TEXT, INTERPRETATION AND RITUAL USAGE OF TAMIL ŚAIVA POEMS

By DEBORAH LOUISE WALDOCK

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ABSTRACT

This study is about the nature of two Tamil Śaiva poems, "Tiruppalliyclucci" and "Tiruvempāvai", their structure as text, the style in which they are interpreted, and the way in which they are used in ritual events. These two poems are narrative moments rather than longer narrative sequences. They are interpreted in commentarial literature, and in ritual, by situating the utterance of them as events in different narrative worlds. The significance of the poem is the significance of the event in a particular world. The meaning therefore changes from narrative world to narrative world, and even within the same narrative world if the poem is situated as a number of different events. In this study, the poems were generally situated in one or more of six narrative worlds: the *akam* world of love, the *puram* world of heroism, the theological world of Śaiva Siddhānta, the world of the hero's biography, the world of the poet-saint's (Māṇikkavācakar) life, and the world viewed from the perspective of one's own life.

This study contributes to scholarship firstly as an understanding of Tamil Śaivism, by studying the interaction between the Tamil Śaiva poems, their interpretation and their use in ritual, which illustrates a basic style of interpretation within which there is considerable interpretive freedom. Secondly, this research contributes to the wider area of "Tamil Studies" in that it shows links between this style of interpretation, and that of the classical Tamil *akam* and *puṛam* poems. Thirdly, this research contributes to performance and ritual studies by focusing on the "ritual text" as a text in itself, and by suggesting that the significance and principle of coherence of the "ritual text" lies in the specific situation in which it is created and interpreted, rather than in the nature of the source texts. Lastly, this study includes field research on two relatively new temples in the village of Nākamalai Putukkōttai, west of the city of Madurai.

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An earlier version of part of the argument made in Parts I and II was presented in a paper entitled "An Example of Text and Interpretation in Tamil Culture" at the joint Shastri Indo-Canadian Institute - Canadian Asian Studies Association session of the 1993 Learned Societies Conference. I would like to thank all those who commented on my presentation, and especially Dr. Paula Richman who later read the paper and made valuable comments.

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NOTE ON TRANSLITERATION

I have generally followed the scheme of transliteration found in the *Tamil Lexicon*:

2	a	22	ai	ஞ்	ñ	iτ	r	<u>ஜ</u> ்	j
ஆ	ā	€	0	Ė	ţ	ல்	1	রঞ্	Ş
Ø	i	ௐ	Ö	ண்	ņ	வ்	V	જાં	S
FF	ī	ஒள	au	\$	t	μ̈́	1	മ്ത	h
2_	u	00	ķ	jъ	n	ள்	ļ	சூற்	kṣ
<u>ഉണ</u>	ū	க்	k	Ú	p	ф	ŗ		
न	e	រាំ	'n	ίĊ	m	ன்	n		
எ	ē	d i-	c	иi	v				

Tamil uses Sanskrit loan words, and there is usually more than one way of transliterating these words into Tamil, and then from Tamil into English. Since this is a thesis about Tamil works and worship in the Tamil language, I generally use a Tamilized form of Sanskrit words because, in my experience, Tamilized Sanskrit loan words have become Tamil words, and are pronounced and enjoyed in their Tamil forms as part of the Tamil language.

There are situations in which I have not followed the above scheme. Words that are found in an English dictionary, such as karma, appear as spelled in the dictionary and are not in italics. I have used the English transliteration of a Tamil name, if a person provided one. Tamil names of authors of works in English appear as they do in that work. I have used the common transliterated form of place names such as Madurai. The names of Sanskrit works such as the Śaiva Āgamas are transliterated directly from their Sanskrit rather than from their Tamilized forms. I have conformed to the standard transliterated form of some words such as Śiva and Śaiva Siddhānta rather than the strict Tamil forms of Civam, Civan or Caiva Cittānta. I have transliterated the Tamilized form, however, when referring to the manifestation of Śiva or other deities in particular temples in Tamil Nadu.

INTRODUCTION

This is a study of Tamil Śaiva poems: their structure, the style of their interpretation and the pattern of their use in ritual. In this thesis I have focused on two poems, "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci". On the basis of an analysis of the characteristics of these two poems and the strategies utilized in their interpretation, I have articulated a style of interpretation and a particular view of text assumed by this style. This style of interpretation also provides a framework for understanding how these two poems are used in worship. I believe the perspective of text and interpretation presented here can be used to understand the way in which other Tamil Śaiva poems are interpreted and used in worship.

"Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyeļucci"

The two poems studied here are included in the canon of the Tamil tradition of Śaiva Siddhānta which is found predominantly in Tamil Nadu, South India. Tamil culture and literature has a long and continuous history. Inscriptional evidence attests to the existence of the great Tamil kingdoms in the third century BCE. The earliest extant Tamil literature,

¹ I use "Tamil tradition of Śaiva Siddhānta" to refer to the tradition which takes the twelve *Tirumurai* and fourteen *Meykaṇṭa Cāttiram* as their central texts (see below). Other traditions of Śaiva Siddhānta exist, such as those which emphasize some of the Sanskrit Śaiva Āgamas. The Tamil tradition acknowledges the Śaiva Āgamas (as well as the Vedas) as authoritative texts.

² Ashoka's edicts (269-232 BCE) refer to the Cōla, Cēra and Pāṇṭiya Kingdoms as independent neighbours to the south. N. Subrahmanian, *History of Tamilnad (to A.D. 1565)*, 5th revised ed. (N.G.O. Colony, Madurai: N.S. Ennes Publications, 1986), 35.

the classical poetry, is dated to at least the early centuries of the common era, and some scholars date parts of it to even a few centuries earlier.³

The central texts of Tamil Śaiva Siddhānta are divided into two groups: the twelve *Tirumurai* and the fourteen *Meykaṇṭa Cāttiram*. The first eleven *Tirumurai* are collections of devotional poems by a number of authors. The twelfth *Tirumurai*, commonly referred to as the *Periya Purāṇam* (The Great Story), is a hagiographical account of the lives of sixty-three saints in poetic form. The twelve *Tirumurai* were composed between the third and twelfth centuries, although the dating of some of the texts is highly controversial. The fourteen *Meykaṇṭa Cāttiram*, composed between the twelfth and fourteenth centuries, are regarded as the core philosophical texts for this tradition.

"Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" are sections of the *Tiruvācakam*, which is one of the two parts of the eighth *Tirumurai* composed by the saint, Māṇikkavācakar. Māṇikkavācakar has been placed as early as the third century CE and as late as the tenth, although most scholars place him in the ninth century. He is not included as one of the sixty-three saints whose stories are told in the twelfth century *Periya Purāṇam.*⁴

There are several accounts of Māṇikkavācakar's life. One of the earliest is found in the *Tiruvālavāyuṭaiyār Tiruviṭaiyāṭar Purāṇam* by Cellinakar Perumparrap Puliyūr Nampi composed probably in the thirteen century. This text relates the "sixty-four sports of Śiva" in the Madurai area of Tamil Nadu. Four episodes of this text relate events in

³ There are many discussions of the dates of the classical literature. For approaches to dating Tamil literature see Kamil V. Zvelebil, *Companion Studies to the History of Tamil Literature* (Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1992), 97-101.

⁴ Glenn Yocum provides a discussion of Māṇikkavācakar's date in *Hymns to the Dancing Siva: A Study of Māṇikkavācakar's Tiruvācakam* (New Delhi: Heritage Publisher, 1982), 46-50. Paul Younger, an exception among current scholars, provides a fresh analysis of the available data and in agreement with the thirteenth *Tiruvālavāyuṭaiyār Tiruviṭaiyāṭār Purāṇam* argues for a fifth century dating of the saint: Paul Younger, *The Home of the Dancing Śivan: The Traditions of the Hindu Temple in Citamparam* (Forthcoming), c. 197-207 n. 9, 10.

Māṇikkavācakar's life. A full biography, the *Tiruvātavūraṭikal Purāṇam*, was composed in the late fourteenth to early fifteenth century.⁵

"Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are associated with specific periods in the ritual cycle of Śaiva temples. "Tiruppalliyelucci" is primarily associated with the earliest daily worship period in which the presiding deity of a temple is awakened.

"Tiruvempāvai" (and also "Tiruppalliyelucci") is specifically connected with ritual activity during the Tamil month of *Mārkali* (mid-December to mid-January). The singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" during these ritual periods was studied in two different temple settings in Madurai, South India: Minātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in the heart of Madurai city and the Citti Vināyakar and the Nākamalai Murukan Temples in the village of Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai.

The Status of Current Research

A substantial amount of scholarly work has been done on classical Tamil poetry, including Śaiva and Vaiṣṇava devotional poetry, Māṇikkavācakar's *Tiruvācakam*, Śaiva Siddhānta theology, temples, and the prescriptive texts for Śaiva ritual, the Śaiva Āgamas.

The research on classical Tamil poetry includes translations and descriptions of the poems, considerations of themes in the poetry, attempts to understand the milieu in which the poetry was composed, and explanations of the poetic system. Some of the important translations are A. K. Ramanujan's *The Interior Landscape* (1967) and *Poems of Love and War* (1985), G. Hart's *Poets of the Tamil Anthologies* (1979), and J. V. Chelliah's *Pattupattu* (ca. 1946). Descriptions of the poetry and explanations of the poetic system are

⁵ See William Harman, "Two Versions of a Tamil Text and the Context in which They were Written," *Journal of South Asian Studies* 5, 1 (Sept. 1987), 1-18. See chapter 6 below for biographical data on Mānikkavācakar.

found for example in J. H. Marr's *The Eight Anthologies* (1985), K. Zvelebil's *The Smile of Murugan on Tamil Literature of South India* (1973) and the works of Ramanujan and Hart just mentioned. Works that are more thematic in approach are V. T. Manickam's *Marutam: An Aspect of Love in Tamil Literature* (1982), X. S. Thani Nayagam's *Landscape and Poetry* (1966), and K. Kailasapathy's *Tamil Heroic Poetry* (1968). Translations and studies on the *Tolkāppiyam*, the classical Tamil treatise on grammar and poetics, include P. S. Subrahmanya Sastri's (1949) translation of the text, and G. Sundaramoorthy's *Early Literary Theories in Tamil* (1974).

There are a number of studies and translations of the Saiva devotional poetry. Indira Peterson in Poems to Śiva: The Hymns of the Tamil Saints (1989) translates selections from the first seven Tirumurai which are the works of three saints, Tiruñānacampantar, Tirunāvukkaracar and Cuntarar. David Shulman has translated all of the seventh Tirumurai by Cuntarar in Songs of the Harsh Devotee: The Tēvāram of Cuntaramūrttināyanār (1990). Māņikkavācakar's Tiruvācakam has been translated by G. U. Pope (1900), G. Vanmikanathan (1980) and Balasubramanian (1958). To my knowledge the ninth and eleventh *Tirumurai* have not been translated. I believe the translation of the tenth Tirumurai is underway. The twelfth Tirumurai has been translated by T. N. Ramachandran (Part I, 1990). English studies of the poems include: P. S. Somasundaram's Tirujñāna Sambandar: Philosophy and Religion (1986) on Tiruñanacampantar; Dorai Rangaswamy's The Religion and Philosophy of the Tevaram (1958) on Cuntarar; G. Yocum's Hymns to the Dancing Siva (1982), Radha Thiagarajan's A Study of the Mysticism in Tiruvācakam (1983), and R. Navaratnam's A New Approach to Tiruvacagam (1971) on Māṇikkavācakar's Tiruvācakam; and R. Gopalakrishnan's Religion and Mysticism in the Periyapuranam (1990).

Recent English scholarship has begun to explore the relationship between classical Tamil poetry and the Śaiva and Vaiṣṇava devotional poetry. Ramanujan in *Hymns for the Drowning* (1981), Norman Cutler in *Songs of Experience* (1987), and their combined effort in "From Classicism to Bhakti" (1983) in *Essays on Gupta Culture* suggest how the Śaiva and Vaiṣṇava poets have utilized classical poetic conventions. Friedhelm Hardy in *Viraha Bhakti* (1983) discusses how the theme of "separation" in classical poetry was incorporated into Vaiṣṇava poetry. G. Subbiah in "Patterns of Religious Thought in Early South India" (1988) suggests that the world view implicit in the classical poetry underlies the Śaiva and Vaiṣṇava devotional perspective.

Various works are available on Śaiva Siddhānta philosophy. These include: translations of some of the fourteen Meykanṭa Cāttiram, such as the Civañāṇapōtam translated by G. Matthews (1948), J. Piet (1952), and M. Dhavamony (1971); a review of the basic ideas found in a variety of canonical texts such as T. B. Siddalingaiah's Origin and Development of Saiva Siddhanta Upto 14th Century (1979) and Dhavamony's Love of God According to Saiva Siddhanta (1968); a translation and study of one cāttiram such as Rama Ghose's Grace in Saiva Siddhanta (1984) on the Tiruvaruṭpayaṇ; or a study of a particular cāttiram and its commentaries such as Devasenapathi's Śaiva Siddhānta as Expounded in the Śivajñāna-Siddhiyār and its Six Commentaries (1966); and the more encompassing study of Śaiva Siddhānta by K. Sivaraman, Śaivism in Philosophical Perspective (1973).

Many studies have been done on temples in India. Of particular relevance to this thesis are those on the Madurai Mināṭci-Cunṭarēcuvarar Temple such as A. V. Jeyechandrun's *The Madurai Temple Complex* (1985), C. Fuller's *Servants of the Goddess: The Priests of a South Indian Temple* (1984), and Carol Breckenridge's "The Śrī Mīnākṣi Sundareśvarar Temple: Worship and Endowments in South India, 1833 to

1925" (1976). Also of importance for this study is Richard Davis's *Ritual in an Oscillating Universe* (1991) which describes the ritual universe of the Śaiva Siddhānta Āgamas. Davis relies substantially on the *Kāmikāgama*, which is one of the two Āgamas said to be the basis of worship at Mināţci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple.

Although there is a substantial amount of scholarship on classical and Saiva devotional poetry, Tamil Śaiva Siddhānta and temples and temple ritual, there has been no particular study of the strategies of interpretation of Saiva poems nor of their usage in ritual. Cutler makes a strong move in this direction with his theory of Tamil devotional poetics in Songs of Experience (1987). He develops his theory in the context of Śrīvaisnava theology and the Śrīrankam Temple ritual. He notes parallels that suggest the same model is at work in the Tamil Saiva context. The perspective presented here is based on research conducted in the Saiva context. It has been influenced by Cutler's theory but it also differs from his in important ways. Peterson, in the introduction to her translation of Saiva poems, discusses the interpretation of the poems by the traditional singers of the Śaiva poems, the ōtuvārs. She argues that they interpret in public performance outside the pūcai context firstly through their selection of songs and secondly by repeating and embellishing portions of poems. Peterson notes that the constraints of ritual limit the opportunities for the *ōtuvār* to interpret the poems. This study does not look at the role of the *ōtuvār* outside temple ritual as Peterson does, but focuses on the use of the poems in ritual situations whether or not they are sung by an *ōtuvār*.

⁶ Indira Viswanathan Peterson, *Poems to Śiva: The Hymns of the Tamil Saints* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1989), 59-75.

Approaches, Scholarly Influences and Sources

My strategy has been to take up two Śaiva poems for a case study, with the expectation that the conclusions would be applicable to the wider context of the interpretation and use of Śaiva poems. The approach has been three-fold. I first analysed the structure of the poems. I then, endeavoured to identify strategies of interpretation evident in understandings of the poems. Finally, I observed and participated in rituals during which the two poems, "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai", are sung.

I have found the work of several scholars particularly helpful for this study. Norman Cutler, in *Songs of Experience*, analyses the Vaiṣṇava and Śaiva canonical poems, and the classical *akam* and *puṛam* poems in terms of speakers and addressees. ⁷ I found this approach very useful and began my study of the structures of "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" along the same lines. My analysis of the interpretive strategies was influenced by the "reader-response" perspective that a text has meaning when it is read or recited. I have been influenced in particular by Wolfgang Iser's "The Reading Process" and Stanley Fish's *Is there a Text in this Class?* and "Why No One's Afraid of Wolfgang Iser". My discussion of the nature of the poems has been informed by Iser's idea that the reader fills in ambiguities in the text during the reading process. ⁸ I have been influenced by Fish's view that the reader's experience of a text is shaped by interpretive strategies which the individual brings to the text, that these strategies determine the formal units of the text around which the reader builds meaning, and that the interpretive strategies that the individual might use are determined by the interpretive communities of which the person is

⁷ Norman Cutler, *Songs of Experience: The Poetics of Tamil Devotion* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987), 11, 19-38, 61-70.

⁸ Wolfgang Iser, "The Reading Process: A Phenomenological Approach" in *Reader-Response Criticism: From Formalism to Post-Structuralism*, ed. Jane P. Tompkins (Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press, 1980), 50-69.

a member.⁹ I found Stuart Blackburn's monograph on the bow song tradition of Southern Tamil Nadu, *Singing of Birth and Death* (1988) helpful for the study of the ritual usage of texts. His study shows how a source text can be changed and its significance dramatically altered when it is used in ritual.

The fieldwork for this study was conducted in the area of Madurai city, Tamil Nadu in 1990-91 and 1993-94. During these periods I collected a number of editions of the poems, and a variety of interpretations in the form of questionnaires, interviews, commentaries and other secondary literature. I conducted questionnaires and interviews in order to gather individuals' views on the poems, their meanings, the significance of the rituals in which they are used, and the individuals' own worship activity. I gathered fifty-seven questionnaires and conducted fifty-two interviews. The questionnaires were gathered and the interviews conducted almost exclusively with adherents of Śaivism. Slightly more men than women responded to questionnaires or were interviewed. During my field work in 1993-94, I had the opportunity to interact in a more leisurely and extended way with many of those who had responded to questionnaires or had been interviewed on my previous field trip. Although I refer to these interviews and

⁹ Stanley E. Fish, *Is There a Text in This Class? The Authority of Interpretive Communities* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1980).

¹⁰ Twenty-one interviews were with women while thirty-one were with men. I received twenty-nine questionnaires from women and twenty-eight from men. Generally I have not mentioned the names of those interviewed or those who responded to the questionnaires as in most cases these were conducted with the understanding that I would not be mentioning names. This was not a random sample. I found people were more willing to co-operate if I had been referred to them. The interviews often took place in a small group. The questionnaire formed the basis of the interview, but the interviews did not necessarily follow the order of the questionnaire. The questions of the interview were adjusted when interviewing specialists such as the professional singers, the ōtuvārs, or the priests. The order and concerns of the questions of the questionnaire were collecting biographical data; ascertaining the person's degree of acquaintance with the poems and their personal worship pattern; determining the individual's understanding of the poems and certain ritual events; and collecting any other comments the person wished to make.

questionnaires only to a limited extent, they were a necessary preliminary step in my research as it is the pattern which I saw initially in those interviews and questionnaires that has been developed into the discussion of text and interpretation presented in this thesis.

The earliest known written commentaries on the *Tiruvācakam* date from the eighteen or ninteenth centuries. ¹¹ There are several collections of short aphorisms of unknown authorship on *Tiruvācakam* providing the meaning of the poems which probably predate the first written commentaries. ¹² The interpretations presented here were selected from published works as they were generally more thoroughly worked out than those received from individuals in the interviews and questionnaires. The major interpretations presented here are drawn from the work of five men and one woman, all of whom belong to the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. There is an additional interpretation, whose authorship is uncertain, which is usually dated in the eighteenth or nineteenth century. Five of the interpretations were written in Tamil and two in English.

The two ritual settings focused on in this study are the Minātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in Madurai and the Citti Vināyakar and the Nākamalai Murukan Temples in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, a village approximately ten kilometres west of Madurai city. I studied the same three ritual events during both field trips: the early morning *pūcai* and the ten day "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, both at the Mināṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, and the thirty day recitation of the poems, known as "*Pāvai* Singing" at the two temples in Nākamalai Putukkōttai.

¹¹ See Mu. Aruṇācalam, "Tiruvācaka Uraip Patippukkaļ" in *Tiruvācakam: Cila Ārāyccik Kurippukkaļ* (Citamparam: Caiva Cittānta Makā Camāja, 1965), 143-53. The interpretation of Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar is thought to be the earliest written commentary on the *Tiruvācakam*, although the "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" on "Tiruvempāvai" alone seems to predate Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation. See chapter 5 below for a discussion of these two commentaries.

