivamsa, which was composed at about that time, narrated in chapters 47-78 the story of the infancy and youth of Krishna, which had never been told in Hindu literature before. The implicit theology of these tales was as new as the narratives themselves. The age of adoration of Krishna as a sportive being—as a doer of lilas—had begun.

Perhaps because the abruptness of this development has not been fully appreciated, exforts to explain it have been superficial. Scholars have not failed to notice that the Krishna of the Harivamsa is a new kind of Krishna. They have looked, rather casually, for possible earlier sources of a cowherd divinity. But the contrasts in theology have not starthed anyone sufficiently to set off a full-scale investigation into a dramatic phenomenon of religious change.

^{*}Scholars have proposed the whole of the first four centuries AD as possible dating for the Harivamsa. It cannot be placed in mature Gupta times, however, because the Kalayavana episode reflects a time when the power of Hellenistic states still carried a sting. Professor Ingalls' analysis that it stands in poetic style between the Ramayana and Kalidasa warns us away from the extremes of this range of centuries. The work itself protests about a time when petty kings with standing armies waste the country. (
For these reasons the date 300 A.D. offered by P.L. Vaidya, editor of the critical edition (Intro.,p.xxx&x), seems a fairly accurate approximation.

That the Harivamsa's revolution in Krishnaworship should attract no special notice was precisely the intention of its author. In his introduction. (Adhyaya 1:5-15), he looks besk upon a recentlycompleted Mahabharata with polite gratitude toward its nerrators, and says that he wishes only to add a congenial addendum to remedy the epic's silence on the history of the family of Krishna. Hindu revisionist technique has always introduced innovations as quietly and seamlessly as possible.* Their obfuscation of difference has sometimes fogged the perception of scholars as well as of the orthodox.

A deeper reason for lack of study of the rise of the Gopāla cult, however, is history's extreme poverty of information about India in the third century A.D., the time in which the outlook of the Harivamsa was formed. Joanna van Lohuizen de-Leeuw in her The Scythic Age (p. ____) calls it "the dark age of Indian history," its darkness illuminated by no inscriptions, by very little art, and by scarcely any literary documents surely ascrib able to the age. With the advantage of insights into the issues of that century derived from an earlier study of the Kalayavana theme, ** however, I am going to venture into that "void" in search of insight into the overturn in Krishnaism.

on thelcultural history of ancient Mathura.

See my "Hindu Formulas for the Facilitation of Change" in <u>Traditions</u> in <u>Contact</u> and <u>Change</u>, Selected Proceedings of the XIVth Congress of the <u>International</u> Association for the History of Religions (Waterloo Ontario, Wolfred Laurier University Press, 1983) ed. Peter Slater & Donald Wiebe, pp. 39-52.

**Forthcomking in Doris Srinivasan, ed., volume

It may be that even my present hearers need some sharpening of their perception of the difference between the perception pictures of Krishna that were dominant before and after our dividing line of the third century A.D.

Up until that time, from the fifth century B.C. when our first glimmering of knowledge of Krishna-worship begins, the worship of this god is fairly intelligible in Durckheim's terms: Krishnaism is a social and civic religion, moral in its interests, and a rallying--point for responsible social groups devoted to the survival of main-line Hindu culture. The cult's crusade is against all those movements Hindu or non-Hindu that erode the society and break down its institutions. As Krishnaism in these centuries draws wider and wider segments of the population into this enterprise of consolidation, the names of the religion become more diverse. First it is the sattvata dharma, the distinctive faith of the Sattvata tribe; then the Bhagavata faith, the faith of those who worship Krishna as Bhagavan of the Lord; and them, most inclusively, the Vaishnava faith, when the sect had attained the status of a Vedic religion devoted to a form of the orthodox god Vishnu. Throughout, there was a continuity in the function of the religion and in its conception of deity.

of the most remote period, we know only that the worship of Krishna Vāsudeva was known as the tribal faith of the Sāttvata or Vṛishṇi people, centered upon their god who was at the same time tribal chief, tribal teacher and tribal deity. Whatever else the religion was, it was a group religion, having a function in supporting the identity and unity of a people who were very successful in rising in status and influence.

A second period can be perceived, identifiable with the first several centuries of the formation of the great epic called the Mahābhārata, in which the Sāttvatas have not only risen from low status to the rank of Kshatriyas, but they have also spread acceptance of their faith so successfully that there are very few in their North Indian courtly circles who does not recognize the divinity of Krishna Vāsudeva, their god, at some level of other of honor.

A third period in the development of early Krishnaism began when the sect began to attract not only the military elite, but brahmans, bringing the more adaptive members of the old Vedic priesthood into the service of Krishnaism in its thinking and writing. The first fruit of this coalition was the Bhagavadgītā—in effect, a great sermon, asking sensitivity to the needs of society in a time when world—weariness is drawing the gifted young into lifelong monastic retreat —Vedantic, Buddhist and other. Krishna's teaching in the Bhagavadgītā

is directed to Arina, representative warrior, who is about to drop his duties in disgust and leave for the forest as a wandering beggar (2:5b). Holding up the idea of lookasamgraha (3:20, 25)—holding the world together—Krishna urges Arjuna to remain steadfast in his duties, because the sacred renunciation that is necessary for salvation is not the renunciation of work, but the renunciation of self—interest. He himself as God works desirelessly in the world, not only as creator of the earth and its statuses and its duties, but as periodic remeemer who descends again and again to purge the earth of evil—doers and to re—establish righteousness (4:1-15).