¹² Akattiya Cūttiram, Tiruvuļļakiṭakkai, and Tiruvācaka Unmai. Radha Thiagarajan, A Study of Mysticism in Tiruvācakam (Madurai: Madurai Kamaraj University, 1984), xv-xvi.

The Argument

The theory proposed here is that Śaiva poems, in both secondary literature and in ritual usage, constitute a text which is interpreted within one or more narrative worlds. The "text" (what is interpreted) may be a single poem, a verse of a poem, or a collection of poems or parts of poems. These poems or their parts are episodic moments rather than longer narratives. They are monologic or dialogic utterances. The particular identity of the speaker is not made known in the poem. The poem may, however, contain information about the gender or role of the speaker or speakers. The addressee may or may not be provided with a specific identity. The poems also may convey varying degrees of information about the time and place in which they are spoken.

Interpretation consists primarily of providing a particular context in which to understand the "text". This is accomplished by situating the poem as an event in one or more narrative worlds, usually by providing an identity for the speaker and identifying the occasion on which it was uttered. A more detailed interpretation may provide an identity for the addressee and details of the setting also. By narrative world, I mean a world in which a particular story takes place. Each narrative world is constituted by a sequence of events which sets the broad parameters of activity within that world. The poems considered in this study were generally situated into one or more of six narrative worlds. These were the *akam* world of love, the *puram* world of heroism, the theological world of Śaiva Siddhānta, the world of the hero's biography, the world of the author saint's life, and the world viewed from the perspective of one's own life. The significance of the utterance (i.e. the meaning of the text) and the coherence of the meaning depend to some extent upon the poem being situated coherently in the narrative world.

Viewed from Fish's perspective, this style of interpretation is a strategy evident in Tamil culture, and the individual narrative worlds or combinations would be the interpretive

sub-communities. Fish understands Iser's 'gaps' to be the result of the interpretive strategy brought to the text rather than being in the text itself. ¹³ It seems that part of the interpretive strategy of the examples cited in this study is to assign identities to the speaker or addressee and identify the utterance as a particular occasion or situation in a narrative world. This implies that the strategies at work assume an ambiguity regarding the identity of the speaker or addressee, and the particularities of the occasion or situation of the utterance. In this study, I refer to these ambiguities as though they are in the poem itself, when more precisely I should say that they are gaps assumed by the common style of interpretation.

In the three rituals studied this conception of text and style of interpretation was operative. The poems were situated in narrative worlds, specifically biographies. In the early morning worship, the poems were situated in the biography of the presiding deity, Cuntarēcuvarar. In the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, "Tiruvempāvai" was situated in the biography of the poet, Māṇikkavācakar. In the "Pāvai Singing" in the two village temples, the singing of the poems was situated in the lives of individual devotees, first person biographies.

In these three ritual events, however, the utterances which were situated were not the poems, "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai", as they appear in their canonical state. In the ritual contexts of this study, the utterances consisted of a collection of source texts, which included all or parts of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai". The combining of source texts into the utterance of a performance actually constitutes the creation of a new text which will be referred to as the "ritual text" in this study. Furthermore, the

¹³ Stanley Fish, "Why No One's Afraid of Wolfgang Iser" in *Doing What Comes Naturally: Change, Rhetoric, and the Practice of Theory in Literary and Legal Studies* (Durham: Duke University press, 1989), 68-86.

significance of this new text and the coherence of its meaning depend to some extent upon the narrative world in which the utterance is situated. Extending Fish's idea that interpretive strategies determine the formal units of the text around which one builds meaning, I am suggesting that the interpretive strategies at work in the construction of the "ritual text" determine not only the formal units of the text, but also its composition and boundaries.

The understanding of text and interpretation proposed here, and the pattern of usage evident in the use of Śaiva poems in ritual have precedents in the earliest Tamil literature, the classical *akam* and *puram* poetry. The structure of the devotional poems is the same as that of the classical poems. The strategy of interpretation has antecedents in the colophons of the classical poems. The pattern of behaviour evident in the use of the poems in the three rituals studied here follows a pattern of behaviour implicit in the *puram* poems. The religious world of the modern Śaiva has been strongly influenced by the world of the classical poetry.

Scholarly Significance

This study makes a contribution to scholarship in several ways. Firstly, it contributes to an understanding of Tamil Śaivism by studying the interaction between the Tamil Śaiva poems, their interpretation and their use in ritual. It illustrates that there is a basic style of interpretation of the poems and that within this basic style there is considerable interpretive freedom. It also illustrates the contrast between the use of the hymns in a large well established temple and in two small local temples. Secondly, this thesis contributes to the wider area of Tamil Studies, by showing links between the style of interpretation of Tamil Śaiva poems and Tamil classical poems, and by suggesting links between a pattern of religious behaviour and a pattern of relating to the hero expressed in the classical *puram*

poetry. Thirdly, the study contributes to the field of performance and ritual studies by focusing on the "ritual text" as a text in itself, and by suggesting the significance and principle of coherence of the "ritual text" lies in the specific situation in which the text is created and interpreted rather than in the nature of the source texts. Lastly, the data collected on the new village temples, in which the "Pāvai Singing" takes place, contributes to studies on local temples in the making.

Organization

The thesis is organized into three parts. In the perspective of text and interpretation being presented here, the "text" is what is interpreted and the interpretation is the meaning or significance that results by providing a context (i.e. a narrative world) in which to understand the "text". Part I and Part II are complementary in that the "texts" presented in Part I are the subjects of the interpretation in Part II. Part I describes the characteristics of the "texts". Chapter 1 provides a translation of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" and highlights characteristics of the poems relevant for the interpretations presented in Part II. Chapter 2 argues that these structures and characteristics are found in the classical akam and puram poems, and illustrates how these same features are evident even in poems which were composed later than the twelve Tirumurai.

Part II: Interpretation explains and illustrates the strategies of interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" primarily as found in commentaries. Each of the first four chapters of Part II describes a different narrative world, and considers interpretations and the strategies utilized by particular interpreters of the poems. Chapter 3 describes the *akam* narrative world, and provides two interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" as framed by this world. Chapter 4 considers "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" as framed by the *puram* world. Chapter 5 considers two interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai"

and one of "Tiruppalliyelucci" as framed by the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world. Chapter 6 considers "Tiruvempāvai" as understood within Māṇikkavācakar's biography and both "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" as understood in a general way within the first person biography. In chapter 7 it is argued that the strategies evident in the examples given in the previous chapters have antecedents in the colophons of the classical poems.

Part III: Modern Usage examines the use of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the Minātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple and in the Citti Vināyakar and Nākamalai Murukan Temples. The conception of text and the style of interpretation developed in Parts I and II is operative in the rituals presented in Part III also. In these rituals, however, "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyeļucci" are source texts even though the poems are especially associated with these rituals. A new text is constructed (the "ritual text") which is the subject of interpretation in the following three ritual events. Chapter 8 provides a description of the Minātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, the first early morning pūcai and the singing and interpretation of "Tiruppalliyelucci" as part of the "ritual text" of this event. Chapter 9 consists of a description of the ten day "Tiruvempāvai" Festival at the Minātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, and the interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai" as part of the "ritual text" of this festival. Chapter 10 provides descriptions of the Citti Vināyakar and the Nākamalai Murukan Temples and of the "Pāvai Singing". Chapter 11 consists of the interpretation of the "ritual text" of "Pāvai Singing" and of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" as part of this text. In chapter 12, I argue that the pattern of behaviour evident in these three ritual events is the same as a pattern implicit in puram poetry, and that the boundaries, composition and meaning of the "ritual texts" of these events is dependent upon the narrative world in which the singing of the poems is situated and upon the particularities of the specific ritual settings.

PART I: TEXT

munnam avanutaiya nāmam kēţṭāl; mūrtti āvan irukkum vannam kēṭṭāl; pinnai āvanuṭaiya ārūr kēṭṭāl; peyarttum avanukkē picci ānāl; annaiyaiyum attanaiyum anrē nīttāl; akanrāl akaliṭattār ācārattai; tannai marantāl; tan nāmam keṭṭāl; talaippaṭṭāl naṅkai talaivan tālē!

First she heard his name;
She heard about the beauty of his form;
Then she heard about his place, Ārūr;
Even though they tried to redeem her,
she became mad for him;
That day she abandoned her mother and father
and all such things;
She did not care about worldy customs;
She forgot herself; She forgot her name;
Our sister reached the hero's foot.

¹Tirunāvukkaracar, poem 6512, transliterated from *Tēvāram: Hymnes Śivaites Du Pays Tamoul*, Publications De L'Institutut Français D'Indologie No. 68, 2 (Pondichéry: Institut Français D'Indologie, 1985) 256. Translated with the guidance of Dr. (Muṇaivar) Ā. Āṇantarācan, Department of Śaiva Siddhānta, Madurai Kamaraj University.

Ten of the twelve *Tirumurai*, the Tamil Śaiva canonical poems, are anthologies of collections of poems. These anthologies are in part organized by author. One of these poems can be enjoyed by itself or it can be appreciated along with other poems.

Devotees and the traditional singers of the poems, the *ōtuvārs*, select poems from the canon to sing during worship. Within the twelve *Tirumurai*, they may choose from thousands of verses. Devotees also choose poems from non-canonical anthologies as well. There are many modern anthologies of poems culled from the *Tirumurai* and non-canonical collections of poems. Songs from these new anthologies are selected and sung by devotees during group or personal worship.

The characteristics of the Tamil Śaiva poems lend themselves to this kind of use. They tend to be short. Even if they are longer poems, portions of a poem can be selected and used. The poems also tend to be discrete episodic moments rather than longer narratives. Furthermore, there tends to be an ambiguity regarding the identity of the speaker, the event which the poem represents and the setting in which the poem takes place. Therefore, the poems can be strung together easily and can be shifted from context to context within the larger Śaiva universe.

These characteristics are evident in the earlier classical Tamil *akam* and *puram* poems, and a large number of poems composed after the *Tirumurai* poems. They also are organized into collections of poems. These poems also can be appreciated by themselves or along with other poems. Furthermore, they exhibit the same types of ambiguities evident in the Tamil Śaiva canonical poems.

In chapter 1, these characteristics of Śaiva canonical poems will be illustrated by an analysis of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci". In Chapter 2, these characteristics will be illustrated by reference to specific examples of classical *akam* and *puram* poems, and briefly by reference to some later poems.

I: Chapter 1: The Poems

Both "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" are collections of poems (or verses) which individually represent single moments or events rather than a continuous narrative. The speaker or speakers of these poems do not have a particular identity explicitly expressed in the poem. The poem may or may not indicate the speaker's gender. The addressee in some poems is given a particular identity, and in others is only identified by gender or by second person pronouns or by verbal forms. The extent to which the setting is provided varies from poem to poem.

The chapter begins with a short explanation of the organization of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci". This is followed by a transliteration and then a translation of each poem. The chapter concludes with a short description of the two poems.

"Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" are from *Tiruvācakam*. *Tiruvācakam* has 656 poems divided into fifty-one units, each of which has its own title. All but the first four units are subdivided into smaller units without titles. Editions of *Tiruvācakam* tend to number the poems primarily according to their position within the 656 poems, and secondarily according to their position within the smaller unit. *Tiruvācakam*, and a second work consisting of 400 poems entitled *Tirukkōvaiyār*, constitute the eighth *Tirumuṇai*, all of which, according to tradition, was written by the saint, Māṇikkavācakar. The eighth *Tirumuṇai* is part of the twelve *Tirumuṇai* which collectively consitute the first part of the Tamil Śaiva Siddhānta canon.

"Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" occur regularly in the same form, order and position in all the editions of *Tiruvācakam* which I have seen. That is to say,

¹ The order of the poems in the edition do not follow the chronological composition of poems provided in Māṇikkavācakar's biography as told in the *Tiruvātavūraṭika*ļ

"Tiruvempāvai" always has twenty poems in the same order, and it always appears as the seventh unit in the *Tiruvācakam*. The first poem of "Tiruvempāvai" is the 155th poem of the *Tiruvācakam*. "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" always has ten poems in the same order, and always is the twentieth unit in the *Tiruvācakam*. The first poem of "Tiruppalliyelucci" is the 366th poem of *Tiruvācakam*.

The poems of each of these two units are linked together by a phrase which concludes each poem in the group. In "Tiruvempāvai" this phrase is "ēl ōr empāvai" and in "Tiruppalliyelucci" it is "palliyeluntaruļāyē". The titles of these poems are thus thought to come from the refrains.

Translation

"Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" have been translated into English before. The purpose of providing a translation here is to focus attention on the markers of the speakers and addressees. These markers are in bold type in the translateration of the poems and in the translation. As a result of this emphasis, the translation may be somewhat awkward at times. For example some of the poems of "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" end with "emperumān paļļi eļuntarulaļāyē". I have translated this phrase with two subjects, "our Lord" and "you", because both are present in the Tamil. This translation does not attempt to duplicate rhythm or rhyme. I have tried to some extent to present the order of ideas in translation as they occur in the poem in Tamil.

I have consulted primarily three Tamil and two English sources for these translations. Kantacāmi Piḷḷai's edition of *Tiruvācakam* presents two versions of the

poems: one split into discrete words and one unsplit.² The transliteration presented here is based on his split version of the poems. I have used Varatarājan's commentary³ for the syntactic expansion of phrases, and Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār's commentary⁴ for his grammatical and explanatory notes. I have also consulted Pope's⁵ and Vanmikanathan's⁶ translations of the poems.

"Tiruvempavai"7

Poem 155/1:8

Ātiyum antamum illā arum perum cotiyai yām pāṭak kēṭṭēyum vāļ taṭam kaṇ mātē vaļarutiyo van ceviyo nin cevi tān mātēvan vār kalalkaļ vālttiya vālttu olipoy vītivāyk kēṭṭalumē vimmi vimmi meym marantu potu ār amaliyin mēl ninrum puranṭu innan ētēnum ākāl kiṭantāļ ennē ennē ītē emtoli paricu ēl or empāvāy

Without beginning or end the precious great Effulgence we sang about;

² Nī. Kanatacāmip Piļļai, *Tiruvācakam: Mutar Pakuti Mūlam*, Iraņṭām Patippu (Citamparam: Annāmalai Palkalaik Kalakam, 1984).

⁴ Aruņaivaţivēl Mutaliyār, *Māṇikkavācaka Cuvāmikaļ Tiruvācakam Tirukkōvaiyār Ākiya Eṭṭān Tirumurai [Kurippuraiyuṭan]* (Tarumapuram: Tarumapuram Ātīṇam, 1966).

³ Ji. Varatarāja<u>n</u>, *Tiruvācakam: Virivurai* (1971; Ce<u>n</u>nai: Palaniyappā Piratars, 1987).

⁵G. U. Pope, The Tiruvaçagam or 'Sacred Utterances' of the Tamil Poet, Saint, and Sage Mānikka-vāçagar, 3rd ed. (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1900; republished by University of Madras, 1979).

⁶ G. Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam: An Original Interpretation and Complete Translation (Thiruppanandal: Sri Kasi Mutt, 1980).

⁷ This translation is a modified version of the one presented in my M.A. thesis: "An Interpretation of Māṇikkavācakar's "Tiruvempāvai" (University of Calgary, 1987).

⁸ Poem 155/1 means: poem 155 in *Tiruvācakam* which is poem 1 in "Tiruvempāvai".

although you heard,9
Oh Bright wide-eyed Maiden, still you sleep?
Are your ears hard?

Upon hearing the loud sounds,
the praise of Mātēvan's long anklets in the street
exclaiming overwhelmingly
forgetting [her]self
rolling on the bed filled with flowers
incapacitated like this
she lay.

Ah! Ah! What indeed is this nature of **our** friend?

Oh our Lady!

In this poem the speaker or speakers are indicated by first person plural markers ($y\bar{a}m$, em). The reference " $emt\bar{o}li$ " suggests that the speaker or speakers and addressee are female, as " $t\bar{o}li$ " is a word used to indicate friendship between females. The addressee is indicated by second person markers and vocatives ($k\bar{e}tt\bar{e}y$, $m\bar{a}t\bar{e}$, $valarutiy\bar{o}$, nin). No particular setting is suggested in the poem. 11

Poem 156/2:

pācam parancētikku enpāy irāppakal nām pecum pētu eppētu ippētu ār amaļikkē necamum vaittanaiyē nēriļaiyāy nēriļaiyīr cī cī ivaiyum cilavē viļaiyāṭi ēcum iṭam ītē viṇṇērkaļ ēttutarku kūcum malarppātam tantaruļa vantaruļum tecan civalēkan tillaic cirrampalattul īcanārkku anpu ār yām ār ēl ēr empāvāy

You used to express love for the Supreme Effulgence

⁹ See M. S. Andronov, *A Grammar of Modern and Classical Tamil*, 2nd ed. (Madras: New Century Book House, 1989), #128, #257.

¹⁰ Tamil Lexicon (Madras: University of Madras, 1982).

¹¹ The reader familiar with Norman Cutler's Songs of Experience will recognize the style of analysis of trying to identify the speaker and addressees, and the way in which they are present or absent in the poem. I am not, however, using his elaborate typology for a variety of reasons. Norman Cutler, Songs of Experience: The Poetics of Tamil Devotion (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987), 11, 19-38, 61-70.

night or day whenever we spoke. Now, is your affection for the full bed? O well-adorned One!

O well-adorned Ones!

Shame! Is this really the place to playfully reproach?

for he who is luminous
who graciously comes to give the blossom-foot
which withdraws from the praises of the celestials
for the Lord of Śivaloka
for the Lord in the hall at Tillai
Do we have love?

O our Lady!

This poem, and the following two poems, are frequently understood to be a dialogue between a single female and a group of females, or someone speaking on behalf of the group. 12 The basis for this perspective in this poem is the two second person addresses, one in the plural ($n\bar{e}ri\underline{l}aiy\bar{u}r$) and one in the singular ($n\bar{e}ri\underline{l}aiy\bar{u}y$), as well as first person markers ($n\bar{a}m$, $y\bar{a}m$) and second person singular markers ($enp\bar{u}y$, $vaittanaiy\bar{o}$). The female gender of the speakers is inferred from " $n\bar{e}ri\underline{l}ai$ " meaning 'suitable ornaments' used about ladies. 13 Here the setting would seem to be the sleeping area of the person addressed. Poem 157/3:

muttu annavel nakaiyāy mun vantu etir eluntu en attan ānantan amutan engu allurit tittikkap pēcuvāy vantu un kaṭai tiravāy pattu uṭaiyīr īcan pala aṭiyīr pāṅku uṭaiyīr puttu aṭiyōm punmai tīrttu āṭkoṇṭāla pollātō ettō nin anpuṭamai ellōm ariyōmō eittam alakiyār pāṭārō nam eivaṇai ittanaiyum vēṇṭum emakku ēl ōr empāvāy

O You with a white smile like a pearl!

¹² In the discussion of the remaining poems of "Tiruvempāvai", I will refer to speakers in the plural when plural markers are used, even though the speaker may be one person speaking on behalf of the group.

¹³ Tamil Lexicon gives the meaning for "nērilai" as "Lady, as adorned with fine jewels" and cites "nērilaiyāy nērilaiyīr" from this poem.

previously **you** came before [us] and sweetly, mouth wateringly would say:

"My Father!, Blissful One, Ambrosial One!".

You come and open the door!

O you with devotion! O you ancient devotees of the Lord! O you beautiful ones! Is it wrong to accept and forgive the faults of us who are new devotees?

Would [you] mislead [us]? Don't we all know your affection? Shouldn't those with beautiful hearts sing to our Śiva? All this is necessary for us.

O our Lady!

The dialogue in this poem is also indicated by second person singular (nakaiyāy, pēcuvāy, tiravāy, nin) and plural addressees (uṭaiyīr, aṭiyīr). It has as well some first person plural markers (aṭiyōm, ellōm ariyōmō, nam, emakku). No gender is indicated. The poem includes the reported speech of the single addressees. The setting suggested is the house of the single addressee.

Poem 158/4:

ol nilattil nakaiyāy innam pularntingo vannakkilimoliyār ellārum vantārō ennik koṭu ullavā collukōm avvalavum kannait tuyingu avamē kālattaip pōkkātē vinnukku oru maruntai vētavilup poruļai kannukku iniyānai pāṭik kacintu ullam ul nekku ningu uruka yām māṭṭōm nīyē vantu enni kuraiyil tuyil ēl ōr empāvāy

O **you** whose smile is like a luminous pearl! Has it not dawned yet?

Have all those who speak like beautiful parrots come?

We will count and tell [you]. Don't you waste time sleeping!

about the one Medicine for Heaven, about the Excellent Sense of the Vedas, about the He who is agreeable to the eyes, singing heart melting, mind dissolving, while dissolving, we won't [do it].

You come and count!

If it is deficient, [go back to] sleep!

O Our Lady!

This poem contains first person plural markers (collukōm, yām māṭṭōm) and second person singular forms (nakaiyāy, pōkkātē, nīyē, tuyil). This structure suggests that the poem is a monologue. However it is often understood to be a dialogue. The sentence "Have all those who speak like parrots come?" is taken to be the utterance of the one person in response to the question by the group, "Has it not dawned yet?" The location also seems to be the house of the single addressee. This poem has the first explicit suggestion that the time of the activity is dawn (pularntinrō).

Poem 159/5:

māl ariyā nānmukanum kānā malaiyinai nām pol arivom enru uļļa pokkankaļē pēcum pāl ūru tēnvāyppaṭirī kaṭai tiravāy ñālamē viṇṇē piravē arivu ariyān kolamum nammai āṭkoṇtaruļik kotāṭṭum cīlamum pāṭi civanē civanē enru olam iṭinum uṇarāy uṇarāy kāṇ ēlakkuļali paricu ēl or empāvāy

"That mountain unknown by Māl, unseen by even the Four-faced One,14 those like us can know"

You deceitful One, whose honied mouth flows with milk, speak such lies, you open the door!

about the beauty of him who is unknown by the knowledge
of the world, the heavens and other [worlds],
about the characteristics that remove faults
and graciously accepts and rules us;
even if [we] cry unrestrainedly singing,
See! you do not feel! You do not feel!

Oh you fragrant locked one!

Consider [this] nature,

^{14 &}quot;Māl" and "the Four-faced One" are respectively Viṣṇu and Brahmā.

O our Lady!

This poem is usually interpreted to be a monologue. The speakers are indicated by the first person plural marker (nammai). The addressee is one female indicated by the singular vocatives "paṭirī" and "ēlakkulali", and other singular second person forms (tiravāy, uṇarāy uṇarāy kāṇ). This poem also contains the reported speech of the addressee. Again the setting seems to be the house of the addressed person.

Poem 160/6:

māṇē nī neṇṇalai nāļai vantu uṅkaļai nāṇē eļuppuvaṇ eṇṇalum nāṇāmē pōṇa ticai pakarāy iṇṇam pularntiṇrō vāṇē nilaṇē piṇavē arivu ariyāṇ tāṇē vantu emmait talaiyaļittu āṭkoṇaṭaruļum vāṇ vārkaļal pāṭi vantorkku uṇvāy tiravāy ūṇē urukāy uṇakkē urum emakkum ēṇōrkkum tam kōṇaip pāṭu ēl ōr empāvāy

O Doe!

Yesterday, even though you said:
"Tomorrow I indeed will come and awaken you, [you did not come]"
Tell [us], without feeling ashamed, what happened to that promise.
Has it not dawned?

for those who came singing about the great anklets of Him who comes gives us grace and accepts [us]

Open your door!

Your body does not melt.¹⁵
Only you can feel [this way].
for us
for those like [us]
sing about our king.

O Our Lady!

 $^{^{15}}$ " $uruk\bar{a}y$ " can be taken as either a negative statement (you do not melt) or an imperative (melt!).

This poem, and the remaining poems of "Tiruvcmpāvai", are often taken to be the address of the group or representative of the group to a single individual. The speakers are indicated by first person pronouns (emmai, and emakkum) and the addressee by second person pronouns ($n\bar{\imath}$, $u\underline{n}$, $u\underline{n}akk\bar{e}$), the singular culturally feminine vocative ($m\bar{a}\underline{n}\bar{e}$) and singular imperatives or negatives ($pakar\bar{a}y$, $ti\underline{r}av\bar{a}y$, $uruk\bar{a}y$, and $p\bar{a}tu$). The reported speech also maintains the distinction between the group (unkalai) and the person addressed ($n\bar{a}\underline{n}\bar{e}$ $eluppuva\underline{n}$). The setting suggested is dawn at the addressee's house. The word translated here as "door", $v\bar{a}y$, may also mean "mouth".

Poem 161/7:

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annē ivaiyum cilavo pala amarar unnarku ariyān oruvan irum cīrān cinnankal kētpa civan enrē vāy tirappāy tennā ennā munnam tīcēr meļuku oppāy ennānai en araiyan in amutu enru ellomum connōm kēļ vevvērāy innam tuyilutiyō van nencap pētaiyar pol vāļā kiṭattiyāl ennē tuyilin paricu ēl or empāvāy
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Sister! Could it be:

that You would open [your] mouth "Śiva"

upon hearing of the emblems of Him

of great beauty

who is without equal

who is unknowable to the conceptualization of the gods;

that You would be like wax before a fire

[upon hearing] "O Southern One"?

Listen!

all of us individually without exception have cried:

"My Lord, My King, Sweet Ambrosia!".

Still you sleep?

What is this blissful sleep that
```

Vhat is this blissful sleep that

You would lie

indifferent

inactive

like a naive one with a hard heart.

O our Lady!

In this poem the speakers are indicated collectively by first person plural markers (ellōmum

connom) and individually by a first person singular marker (en). The addressee is indicated by a singular feminine vocative (anne) and singular second person markers (tirappay, oppay, tuyiluti), and kitatti). The setting in this poem is the sleeping place of the addressee.

Poem 162/8:

koli cilampa cilampum kuruku enkum elil iyampa iyampum vencanku enkum koli il parancoti koli il parankarunai koli il vilup porulkal patinom kottilaiyo vali itu enna urakkamo vay tiravay aliyan anputaimai am arum ivvaro uli mutalvanay ninra oruvanai elai pankalanaiyo patu el or empavay

Everywhere

the rooster crows

the birds chirp.

Everywhere

in seven notes music sounds

the white conch shells resound.

We have sung about:

the noble things without compare,

the Supreme Grace beyond compare,

the Supreme Effulgence without compare.

Did you not hear?

Bless [you]!

What is this? Is it sleep?

You open [your] door!

Is this indeed the manner in which [you] show [your] affection

for him who is the sea of grace?

Sing about Him

who is without equal.

who stands underlying the cosmic rest,

who is part woman.

O our Lady!

There are few explicit indicators of the speakers and addressee in this poem. The speakers are indentified by a first person plural marker ($p\bar{a}tin\bar{o}m$) and the addressee by second

person singular markers (*kēṭṭilai*, *tiravāy*, and *pāṭu*). The poem lists the sounds of dawn. This suggests that the time at which the poem is set is dawn.

Poem 163/9:

munnaip palamporutkum munnaip palamporulē pinnaip putumaikkum pērttum apperriyanē unnaip pirānākap perra un cīr atiyom un atiyār tāļ paņivom ānku avarkkē pānku āvom annavarē emkanavar āvār avar ukantu connaparicē tolumpāyp paņiceyvom innavakaiyē emakku em kon nalkutiyēl enna kuraiyum ilom ēl or empāvāy

Oh Ancient of ancient things!

Oh Newness of new things! 16

We who have attained you as Lord are at your holy feet.

We bow to the feet of your devotees.

We will be companions to them only.

Only they will be our husbands.

We will serve [them]

obediently doing what they desiringly say.

If you grant this to us O our King, 17

we will be without want.

O our Lady!

The speakers are identified here by a number of first person plural forms (aṭiyōm, paṇivōm, āvōm, paṇiceyvōm, em, ilōm). The reference to obtaining husbands implies that the speakers are females. The addressee or addressees were female in previous poems when gender was indicated. In this poem, the addressee is male which is conveyed by pirān, a masculine noun. The addressee is also indentified by singular second person pronouns (uṇṇai, uṇ, nalkuti). This poem provides no clues which suggest a setting.

¹⁶ I thank Dr. R. Radhakrishnan, University of Calgary for the translation of these lines.

¹⁷ "King" $(k\bar{o}\underline{n})$ is grammatically in the nominative case. It is often taken as an address. See Varatarājan, *Tiruvācakam*, 244; Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God*, 223; and Pope, *Tiruvaçagam*, 109.

Poem 164/10:

pātāļam ēlinum kīl col kaļivu pātamalar pōtu ār puṇai muṭiyum ellāp poruļ mutivē pētai oru pāl tirumēṇi oṇṇu allan vētamutal viṇṇōrum maṇṇum tutittālum ōta ulavā oru tōlan toṇṭar uļan kōtu il kulattu aran tan kōyil piṇāppiļļaikāļ ētu avan ūr ētu avan pēr ār uṛrār ār ayalār ētu avaṇaip pāṭum paricu ēl ōr empāvāy

The foot-blossom

surpassing words

lies below the seven netherworlds.

The crown

filled with flowers

alone is the end to all things.

His form

is not only the form

which is part woman.

He is to his devotees

the one friend

who cannot be contained by the praise of the Vedas, celestials and humans.

O Young Girls of the temple of Aran of the faultless lineage!

What is his village?

What is his name?

Who are relatives?

Who are neighbours?

How can [one] sing about his nature?

O our Lady!

The speakers are not indicated explicitly in the poem by any markers except *em* in the refrain. The addressees are identified only by the feminine plural marker *piṇāppilṭaikāṭ*. Most of the poem is a third person description of the male God, Śiva (*araṇ*). The setting is often interpreted to be a temple based on the vocative "O young girls of the temple".

Poem 165/11:

moy ar taṭam poykaipukku mukēr ennak kaiyāl kuṭaintu kuṭaintu un kalal pāṭi aiyā vali aṭiyōm valntom kāṇ ar alal ceyyā vel nīru āṭi celvā cirumarunkul mai ar taṭam kan maṭantai maṇavālā aiyā nī āṭkoṇṭaruļum viļaiyāṭṭil uyvārkaļ uyyumvakai ellām uyntu olintōm eyyāmal kāppāy emai ēl ōr empāvāy

Entering the wide tank
swarming with bees,
scooping, scooping with [our] hands
sounding "mukcr",
singing about your anklet:

Oh Father, see!

That is how we who have been devotees for generations have lived.

O Red One

like a full flame!

O Rich One

smeared with sacred white ash!

O Husband of the woman

with wide blackened eyes and a small waist!

O Father!

We have been saved

by all the redemptive ways of those who are saved by **your** sport that graciously enslaves.

Without failing in strength,

you will protect us.

O our Lady!

The speakers and addressee are mentioned explicitly a number of times in this poem. The speakers refer to themselves with first person plural markers ($aiy\bar{o}m\ v\bar{a}lnt\bar{o}m$, $olint\bar{o}m$, emai). The addressee is indicated by singular male vocatives ($aiy\bar{a}$, $ceyy\bar{a}$, $celv\bar{a}$, $maṇav\bar{a}l\bar{a}$), singular imperatives ($k\bar{a}n$) and other singular second person markers (un, $n\bar{i}$, $k\bar{a}pp\bar{a}y$). The setting is often taken to be a tank or some other type of pond from the reference to tank in the poem.

Poem 166/12:

ārtta pigavit tuyar keţa nām ārttu āṭum tīrttan nal tillaic cigrampalattē tī āṭum kūttan ivvānum kuvalayamum ellāmum kāttum paṭaittum karantum viļaiyāṭi vārttaiyum pēci vaļaicilampa vār kalaikaļ ārppu aravam ceyya aṇikulal mēl vaṇṭu ārppa pūt tikalum poykai kuṭaintu uṭaiyān ponpātam ētti irumcunai nīr āṭu ēl ōr empāvāy

Praising

He who is the holy water

in whom we joyfully bathe to remove the suffering of binding birth,

He who is the dancer

who dances with fire in the little hall in good Tillai,

He who sports

preserving, creating and concealing the heavens, the earth and all [others],

scooping in the pond

resplendent with flowers,

while bees buzz around [our] pretty hair,

while waistlets loudly jangle,

while bangles tinkle,

praising the golden foot of Him who possesses,

play

in the waters of the great hill tank!

O our Lady!

In this poem, the speakers are indicated explicitly by one plural pronoun ($n\bar{a}m$). However, the female gender of the speakers in this poem and also in poems 13, 14 and 15 is understood from the description of them in the poem. The addressee is not identified at all. The singular imperative "play" ($\bar{a}tu$) suggests a single addressee. This poem and the remaining poems, with the exception of poems 16 and 19, end with the single imperative "play". Much of the poem talks about a male figure in the third person who can be identified as Śiva by the reference to the dancer in Tillai. In Tillai, Śiva has the form of Naṭarācar. The reference to pond or mountain tank suggests the setting is a small body of water.

Poem 167/13:

paim kuvaļaik kār malarāl cemkamalappaim pōtāl aṅkam kuruku inattāl pinnum aravattāl taṅkaļ malam kaluvuvār vantu cārtalināl eṅkaļ pirāṭṭiyum emkōnum pōnru icainta poṅku maṭuvil pukap pāyntu pāyntu nam caṅkam cilampa cilampu kalantu ārppa koṅkaikaļ poṅka kuṭaiyum puṇal poṅka paṅkayappūm punal pāyntu āṭu ēl ōr empāvāy

```
With the flowers of the beautiful blue water-lily,
with the beautiful full buds of the red lotus,
with the flocks of birds,
with woven sounds,
[and]
because of those who have come to wash off their blemishes,
this pond resembles our King and our Lady;
springing, springing into that swelling pond,
our bangles jangle and anklets tinkle together,
[filled with happiness our] breasts rise,
fomenting the stirred waters,
leaping into the waters with lotus flowers,
play!

O our Lady!
```

The speakers are identified by plural first person pronouns (enkal, em, nam). In this poem also, the addressee is not indicated explicitly. The reference to pond here suggests the setting is the pond.

Poem 168/14:

kātu ār kuļai āṭa paim pūņ kalan āṭa kōtai kuļal āṭa vaṇṭin kuļām āṭa cītappunal āṭi cirrampalam pāṭi vētap poruļ pāṭi apporuļ āmā pāṭi cōti tiram pāṭi cūlkonrait tār pāṭi āti tiram pāṭi antam āmā pāṭi pētittu nammai vaļarttu eṭutta peyvaļai tan pāṭattiram pāṭi āṭu ēl ōr empāvāy

while

pretty earrings wave,
beautiful adorning ornaments sway,
flower-adorned locks wave,
and swarms of bees sway,
moving the cool waters,
singing of the sacred hall,
singing of the substance of the Vedas,
singing of the essence of that substance,
singing about the nature of the Effulgence,
singing about the wreath of konrai,
singing of the nature of the beginning,
singing the way which is the end,
singing of the nature of the foot of the bangle-wearer
who separates and fosters us,

Play!

O our Lady!

The speakers are identified in the poem by only one plural first person pronoun (nammai).

The addressee is not indicated explicitly. Again the setting suggested is the pond.

Poem 169/15:

ör oru kāl emperumān enru enrē nam perumān eir oru kāl vāy övāļ eittam kaļikūra nīr oru kāl övā neṭum tārai kan paṇippa pār oru kāl vantanaiyāļ viṇṇōrait tānpaṇiyāļ pēr araiyarku iṅṅanē pittu oruvar ām ārum ār oruvar ivvaṇṇam āṭkoļļum vittakar tāļ vār uruvap pūṇ mulaiyīr vāy āra nām pāṭi ēr uruvap pūm punal pāyntu āṭu ēl ōr empāvāy

She would speak unceasingly:

sometimes about the glories of our Lord sometimes repeatedly crying: "Our Lord". Sometimes she would be on the ground eyes wet with long streams [of tears]. sometimes due to the happiness in [her] heart the tears would not stop.

She would not show respect even to the celestials.

This is the manner of a person who is maddened for the great King.

Who is such a person?

O Ones whose breasts are adorned with an embossed band! Let us,

singing with a full mouth
of the foot of the knowing One who takes and rules in this way
leaping into the waters with beautiful flowers,
play!

O our lady!

In this poem the speakers are indicated by the first person plural pronouns (nam, nām).

The addressee is mentioned explicitly by the second person plural vocative, *mulaiyīr*.

Again the setting is suggested by the word, pond (punal).

Poem 170/16:

munni kațalaic curukki eluntu uțaiyāļ

ennat tikalntu emmai āļutaiyāļ ittitaiyin minnip polintu empirātti tiruvatimēl pon am cilampil cilampi tiruppuruvam ennac cilai kulavi nam tammai āļ uṭaiyāļ tannil pirivu ilā em kōmān anparkku munni avaļ namakku mun curakkum in aruļē ennap poliyāy maļai ēl or empāvāy

Advancing, compressing the sea, arising and being visible
like she who possesses,
appearing, flashing
like the small waist of her who possesses and rules us,
resounding
like the beautiful gold anklets on the holy feet of our Lady,
bending a bow
like the holy brows,

like her sweet grace which advances and abounds
for the devotees of the King
who is inseparable from her who possesses us
and for us first of all

Pour [your rain] O Cloud!18

O our Lady!

The speakers of this poem are identified explicitly in the poem by five first person plural pronouns (*emmai*, *em*, *nam tammai*, *namakku*). The addressee, a rain cloud, is indicated explicitly by the second person verbal form, "pour" (*poliyāy*), by the noun *malai* which means both rain and cloud, and by the comparison of the Goddess to the storm cloud. No particular setting is indicated in the poem.

Poem 171/17:

ceń kan avan pāl ticaimukan pāl tēvarkaļ pāl eńkum ilātatu ör inpam nam pālatā koṅku un karum kulali nam tammaik kötāṭṭi iṅku nam illaṅkal tōrum eluntaruli cem kamalap pon pātam tantaruļum cēvakaṇai am kan aracai aṭiyōṅkaṭku ār amutai naṅkal perumāṇai pāṭi nalam tikala paṅkayap pūm puṇal pāyntu āṭu ēl ōr empāvāy

¹⁸ "Cloud" (malai) is not in a vocative form. It is, however, taken that way. See Varatarājan, *Tiruvācakam*, 251. It also can be taken as the subject of the first line of the poem. See Aruņaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 296.

```
That one delight is not
       the Red-eved One's
       the Four-faced One's
       the celestials'
   it is ours
       O One with the Fragrant Black Locks!
   when [he]
       removes our faults
       graciously arises in each of our homes
       and bestows the red-lotus golden foot.
about that guardian who thereby graces;
about the King with beautiful eyes;
about the Supreme Ambrosia for us who are devotees;
about our Lord;
singing
       so that well-being will flourish
springing into the waters
       beautiful with lotus flowers
play!
O our Lady!
```

The speakers are indicated by a number of first person plural markers (nam, nam tammai, aṭiyōṅkaṭku, naṅkaṭ). The addressee is distinguished by a single vocative. The vocative suggests that the person addressed is female as kuṭal is a word which is used to indicate a female's hairstyle, although it also has a broader meaning as well. The setting suggested in the poem is a pond (puṇal).

Poem 172/18:

aṇṇāmalaiyāṇ aṭikkamalam ceṇru iraiñcum viṇṇōr muṭiyiṇ maṇittokaivīru arrāl pōl kaṇ ār iravik katir vantu kār kalappa taṇ ār oṭi maluṅki tārakaikal tām akala peṇ āki āṇ āy ali āy piraṅku oli cēr viṇ āki maṇ āki ittaṇaiyum vēru āki kaṇ ār amutamum āy niṇraṇ kalal pāṭi peṇṇē ippūm puṇal pāyntu āṭu ēl ōr empāvāy

Like the lotus-foot of Him who is in Aṇṇāmalai
before which the diamonds on the crowns of the gods who bow there
lose their lustre
the sun's rays
come, pervade space
conceal darkness

```
and the cool light of the stars dulls and yields.