After the time of the Bhagavadgita the Bhagavata movement drew into itself many groups of kindred social outlook. Brahmans who honored the Vedic Vishnu entered the movement, reinforcing the Bhagavadgītā's picture of a serious world-concerned deity the lore of the most compassionate of the Vedic deities who had descended to come as a dwarf to recover the earth from the demons to provide safe abode for humanity. Before the third century A.D. these descents for the assistance mof dwellers in t the world had become many. A sect called the Pancaratrins were absorbed, a group honoring brah mans and the Vedas, who were earnestly devoted to a special code of social ethics that stressed non-violence toward all living creatures. As centuries went on the critical threat to the central Hindu social tradition

changed. Indigenous religious heresies waned in The worldly outlooks of conquering houses 6 who ruled much of North India from 184 B.C. to ADDAX 200xxx Dx the third century A.D. became the social Throughout, the place and function of what we shall now call the Vaishnava faith remained the Led by brahmans, it rallied all lovers of the Hindu virtues to resist all disintegrating forcies, holding before their eyes the Krishna of the Bhagavadgītā, steadfast in his cosmic work and offering salvation through disinterested faithfulness of believers who should let the dharmasastras be their guide (Bhagavadgita 16:23f). This is the civic- min ded Krishna crawhich some of the latest writer of epic, materials look back -- the authors of the Narayaniya (Mbh. 12.336.49) and the Anugita (Mbh. 14.16.5), who mention the Bhagavadgita by name at a time not far from the second century A.D. There is no notice in Sanskrit literature, anywhere, that a different view of Krishna is in formation.

Now we move forward to the other side of our chronological line. The gap in time is not great.

The gap in time is not great. The author looks back upon the Mahabharata are as a finished work, but as a work only recently completed. He views himself as in the immediate succession of its composers.

We would not need to take that claim seriously, but all our other information backs it. His Harivamsa has always been accepted as a postscript by

all circles specializing in the transmission of the epic. His Vaishnava faith is continuous in its almost all of its distinguishing marks with the sect of our prior information. The Vaishnava concordat with brahmanism is conspicuous in his teaching. He enjoins the honoring and supporting of brahmans, the performing of Vedic sacrifices, and the humble performance of one's caste work. He is concerned that all persons -- and kings in particular -- should be faithful in their duties and defend the sacred law of the dharmasastras. He stresses Krishna's identity with Vishnu. He continues to enlarge the list of Vishnu's avataras. He speaks for an ongoing Vaishnava community whose epecial features, if any, do not involve suggest any radical separation from the Vaishnavas of

These continuities only highlight the magnitude.

newness of the Harivamsa's radical innovations
in mythology and theology. Chapters 47 through
78 of the Harivamsa—the very heart of the work—
narrate in detail material that has never appeared
in literature before—the story of the birth and
kouthful exploits of Krishna. The new narratives
are accompanied by an even more dramatic change
in conception of the typical interests and attitudes
of the deity. In these tales the theology of 1112
or the divine sportiveness has its mythological
beginnings.

earlier times.

The saga begins with Krishna's birth in the prison of a jealous kind who wants to kill him. He is whisked away to a cowherd settlement and is raised by foster parents, Nanda and Yasoda. child's reckless energy and astounding powers keeps these parents at their wits' end. Laid under the family wagon for a nap, the infant kicks the cart to bits and is found laughing under its debris. When he became able to creep, his mother tied him to a heavy wooden mortar to stop his crawling into filthy places -- and the child dragged the mortar into a grove and uprooted two great Arjuna trees. A demoness tried to kill him by nursing him with a poisoned mipple and he ended her life with one bite. Acts of jaunty heroism became habitualx with him as he grew older. He jumped cooly into the norious pool where lurle. of a dangerous water-serpent and danced on its seven heads until it promised to go away and leave the riverbanks safe and pure again. He and his brother Balarama, running about like two frisky yougg bulls, encountered and killed the demon Pralamba who, in the shape of a donkey, had prevented the cowherds from eatiang the frust of a garden of date-palms. Keśi, a horse-demon, is killed. horrible demons always loom over the divine infant, monstrous in size and dreadful in their malice, yet he always disposes of them effortlessly by exercise of his marvellous hidden powers. His parents fret; his playmates always tell them how lucky they are to have such a remarkable son. Krishna pulls off

amusing swindles -- as when he convinces the cowherds that they should make their annual food-offering to Mount Govardhana rather than to Indra -- and then. entering into the mountain, he eats all the food himself. When the angered rain-god all but drowns the cowherds with days of unbroken rain, Krishna takes his people under the shelter of an "umbrella" created by picking up the mountain and holding it aloft for seven days until the rain-god could rain no more. Sometimes Krishna's pranks were not innocent-as when he sent forthh from his body packs of wolves to plague the cowherds until they were ready to move their settlement from an old range that had become uninteresting to him. Once on a moonlight night of autumn his ramblings in the forest included a tryst with the amorous cowherd girls with much singing and dancing and uninhibited love-making--but the episode is terse as told in the Harivamsa. Finally, as a half-grown boy, Krishna returns to his birthplace and kills the tyrant king who had often tried to But Krishna refuses to take the throne kill him. himself, saying that he prefers the freedom of wandering at will in the woodland among the cows.

Amid the cows is where most Vaishnavas therehave
after preferred to find Krishna in their thoughts,
from the time of the Harivamsa until the present
day. The myths of Krishna Copala, the cowherd Krishna,
has been the growing edge of the Krishnaite mythology,

and his childhood līlās or sports have been the determinative material in shaping new theological conceptions of the nature and activity of the god.

Report UP.

The childhood tales are retold a little later -- we almost dare say, a little later in the 4th century A.D.—in the Vishnu Purana, whose cottchetical Vaishnava doctrinal teaching; and brings to the level of conscious doctrine the view that Krishna's acts are sports. The Harivamsa had described The Vishna Kinaire maires particularly acts as sportive; new Krishna himself a sportive god and his doings as an infant are and we understand that his acts. kind, are sportive.* More stress is placed as kinds maughtiness in the men purava can be percepse: he pulls the cows tails (Wilson, p. 407),
he turns them loose when they can make trouble, he deliberately disobeys the commands of his mother (p. 497). 272:1215 Krishna's limitations with the cowherd girls are retold in the twelfth chapter of the Vishnu Purama in much greater detail and with plainer indications reference to Aline eretic parture. of an irregular and enotic affair.

An antinomian strain in the conception of

Krishna becomes clearer and clearer and release as

we learn more and more about Krishna's naughtiness

in later literature—the Tamil songs of the Alvars

whose composition begins in the fifth or sixthm

centuries A.D., and in the Sanskrit Bhagavata Purana,

of about the ninth. In thereon references in the

hymns of the Alvars we perceive for the first time

that Krishna has become a thief—a household butter

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thief. An incorrigible child, he inevitably locates the pots containing his mother's curds and butter and feeds himself and friends, leaving messes and destruction. He does not behave better when away from home. Completing this theme from later literature, we can report that he raids empty houses without compunction, making specious alibis when caught. When dragged home by neighbor women and accused before his mother, he makes ingenious false defenses that get hom off scot-free. When a little older, Krishna resorts to a kind of highway robbery to fill his belly with his favorite edibles: he poses on the road as a toll-collector, and lightens the cowherd women of a portion of their headburdens as they carry their milk and butter to market in Mathura. The complete register of these crimes need not be told because Jack Hawley has told it all in his Krishna the Butter Thief, published this year. (Princeton U. Press,

But the worst about Krishna's lawlessness has hardly been suggested. I refer to his escapades with the cowherd women. The story of his night with the Gopis continued to grow, even though promiscuous sex is and has been a greater scandal in India than in the West. The Alvars kanew the tale, and they treasured it. A new climax came in the Bhagavata Puranal in which a merely preliminary narration told of how he stole the clothes of the gopis when he came upon them bathing in the river, and of how he taok their garments into a treetop and did not

13

12

before him in stark nudity and made obeissance.

A little later in the book, five entire chapters (10:29-33) are devoted to Krishna's calling the cowhere women from their homes with his flute, and to the details of his rasa dance with them and of their erotic sports.

Krishna's amorous acts with the gopis have become his principal līlā, a myth revelatory of the deepest secrets of Krishnaite devotion, a focus over after for devout meditation.

In the twelfth century, in the Gitagovinda of Jayadeva, the principal object of Krishna's affection has become a favorite among the cowherd girls whose name is Radha. Her importance grew with the centuries. She became a goddess, then a polar feminine principle within the godhead of Krishna himself. The lovemaking between the two became cosmic. The highest spiritual aspiration of many modern Krishnaites has become the attainment, by the grace of the deity and through meditations in which the role is adopted of a servant-attendant on the divine pair, of discrete glimpses of the nighly meetings of Krishna and Radha in the bowers. Spiritual guides teach aspirants how to become imagination, how to adopt the person of a particular attending gopi and in imagination, through her eyesk contemplate every detail of the divine flirtation and congress through every watch of the day and lnight.* ; And the Bengal school, which has made the arousal and sublimation of erotic feeling into a high science, its insists that S.K.De, Early History of the Vaishnava Faith & Movement in Bengal (Calcutta, General Printing & Publisers. 1942)

that the relation between Radha and Krishna must not be understood to be the love-making oflhusband and wife, but an adulterous relationship!