Singing of the anklet of Him who remains apart [yet]
becomes female, male and neuter,
becomes the sky with bright light,
becomes the earth,
becomes all these,
and becomes ambrosia which fills the eye,
leap into the flower-filled waters,

O Girl!
and play!
```

O our Lady!

There are no explicit markers identifying the speakers in this poem. The addressee is a single girl indicated by the singular vocative $penn\bar{e}$. The setting suggested in this poem is a pond (punal) also.

Poem 173/19:

umkaiyil pillai unakkē ataikkalam enru anku appalan col putukkum em accattāl enkal perumān unakku onru uraippom kēl em konkai nin anpar allār tol cērarka emkai unakku allātu eppaņiyum ceyyarka kankul pakal emkan marru onrum kānarka inku ipparicē emakku em kon nalkutiyēl enku elil en nāyiru emakku ēl or empāvāy

"The child in your hands is given to you! in trust",
because of our fear which is renewed by that old saying,
we will say one thing to you our Lord, listen:

Let not our breasts join the shoulders of those who are not your devotees.
Let not our hands do any service which is not for you.

Let not our eyes see anything else [but you] night or day.

If [you] grant, our King, to us here this status,
what does it matter to us where the sun rises?

O our Lady!

This poem has a relatively large number of markers indicating the speakers and addressee. There are nine first person plural markers referring to the speakers (em, enkal, uraippom, emakku) and three singular second person pronouns referring to the addressee (unakku, nin). The speakers reveal their gender by referring to their breasts. The addressee is male (peruman, kon). The setting is not specified.

Poem 174/20:

põrri aruluka **nin** āti ām pātamalar porri aruluka nin antam am cem talirkal põrri ella uyirkkum tõrram am pon patam porri ella uyirkkum pokam am pum kalalkal porri ella uyirkkum ītu am inai atikal pōrri māl nānmukanum kāṇāta puntarikam porri yam uyya atkontarulum ponmalarkal porri yam markali nīr atu el or empavay Praise [be to you]! Let [us] be graced with your foot-flower which is the beginning. Praise [be to you]! Let [us] be graced with your red sprouts which are the end. Praise [be to you]! [Your] golden foot is the basis of all life. Praise [be to you]! [Your] flowery anklets are happiness to all that lives. Praise [be to you]! [Your] two feet are the end for all life. Praise [be to you]! [Your] white lotus was not seen either by Māl or the Four-Faced-One. Praise [be to you]! [Your] golden flowers graciously accept [us] so that we are redeemed.

In this poem the speakers are identified by two first person plural pronouns $(y\bar{a}m)$ and the addressee is also indicated by two second person singular pronouns $(ni\underline{n})$. The reference to the white lotus that Viṣṇu and Brahmā did not see, indicates that the addressee is Śiva.

Let us play in the water during Mārkali!

"Tiruppalliyelucci"

Praise [be to you]!

O our Lady!

Poem 366/1:

pōrri en vāl mutal ākiya poruļē
pularntu pūm kaļarku iņai tuņai malar koņtu
ērri nin tirumukattu emakku aruļ malarum
elil nakai kaņtu nin tiruvati tolukōm
cērru italk kamalankaļ malarum taņ vayal cūl
tirupperunturai urai civaperumānē
ērru uyarkoti uṭaiyāy emai uṭaiyāy
emperumān paļļi eļuntaruļāyē

Praise [be to you]!

O Substance which is the Source of my life!

It has dawned!

offering entwined flowers to [your] beautiful anklets, seeing the beautiful smile on **your** face which radiates grace to **us**, **we** will serve **your** feet.

O Lord Śiva who dwells in Tirupperunturai!
surrounded by cool fields in which lotuses blossom in the mud,
You possess the banner of the bull!
You possess me!
O our Lord¹⁹

You graciously arise from the bed!

The speaker or speakers in this poem are indicated by singular (en), and plural first person pronouns and verb forms (emakku, tolukōm, emai, em). The addressee is indicated by second person singular pronouns (nin), second person addresses (utaiyāy, eluntarulāyē), a masculine address (civaperumānē), and a non-gendered address (porulē). The time of day is dawn (pularntu). The place would seem to be the presence of an image of the deity based on the reference to offering flowers to the deity's feet and seeing the smile on the deity's face. More specifically the place could be the town of Tirupperunturai.

Poem 367/2:

aruṇan intiran ticai aṇukiṇan irul põy akanratu utayam nin malart tirumukattin karuṇaiyin cūriyan ela ela nayanak kaṭi malar malara marru aṇṇal am kaṇ ām tiral nirai arupatam muralvaṇa ivai ōr tirupperunturai urai civaperumānē arul niti tara varum āṇanta malaiyē alai katalē paļli eluntarulāyē

¹⁹ This form of "Lord" (Perumān) is nominative. It is often taken as a vocative. See Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 456; and Varatarājan, *Tiruvācakam*, 392. In this translation it will be treated as a vocative in the poems in which it appears except poem five.

Arunan has reached Intiran's direction.²⁰ Darkness has gone. While the sun rises higher and higher, like the compassion that radiates on **your** face.²¹ and while the scented flowers bloom [like your] eyes the ordered crowds of bees²² there begin to buzz. Consider these [things].

O Lord Siva who dwells in Tirupperunturai!

O Mountain of Bliss who comes to give the treasure of grace.

O wavy Ocean!

You graciously arise from the bed!

The speaker or speakers of this poem are not identified at all. The addressee, Siva, is indicated by a second person singular pronoun (nin), a masculine address (civaperumānē), and non-gendered vocatives (malaiyē, katalē). The time of day is again dawn indicated by the rising of the sun.

Poem 368/3:

kūvina pūm kuvil kūvina koli kurukukal iyampina iyampina cankam ōvina tārakai oli oli utavattu oruppatukinratu viruppotu namakku tēva nal ceri kalal tāl inai kāttāv tirupperunturai urai civaperumānē yāvarum arivu arivāy emakku elivāy emperumān palli eluntarulāyē

The kuvil has called. The rooster has crowed. The birds have chirped. The conches have sounded. The light of the stars has gone. The light of the sun has appeared.

²⁰ Intiran is the Lord of the east. Arunan is the charioteer of the sun. The arrival of Arunan represents the red color that preceeds the dawning of the sun. Arunaivativel Mutaliyar, Tiruvācakam, 456.

²¹ I am following Arunaivativel Mutaliyar in connecting utayam with cūriyan: Aruņaivaţivēl Mutaliyār, Tiruvācakam, 456.

²² Arupatam (6-footed) is usually understood to mean bees (vantu). See Arunaivativēl Mutaliyār, Tiruvācakam, 456; Kantacāmip Pillai, Tiruvācakam, 245; Varatarājan, Tiruvācakam, 393; Pope, Tiruvaçagam, 208.

O God! Lovingly,²³ you showed [your] two good special ankleted feet to us.
O Lord Šiva who dwells in Tirupperunturai!
You are unknowable to everyone,

[yet] you are easily accessible to us.
Our Lord,

You graciously arise from the bed.

The speakers are indicated by three plural first person pronouns (namakku, emakku, em). The addressee, Śiva, is identified by singular addresses (kāṭṭāy, ariyāy, eḷiyāy), and masculine addresses (tēva, civaperumāṇē, perumāṇ). The poem indicates it is dawn by reference to the appearance of the sun and the disappearance of the light of the stars. Poem 369/4:

in icai vīnaiyar yālinar orupāl irukkotu tōttiram iyampinar orupāl tunniya pinai malark kaiyinar orupāl tolukaiyar alukaiyar tuvaļkaiyar orupāl cenniyil añcali kūppinar orupāl tirupperunturai urai civaperumānē ennaiyum āntukontu in aruļ puriyum em perumān paļļi eļuntaruļāyē

In one group are those who play the sweet music of the vīṇai and yāl. In one group are those who recite the stotras and the Rg Veda. In one group are those whose hands hold woven flowers. In one group are those who worship, those who weep and those who tremble. In one group are those who worship with hands on [their] heads.

O Lord Śiva who dwells in Tirupperunturai!

Our Lord

who accepts even me and gives sweet grace,

You graciously arise from the bed.

In this poem the speaker is identified by a singular (ennai) and a plural first person pronoun (em). The addressee, Siva, is indicated by two addresses (civaperumāne, perumān). The poem does not speak about dawn, but rather describes a scene of worshippers.

²³ I am using Vanmikanathan's translation of *viruppoțu* here. Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God*, 316.

Poem 370/5:

pūtankaļ torum ninrāy enin allāl pokku ilan varavu ilan ena ninaip pulavor kītankaļ pāļutal āļutal allāl kēļļu ariyom unaik kaņļu arivārai eītam koļ vayal tirupperunturai manna eīntanaikkum ariyāy enkaļ mun vantu ētankaļ aruttu emmai āņļu aruļpuriyum emperumān paļli eļuntaruļāyē

Besides [many] saying that **you** are in each element,
Besides the knowlegeable
singing songs about **you** that say
"he does not go, he does not come"
and dancing,
we have not heard and do not know about those who see and know **you**.²⁴

O King of Tirupperunturai with cool fields!
You who are inaccessible to thought,
are our Lord who
comes before us
removes [our] faults
rules us
and gives grace.

You please arise from the bed!

In this poem the speakers are identified by first person plural pronouns (enkal, emmai, em) and a first person plural verb (ariyōm). The addressee is indicated by vocative (manna) and other second person singular forms (ninrāy, ninai, unai, ariyāy). The addressee is not explicitly identified as Śiva in this poem. The only suggestion for the setting is the reference to Tirupperunturai.

Poem 371/6:

pappu ara vīṭṭu iruntu uṇarum nin aṭiyār pantanai vantu aruttār avar palarum maippu uru kaṇṇiyar māniṭattu iyalpin vaṇaṅkukinrār aṇaṅkin maṇavāļā ceppu uru kamalaṅkaļ malarum taṇ vayal cūḷ

²⁴ Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār explains that this line refers to those who try to see and know God in the same way as they know worldy things. *Tiruvācukam*, 459.

tirupperunturai urai civaperumānē ippirappu aruttu emai āņţu aruļ puriyum emperumān paļļi eļuntaruļāyē

Your devotees who are in release with quieted [minds]
who removed [their] bonds
worship
as human [women] with eyes [highlighted in] black.

O husband of Aṇaṅku!

O Lord Śiva who dwells in Tirupperunturai
surrounded by cool fields with blossoming red lotuses,

Our Lord who
removes this birth
rules us
and gives grace,

You please rise from the bed.

The speakers in this poem are only identified by two first person plural pronouns (*emai*, *em*). The addressee is identified as the male God, Śiva (*civaperumāṇē*). He is also indicated by a second person singular pronoun (*niṇ*) and other masculine vocatives (*maṇavāḷā*, *perumāṇ*). The only reference to a possible setting is the mention of Tirupperunturai.

Poem 372/7:

atu palac cuvai ena amutu ena aritarku aritu ena elitu ena amararum ariyār itu avan tiru uru ivan avan enavē enkalai āntu kontu inku eluntaruļum matu vaļar polil tiru uttarakōca mankai uļļāy tirupperunturai mannā etu emaip pani koļum āru atu kēṭpōm em perumān paļļi eluntaruļāyē

Even the immortals do not know that is the taste of fruit, [that is] ambrosia, [that is] inaccessible to knowledge, [that is] accessible, [But we know and declare]²⁵ this is his holy form,

²⁵ This follows Aruņaivaţivēl Mutaliyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 460; and Varatarājan, *Tiruvācakam*, 398.

this "He" is that "He",

You who are in Tiruvuttarakōcamankai [surrounded by] sweet groves!
graciously rules us
and arises here.

O King of Tirupperunturai!
We ask what is the way in which we may serve?

Our Lord,

Please arise from the bed.

In this poem the speakers are again indicated by first person plural pronouns (eṅkaļai, emai, em). The addressee is not identified explicitly as Śiva. He is however mentioned as being in Tiruvuttarakōcamaṅkai and the king of Tirupperunturai. The first reference is a second person singular form and the second is a singular male vocative. The setting suggested by this poem is Tiruvuttarakōcamaṅkai.

Poem 373/8:

muntiya mutal naţu irutiyum āṇāy mūvarum arikilar yāvar marru arivār pantu aṇai viraliyum nīyum niṇ aṭiyār palam kuṭil torum eluntaruliya paraṇē cem talal purai tirumēṇiyum kāṭṭi tirupperunturai urai kōyilum kāṭṭi antaṇaṇ āvatum kāṭṭi vantu āṇṭāy ār amutē palli eluntarulāyē

You are the

beginning which preceeds [all], the middle and the end.

[when] the three²⁶ do not know [you], who else will know [you]?

O Lord

you and she whose fingers holds a ball graciously appear in each of the ancient huts of your devotees. Showing the form like [the column of] red fire, showing the temple in Tirupperunturai, showing the brahman,

you came and ruled.

O full Ambrosia!

²⁶ Vanmikanathan identifies the three as the gods who perform the three cosmic functions of creating, preserving and destruction: Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Rudra. Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God*, 318 n. 8.i, 8.ii.

You graciously arise from the bed.

The speakers are not identified in this poem at all. The addressee is indicated by second person singular pronouns ($n\bar{i}yum$, $ni\underline{n}$) and verb forms ($\bar{a}n\bar{a}y$, $\bar{a}nt\bar{a}y$), as well as vocatives. The vocative, $paran\bar{e}$ (O Lord), indicates the addressee is male, while the vocative, $amut\bar{e}$ (O Ambrosia), is neither male nor female. The setting is not indicated, although the mention of Tirupperunturai suggests that it may be the setting.

viṇṇakat tēvarum naṇṇavum māṭṭā vilupporuļē uṇa²⁷ toluppu aṭiyōṅkal maṇṇakattē vantu vālac ceytāṇē vaṇ tirupperunturaiyāy vali aṭiyōm kaṇ akattē niṇru kalitaru tēṇē kaṭal amutē karumpē virumpu aṭiyār akattāy ulakukku uyir āṇāy em perumāṇ palli eluntaruļāyē

O Excellent Substance

whom the gods who live in the sky cannot approach.

O he who came on earth and gave well being to us who are your devotees who serve.

- O You of abundant Tirupperunturai!
- O Honey who gives joy

to the eyes of us who are hereditary devotees!

O Ocean of Ambrosia! O Sugarcane!

You are in devotees who desire [you]!

You are the soul of the world.

Our Lord,

Graciously arise from the bed.

The speakers in this poem are identified by first person plural forms (aṭiyōnkal, aṭiyōm, em). The addressee is identified by second person singular addresses (tirupperunturaiyāy, akattāy, āṇāy) or vocatives which are male (ceytānē, perumān) or ungendered

²⁷ See Ka. Cu. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, commentator, Śrī Maṇivācakapa Perumāṇ Tiruvāy Malarntaruḷiya Tiruvācakam Ārāyccip Pērurai (Maviṭṭapum, Ilaṅkai: Patmā Patippakam, 1954), 784 for an explanation of this form. I thank Dr. Ā. Āṇantarācan for explaining the form to me: Ā. Āṇantarācan, Interviews with the author, Madurai, 1990.

(vilupporulē, tēnē, amutē, karumpē). The reference to Tirupperunturai suggests that place is the setting.

Poem 375/10:

puvaniyil pöyp piravāmaiyin nāļ nām pökkukinröm avamē intap pūmi civan uyyak koļkinra āru enru nökki tirupperunturai uraivāy tirumāl ām avan viruppu eytavum alaravan ācaip paṭavum nin alarnta meyk karunaiyum nīyum avaniyil pukuntu emai āṭkoļļa vallāy ār amutē paṭļi eluntaruļāyē

O You who dwell in Tirupperunturai,
when Tirumāl and He of the flower²⁸
desired [your grace]
realizing that:
"by not being born on earth
we have wasted [our] days;
this earth is the way in which Śiva saves;"
You with your true manifested grace,
you are able to enter earth
and enslave us.
O abundant Ambrosia!

You graciously arise from the bed.

The speakers refer to themselves with one first person plural pronoun (*emai*). The speakers report the speech of Viṣṇu and Brahmā in which they refer to themselves with first person plural forms ($n\bar{a}m\ p\bar{o}kkuki\underline{n}r\bar{o}m$). The addressee is identified by second person singular pronouns ($ni\underline{n}$, $n\bar{i}yum$), two second person singular addresses (*tirupperunturai uraivāy*, $vall\bar{a}y$) as well as a non-gendered address ($amut\bar{e}$). Here also the setting could be Tirupperunturai.

²⁸ Brahmā.

Description

The structures of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" differ from each other. Each of the ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" are monologues. The refrain, "You please arise from the bed", is easily incorporated into the rest of the poem, structurally and semantically. The structure of "Tiruvempāvai" is more complicated. Some of the poems are understood to be dialogues, particularly poems 2, 3 and 4. Sometimes, however, more of the poems, or even all of the first ten poems, are taken as dialogues. The structure is further complicated by the refrain which is not always easily incorporated into each poem. For example in poem 9, all of the poem except the refrain is addressed to a male; the refrain is addressed to a female. Interpreters of "Tiruvempāvai" resolve this difficulty differently. Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar incorporates it into his interpretation. The refrain is important in Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation for determining that the poem is associated with a vow. The pāvai addressed in the poem is the goddess to whom the speakers are doing the vow. Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār, on the other hand, maintains that the refrain has no meaning beyond identifying the poems as part of a particular type of song, the pāvai songs. I have omitted the refrain when considering the addressees in "Tiruvempāvai".

In both poems each individual poem is a single event. Since each poem is a monologue or short dialogue, the utterance of it consitutes a single event - a short episode. The duration of the utterance when recited or sung equals the duration of the event dramatized in the poem. Each poem can stand autonomously as a single event, or they can be taken together as a sequence or as a collection of utterances on the same topic. Both situations occur in interpretation and usage. All the poems taken together, either as a

²⁹ See Part II, chapter 5 on Śaiva Siddhānta.

³⁰ Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 460, 468.

³¹ Aruņaivativēl Mutaliyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 276. Varatarājan, *Tiruvācakam*, 236 also says that the refrain has no meaning.

sequence or as a collection, also constitute an event when uttered. In this situation also, the time it takes to recite or sing all the poems equals the duration of the event.

The event of each poem can be identified in a basic way. In "Tiruvempāvai", the event is generally taken to be female characters awakening one or more friends, making requests, praising and bathing. In "Tiruppaļļiyclucci" the event is commonly understood to be the speaker awakening the addressee.

The speakers in both poems do not have particular identities. For the most part the speakers are identified only by first person pronouns. First person pronouns do not convey a specific identity. In Tamil, they convey number, but not gender. In "Tiruvempāvai", the speakers can be understood to be female in poems 1, 2, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 19. The speaker in "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" is only identified by first person pronouns. The poems provide no more information about the identity of the speaker.

The addressees of both poems are particularized to a varying extent. In "Tiruvcmpāvai", all the poems but 12, 13, and 14 have second person markers. Second person markers in Tamil convey number, but neither gender nor a particular identity. However the gender is known in many of the poems. The addressee or addressees are female in poems 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 10, 15, 17 and 18. In poems 9, 11, and 19 the addressee is male. In poem 9, the addressee is also identified by non-gendered terms. Poem 11 suggests that the addressee is Śiva. Śiva's identity in poem 11, is deduced from the reference to ash and the column of fire. Śaivas wear ash as one of their symbols. Śiva took the form of a column of fire in order to resolve a dispute between Viṣṇu and Brahmā about whom was greater.³²

³² Yocum discusses the frequent references to this myth in the *Tiruvācakam*. *Hymns to the Dancing Śiva*, 142-4; 161 n.6.

The identity of the addressee is given more precisely in "Tiruppalliyelucci". All poems utilized second person forms of pronouns or verbs except poem 4, which has these only in the refrain. In poems 5, 7, 8 and 9 the addressee is also male. The male God is identified as Śiva in poems 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6. These masculine vocatives are accompanied by ungendered addresses in poems 1, 2, 8, 9 and 10.

The extent to which the setting is indicated in the poems varies. In "Tiruvempāvai" the temporal setting is mentioned in several of the poems as dawn, and in the final poem the Tamil month of *Mārkali* is mentioned. The place of the activity inferred from the poem is a house or several houses in the earlier poems, and a body of water in the later poems. In several poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" dawn also is mentioned. The setting can be taken to be Tirupperunturai as Śiva is addressed as the Lord who dwells in Tirupperunturai. Yet in poem 7 the addressee is also mentioned as being in Tiruvuttarakōcamaṅkai.

"Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" are collections of poems linked together by a refrain. The poems of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļliyelucci" are discrete monologues or dialogues, the utterance of which constitutes an event. The speakers of the poems do not have a specific identity. At most the gender of the speaker is given or suggested. The addressees may or may not have a particular identity. The extent to which the setting is described varies. It is never identified in a definite way. These basic characteristics of the two poems are also found in the earliest Tamil poetry and in poetry composed in later times.

I: Chapter 2: Precedents and Later Developments

The features of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" described in the previous chapter are characteristic of a large portion of Tamil literature from the first extant forms, the classical poetry, to modern times. The classical poems and the post-canonical Śaiva devotional literature exhibit similar organizational features. These poems are also discrete episodic verses. They are primarily monologues. The particular identity of the speaker is not provided, however the gender of the speaker may be known either explicitly or by inference. The addressees, as in "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci", are sometimes given a particular identity. Likewise the setting is specified in varying detail.

The prominence of the episodic single poem in Tamil Literature cannot be overstated. Kamil Zvelebil writes:

As a matter of fact, it is possible to classify almost the entire literary production in the Tamil language under the binary division of *tokainilai* and *toṭarnilai*, i.e. solitary stanzas arranged in anthologies (*tokai*), and connected, narrative or descriptive discourses.(Zvelebil's n. 18). It is hardly an overstatement when we maintain that the solitary, independent, individual poem has always been the most characteristic, most typical, also probably most productive, form of ancient and modern, and to a lesser extent, even medieval poetry in Tamil. It is distinct and detached from other poems, self-sufficient and self-contained, and can be comprehended and enjoyed in itself. It is fit to be anthologized in collections (cf. Sanskrit *kosa*, Tamil *tokai* or *kottu*)... In contrast, *toṭar-nilai* (Zvelebil's n. 19) represents connected narrative, or descriptive discourse (epics, *puranas*, *prabandhas*, novels).

The longevity of this type of literature is significant. G. Subbiah has argued that the world view implicit in the classical poetry underlies the perspective of the devotional