By this time the Krishna of the Bhagavadgītā, looking down from the Highest Step of Vishnu upon these goings-on among his later devotees, must may well have overturned his celestial flower-chariot an astonishment at what he I have not been scandalizing, but sketching the earlier and the later a very Frank change. Krishnas to point out the difference. The cult of the child-Krishna shares a name with the earlier religion, but an astounding turnaround has occurred in the nature of a religious faith. (Whether the rise of Christianity within Judaism, or the rise of Islam gainst its Jewish-Christian background, involved a more radical transformation, is a reasonable question, Att indications point to a continuity of of a man maken or a man people religious community. It was the religion that had changed.

Why?

Scholars have not been entirely oblivious of this change in conception of Krishna, and they have made a few attempts at explanation in terms of 19th-century notions of the evolution and diffusion of religions?

The earliest explanation known to me is that

Several article, in

offered by J. Kennedy in the Journal of the Royal

Asiatic Society, beginning in 1907. The child Krishna,

"The Child Krishna, Christianity, and the Gujars," pp 951-991;

"The Child Krishna and His Critics," idem., 1913, 501-521

he explained, was a borrowing from Christianity, which X-14 is the original source in the human scene of the idea of the divinity of childhood. The name "Krishna" is an Indian transformation of the word "Christ;" in India Harod's massacre of the innocents became the murder of the children of Devakī by Kamsa; John the Baptist became Krishna's brother Balarama; the he#dsmen are common to both birth stories. Fifty yezrs earlier Albrecht Weber had colleted these corespondences carefully in his Berlin Academy paper Uber die Krishnajanmashtami (Krishna's Geburtsfest) and had ventured a view that the Mediterranean Christmas festival had migrated eastward. Kennedy transformed Weber's hunch into a historical theory by naming the instruments of this migration: the carriers, he claimed, were a migratory group of herdse people called the Gujars, who came into India (he said) with the Huns who in the fifth century come into In their India from former home in Central Asia where Christianx churches were known to have been flourishing. Kennedy's proposition was helped by his dating of the Harivamsa and Vishnu Puranas -- and the beginnings of the Gopala cult -- as late as the sixth century A.D. StiFile, Sir R. G. Bhandarkar in 1913 welcomed KENNE Christian essumption of responsibility for the Gopala cult. (in his Vaismavism, Saivism, and Minor Religious Systems. He strengthened the theory by proposing as bearers of the lore of the Christ-child a people than the Galary the Robert who known earlier in Indian records: the Abhiras, who are mentioned in the Mahabharate, and thus possible

contributors of material to a more scherly dated the Harivansa, correctly chied.

1

Arthur Berriedale Keith really destroyed the theory of borrowing from Christianity in an article in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society in 1908 ("The Child Krishna," pp. 169-75) in which he pointed out that the story of the killing of Kamsa--a part of the childhood cycle--was already current in India in the second century B.C., as evidenced in several references to it in the Mahabhasya of Patanjali. Keith might have added that the notion of transmission of Christian lore by either Gujars or Abhhras.was a daydream. There is no evidence that either tribe ever lived outside of India, n o record of the entry of either into India, nor of their having been in ancient days the cowherds of them Mathura countryside, for of their having ever been Christians or worshippers of Krishna Gopāla either, for that matter. All references to Abhiras in Hindu literature hold them in abhorrence, and some record hostility between them and the family of Krishna.

See Bhagwansingh Suryavamshi, The Abhiras, Their History and Culture (Baroda, U. of Baroda, 1962).

The theory of a Christain origin of Gopala did not prosper. Nor has anymother.

A theory had to be proposed by someone that the cult of Krishna the cowherd had the Vedas as its somurce. The propounder was Professor Hemachandra Raychaudhuri, who published in 1920 his Materials

for the Study of the Early History of the Vaishnava

Sect (U. of Calcutta, 1920). The Vedic literature,
he pointed out, already calls Vishna a Gopā or Herdsman (RV 1.22.18) who has in his abode manfy-horned
and swiftly-moving cows. Vishnu is also called
(1.155.6) a youth who is no longer a child. The
Baudhāyana Dharmasūtra calls Krishna Govinda, and
Dāmodara (25.24)--terms that are prominent in the
later Gopāla literature. This pastoral god of
the Vedas was preserved and developed, say Raychaudhuri,
by some tribe like the Ābhīras.

Posterity seems to have judged that a theory that assumes the Vedic scholalship of herdsmen—and that leaps back over a millenium of silence to find the inspiration of the Gopāļa cult—does not explain mach.

After fifty years, Charlotte Vaudeville of the Sorbonne has had the courage to pick up, again, the problem of the origin of the cowherd god.**

In those parts of her sophisticated investigations in which she struggles with this problem, she sorts out several cycles of childhood stories with separate origins—cycles having to do with Krishna's birth, his lifting of Govardhana and subduing of Kāliya, stories involving his brother Balarāma, the erotic tales, and those on the slaying of Kamsa. All were originally rooted, she thinks, in prehistoric cults

^{*}Raychaudhuri, Materials.., pp. 33, 45, 85-92).

^{**}Charlotte Vaudeville, "Aspects du Mythe de Kṛṣṇa-Gopāla dans l'Inde ancienne," Melanges d'Indianisme a la memoire d'Louis Renou (Paris, E. Du Boccard, 1968), pp.737-761; "Braj Lost & Found," IIJ 18 (1979) 195-213; "The Govardhan Myth in Northern India." III 22 (1980) 1

of the Mathurā countryside, associated with pre-Aryan godlings and divinities.

There is probably a good deal of truth in Professor Eaudevill's connections between Gopala and little-known ancient yakshas, divine serpents, hill spirits and tree-spirits--but little proof. Even if her demonstrations were conclusive, however, at the end we would know only where the creators of the Gopāla cult gathered up their materials. We would know how the cult of Gopala was created, b ut not why, and we would have attained no inkling of an understanding of its vitality and power. Only a 19th-century historian of religion could believe that by tracing a historical teligion back to a supposed starting-point one can capture the essential nature of the religion and the key to all subsequent developments in its history. If one traces the new-born Krishna and his mother back to the Madonna Lactans of Byzantine murals, really, what has one learned? If one is trying to understand the rise of Gopala-worship in America, what has one accomplished in learning that it "spræng from" Bengal Vaishnavism as introduced by Swami A. C. Bhaktivedanta in 1965? One has learned when, and whence, but noT WHY.

In making my own attempt to answer that question I shall forego the matter of remote origins and be content to show that, before the author of the Harivamsa

retold these stories in Sanskrit, they had already been told in a less dignified circle on the margins of the awareness of the composers of the Mahabharata. for several centuries at least. The best evidence is found in the scene of Sisupala's verbal attack upon Krishna in Mahabharata 2:38.4-9. There the "macho" Sisupala pours his contempt upon Krishna's childhood exploits, mentioning them by name. In editing this book of the Epic for the critical edition Franklin Edgerton has found the lines to be early and authentic. In them, Sisupala rails at the "warrior deeds" that are Krishna's claim to fame: that he killed a bird named Putana, that he upset a cart, and ate a lot of food, and lifted an anthill of a mountain, and slew a herse (asva) and a bull (Wrishabha.) The last two references are to the killing of the demons Kesi and Arista. KRISHNA'S CHILDHOOD FEATS WERE long before the Horomisa. KNOWN. The evidence of this passage is supported by occasional namedropping elsewhere in authentic passages in the Epic in which the honorifics applied to Krishna recognize feats that belong to his child-Kesinisudana in Bhagavadgītā 18.1, Kesihantr in Mahābhārata 2:36.2, Hésisūdana in 2:30.11. Also, two sculptural representations of infancy stories have been found, and dated to a time before the Harivamsa. The Mathura Museum has a relief of the Killing of Keśi on a weight-stone that is assigned to the Kusāna period.* And another Mathurā Museum piece

No. 58.4476. See John Stratton Hawley,

Krishna the Butter Thief (Princeton U. Press, 1983)

p. 339; & Joanna Williams, ed., Kaladarshana: Amercan
Studies in the Art of India (Delhi 1981)a, Doris Srinivasan,
"Early Krishna Icons: the Case of Mathura." pa.747.

is No. 17:1344--a relief in which a man walks beside a river carrying a baby on his head in a shallow basket. Even Charlotte Vaudeville, who has her own unique understanding of this relief, agrees with previous interpreters in seeing here a representation of the child Krishna being carried to his refuge in the village of the cowherds.*

mit if

Another demonstration that there was an early and widespread lore regardiang the childhood of Krishna may be seen in the Ghata Jataka of the Pali canon of the Buddhists.** The Jataka tells its own strange version of the birth of Krishna and the death of Kamsa, ket in a version that has many clear tres with the narrative told in the Harivamsa. Though the date of this Jataka cannot be determined, it is likely to be early; and at anya rate it shows how varied, and therefore of what old grow/th, the Gopala legend was, at a fairly antique time. The fact that this version is in a vernacular language, and in the literary form of a tale, appears to point to the oral folk tale as the transmitter of the Gopāla stories before the author of the Harivamsa brought them together in

Sanskrit. Professor Ingalls supports this view in his

Vaudeville, **Krsma** "Aspects du Mythe de

Kṛṣṇa-Gopāla..," op.cit., p. 746; Hawley, op.cit.,
p. 338 bibl.; Srinivasan, op. cit., p. 127. Srinivasan's
objections to the prevailing identification of the
scene have been met by Hawley and Vaudeville.

**V. Fausboll, ed., The Jataka, vol. 4 (London, TRübner & Co., 1887), pp. 79-89.

observation that the Harivamsa narrative includes no quotations, no references to earlier authorities, and that it has the seamless texture of materials that is being reduced to writing from oral sources for the first time.*

Apparently there were Sanskrit-speakers, who, like Sisupala, were contemptuous of these stories; others, like the composers of the Mahabharata, merely stood aloof from them-knowing them, but not willing to be their transmitters.

A time came when that alobfhass changed—when Sanskrit-speakers heard those stories gladly, and the Harivamsa was written. And after that, the stories of Gopāla were told and told again, and became the stories that Krishna-workhippers really wanted to hear.

WHY?