¹ Kamil Zvelebil, Companion Studies to the History of Tamil Literature (Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1992), 139-40. Others have made the observation that Tamil Literature can be viewed from the perspective of this binary division; see for example: A.M. Thomas, "Literary Genres in Tamil: A Diachronic Study," in Encyclopaedia of Tamil Literature, vol. 1 (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1990), 347-8. Zvelebil sees the Śaiva and Vaiṣṇava devotional poems to be direct descendents of the akam and puram individual poems. K. V. Zvelebil, Tamil Literature, vol. 10 of A History of Indian Literature (Weisbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1974), 93-4.

poetry.² The structural features of the poetry are integral to actualizing important aspects of that world view in the devotional context. That poetry continues to be composed and used in this style suggests a continuity of world view and values extending from at least the early centuries of the common era to the present.

This chapter begins with a brief introduction to the classical poetry. The structural features will be illustrated by reference to specific classical poems. Finally, these features will be briefly highlighted in poems composed later than "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucei".

The classical poems are organized into collections of collections. The poems in individual anthologies are ordered by some criteria other than chronology.³ They are generally classified into two types: those which are about love (*akam*) and those which are about matters other than love (*puṛam*). Each type of poem has its own set of poetic conventions. Sometimes there is disagreement regarding whether a poem should be classified as either *akam* or *puṛam*, as it shares conventions of both.⁴

The body of classical poetry consists of two collections: *Pattuppāṭṭu* (The Ten Poems) and *Eṭṭuttokai* (The Eight Collections). *Pattuppāṭṭu* is a collection of ten poems, each of which is by one author and is dedicated to one human hero. The exception to this

² G. Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India: A Study of Classical Tamil Texts" (Ph.D. diss., McMaster University, 1988). See Part III, chapter 12 for further discussion of this point.

³ The possible exception to this is *Patigruppattu*. See Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India," 180-1.

⁴J. Parthasarathi, "Puram Poetry," in *The Encyclopaedia of Tamil Literature*, vol. 1 (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1990), 163. A basic explanation of the poetics of *akam* and *puram* poetry will be given in the following section on interpretation. There is a substantial amount of literature on the classical poems. Some titles have been listed in the introduction to this thesis and could provide a point of departure for those not already familiar with classical Tamil poetry.

is "Tirumurukārruppaṭai" which is dedicated to the God, Murukan. The poems are not divided into verses. They range in length from 103 lines to 782 lines. N. Subrahmanian classifies three of the ten poems ("Mullaippāṭṭu", "Kuriñcippāṭṭu" and "Paṭṭinappālai") as akam poems and the remaining seven as puram poems. There is not, however, really a consensus on the classification of all of these poems as either akam or puram.

Ettuttokai is a collection of eight anthologies of poems. Four collections of the eight have four hundred poems: Netuntokai (The Collection of Long [Poems]), Naryinai (The Good Tinai), Kuruntokai (The Collection of Short [Poems]), and Puranāṇūru (The Four Hundred Puram [Poems]). The first three are anthologies of akam poems and are in akaval metre. The last is a collection of puram poems and has poems in akaval and vañci meters. Netuntokai is organized according to a numerical scheme based on poetic situations. For example, the poems of pālai situation appear as poems 1, 3, 5, and so on in the collections. Poems on kuriñci situations are numbered 2, 8, 12, and so on. The poems of Naryiṇai and Kuruntokai show no particular organizational scheme. Puranāṇūru tends to be grouped according to the hero praised, if this is known, as well as the theme of the poems. The poems of Netuntokai are thirteen to thirty-one lines long. Those of Naryiṇai are eight to thirteen lines long. The Kuruntokai poems are four to eight lines long. The poems of Puranāṇūru are generally between five and twenty-five lines. 10

⁵This poem is also included in the eleventh *Tirumurai* of the Tamil Śaiva Siddhānta canon.

⁶ N. Subrahmanian, *An Introduction to Tamil Literature* (Madras: Christian Literature Society, 1981), 16.

⁷ Parthasarathi, "Puram Poetry," 163.

⁸ This is also known a *Akanānuru* (The Four Hundred Akam [Poems]).

⁹ The following discussion follows Kamil V. Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature* (Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1975), 78-102, except where otherwise indicated. The extant number of poems in these collections is actually 400 plus or minus one or two depending on whether or not the invocatory verse is included or poems are missing.

¹⁰ John Ralston Marr, *The Eight Anthologies: A Study in Early Tamil Literature* (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1985), 69.

The remaining four collections are: Kalittokai, Ainkurunūru, Patirruppattu and Paripāṭal. Kalittokai (The Anthology of Kali [Poems]) and Ainkurunūru (The Five Short Hundred [Poems]) are collections of akam poems. Patirruppattu (The Ten Tens) is a collection of puram poems. Paripāṭal is classified as either akam or puram. All the 150 poems in Kalittokai are in kali metre. Likewise all the 22 extant poems of the original 70 in Paripāṭal are in paripāṭal metre. Ainkurunūru's 500 poems and Patirruppattu's poems are in akaval metre. The poems of Kalittokai and Ainkurunūru are grouped according to the five situations of akam poetry. Ainkurunūru has 100 poems on each situation. The poems of Kalittokai are divided unevenly among the five situations. In both collections, a single author is credited with all the poems on one situation. Patirruppattu is a collection of ten decades each dedicated to a king of the Cēra lineage. Eight of the ten decades are extant today. The poems in Ainkurunūru are 3 to 5 lines long. Those of Kalittokai vary from 11 to 80 lines. The poems of Paripāṭal run from 32 to 140 lines. Patirruppattu poems are between 8 and 57 lines in length. In length.

Ainkurunūru exhibits a further organizational pattern. Each group of one hundred poems is organized into a decade. The poems of each decade are on the same theme or linked together by a repeated phrase or word and sometimes also with the technique of antāti. The repeated phrase or word, or the common theme is also the title of the decade. For example, the twenty-fifth decade of the second hundred is called "Veri pattu". As Jotimuttu explains: "Veri is the process of divination of the priest of Murukan, the deity of the mountainous region." Each of the poems in this decade is on this theme. 14 Decade

¹¹ For example, Marr refers to it as an *akam* collection (*The Eight Anthologies*, 369-70, 327), and Parthasarathi as *puram* ("Puram Poetry," 613).

¹² Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India," 45-6.

¹³ P. Jotimuttu, trans. and comm., Ainkurunūru: The Short Five Hundred (Poems on the Theme of Love in Tamil Literature): An Anthology (Madras: Christian Literature Society, 1984), 25.

26 is an example in which all the poems repeat the same phrase. Each poems begins with the phrase: "kunṛrak kuravan̄" which means "Inhabitant of the Mountain". Decade 39 is called "The Peacock Decade". The word maññai, peacock, appears in each poem of the decade. The examples four and five for akam poems below are taken from this decade. Antāti is a poetic technique in which the last segment of the preceding poem begins the following poem. Sometimes the last segment of the final poem begins the first poem of a group allowing all the poems enclosed in this way to be taken together as a unit. This technique is used to some extent in Ainkurunūru decade 18. The title of the decade is "The Tonṭi Decade" because Tonṭi, the name of a town appears in each decade. Most of the poems are linked by antāti. Tiruvcmpāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" are like the decades of Ainkurunūru in which poems with repeating phrases are grouped together and entitled by that same phrase. Furthermore, "Tiruppalliyelucci" is also like those decades in which the poems are all on the same theme. Whether or not these collections of poems should be taken as a sequence is a matter of interpretation, and will be discussed in Part II.

The dating of the classical poetry is tenative. Zvelebil has written extensively on the subject. In his more recent, *Companion Studies to the History of Tamil Literature*, he devotes a chapter to the discussion of problems and issues on dating the classical literature. Zvelebil dates all of the *Pattuppāṭṭu* poems except "Tirumurukā<u>rr</u>uppaṭai" between 190 CE and 275 CE. He is not so clear about the date of "Tirumurukā<u>rr</u>uppaṭai", putting it both around 250 CE and also later at the close of the classical period and the

¹⁴ See Jotimuttu's explanations of each verse. He does not attempt to link the verses in a sequence. *Ainkurunūru*, 24-29.

¹⁵ Marr cites this example. The Eight Anthologies, 345.

¹⁶ Thomas suggests that the organizing and linking features of the classical anthologies are the forerunners of the *totarnilai* (the sequencing of verses). "Literary Genres in Tamil," 347.

¹⁷ Zvelebil, Companion Studies, 98-128.

beginning of the bhakti period. Zvelebil dates the poems of *Narrinai* and *Kuruntokai* between 100 and 250 CE. He places the poems of *Ainkurunūru* slightly later, between 150 and 300 CE. He suggests that the poems of *Puranānūru* were composed over a longer period, 100 BCE to 300 CE. Of the second group of four collections, Zvelebil dates *Patirruppattu* as the earliest with its poems being composed between 150 to 200 CE. He places the composition of the poems of *Ainkurunūru* slightly later at 180 to 250 CE. Zvelebil dates both *Paripāṭal* and *Kalittokai* in the transition stage from the classical era to the bhakti era between the fourth century to fifth century CE. 18

The characteristics of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" identified in the previous chapter are like many of the *akam* and *puram* poems of the earlier classical age. The structure of *akam* and *puram* poems continues on into the devotional period, although the content is adapted to the devotional milieu. In the following pages, I will show that the structure of the *akam*, *puram* and devotional poetry is the same. The examples of classical poems presented below have been selected from four of the anthologies: *Kuruntokai*, *Aiṅkurunūru*, *Kalittokai* and *Puranānūru*.

Akam Poems19

1. Kuruntokai 42

O man from the land where a waterfall in the cleft of a mountain

¹⁸ K. V. Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature* (1975), 78-102 and Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India," 54. As Subbiah notes, Vaiyapuri Pillai dates "Tirumurukārruppatai" as late as the eighth century.

¹⁹ I have consulted Tamil editions of the poems: Po. Vē. Cōmacuntaraṇār, Kuruntokai (Tirunclvēli: Teṇṇintiya Caivacittānta Nūrpatippuk Kalakam Limiṭeṭ, 1965); Po. Vē. Cōmacuntaraṇār, Ainkurunūru (Tirunclvēli: Teṇṇintiya Caivacittānta Nūrpatippuk Kalakam Limiṭeṭ, 1972); and Po. Vē. Cōmacuntaraṇār, Kalittokai (Tirunclvēli: Teṇṇintiya Caivacittānta Nūrpatippuk Kalakam Limitet, 1975).

declares that a great rain fell in torrents last night: even if your passion dies, will the love between us ever fade?

Kapilar (trans. M. Shanmugam Pillai and David E. Ludden²⁰)

In this poem the speaker and addressee are explicitly indicated by first (em) and second person markers $(n\bar{a}ta, ni\underline{n})$. The gender of the speaker is not known. The vocative $n\bar{a}ta$ indicates that the addressee is male. The setting of the utterance is ambiguous.

2. Kuruntokai 36

That day when my man
from the hilly land,
where a māṇai vine clings
to an elephant that sleeps
by a bo[u]lder,
embraced my shoulders and spoke
an undying oath,
saying, "You are in my heart
and without you. I am not!"
was it painful to you, my friend?

Paranar (trans. M. Shanmugam Pillai and David E. Ludden²¹)

The speaker is not identified explicitly in the poem, even though the translation includes first person markers.²² First person markers are present in the speech of the man which is reported by the speaker of the poem ($al\bar{e}\underline{n}$, $y\bar{a}\underline{n}$). The addressee is indicated explicitly in the poem by "you friend" ($t\bar{o}\underline{l}i\ ni\underline{n}v\bar{a}yi\underline{n}$). The setting in which the speaker speaks is not indicated.

²⁰ M. Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, trans. *Kuruntokai: An Anthology of Classical Tamil Love Poetry* (Madurai: Koodal Publishers, 1976), 116.

²¹ Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, Kuruntokai, 141.

 $^{^{22}}$ "[M]y man" in the translation is "he" $(ava\underline{n})$ or "he of the land" $(n\bar{a}ta\underline{n})$ in the poem. Likewise, "my shoulders" in the translation is "good shoulders" $(na\underline{r}r\bar{o}\underline{l})$ and "my friend" is "friend" $(t\bar{o}li)$.

3. Kuruntokai 11

These bangles, carved from the shining conch, slip from my wrists. Everyday, sleepless, I live in loneliness with my weeping eyes. O my heart: we will escape from living here like this; rise up and lead the way to where he is! He is beyond the good land where Vaṭukars [wear] garlands of basil flower, beyond the frontiers of many-speared Kaṭṭi: and even though they speak in foreign tongues, I will follow him.

Maramūlanār (trans. M. Shanmugam Pillai and David E. Ludden²³)

This poem is addressed to the speaker's heart. The speaker is indicated by first person singular markers $(e\underline{n}, va\underline{l}ipa\underline{t}al)$ and the plural marker (uykuvam). The addressee is indicated by a vocative $(ne\tilde{n}c\bar{e})$, an imperative $(e\underline{l}u)$, and an optative $(v\bar{a}\underline{l}i)$. The time and place of the utterances are not mentioned in the poem.

4. Ainkurunūru 295

My heart that went away with the chieftain of the mountainous region, where the peacock that returns to its abode because of the fire of the mountaineers goes like girls playing ball, afflicting the birds on the stubbles—will it ever return by itself? Or since it longs to stay, will it abide there?

Kapilar (trans. P. Jotimuttu²⁴)

²³ Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, Kuruntokai, 416.

²⁴ Jotimuttu, Ainkurunūru, 52.

The speaker is indicated explicitly in this poem by the the first person singular pronoun $(e\underline{n})$.²⁵ The addressee is not indicated explicitly. The setting of the poem is not specified.

5. Ainkurunūru 299

Even the long-petalled blue water-lily which blossomed in the lovely pool on the slope of the mountain of the chieftain of the hills does not have the radiance like the eyes of the mountain lassie of lovely, adorned hair and a swinging gait. Nor does the peacock have a grandeur like hers!

Kapilar (trans. P. Jotimuttu²⁶)

There are no first person or second person markers identifying the speaker or addressee in this poem. The setting for this poem also is not explicitly indicated.

Akam Dialogue

1. Kalittokai 94

The following is an excerpt from *Kalittokai* poem 94 which is forty-five lines long and is not divided into verses. I have selected Ramanujan's translation of only the first eight lines to illustrate the existence of dialogue in the classical collections. Many of the poems in *Kalittokai* are dialogues.²⁷

Hunchback woman, the way you move is gentle and crooked as a reflection in the water,

what good deeds did you do that I should want you so?

 $^{^{25}}$ In this poem and the previous poem, the first person speaker is indicated by exactly the same phrase, $e\underline{n}$ $ne\tilde{n}c\bar{e}$ (my heart). Here the \bar{e} is an emphatic, not a vocative as in the previous poem. The verb endings referring to the heart are in the third person singular.

²⁶ Jotimuttu, Ainkurunūru, 54.

²⁷ Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India," 79-80.

O mother! (she swore to herself) Some auspicious moment made you dwarf, so tiny you're almost invisible, you whelp born to a man-faced owl, how dare you stop us to say you want us? Would such midgets ever get to touch such as us!²⁸

The dialogue is between a male dwarf and a hunchback woman. In both exchanges the speakers are indicated explicitly in the poem by first person markers (ucāvuvēn, emmai). Also in both exchanges the addressee is explicitly identified by second person markers (tōrraṇai, iyaluvāy, niṇṇōṭu, nī, vilakkiṇai, niṇ). The characters' identities as a hunchback and a dwarf are know by description. Their respective genders are conveyed by gendered references: O son! (makaṇē); and, later on in the poem, female hunchback (kūṇi). The setting, mentioned further on in the poem, is a palace at high noon.

Puram Poems29

1. Puranānūru 92

You cannot compare them with a lute.
The tenses are wrong, the meanings unclear, and yet the words of a little son fill a father with love.
The words of my mouth are like that also,
O Neṭumān Añci
who have taken many enemy forts with guarded walls, for they make you show your love.

Auvaiyār (trans. George L. Hart III³⁰)

²⁹ I have consulted the Tamil edition by U. Vē. Cāminātaiyaravarkaļ, *Puranānūru Mūlamuma Palaiya Uraiyum* (Madras: Dr. U. Vē. Cāminātaiyaravar Library, 1971).

²⁸ A. K. Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War: From the Eight Anthologies and the Ten Long Poems of Classical Tamil (New York: Columbia University Press, 1985), 209.

³⁰ George L. Hart III, Poets of the Tamil Anthologies: Ancient Poems of Love and War (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1979), 162.

The speaker is indicated by the first person singular pronoun $(e\underline{n})$. The addressee is also the hero of the poem. He is identified by name in a form which can be understood to be a vocative (Neṭumāṇ Añci) and by the second person singular familiar pronoun $(n\overline{t})$. No particular setting is evident in the poem.

2. Puranānūru 87

Enemies, be careful when you take the field. Among us is a warrior who will face you in battle. He is like a wheel made over a month painstakingly by a carpenter who makes eight chariots in a day.

Auvaiyār (trans. George L. Hart III³¹)

The speaker is indicated by one first person singular marker (*em*). The addressees are identified by a second person plural imperative (*ōmpumin*) and a second person plural address (*tevvir*). The address conveys the addressees' role as enemies. The identity of the hero of the poem is not known.

3. Puranānūru 101

He welcomes us still as on the first of days,

though we go there not just one day, or two days, but many days with many friends,

does Atiyamān Añci of the jeweled elephant and the artful chariot.

Whether the time for gifts

³¹ Hart, Poets of the Tamil Anthologies, 160. This poem was cited by Cutler also in the context of identifying the structures of puram poems. Norman Cutler, Songs of Experience: The Poetics of Tamil Devotion (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987), 64.

comes right now or is put off for later,

it's like fodder left in reserve on the elephant's tusk,

always there at hand, waiting; it won't become a lie.

O wishful heart, do not scramble for it.

Bless him, his works.

Auvaiyār (trans., A. K. Ramanujan³²)

The speaker is indicated in the poem by the first person plural verb, *cellalam*. The addressee, according to Ramanujan's translation and the notes in the Tamil edition, is the heart indicated by "heart" (*neñcam*) and the optative (*vālka*). However, there remains some ambiguity regarding whether or not the "heart" is the addressee, as it is not in the vocative form and the optative in Tamil conveys no person, number or gender. The hero, Atiyamāṇ Añci, is explicitly mentioned in the poem.

4. Puranānūru 312

To bring forth and rear a son is my duty. To make him noble is the father's. To make spears for him is the blacksmith's. To show him good ways is the king's.

And to bear a bright sword and do battle, to butcher enemy elephants, and come back:

that is the young man's duty.

Ponmuţiyār

(trans., A. K. Ramanujan³³)

³² Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 139.

³³ Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 185.

The speaker is identified explicitly in the poem by first person singular pronoun $(e\underline{n})$. It is clear that the speaker is a woman from the reference to giving birth in the poem. The addressee is not explicitly indicated in the poem. No setting is indicated in the poem.

5. Puranānūru 128

When the ape on the bough of the jackfruit tree in the town's commons

mistakes for fruit the eye on the thonged drumheads hung up there by mendicant bards,

he taps it,

and the sound rouses the male swans below to answering song

in Potiyil, that hill where the clouds crawl, hill of Āy with war anklets on his feet,

hill inaccessible to great kings,

yet open to the approaches of dancers.

Muṭamōciyār (trans., A. K. Ramanujan³⁴)

There are no markers in the poem which identify the speaker or addressee. The hero of the poem is named, Ây. The poem describes his place, Potiyil. His place may or may not be the setting for the poem.

³⁴ Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 152.

Description

Each of the *akam* and *puram* poems cited is a monologue, with the exception of *Kalittokai* 94. Each represents a single scene or episode. As with "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucei" the time it takes to utter the poems is the duration of the action of the poem. This episodic quality of the poems is characteristic of the classical poems in general. As G. Subbiah says:

Perhaps the most striking feature of the classical Tamil poems is that each has been conceived and delivered within a discrete spacial context and moment. The relatively longer poems in the pattu. [sic] collection also are 'occasional' or solitary poems which do not develop or expand any story in a linear or continuous manner over an extended period of time.³⁵

The speakers in both the *akam* and *puram* poems are anonymous. At most the speaker's gender or role is conveyed either explicitly or implicitly. In *Kalittokai* 94, the speakers are a male dwarf and a female hunchback. In *Puranāṇūru* 312, the speaker is a female, more specifically a mother. The examples of the classical poems provided here, and the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" are exactly the same in that no speaker has an identity beyond gender or role.

The treatment of addressees varies. In some poems the addressee is anonymous without even the characteristics of gender or role as in the *akam* poems *Aiṅkurunūru* 295 and 299, and the *puram* poems *Puranānūru* 312 and 128. In some poems, gender or role is provided, as in the *akam* poems *Kuruntokai* 42, 36, 11 and *Kalittokai* 94, as well as in the *puram* poems *Puranānūru* 87 and 101. In the *puram* poem *Puranānūru* 92, the addressee has a particular identity; he is Neṭumān Añci. "Tiruvempāvai" and

³⁵ Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India," 173. Some scholars suggest that the *akam* and *puram* poems were originally part of long narratives and were taken from these narratives and collected into anthologies. Subbiah provides a strong argument against this position (173-81). In any event, the classical poems have been preserved as anthologies of single solitary stanzas.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" are the same as the examples provided with respect to the treatment of the identity of the addressees, as the addressee in those poems varied from simply having gender to being specifically identified as Siva.