My own effort to answer this questions invoves a general theory of religion that I have found helpful in explaining the dynamics of religious change: the understanding that religious cults focus always upon areas of anxieties in the life of a people where factors almost beyond control are endangering what are felt to be vital necessities. Where disaster is an imminent possibility, there religion comes into play, invoking extra-human power or the support of a superhuman order. Professor Ralph Linton, who

^{*}Daniel H. R. lIngalls, "The Harivamsa as a Mahakavya," in Melanges d'Indianisme al la Memoire de xpigsxRempi Lpuis Ronou, p. 394.

knce graced Columbia's Department of Anthropology made this point in lectures in my course in Primitive Religions: the Malagasy tribe that is utterly dependent upon rice has no rice-god: their rice-coop had never been known to fail. Elsewhere there were ave rice-gods and rice-rites--and natural dangers that made the rice harvest ever unsure. In the Trobriand Islands in some places the hurricanedeity received constant culfic attention -- while on the lee side of the same island, worship of the windgod was perfunctory of non-existent. Religion focuses upon sore spots where human beings worry, scarcely able to cope with distress regarding critical matters. There worshippers look to the superhuman for support.

Advanced religions are not different: their rites and their lore focus on areas where they can scarcely cope—where there is weakness, want, hurt, distress and anxiety.

Disorder—the threat of having to live in a fallen, disintegrated and brutalized world or in a world organized on distasteful principles—that was the bugaboo of the writer of the Bhagavadgītā, which he worked against by invoking the world-concerned God who was the civic head of the universe so to speak, working for the welfare of all creatures himself, and calling for faithfulness to duty and the needs of society. He will support and save

those who stand by their posts and promote lokasomgraha.

I need not repeat my sketch of socials concern and promise in the earlier Krishnaism. How faithful a later

Krishnaism was to that ideal, after the Bhagavadgita

in the centuries of the later epic, is semething that

I-must point out, however, because it was the very

social effectiveness of Vaishnava religion that in time

necessitated a transformation in the faith.

What one sees in the materials of the later epic is a continuous drive, under Vaishnava religious auspices, to construct and weld and cement an unshakabbe neo-Vedic world-or, if not really Vedic, then at least a world approved by the Vedic priesthood that was not Buddhist or Hellenistic or materialist but Making common cause with a rejuvenated and chastened brahman class, the worshippers of Krishna led a swelling counter-reformation against all the deprecators of the Vedic tradition and against all the rejectors of the neo-vedic social life that was being formulated in the dharmasastras. Increasingly, the enemy was the king or emperor of foreign extraction -usually Buddhist or renegade Saiva in religion -- who cared little for brahmans or for dharmasastras. They neither performed Vedic rituals nor compelled compliance with the growing corpus of Hindu sacred law.

hold of cultural dominance became a real one. The great

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Kuṣāna empire began to fall apart, leaving a flotsam of petty states ruled generally by kings of foreign family and worldly outlook, and a population made poor and miserable by the burden of many standing armies. Under the circumstances, voices became shrill. The issue of the third century in Sanskrit literature became a typically Krishnaite drive for ordernow, a drive for brahmanical order, and for acceptance of brahman tutelage in the universal abservance of social codes formulated by the brahmans.

Beginning even in the Maurya times, an aspect of theHindu reaction to pressure had been the codification of the Hindu social tradition. The Laws of Manu had appeared before the end of the Kuṣāna time. Now, amidst the struggles of a dark age, a crescendo was reached in the writing of the law book ofYājnavalkya and the Vishnusmriti and the Nāradasmriti. The lands in which these codes were honored became the lands that were considered to constitute the Indian nation, rather than any area set by natural boundaries: the conception is visible in a geographical pronouncement found in Vishnu Purana 2:38:

"On the east of Bharata dwell the Kirātas,
On the west, the Yavanas;
In the center reside Brahmans, Ksatriyasa Vaisyas and
Sudras,
occupied in their respective duties of sacrifice,
arms, trade, and servce."

(Tr. H.H.Wilson; cf Garudaūrana 55:5, Varanasi, Chowkhamba, 1964; Markandeya Purana tr. Pargiter, 47:8.)

The peoples that do not conform to the duties of caste are no part of Bharata, but foreigners.

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Several agic references to political situations reflect the bitterness of this struggle of the indigenous against the foreign or barbaric. Mahabharata 3.186.29 polemicizes rulers who are Yavanas, Sakas, Andhras and others -- wicked overlords who punish wrongly, lie deliberately, and allow even the brahmans kshatriyas and vaisyas to ignore their own proper caste occupations. What makes these outsiders degraded and unfit to rule, says Mahabharata 13.33.10, is their disregard of the advice of brahmans. The author of Mahabharate 12.65.13ff addresses kings who now have such people among their subjects. kings, he says, should compell such mlecchas to perform Vedic sacrifices and to give fees and gifts to brahmans, and should make them show respect for Aryan kings, parents, gurus, ācāryas and other authority figures. Residents of India who are of foreign origin or culture are not only being toppled from rule, but they are being absorbed, under pressure, into ranks of the caste order provided by the dharmasastras. A passage of the Harivamsa speaks of this reform in kingship as now often an accomplished fact: good kings, says 41:1-11, always heed the Vedas, sacrifice to gods and ancestors, appease INdra to insure rain, and know the charmasastras. And they never go to war, says 15:49f., without worshipping fire and brahmans and getting a brahman blessing for their enterprise.

In 320 A.D. this pressure for a Hindu reunification came to fruition in the rise of the very Hindu empire

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of the Guptas. Each succeeding Gupta ruler added conquests until the Gupta lands stretched from sea to sea. Krishna was generally the personal deity of these emperors: four of the seven great rulers of the line are described in their inscriptions as paramabhagavata; Supreme Bhagavata.* With the establishment of the Vaishnava faith came the victory of the causes long associated with Vishnuism. Emperors began their reigns with the legitimization provided by performance of the royal coronation sacrifices. Sanskrit became the language of state as well as of religion -- the language of records, inscriptions and coins. Royal endowments in the form of the land of rent-producing villages (agraharas) were settled upon groups of brahmans for their support in lives dedicated to the promotion of Hindu learning. ** Minority ethnic groups submitted to brahmans, underwent purifications, and were given livelihoods in the hierarche of the Hindu castes. The composition and study and application of dharmasastras went on with even greater seriousness because their norms that were once stated as preachments were being re-stated as = fatules with juridicel precision. A new attention to courtroom procedure in the charmasastras of the Gupta Age shows that the courts of the state were enforcing the brahmanical rules. The judges were always brahmans.

Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, ef.J.F.Fleet, Vol. III, p. 3243xxx) 28,38,52,116. Varanasi, Indological Book House, 1970).

**A.S.Aātekar, "Agrahāra Villages as Centres of Learning" in R.C.Majumdar & A.S.Altekar, eds., The Vākātaka-Gupta Age (Delhi, Motilal Banarasidass, 1967), pp 3 397ff.

The brahmanical society that merged in the Gupta age was clear in its demands and firm in its discipline. Its pattern was that of a carefullyranked hierarchy of varnas and occupational sub-castes. The guardians of the system were the brahman class, whose authority and superiority are inculcated constantly in the dharma literafure. The work proper to the various castes is stated clearly, and home works, and the penalties for non-performance -- usually exclusion from society. The children of inter-caste marriages no longer retian the rank of either parent, but fall into the ranks of the unclean. Untouchability in its mature historic form makes its appearance. Rules for the subordination of women receive full and enduring expression. The age for the marriage of girls is set at a time prior to puberty. first mention of sati appears in dharma writings. The joint family makes its appearance, with its many restraints upon individual freedom. In later times the bolts of this structure will be tightened and some further restrictions will be added to limitations on occupation, marriage, and social contacts. But the brahman resurgence had expunged almany in the Capte the laxities encouraged by foreigners and heretics, and the classical social system of India had reached maturity. The essential quality of life would not

change for many centuries.

This is the India that put the Bhagavadgītā on the back shelf, to staya there until the 19th century. This is the India that welcomed the stories of the mischievous Gopāla, and gave them respectability, and listened to them ever after with delight. How could a civilized people turn their backs upon the vision of the moral world-supporting God, avyayah śāśvatadharmagoptā, "immortal guardian of the eternal dharma."? I asked this question earlier, halfiin seriousness. Now, in the light of historical circumstances, the answer seems obvious. (If I have done my work properly, perhaps I can quit now and say no more.)?

I have said that a religion focuses upon a people's desperations. The God of the Bhagavadgītā had done his work, then, and taken his leave.

Lokasamgraha, the integrity of the world, was no longer an acute problem. Order has a high theoretical value, but enough is enough. There are situations in the development of human culture when disorder is far from the principal cause of anxiety and misery.

And in the Gupta age and thereafter the most dreadful problem in Hindu living was something else. It was the triumph of order itself. Human beings love order absolutely only in its absolute absence.

Order attained, always restricts. And the Hindu caste order restricted with a thoroughness that few systems have known before or sance. What the people

of this society groaned of was something that they called "bondage;" and what they ardently longed for was something that they called "freedom": mukti or or moksha--"liberation"--was their name for salvation itself. Bound by their estate in life, bound by innumerable conventions, because they saw they saw these bondages as rooted at a deeper level in the bonds of their own karma that were of their own making, justice required them to endure and await the deserved liberation of an eschatological enlightenment.