The setting in the classical poems, as in "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci", is suggested but never certainly provided. *Kuruntokai* 42 refers to the man of the hills, but it is not clear where or when the poem is actually spoken. Likewise *Puranānūru* 128, refers to Potiyil, the place of Āy. The poem may be spoken there or it may be spoken somewhere else, perhaps to inform others about this particular place. So also in "Tiruppalliyelucci", the addressee is referred to in a number of poems as Lord of Tirupperunturai. This suggests that the setting of the poems is Tirupperunturai. The poem could, however, be uttered anywhere with Śiva of Tirupperunturai in mind. Although the hero of a particular poem is connected to a particular place, the event of the poem (its utterance) need not necessarily be tied to that place. Some poems do not provide a specific setting but only a type of setting such as the suggested battlefield in *Purunānūru* 87. The poem could be spoken at any battlefield. Likewise in "Tiruvempāvai", a number of poems refer to bathing in a pond, but the pond could be any pond. There is ambiguity regarding the settings of the classical poems and the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci".

The examples of the classical *akam* and *puram* poems, and "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci", as examples of Śaiva Siddhānta canonical poems, share the characteristics of being episodic poems whose speakers are anonymous, whose addressees may or may not be particularized, and whose settings are ambiguous. These characteristics are also found in later Tamil poetry. Furthermore the organizational features evident in the bodies of poetry from which the classical examples and "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" have been taken are found in later poetry as well.

Later Developments

"Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" are themselves early forms of what became two independent genres. Tamil texts divide Tamil literature into genres by varying criteria such as content, form, pattern arrangement, number of stanzas, folk verse rhythms and content, letters of the alphabet, garland (*malai*) (grouping verses on basis of content, or formal devices such as refrains), two or more criteria, and whether or not it is narrative verse. "Tiruvempāvai" is an example of a genre based on refrain. "Tiruppalliyelucci" is an example of a genre based both on theme (awaking from sleep) and refrain.³⁶

There are at least six other *pāvai* collections of poems. The most famous of these is "Tiruppāvai" by Aṇṭāļ who is often dated slightly before Māṇikkavācakar. There is evidence of a Jain *pāvai* poem based on a verse quoted in the *Yapparuṅkalavirutti*. In addition to those, there are two Tiruvempāvai poems by the Advaitan Tattuvarāya of the fīfteenth century,³⁷ one by another Advaitan Kācikānantañānāccārya Svāmikaļ about Śrī Vīracēkarañānatēcikar, and one composed by Uṭumalai Iḷaṅkaṇṇaṇ in 1982 about Murukaṇ at Tiruccentūr.

There are at least fourteen collections of *palliyelucci* poems composed from the ninth century until now. Mu. Aruṇācalam identifies the following ten *palliyelucci* poems by six different authors: Toṇṭaraṭippoṭiyālvār's (nineth - early tenth century)
"Tiruppalliyelucci" addressed to Viṣṇu in Śrīraṅkam; Tattuvarāya Cuvāmikal's (fifteenth century) five *palliyeluccis* poems addressed to Grace, Civappirakāca Cuvāmikal,
Corūpāṇanta Cuvāmikal, Tattuvappirakāca Nāyaṇār and Paripūraṇappirakāca Nāyaṇār;
Citampara Cuvāmikal's "Tiruppalliyelucci" to Murukan at Tiruppōrūr (eighteenth century);

³⁶ Thomas, "Literary Genres in Tamil," 344-46.

³⁷ Mu. Aruṇācalam, "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" in *Tiruvācakam - Cila Ārāyccik Kurippukkal* (Citamparam; Caiva Cittānta Makā Camāja, 1965), 14-16.

Irāmalińka Cuvāmikaļ's "Tiruppaļļiyclucci" (nineteenth century) addressed primarily to the great light of grace; the famous Subramania Bharati's "Pāratamātā Tiruppaļļiyclucci" (twentieth century); and Ceńkalvarāya Piļļai's "Taṇikēcar Tiruppaļļiyclucci" (composed in 1959). In addition to these there are: Veļļiyampala Tampirān's (seventeenth century); Civappirakacam's (seventeenth century); Tiruppūvaṇam Kācikānantañānāccārya Svāmikaļ about Tirukkaļar Śrī Vīracēkarañānatēcikar; and recent one by Uṭumalai Iļaṅkaṇṇan about Murukan at Tiruccentūr.

I have been able to see four of the *pāvai* poems and five of the *paḷḷiyeḷucci* poems listed above. The basic structure remains the same. They are collections of episodic poems, although the number of poems varies, linked together by a common concluding phrase. In the *pāvai* poems, the concluding phrase is a variation of "*empāvai*". In the *paḷḷiyeḷucci* collections, it is a variation of "*eḷuntaruḷāyē*". Most of the poems in these collections of poems are monologues. An exception is poem fifteen of Aṇṭāḷ's "Tiruppāvai" which can be interpreted as a dialogue. As with the examples of classical poems and Māṇikkavācakar's "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyeḷucci", the addressees in the poems are particularized to a varying extent. The addressees change in Aṇṭāḷ's "Tiruppāvai" as they do in Māṇikkavācakar's Tiruvempāvai.

Generally in these poems the speaker is either not indicated at all in the poems, or is only indicated by first person pronouns or by gender. In other words the speaker is anonymous. There are two exceptions to this: the last poem of the Vaiṣṇava

³⁸ Aruņacalam, *Tiruvācakam*, 13-17.

³⁹ Zvelebil, Tamil Literature (1975), 205

⁴⁰ Mu. Varadarajan, *A History of Tamil Literature*, trans. E. Sa. Visswanathan (1972 Tamil public.; New Delhi: Sahitya Akademi, 1988, 206-7.

⁴¹ The *pāvai* poems are: Antal's "Tiruppāvai", the Jain verse, Kācikānantañānāccāraya Svāmikal's, and Utumalai Ilaṅkannan's.

The palliyelucci poems are: Tontaratippotiyalvār's, Irāmalinka Cuvāmikal's, Subrahmania Bharati's, Kācikānantañānāccāraya Svāmikal's, and Utumalai Ilankannan's.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" by Toṇṭaraṭippoṭiyālvār and the last poem of Aṇṭāl's Vaiṣṇava "Tiruppāvai". Both of these are signature verses which identify the author of all the poems of the collection. A signature verse is the last poem of a small collection of poems (usually ten) which generally identifies the poet of the collection and the benefit to be gained from singing or hearing the poem.

There is some debate regarding whether the signature verses were composed by the poet of the collections or by later authors, and were then added by redactors of the poems. These poems, however, are present in the canonical presentations of the poems, and do make a connection between the poet and the previous poems of the collections, even though the previous poems do not themselves identify the poet.

It is important to understand that signature verses make up only a small portion of the Śaiva devotional poems. For example, the canonical collection of the four major Tamil Śaiva Siddhānta poets, Tiruñāṇacampantar, Tirunāvukkaracar ("Appar"), Cuntarar and Māṇikkavācakar consists of 8928 poems. Only about five percent of the poems by these four poets are signature verses.

Furthermore, poems that are associated with a signature verse in a canonical presentation, may in usage be disassociated from the signature verse. Śaivas often sing a combination of their favourite poems culled from various decades of the canonical poems

⁴² Cutler, Songs of Experience, 28.

⁴³ This calculation is based on: *Tēvāram Paṇmurai: Hymnes Śivaites du Pays Tamoul*, ed. T. V. Gopal Iyer and François Gros, 2 vols. (Pondichéry: Institut Français D'Indologie, 1984-85.

⁺¹ Tiruvācakam has no signature verses, and I am told that Tirunāvukkaracar did not use signature verses either. This means that there are 3722 poems without associated signature verses. Of the remaining 5206 poems which constitute the work of Tiruñāṇacampantar and Cuntarar, if we assume that there is a signature verse for approximately every 10 poems, then there are about 475 signature verses out of a collection of 8928 poems.

as well as other poems.⁴⁵ Therefore the significance of the signature verses and connection between the voice of the poem and the poet becomes even more tenuous in actual usage.

Most of the pāvai and paḷḷiyelucci genre poems referred to here are indisputably later than Māṇikkavācakar's. They illustrate the same structure as the examples of the classical poems provided in this chapter, and Māṇikkavācakar's "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci". They are just small samples of a large volume of poetry composed since Māṇikkavācakar's time. In Part III further examples of poems composed in the post-Śaiva Siddhānta canonical period which share this structure will be discussed.

⁴⁵An example of this will be provided in Part III. During the interviews, and particularly in the questionaires, the respondents listed the poems which they usually sang in personal worship, usually identifying them by the first few words of the poem. The group of poems were usually culled from from various authors.

PART I: Summary

The focus in Part I has been on "texts", poems which will be the subject of the interpretations in Part II. "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyclucci" are collections of poems, while they are also parts of larger collections. The status of the links between individual poems within the collections called "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyclucci" is somewhat ambiguous. The poems are short, and each poem in itself represents an event. The collection of poems also constitute an event. The setting of this event may be specified to a limited extent. Most of the thirty poems are monologues. A few poems are dialogues, although the exact number varies with interpretation. The speakers of the individual poems have no identity. They may be identified in the poem only by first person markers or descriptive material which may indicate gender or role. The addressees are sometimes anonymous and sometimes identified as specific individuals.

These characteristics are also found in the earliest Tamil literature, the classical akam and puram poems, and Tamil poems composed after the Śaiva Siddhānta canonical poems. All these poems are organized into nested collections. Both the classical and later poems also have specific poems representing individual events in which the speaker is unidentified, the addressee may be identified (puram poems only), and the setting is specified only to a certain extent.

These characteristics allow considerable flexibility for interpreting the poems. In Part II, I will show how different interpretations provide different contexts in which to understand "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" and how within these different contexts the poems take on different meanings.

PART II: INTERPRETATION

WHAT SHE SAID

(to her friend who had talked ill of him when he could overhear, so he would hurry to marry;)

Wider than the earth and higher than the sky, and deeper than the vast ocean is my love for this man of the hills, where bees make honey from the black-stalked kuriñci flower.

Tēvakulattār Kuruntokai 3¹

¹ Translation by M. Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, trans., *Kuruntokai: An Anthology of Classical Love Poetry* (Madurai: Koodal Publishers, 1976), 92.

The primary strategy used to interpret "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" is to provide a context in which to understand them. More precisely, these two poems are interpreted by situating them as events which occur in one or more narrative worlds. Five different worlds in particular reoccurred in my questionnaires and interviews and in the commentaries, as frames of interpretation: the *akam* world, the *puram* world, the world of Śaiva Siddhānta theology, the poet's biography, and the personal biography.

A "narrative world" here refers to a world in which a particular story takes place. In the *akam* narrative world the events are connected to the private world of the unfolding love relationship between a hero and heroine. The *punam* narrative world is constituted by events which may acceptably occur in public such as heroic acts, grief over death, displays of power or generosity, and praise of virtue, honour or fame, and which may be understood within the biography of a hero or poet. The events of the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world are connected to a particular view of the spiritual development of the soul. In the narrative world of the poet's traditional biography, the events are religiously significant developments in his or her life. In the first person or personal biographical narrative world the events belong to the life of the reader or reciter.²

² Cutler has already noted the tendency to use narrative as an interpretive device for devotional poetry and its precedent in the classical Tamil poetry. According to Cutler, devotional poetry is interpreted to be the direct expression of the author, just as *puram* poetry is interpreted to be the direct expression of the *puram* poet, and thus both the devotional and *puram* poets' biographies serve as the frame of interpretation for devotional and *puram* poetry respectively. A "narrative of love" serves as the interpretive frame for *akam* poetry. Cutler emphasizes the poem tied to a particular narrative context: the *akam* poem understood within the *akam* context; the *puram* within the *puram* poet's biography and the devotional poem within the devotional poet's biography. Norman Cutler, *Songs of Experience: The Poetics of Tamil Devotion* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987), 62, 102, 107.

In the perspective I am developing here, I am emphasizing the free-floating poem capable of being tied to many narrative contexts because in the following examples of Śaiva interpretations the same poem is in fact situated in different narrative worlds. "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" are devotional poems and they are interpreted within the devotional poet's biography, but Śaivas also interpret them within the *akam*

The different interpreters situate the poem usually by providing an identity for the speaker and indicating the occasion on which the poem was uttered or its theme. In doing so, the interpreters identify the act of uttering the poem as an event in a specific narrative world.

The significance or "meaning" of the poem then depends on the world in which it has been situated, on its position as an event in that specific world. Therefore, the meaning or significance of the poem changes when it is situated in different worlds or even differently in the same world. The meaning of the poem to some extent depends on the poem being understood to be a situation which fits coherently in the narrative world in which the poem is being interpreted, and on the poem being shown to correspond adequately to that situation. In the examples of interpretations to be presented below, this generally has been accomplished by correlating elements of the poems to aspects of an event in a particular narrative world.

All of the following interpretations understand the poems to be religious poems.

The use of various narrative worlds are different ways of conveying the religious significance of the poem.

Part II of this thesis will consist of examples of interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the five narrative worlds. Two interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" understood within the *akam* narrative world are presented in chapter 3. A *puram* perspective of "Tiruppalliyelucci" is provided in chapter 4. I did not find any explicitly *puram* interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai", but I will argue in Part III that the use of "Tiruvempāvai" in ritual is sometimes *puram* in form. Two interpretations of

narrative world, within the *puram* narrative world, within the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world and within the reader or reciter's own life. I am suggesting that the poems are able to float freely and be interpreted within different frames most importantly because the poems themselves generally do not explicitly provide the identity of the speaker.

"Tiruvempāvai" and one of "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world are provided in chapter 5. In chapter 6, the poems are situated in the poet's and in the "first person" biographies. Finally, in chapter 7 the strategy of interpretation evident in these examples will be shown to have precedents in the colophons and poetics associated with the earlier classical poems.

II: Chapter 3: The Poems in the Akam Narrative World

The *akam* interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" place the poems in the world of love. This frames the divine-human relationship in terms of a humanized love situation in which God is the male lover and the soul, devotee or poet is the female lover. The framing of the relationship in this way is controversial in Śaiva Siddhānta circles. The dominant view is to reject such an interpretation, but there are people who do construe the relationship in the lover-beloved mode.

Two interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" within the *akam* world will be presented here.² The first is by Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār and the second by G. Vanmikanathan. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's commentary on "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" is taken from his voluminous commentary on the *Tiruvācakam* published shortly before his death in 1954. He was a scholar of classical Tamil literature who early in his career conducted research on the *Tirumurai* at one of the major Śaiva Siddhānta institutions, Tiruvāvaṭuturai Ātīṇam. The middle and later parts of his career were spent in Sri Lanka as an educator. He maintained his connections to Tamil Nadu through the Madurai Tamil Cankam (Sangam) as an examiner, and through contributions to their publication, *Centamil*. ³

¹ Four questionnaire respondents (two male and two female) framed "Tiruvempāvai" in terms of the lover-beloved relationship with God as hero and the soul or Māṇikkavācakar as heroine. I know for certain that one of the four is a follower of the Śaiva Siddhānta tradition. I deduced that the other three are also Śaivas based on attendence at a Śaiva temple, knowledge of Śaiva Siddhānta tradition, and the singing of Śaiva songs in personal worship. In an interview, another important spokesperson for Śaiva Siddhānta said that Māṇikkavācakar represents the lover-beloved relationship with God.

² Radha Thiagarajan also interprets "Tiruvempāvai" in this frame: A Study of Mysticism in Tiruvācakam (Madurai: Madurai Kamaraj University, 1983), 144-5.

³ Ka. Cu. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, commentator, Śrī Maṇivācakapa Perumāṇ Tiruvāy Malarntaruḷiya Tiruvācakam Ārāyccip Pērurai (Maviṭṭapum, Ilaṅkai: Patmā

G. Vanmikanathan was an important lay scholar of Tamil religious literature. His interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" are taken from the introductions to individual poems and the essay at the beginning of his English translation of the *Tiruvācakam*, first published in 1971. He maintained that he arrived at his *akam* interpretation prior to seeing Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's commentary. Vanmikanathan regarded the Advaitan Śaṅkarācārya of Kañci as his guru, but was an adherent of Śaiva Siddhānta theology. Interestingly enough his potentially controversial translation was reissued in 1980 by Śrī Kāsi Maṭam, another important Śaiva Siddhānta institution. He died in the late 1980s.5

The chapter will begin with a brief overview of *akam* poetics in order to provide a context for understanding the interpretations of Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār and Vanmikanathan. This will be followed by presentations of their interpretations of "Tiruyempāvai", and then their interpretations of "Tiruppalliyelucci".

The Akam Narrative World

In explaining the basic parameters of *akam* poetry, I will use the *Tolkāppiyam Poruļ*Atikāram, a grammatical and poetic treatise, usually dated with the classical Tamil poetry in the early centuries of the common era, and the *Nampiyakapporul Vilakkam*, a late thirteenth

Patippakam, 1954). The information on Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's life is taken from "Uraiyaciriyar" by Iraja. Civa Campacivacarma (xiv-xvii) in the above edition of the commentary and from an entry in Cu. A. Irāmacāmippulavar's *Tamilp Pulavar Varicai*, Pakuti 3 (1955, rpt.; Madras: Tirunelvēlit Teṇṇintiya Caivacittānta Nūrpatippuk Kalakam Limitet, 1968), 134-6.

⁴G. Vanmikanathan, trans., *Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam* (New Delhi: The Delhi Tamil Sangam, 1971; repr., Tiruppanandal: Kasi Mutt, 1980). See 214-5 for Vanmikanathan's statement that he developed his *akam* interpretation independently of Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār.

⁵ Details about Vanmikanathan's life are taken from the back cover of *Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam*, 1980 edition. Information about his death was communicated to me in 1990.

century or early fourteenth century work on *akam* poetics, as well as the insights of modern scholars. The theory of *akam* poetry is defined in terms of different poetic situations, the number of characters and the occasions on which the characters may speak. The different *akam* poetics situations were not explicitly linked into a narrative sequence in the early theory of the *Tolkāppiyam*. Theoreticians of later times did create a narrative out of these poetic situations.

Akam poetry proper has 5 situations (tiṇai).8 The five divisions and the corresponding situations of love are: kuriñci - lovers' union, mullai - patient waiting, neytal - anxious waiting, marutam - infidelity, and pālai - separation. Each situation is correlated to a time, a place, and a set of animate and inanimate things appropriate to that

⁶ Scholars have debated the date of the *Tolkāppiyam*. Some of the issues are whether the text preceeds the classical poetry, or was composed after, or was composed in sections over a period of time. Generally it is associated with the same time frame as the classical poetry. There has been a substantial amount of scholarly work on classical poetics. Some titles have been cited in the introduction (2-3). My intention here is to provide what is needed to understand the *akam* interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci".

All references to the *Tolkāppiyam* are to the *Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram sūtras* numbered according to P. S. Subrahmanya Sastri, *Tolkāppiyam: The Earliest Extant Tamil Grammar* (Madras: Kuppuswami Sastri Research Institute, 1949).

⁷ J. Parthasarathi, "Akam Poetry" and "Puram Poetry" in *The Encyclopaedia of Tamil Literature*, vol. 1 (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1990), 151-2, 163. An overview of *akam* poetics can be found in John Ralston Marr, *The Eight Anthologies: A Study in Early Tamil Literature* (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1985), 14-30; K. V. Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature*, vol. 10 in *A History of Indian Literature* (Weisbaden: Otto Harrasowitz, 1974), 34-42; Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 231-297; M. Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, *Kuruntokai: An Anthology of Classical Love Poetry* (Madurai: Koodal Publishers, 1976), 1-30; and K. Zvelebil, *The Smile of Murukan on Tamil Literature of South India* (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1973).