In the meantime, contemplation of the work-god of the Bhagavadgītā had little to offer that could raise the spirits of those entrapped in the dull routines of caste duty. But the little Krishna who was free as the wind and a reckless smasher of pots was another matter. For those whose matings were hedged in with considerations of varna, jati and gotra, in a system that would break down in fact if lines of heredity were not rigidly channelled, the epic Krishna on his chariot had nothing to say that could charm. Another matter was the contemplation of divine lover-boy who, devil-may-care, made love just as he pleased. Sanctioned as holy meditations, contemplations of the erotic sports of Krishna soothed a deep unhappiness of this tense social system. Grand devotions to this sportive god could, by divine grace, lead even to eternal liberation in Krishna's supernal Cow-world, there to participate one's self, forever, in those same eternal romantic

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sports, every aspect of the former collared life would banished in a life of pure spontaneity.

as adulterous acts finds part of its explanation

as balm for severe repression. Our Victorian ancestors saw the Hindu tales as scandalous proof of indifference to morality in Hindu religion and society. The truth about their meaning is quite the opposite. East of Suez is simply not the place where there ain't no Ten Commandments." Remember the shock of the late Hippies who betook themselves to India expecting to be welcomed into the original home of sexual naturalism. The Hindu commandments are not ten, but legion.

The exuberant eroticism of the Krishnaite lore is quite another thing from Indian divinization of sex. It is an application of the resources of religion to difficult tensions created by cultural restraints were of exceptional severity, a system for exploding and expending sexual energy in ways that are harmless to the values of Hindu society.

Born as a counterpart of sexual puritanism, I doubt that the erotic aspects of the religion of Krishna Gopāla can survive in any other frame. The evidence: where such Krishnaism spreads, if it does not find a puritanism, it creates one. it, Moving into the hippie scene here in New York City in 1965, Swami A.C.Bhaktivedanta drew in youths who wanted bove all to express their alienation by embracing a new cultural religion, but who believed also that whatever was natural was blessed. The Swami changed at that. His disciples accept the four-caste system and the supremacy of brahmans, and they give over to their guru their wealth, their work, the freedom of their minds, and the freedom to marry as they please. When married with the consent of their teacher, their freedom extends to intercourse once a month on the day of highest probability of conception. When permitted childbearing ends, sex life ends also. A better scheme for generating insufferable tension could hardly be devised. It is the base, however, on which the erotic Krish na myths can survive in life, and thrive.

may stop.

^{*} New York Times, Oct 10, 1966; Sept. 6, 1972;

There appears to be time for a final note on the special relevance to Hindu need of the cult of Krishna as truly a child and not as lover...of worship inthe vatsalya rather thanthe madhurya rasa. The adoration of Krishna as toddler and small boy is a major theme of Hindu sentiment. In the sixteenth century Sūr Dās, foremost poet in Hindī, responded to Krishna primarily in this infant form, and left to posterity in his Sūr Sāgar the most extensive and sensitive celebration of holy childhood, perhaps, that has ever been written in any language. These poems of Sūr Dās are basic liturgical literature for North Indian Krishna-worship today.

Western students have not been able to empathize well with the feeling of this cult. Despite the formal simularity with the adoration of the Christ-child, mentioned earlier in this paper, the comparison is not illuminating nor explanatory. The adoration of the Christ-child is a transient matter, a momentary pose, without any hold upon Christians that can be compared to the depth of meaning that Hindus see in the child Krishna. So I shall point out a special connection between the worship of this child and that special Hindu distress, the hurt of "bondage."

The plight of the Hindu adult, enwrapped in total religious prescription, has been discussed sufficiently. Even in areas where tradition allows

some freedom of choice, the freedom is often a freedom for collective choice, or for decision by authoritative figures, and men can live to hoary-headedness under the domination of their aged fathers. This experience of total control is the more depressing the Hindu male remembers a time when his life was not so.

Sociologists today remark constantly upon the exceptional liberty, the exceptional permissiveness and affection that surround the Hindu boy, in particular until he reaches what is considered to be the age of repponsibility. He is doted upon by his mother. (He is her great claim to distinction.) Females wait upon him. Few rules apply to him. He is disciplined gently, or not at all. Then, suddenly, the boom is lowered on h im--ideally after the performance of the Upanayanax initiation into adulthood. Suddenly he is in his father's world. He can not act according to his whim. The word "must" enters into almost all his acts; and thus his life is spent. The status and prospects of most men offer little hope that release from bondage will come later in this life. Their Paradise lies in the past. The contemplation of childhood is a happy contemplation that blesses and heals. find this liberation not only in the contemplation of their own remembered childhood, but in other ideal childhoods that are open to their imaginative participation. Identifying with their own children,

they defend the tradition of childhood liberty in their raising, and participate vicariously in their freedom that is now so scarce in their adult lives.

The worship of the child Krishna has the same healing power. The projection of the worshipper's self into the god is not direct, but the rehearsal of the baby Krishna's untrammeled sports stirs up half-conscious recollection of a happier time, as drawing the bow over the top strings of a sarangi evokes the resonation of the unstruck strings below.

We know something, ourselves, about the benign power of memories of a happy childhood:
"Turn backward, turn backward, O Time in thy flight; Make me a boy again, just for tonight."

For occidentals, the charm that remembered childhood casts over is is predominantly the enjoyment again in fantasy of the protection, security, and affection that once were ours—qualities that we are conspicuously lacking in our competitive adult world. For the Hindu, the blessing repossessed is above all freedom, spontaneity, the sportive possibility in living—the quality that is so hurtfully suppressed in the straightjacket in which he lives that the longing for it has become a religious matter, and that the personification of it has become a god.