⁸ Akam in its broadest understanding has two additional situations, kaikkiļai and peruntiņai. Peruntiņai is "forced loveless relationship: a man and a woman, mismatched in age, coming together for duty, convenience, or lust," while kaikkiļai is "(literally, the 'base relationship'), the one-sided affair, unrequited love, or desire inflicted on an immature girl who does not understand it." Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 236.

spatio-temporal circumstance.⁹ These phenomena are used to suggest the particular theme of the situation. For example, *kuriñci* is associated with the mountains, the cold and early frost seasons, and night time. A poet attempting to suggest a theme in the situation of lovers' union could use any one or more of these elements to indicate the general situation of lovers' union.¹⁰ Occasionally, phenomena from two different regions could be combined in a poem, thereby providing different nuances on a theme in a situation.¹¹

The people described in *akam* poetry are generally thought to be characters in roles, rather than particular individuals. ¹² The basis for this view is the *Tolkāppiyam Porul*Atikāram sūtras which say: "In the five tiṇais which are in the middle where mention is made of human beings, their individual names should not be mentioned. Individual names may be mentioned in pura-t-tiṇai and not in akattiṇai." ¹³ This rule ensures that no individual identity, nor any particular historical context, is provided for akam characters. ¹⁴

The *Tolkāppiyam* and *Nampiyakapporul* indicate which kinds of characters may inhabit the *akam* narrative world by indicating who may speak, the occasions on which they are permitted to speak, who may have their speech reported, and whom can be

⁹ *Pālai* is not assigned a separate region as it is thought to be a condition which can occur in the other four situation. It is, however, assigned a temporal circumstance with its own animate and inanimate objects. See Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 237 and Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature* (1974), 36-40.

¹⁰ See Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 242; Zvelebil, *The Smile of Murukan*, 92-100. *Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram*, sūtras 56, 57.

¹¹ Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 241-3. See also G. Sundaramoorthy, *Early Literary Theories in Tamil: In comparison with Sanskrit Theories* (Madurai: Sarvodaya Ilakkiya Pannai, 1974), 23-4.

¹² On the basis of these *sūtras* the characters of *akam* poetry are usually understood to be human archetypes or human ideals. See Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, *Kuruntokai*, 3; Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 235; Cutler 1987: 62.

¹³ Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram, sūtras 56-7. Sūtra 80 on the other hand says that gods are not prohibited from verses concerned with love or human beings, and sūtra 84 says that "Predecessors have said that the true names of heroes may be mentioned in erotic verses". The issue of the use of names is further discussed in chapters 4 and 7 below.

¹⁴ Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 235.

addressed. The *Tolkāppivam* recognizes the *akam* relationships as having two main stages: premarital (kalavu) and marital (karpu). In the premarital stage of love, there are six characters who may speak: the hero (kilavan), the heroine (kilatti), the hero's friend $(p\bar{a}nk\bar{a}n)$, the heroine's friend $(t\bar{o}li)$, the foster mother (cevili) and brahmins $(p\bar{a}rpp\bar{a}n)$. 15 After marriage, six additional characters may speak: the minstrel (pānan), the dancer (kūttan), one female dancer (virali), the courtesan (parattai), learned men (arivar) and passers-by (kantōr). 16 The Nampiyakapporul adds one's own mother to this second group.¹⁷ The following characters do not speak directly, but may have their speech reported: villagers ($\bar{u}r\bar{u}r$), neighbours ($aval\bar{o}r$), residents of the street ($c\bar{e}riv\bar{o}r$), those who know of the stages of lovesickness (noy marunkarinar), the father (tantai) and the elder brother (tannai). 18 The heroine's mother never speaks to the heroine or the hero, 19 but she may speak with those who saw $(kant\bar{o}r)$ the event, her daughter's friend $(p\bar{a}nki)$, the foster mother (cevili), those who know the affliction of [the daughter's] mind (cintainōy $ariv\bar{o}r$), the wise (arivar), neighbours (ayal $\bar{o}r$), divinity (teyvam), and brahmins (antanar).²⁰ The Nampiyakapporul indicates that all the characters who are allowed to speak (except the heroine's mother), are also permitted to hear the speech of the hero and heroine.²¹ The speeches of the brahmins and the wise can be heard by all characters.²²

¹⁵ Sundaramoorthy, Early Literary Theories in Tamil, 57; Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram, sūtra 492. See also the Nampiyakapporuļ sūtra 213.

¹⁶ Sundaramoorthy, Early Literary Theories in Tamil, 68-69; Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram, sūtra 493.

¹⁷ Kā. Ra. Kōvintarāca Mutaliayār, ed. & notes, Nārkavirāca Nampi Iyarriya Akapporuļ Viļakkam Palaiya Uraiyuṭan (1943, rpt. Madras: Tirunelvēlit Tennintiya Caivacittānta Nūrpatippuk Kalakam Limiṭeṭ, 1989), sūtra 214. Zvelebil dates this work during the reign of Maravarma Kulacekara I, 1268-1308/9. K. V. Zvelebil, Companion Studies to the History of Tamil Literature (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1992), 148.

¹⁸ Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram, sūtra 494. See also Nampiyakapporuļ, 215.

¹⁹ Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram, sūtra 495; Nampiyakapporuļ, 218.

²⁰ Nampiyakapporul, 219. See Subrahmanya Sastri, Tolkāppiyam, 73.

²¹ Nampiyakapporul, 225 and the accompanying note.

²² Nampiyakapporul, 226.

The main characters, the hero and heroine, are expected to reflect a standard for a love relationship. Zvelebil, explains:

According to TP 25-6, and Ilampūraṇar's commentary, only free men can lead a happy life. Servants and workmen are outside the five *akam*-types, for they cannot attain wealth, virtue and happiness; they do not have the necessary strength of character; they are moved only by passion and impulses. Only the cultured and well-matched pair is capable of the full range of love The lovers should be well-matched in lineage, conduct, will, age, beauty (or figure), passion, humility, benevolence, intelligence and wealth (TP 273).²³

The *Tolkāppiyam Poru! Atikāram* indicates on which occasions a character may speak. The following are a few examples of the many possible occasions. The hero may speak to the heroine after their first meeting describing how attractive she is or trying to make her understand his suffering (*sūtra* 98). He may speak when he has been sent away, or when the heroine's friend is about to decide to help him meet the heroine (*sūtra* 100).²⁴

The connecting of *akam* poetic events into a sequence which constituted a narrative world evolved over time. The sequencing of *akam* situations in poetry is manifest, in the *kōvai* genre. The earliest of the *kōvai* is *Pāṇṭikkōvai*, thought to have been composed in approximately the 7th century.²⁵ Another early *kōvai* work is *Tirukkōvaiyār* attributed to Māṇikkavācakar. It consists of four-hundred verses representing a sequence of *akam* situations.²⁶

²³ Zvelebil, The Smile of Murukan on Tamil Literature of South India, 92.

²⁴ More occasions are provided in the *Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram* regarding when a character may speak. There is some disagreement among commentators in the discussion of *sūtra* 105 regarding whether the occasions listed apply to the hero or heroine. See Subrahmanya Sastri, *Tolkāppiyam*, 73.

²⁵ C. Manoharan and M. Mathialagan, "Akapporul Kovai" in *The Encyclopaedia of Tamil Literature*, vol. 2 (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1992), 48-50. If however, an early date for Māṇikkavācakar is accepted, then his *Tirukkōvaiyār* would be the earliest *kōvai* collection.

 $^{^{26}}$ Cutler discusses the $k\bar{o}vai$ genre and $Tirukk\bar{o}vaiy\bar{a}r$ in Songs of Experience, chapters 4 (81-110) and 5.

Over time, in theoretical works, sequences of *akam* events were articulated in great detail. The exact details vary somewhat among the different trends of *akam* theory.²⁷ J. Parthasarathi provides an overview of the sequence of *akam* events based on the trend of *Nampiyakapporul* and its successors, which has been, according to him, the most influential tradition of *akam* poetic theory. His sequence of *akam* events is broadly divided into *kalavu* (secret love) and *karpu* (married love). In *kalavu* there are four main sequential situations: 1) natural union (*iyarkaippunarcci*); 2) union which occurs on the second day (*iṭantalaippāṭu*); 3) the situation in which the hero's friend finds out about the relationship (*pāṅkarkūṭṭam*); and 4) the situation in which the heroine's friend finds out about the relationship (*tōliyirkūṭṭam*). Within these four situations there are many sub-situations. Here, only the last will be elaborated as it has direct relevance for understanding the interpretations to be discussed below.

According to Parthasarathi, the majority of *akam* poems are concerned with the fourth of the premarital situations. He illustrates this division with a few sub-situations. One subdivision is the group of possible situations in which the heroine's friend actually learns about the relationship. He provides three examples: a) the friend realizes that the hero is up to something when he comes into the presence of the heroine or the friend under a pretext; b) the friend realises that the heroine has had union because she will not violate

²⁷ Parthasarathi divides most of the theoretical work on akam poetry from the Tolkāppiyam upto the ninteenth century into four main trends. The four main trends stem from the Tolkāppiyam, Iraiyaṇārakapporuļ, Nampiyakapporuļ and Pērāciriyar's commentary on the Tirukkōvaiyār as reproduced in the Muttuvīriyam, "Akam Poetry," 149. Other summaries of the sequence can be found in Sundaramoorthy, Early Literary Theories in Tamil, 26-39 and Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, Kuruntokai, 5-14. Sundarmoorthy describes this narrative structure in great detail, and closely relates his description to the sūtras of the Tolkāppiyam. He suggests that the hero and heroine have no verbal or physical contact on their first meeting. This is reserved for subsequent meetings. He notes that the Tolkāppiyam is not clear on whether or not the lovers are sexually intimate before marriage. He indicates that the poetry suggests that they are. Sundaramoorthy, Early Literary Theories in Tamil, 26-34.

her chastity by worshipping another besides her "husband"; c) the friend realizes that there is a relationship when the hero comes to give the heroine the *talai* (dress made of foliage).

A number of sub-divisions follow the heroine's friend's discovery of the relationship. Each sub-division has its own set of possible situations. After finding out about the relationship, the friend may refuse to help the hero meet the heroine. As a result, the hero may threaten to make the relationship public by taking drastic action such as riding the palmyra horse or jumping off a mountain. The hero will eventually convince the heroine's friend to help him. She will then arrange for the hero and heroine to meet in fields near her house or even within the boundaries of her house. These clandestine meetings may lead to gossip and scandal, which results in the heroine being confined to the house. The heroine's friend may then demand that the hero marry the heroine. According to Shanmugan Pillai and Ludden, also during the arranged meeting stage the hero may leave the heroine for several reasons, one of which is to search for wealth for their marrige and married life.²⁸ During this stage the heroine may show physical signs of stress, either because of the hero's absence, because of gossip, or because of fear that he may not become her husband for some reason or other.²⁹ The heroine's mother may become concerned about her state and call in a diviner to identify what is ailing her. The friend may then reveal the cause of the heroine's suffering to the foster mother out of concern for the heroine, who in turn tells the heroine's mother. This results in either the marriage of the hero and heroine, or in their elopement if the parents do not approve of the marriage.³⁰

Parthasarathi lists six situations of the marital stage in the relationship (*kanpu*): 1) making the relationship public; 2) enjoyment of married life; 3) sulking; 4) love quarrel; 5)

²⁸ Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, *Kuruntokai*, 8-9.

²⁹ Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, Kuruntokai, 9-10.

³⁰ Parthasarathi, "Akam Poetry," 155-8.

restoration of normalcy; and 6) separation. The sulking and love quarrel are usually a result of the husband's affairs with other women.³¹ In the marital stage, as in the premarital stage, the hero may leave the heroine for various reasons, such as to study, to be an ambassador, to go to war, or to acquire wealth.³²

The Poems in the Akam Narrative World

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār and Vanmikanathan understand themselves to be interpreting "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" within the *akam* narrative world.³³ Their interpretive efforts are for the most part directed towards showing how the poems fit into the *akam* world by identifying the speakers and addressees as characters of that world, and by showing that the poems are events in that world. They generally agree on what *akam* identities are assigned to the speakers and to the addressees, but, they do not agree on the *akam* occasions on which the two poems are spoken. The two poems have different meanings in the two interpretations, because the interpreters emphasise different aspects of the poems and place them in different positions in the *akam* narrative world.

In Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai", the main characters are the heroine, her friends, and the hero. The event to which the poem

³¹ Parthasarathi, "Akam Poetry," 159.

³² Parthasarathi, "Akam Poetry," 159.

³³ Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's commentary on "Tiruvempāvai" is found on 457-504, and his commentary on "Tiruppalliyelucci" is found on 770-87 of *Tiruvācakam*. The relevant pages for Vanmikanathan's interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" are in Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam*, 37-70, 213-228, 314-19, and 325-6. See Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 457 for an explicit reference to his view that "Tiruvempāvai" is *akam*.

Vanmikanathan's interpretation is in English, and he actually uses very little of the technical terminology of Tamil poetics. Besides explicit statements that he is interpreting within the Tamil frame of love, the occasional *akam* technical term does appear such as "thalaivi" (heroine), "kalaviyal" (secret courtship), and "karpiyal" (public declaration), 37-47.

corresponds is the *Mārkali* bathing ritual in which young girls undertake a vow directed toward a *pāvai* (a doll or temporary image) in order to obtain good husbands for themselves and rain for the land. The friends have already discovered the relationship between the heroine and the hero. Situated in this way, the poem is understood to be about the heroine's friends prodding the heroine to participate in the vow so that she may marry her lover and they may marry his followers.

Navanīta Kirusna Pāratiyār provides identities from the akam world for most of the speakers and addresses of the poems.³⁴ The speakers in "Tiruvempāvai" are the heroine (talaimakaļ, talaivi) or her friends (āyattār). The addressees are each other, the hero (talaivan) who is god, the temple girls or a cloud. The speaker or speakers are one or more of the friends in poems 1, 5 to 8, 13 through 15, 17 and 18. All these poems are addressed to the heroine. The fifth poem is also in part addressed by one companion to another. The dialogue poems (2, 3 and 4) are an exchange between the companions and the heroine. In poem 9 the friends address the hero, who is God. The companions and the heroine address the temple girls who have rights to serve in the temple in poem 10. Navanīta Kirusna Pāratiyār identifies the speakers of poem 11 only by the third person plural pronoun (avar), but in the preceding (10) and the following poem (12) the companions and the heroine both speak. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār seems to take poem 11 also as the speech of the companions and heroine together. God is the one addressed in poem 11. In poem 12, the companions and the heroine encourage each other to praise and bathe. Again in poem 16 there is some ambiguity as to whether or not when the companions speak the heroine is included. This poem is addressed to a cloud. Poem 19 is the companions'

³⁴ Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār allows for the possibility of more than one identity for the speaker and addressee in some poems. In poems 3, 4 and 7, I have used what appears to be his primary choice in his discussion of the speakers and addressees of each poem.

address to God. Poem 20 is addressed to God and we assume Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār who uses the third person plural (*avar*), means it is to be spoken by the companions.

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār provides a full explanation of how he understands the setting and sequence of events in "Tiruvempāvai". He argues that poems 1 through 5 occur before the heroine has opened her door, which means that the event which the poems represent takes place at her house. Poems 6 to 9 are uttered while the companions and the heroine proceed along the street.³⁵ He does not specifically state the setting for poems 10 through 20, but poem 10 is addressed to the temple girls, so it seems clear that he assumes the group is at the temple. Poems 11 through 20 enjoin bathing, so he again seems to assume that they are at the water. His analysis implies that poems 1 through 10 represent a fixed sequence of events, and he assumes they should be taken in the order in which they occur in the canon.

The point of connection between "Tiruvempāvai" and an event in the *akam* narrative world is the bathing ritual. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār explains how the bathing ritual fits into the *akam* world.

All the ancient books call the *Mārkali* bath the "Tai bath". The hero comes of his own accord to virgin girls and he gives the garland and waist dress of leaves in such a way that they accept, and thereby he makes public his hidden love and leaves. These virgin girls who naively accept that [gift], being chaste (*karpu*), feel they should marry [him]: this is the tradition - so the *Mārkali* bath is intended for the purpose of obtaining marriage (translation mine).³⁶

In the sequence of *akam* situations described by Parthasarathi (see above), the hero's giving of the waist dress is a situation in the premarital stage of love in which the

³⁵ See Navanīta Kirusņa Pāratiyār, Tiruvācakam, 477-478.

³⁶ Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 463-4. In support of this he cites the classical poems: *Naṛṛṇai* 80; *Kalittokai* 59; *Paripāṭal* 11, 74-92, 116-21, 134-40. The word Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār uses for garland is "tār", and for waist dress leaves is "talai". Cutler discusses the possible association between the *Mārkali* and the Tai bath in *Consider Our Vow*, 5-14.

heroine's friend comes to realize that there is a relationship between the heroine and the hero. Placing "Tiruvempāvai" at the time of the *Mārkali* bathing ritual indicates that the heroine has already received the waist dress and that the friends already know about the relationship between the hero and heroine. In Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's view, the friends want the heroine to marry the hero so that they in turn can marry the hero's friends and all can enjoy a good life.³⁷ "Tiruvempāvai" is about a heroine who has a relationship with a hero which has been discovered by her friends already. She and her friends are doing the *Mārkali* bathing ritual in order to obtain the hero as her husband and to ensure her chastity so that in due course the friends can marry his followers.³⁸

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār situates "Tiruvempāvai" even more specifically within this general situation. The heroine had promised to awaken her foster-mother and her companions, but the heroine did not come. The poem begins with the speech of a person who is angry firstly because the heroine did not come and awaken her, and secondly because the heroine did not get up when they all came to awaken her. Instead of getting up she sobs and rolls around because she had forgotten her promise to awaken them.³⁹

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār also makes connections between many of the individual poems and the *akam* world by showing how specific elements of the poem bear an *akam* interpretation.⁴⁰ As an example, we may consider his interpretation of the word, *āliyan*,

³⁷ See Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's commentary on verses 9 and 19, *Tiruvācakam*, 483-5, 502-4.

³⁸ For examples of references to the heroine's current state of love and previous experience with the hero see Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's commentary on poems 6, 7, 9, and 13, *Tiruvācakam*, 479, 480-1, 484, 493). See the commenatry on poems 9, 16 and 19 for Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's explanation that the companions are requesting to marry the devotees and that that request is a request for the hero to marry the heroine also, *Tiruvācakam*, 483-5, 496-7, 502.

³⁹ Navanīta Kirusna Pāratiyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 466, 468-69.

⁴⁰ See Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's commentary on verses 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18 and 20, *Tiruyācakam*.

which occurs in poem 8. He takes this to mean "because of drawing the circle".

According to him, the hero has come, given the garland, instilled love in the heroine and left. The heroine who is now separated from the hero, draws a circle as a way of divining when the hero will return.⁴¹

"Tiruvempāvai", in Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation, is a poem about a heroine in a love relationship. Her friends have discovered the relationship and are eager that she undertake the bathing ritual with them, so that she will quickly marry the hero and they will soon marry his friends.

"Tiruvempāvai" - Vanmikanathan's Interpretation

"Tiruvempāvai", in Vanmikanathan's interpretation, is a poem about how the friends of the heroine discover that she is in love with the hero. The main characters and the setting are the same as in Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation. Vanmikanathan, however emphasises a different aspect of the poem when situating it as a different event in the *akam* narrative world.

Vanmikanathan's characters are also drawn from the *akam* world. They are the heroine, the hero and the heroine's friends. Unlike Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, however Vanmikanathan assigns a specific identity to the heroine. The heroine is "Māṇikkavācakar" who has "become a young girl" in this poetic situation. He gives "her" the name of

⁴¹ Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 482-3; Dr. Ā. Aṇantarācaṇ explained to me that, following an old superstition, she closes her eyes and draws the circle. If the two ends of the circle join it means the hero will return quickly, and if they do not join, his return will be delayed. Ā. Aṇantarācaṇ, interview with the author, Palkalainakar, Madurai, 15 April 1991. The line in the verse then becomes: "Is this the way of love in which you draw the loop?" Vanmikanathan's translation of the same line is: "Is this the way to become love-filled towards the Sea of grace?" Vanmikanathan takes "āliyaṇ" to mean "Sea of grace" thereby interpreting "āli" to mean "sea".

"Civakaami". ⁴² He understands poems 1, 5 through 9 and 11 through 19 as entirely taken up with the speech of the friends. Poem 9, 11, and 19 are addressed to the *pāvai*. On the other hand in his translation he uses male addresses which suggest the poem is addressed to the hero. The *pāvai* is the female deity to whom the girls direct their vow. It is an image temporarily constructed for and worshipped during the vow. ⁴³ In poems 12 through 15. 17 and 18, the girls address the heroine, enjoining her to join them in the bathing ritual. Like Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, Vanmikanathan takes poems 2, 3, and 4 to be dialogues between the friends and the heroine. Vanmikanathan understands the heroine to speak to her friends in poem 10. He also implies that poem 16 is said by the girls. In his translation it is addressed to the cloud. Poem 20 is the speech of the girls and perhaps also the heroine. ⁴⁴

Vanmikanathan discusses the setting in more detail than Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār did. He sees the general setting as the *Mārkali* bathing ritual undertaken in order to gain a suitable husband. Undertaking the bath does not imply any prior relationship with the hero, as it does in Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation.⁴⁵

Vanmikanathan also provides settings for most of the individual poems. Poems 1 through 10 are set at the heroine's house and poems 12 through 18 take place at the pond. The location of poems 11, 19, and 20 are not specified but he seems to place poem 11 at

⁴² Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam*, 41-3. Civakāmi is the name of Naṭarācar's (or the Dancing Śiva's) consort in Citamparam. This is an interesting correlation as Māṇikkavācakar's biography depicts Māṇikkavācakar's attainment of *mutti* as a merging with the image of Naṭarācar at Citamparam.

⁴³ Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 41-2.

⁴⁴ Vanmikanathan identifies most of the speakers explicitly, except for poems 8, 16 and 20. From his comments about these verses it seems clear that they are the words of the girls. Furthermore, he has put the heroine's words in italics and explicitly says this. Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 215-6. Since the words in verses 8 and 20 are not in italics and he does not identify any other characters for this poem, it seems reasonable to conclude that these verses are attributed to the girls.

⁴⁵ Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 41-4.

the heroine's house, ⁴⁶ and poems 19 and 20 still at the pond. He suggests that the girls arrive at the heroine's house between 4 and 5 AM, and that the time of the event in poem 8 occurs at about 5:15 or 5:30 AM when dawn is just breaking. He sets poem 18 at 6:30 AM at the earliest. ⁴⁷

Like Navanīta Kirusna Pāratiyār, Vanmikanathan also sees the events alluded to in the poems in a definite sequence. In poem 1 the girls have arrived to take the heroine to the river. Poems 2, 3, and 4 represent an argument between the heroine and the girls at the heroine's house. In poems 5, 6, 7 and 8 the girls stand at her window. She has not gotten out of bed and will not speak to her friends. In poem 9 the friends, exasperated with her, make the image of the pāvai and make their vow without her. In poem 10 the heroine, drowsy, annoyed and impatient, comes out and addresses her friends. In poem 11 the astonished girls again address the pāvai. Poems 9, 11, 16 and 19 represent occasions when the friends remember their vow, which they had forgotten as a result of being distracted by the state of the heroine. In addition to remembering their vow in poem 19 (requesting devotees for husbands) they also ask the pāvai "to take care of this Godintoxicated child". In poem 20 they praise the feet of God. Vanmikanathan understands the injunction to play in the water to be spoken by the companions, who are themselves in the water, to the heroine, who is at the water's edge and does not participate in the bathing activity. He suggests that because the friends urge the heroine to join them in verse 18 ("play") the heroine never did leave the water's edge and participate in the bathing ritual.⁴⁸

⁴⁶ According to Vanmikanathan, they worship the $p\bar{a}vai$ at the heroine's house, and in poem 11 seem to turn to make one more prayer to it.

⁴⁷ Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam*, 215-217, 227, n. 18.

⁴⁸ Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam*, 215-7.

The aspect of "Tiruvempāvai" that Vanmikanathan focuses on when situating the poem in the *akam* narrative world is the state of the girl described in the first poem as crying, rolling and falling on the floor, completely unaware of herself. He writes:

"A single song of St. Thirunaavukkarasar serves as a summary of the 20 stanzas of this decad[e] and as an irrefutable authority for my interpretation, (pp. 40 et. seq.). St. Tirunaavukkarasar sings:

First, His name she heard;
The colour of His form she heard;
Later, of His AAroor she heard;
Straightway, mad after Him she became.
Mother and father the same day she forsook;
She abandoned the traditions of her neighbours;
She forgot herself; her name she lost;
And set forth, our maid, to the Chief's feet.⁴⁹

In Tirunāvukkaracar's poem the girl hears of the hero, becomes mad for him, abandons all conventional reality, goes to the hero and reaches him. Vanmikanathan's interpretation of the first poem of "Tiruvcmpāvai" is that the heroine heard her friends coming down the street singing about Śiva and became overwhelmed with love. This is the state in which her friends found her. Her friends did not understand her state because of their own immaturity. The purpose of Vanmikanathan's citation of Tirunāvukkaracar's poem seems to be to indicate that the behaviour of the girl in the first poem is that of one overwhelmed by love. The puzzled reaction of the girl's friends suggests to Vanmikanathan that these girls do not know about her love and therefore the relationship has been a secret. During the *Mārkali* bathing ritual the friends begin to discover the relationship. The central event in this interpretation is a stage of premarital love, where the love is not yet known to her friends, and certainly not yet to the wider public.

⁴⁹ Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 214.

⁵⁰ Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 40-44. Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram 97 identifies continuous thinking of the loved one as a stage in kalavu.

Vanmikanathan's interpretation of the poem, places the event earlier in the sequence of the lovers' relationship than Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation did.

Both interpreters place "Tiruvempāvai" in the *akam* narrative world which means that both understand the poem to be about a love relationship between a hero and heroine. They differ in that they position the event of the poem at different stages in the narrative. The interpreters give different elements of the poem priority when situating them. For Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār the important factor for placing the poem is the *Mārkali* bathing ritual itself, which indicates to him that the heroine is in a relationship which is known to her friends, and that the heroine undertakes the bath in order to obtain the hero as her husband. Vanmikanathan, however, focuses on the state of the heroine in the first poem, and the discovery of that state by her friends who mock her because they do not understand her to be in love. Vanmikanathan then interprets the poems to be about a strong secret love. The meaning of "Tiruvempāvai" is different in the two interpretations, even though the same interpretive frame is used, because the interpreters focus on different aspects of the poem when identifying it as an *akam* event.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" - Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Păratiyār's Interpretation

The main characters of Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation of "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" are again the heroine, her friends and the hero. The *akam* event which the poem represents is the heroine and her friends awakening the hero from sleep on the morning after the marriage of the hero and heroine at his house. This places the event later on in the *akam* narrative sequence than "Tiruvempāvai".

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār assigns the identities of *akam* characters to the speakers and addressees of "Tiruppalliyelucci". He generally identifies the speakers as the heroine and her companions when he discusses the whole of "Tiruppalliyelucci" in his

introduction. When commenting on each poem he attributes the poems to either the heroine (1 and 4), the companions (2), or both the companions and the heroine (3), although it is sometimes unclear which one of these three possibilities he intends.⁵¹ He understands the addressee to be the hero in every poem.

The individual poems represent a sequence of mood-events experienced by the heroine and her friends while they try to awaken the hero. The chronology of mood changes, however, is not found in the traditional order of the poems. In Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's alternative order the 10th poem is understood to be first, the 5th second, the 8th third, the 9th fourth, the 7th fifth, the 1st sixth, the 3rd seventh, the 2nd eighth, the 4th ninth and the 6th last. He rearranges the poems in an order which illustrates a progressive frustration on the part of the heroine and companions. The heroine and companions feel that by not getting up the hero is keeping himself from them, and they become disappointed and then frustrated. Initially they respectfully and cheerfully ask him to get up (10 and 5). In his third poem in the sequence (8), the cheerful effort to awaken him gives way to other feelings. They become frustrated because they cannot awaken him unless he is willing. In the next poem (9), Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār sees a suggestion of separation due to a love quarrel, 52 for by prolonging sleep he is keeping himself from them. In the following poem (7) they think he is not arising because he is displeased with them, so they ask him what it

⁵¹ For example in poem 2, Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār indicates that the attendents and the heroine (avaļai uļļitṭār) awaken the hero (avaṇ). He concludes the prose rendering of the verse with 'she said' (enrāļ), in the expanded explanation of the verse he attributes at least a part of the verse to "the companions" (itu tōliyar kūṛru). Tiruvācakam, 775-76. Because of this explicit statement, I take it that he assumes the companions are speaking in this verse. In poems 5 through 10 the speakers are referred to in the third person plural (avar), so it is not clear whether he means the companions or both the companions and the heroine are speaking.

⁵² Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār deduces the love quarrel from the reference to sugar cane. Love quarrels, whether real or fake, are thought to enhance the relationship. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 784-5.

is that he wants them to do so that he will again be pleased with them. In the next poem (1), they decide that what they should do is serve his feet, but he must get up so that they can do that, so in the following poem (3), they ask him to show his feet. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār sees in verse 3 a suggestion of the *akam* theme of separation in the reference to a kind of bird called *kuyil*.⁵³ They ask him why he is inaccessible to them now when previously he was accessible to them. In the next poem (2), the companions say that the hero has not come and seen the sights of dawn, and therefore they have not seen his face. They are disappointed and the heroine has closed her eyes because of this. Finally, in the last two poems (poems 4 and 6) they ask him if he is not willing to arise for them, would he please at least do so for the others who have come and are waiting to see him.⁵⁴

Before setting the poem in the *akam* frame, Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār acknowledges that the theme of awakening the hero from sleep is mentioned in two *puram* theoretical texts as a theme of *puram* poetry.⁵⁵ His argument is that when the hero is awakened in the encampment by bards, the theme is a *puram* theme. On the other hand, when the hero is awakened in his house by female attendents the poem should be understood as an *akam* poem. He makes several points to support this argument. Firstly,

⁵³ Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār actually connects the *kuyil* to the hot season in the situation of *akam*. Dr. Anantarācan explains that the *akam* situation here is separation. Ā. Anantarācan, interview with the author, Palkalainakar, Madurai, July 1990.

⁵⁴ This understanding of Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation comes from his explanation of the reordered verses in the introduction (*Tiruvācakam*, 772), and his commentary on each verse.

⁵⁵ The two *sūtra*s are:

^{1.} Tolkāppiyam Purattiņai 36 (Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram 87). Subrahmanya Sastri translates this sūtra as "bards singing about the King's spotless good fame to wake him while asleep" (tāvil nallicai karutiya kiṭantōrkkuc cūtar ēttiya tuyil cṭai nilaiyum).

^{2.} Purapporul Venpā 9,9: "So that the kings of the earth who have extensive tribute may honor you with the spear who/which gives abundance, open the eyes which are like the white blossoms of lotus which surround the ponds around which birds sound on the flower blossoms which flourish in the place" (alantatiraiyār akaliṭattu maṇṇar vaļan tarum vēlōy vaṇaṅkak - kaļampoliya pūmalarmēl puļ olikkum poykai cū[1] tāmarai tūmalarkkaṇ ōrkatuyil) (quoted from Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's commentary).

he says there is no poetic rule prohibiting the theme of a hero being awakened at home by female attendents. Secondly, the theme of women awakening a hero never occurs as a *puram* theme. Thirdly, he claims that there are other *akam* poems with the theme of awakening from sleep: i.e. *Kuruntokai* 147 and *Kuruntokai* 107.56

After arguing in support of an *akam* interpretation of "Tiruppalliyclucci" Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār situates the whole poem in the *akam* narrative world. I will translate this portion as it illustrates several important aspects of the argument of this thesis:

Let [us] take the meaning appropriate for this section to be that the heroine and the female attendents awaken the hero who prolongs sleep desiring sexual union: "We saw the beauty of you sleeping on the bed and stand desiring to see the beautiful sight of you sitting majestically in the audience hall in the morning. We and your other female attendents have been expecting you with intense desire."

Let [us] take it as: All the companions including the very modest heroine, awaken from sleep the hero who prolongs false sleep because of a great desire for sexual union, even though it has dawned, even though the sun has risen and even though many wise ones and devotees had come to see [him].

This is the awakening from sleep at early dawn of the day after marriage to the hero who had delayed marriage [in order to collect] wealth, and upon collecting wealth, returned.⁵⁷

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār indicates that he is explaining the "meaning" (porul) of this section. His explanation of the meaning consists of: identifying the speakers as the heroine and female attendants; identifying the addressee as the hero; identifying the setting as around dawn; and stating that the specific event was the awakening of the hero on the morning after the marriage. He elaborates on the situation by saying that the hero prolongs

⁵⁶ Kuruntokai 147 is addressed to the dream which had awakened the hero from sleep. The dream was about the speaker's lover. The colophon attributes the dream to the hero, and indicates that the poem was said after the hero had awakened from a dream which he dreamed while he was separated from his lover.

Kuruntokai 107 is addressed to a rooster which had awakened the heroine while she slept with her lover. The colophon identifies the speaker as the heroine (she) and situates the occasion as being after the hero had returned from collecting wealth.

For translations see Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, *Kuruntokai*, 409, 249. ⁵⁷ Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, *Tiruvācakam*, ¶1-3, 771.

sleep even though people are waiting to see him because he desires sexual union. The heroine and the female attendents wish to see him in his audience hall.

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's commentary on poem 1 provides an explanation of why he places the poem after marriage in the *akam* sequence. He interprets two vocatives in poem 1 as refering to the heroine's married state: "O Source of my life" is understood to mean "O lover who is the source for my domestic life", and, "You who possess me" is understood to mean "O He who made me a housewife". So Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār understands the epithets, "O Lord Civan who dwells in Tirupperunturai", "You who possessed the raised banner", and "You who possess me" cumulatively to be refering to the hero's coming, possessing her, then leaving to make money, and finally returning to marry her. He identifies Tirupperunturai as the place where the hero entered into the love relationship with her (enslaved her). The reference to the banner is the banner that he carried when coming to her on a horse. The reference to possessing her is understood to indicate both sexual possession and marriage. In addition, her attitude of appreciation and devotion, and the fact that she has arisen earlier than her husband indicates that she is a proper wife.

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār utilizes several aspects of the poem in order to situate it in the *akam* world. The primary focus seems to be the repeated reference to arising from bed and the several references to dawn. He identifies the awakening as a situation early in

^{58 &}quot;Tiruppaļļiyeļucci": "en vāļ mutal ākiya poruļē", Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār: "ennuṭaiya ilvāļvirku mūlapporuļākiyakātalanē"; "Tiruppaļļiyeļucci": "enai uṭaiyāy"; Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār: "ennai maṇaiyarap paṇiyāṭṭiyāka koṇṭavaṇē", Tiruvācakam, 773-4.

⁵⁹ Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 772, 773-5.

^{60 &}quot;She said: 'I enjoyed seeing [you] lying on the bed, and upon seeing you arise from sleep [I] must praise [you]'. This section indicates that: 'sleeping after [the husband], rising before [the husband]' and worshipping the husband's feet is the duty of a chaste [wife]" (translation mine). Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, *Tiruvācakam*, 771-2, 773-4. See also *Tirukkural*, chapter 6 *kural* 5.

married life on the basis of his interpretation of the vocatives and the behaviour of the speaker in poem 1.

"Tiruppalliyelucci", in Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation is, then, a poem about a wife and her companions awakening her husband from sleep the morning after their marriage. Her husband playfully pretends not to be awakened, while she and her companions, misunderstanding his playfulness, become progressively frustrated with him.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" - Vanmikanathan's Interpretation

Vanmikanathan's interpretation of "Tiruppalliyelucci" is brief and somewhat confusing. He seems to move back and forth between an *akam* interpretation and a more mystical interpretation of the poem. The characters in his interpretation are the heroine, the hero and her family. The setting is her house. The event is a request for the consummation of the heroine's sexual desire.

Vanmikanathan's choice of *akam* characters differs from Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's. Vanmikanathan includes the heroine's family, but excludes the heroine's friends. The heroine is the speaker in all the poems. The addressee is the hero, God. Vanmikanathan understands the heroine's own family to be her audience.⁶¹

Vanmikanathan does not explicitly provide a setting for "Tiruppalliyelucci". The setting can be deduced from his reference in the collection of poems preceeding "Tiruppalliyelucci" ("Tiruttacāṅkam"), where he explains that the hero comes to her house, and that poem 7 of "Tiruppalliyelucci" is intended to be heard by her family.⁶² We can only assume that he also sets "Tiruppalliyelucci" at her place. Vanmikanathan provides no specific time at which the poem takes place.

⁶¹ Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 59.

⁶² Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 57-9.

There is also no explicit indication whether or not he considers the poems to represent a sequence of events. Since Vanmikanathan does not mention a sequence as he did for "Tiruvempāvai", and since he refers to a single realization by the heroine about the nature of the hero, it would seem that he takes all ten poems collectively as representing a single state of mind.

Vanmikanathan does not explicitly identify "Tiruppalliyelucci" as an *akam* event. Rather he situates "Tiruppalliyelucci" by placing the previous and following collections of poems as a sequence of events in the *akam* narrative. It is, therefore, possible to infer the *akam* event from the chronological position of "Tiruppalliyelucci" within the others.

Vanmikanathan implies that the event of the poem is a request by the heroine to the hero for sexual fulfillment. Vanmikanathan places "Tiruppalliyelucci" prior to, but at the verge of, marital consummation. He divides the sixteen collections of poems which he interpets in the *akam* frame into *kalavu* (secret relationship) and *karpu* (public relationship). The transition from the secret to the public stage occurs in collections fifteen to seventeen. In collection fifteen ("Tiruttōṇōkkam"), the heroine declares her love to the hero directly, in violation of all norms of behaviour, because of her intense passion. In collection sixteen ("Tiruppoṇṇūcal"), she despairs over whether or not he will accept that love. According to Vanmikanathan, the actual shift to the *karpu* stage occurs in collection seventeen ("Aṇṇaippattu") in which she, prompted by town gossip, publicly declares her love for the hero to her mother. In collection eighteen ("Kuyirpattu") she asks the *kuyil* bird to call her lover to her, and in collection nineteen ("Tiruttacāṅkam") the hero comes. I have inferred that for Vanmikanathan, the hero's arrival represents acceptance of her love. Collections

⁶³ Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram 97, as translated by Subrahmanya Sastri, identifies "transgressing the bonds of modesty" as a state in kaļavu.

twenty ("Tiruppalliyelucci") through twenty-two ("Kōyil Tiruppatikam") represent the movement into marital status which culminates in sexual union.⁶⁴

Although Vanmikanathan situates and understands "Tiruppalliyelucci" and the following two collections within the akam frame, his discussion of them tends to digress into spiritual issues. In his discussion of collection twenty-two ("Kōyil Tiruppatikam") he explicitly correlates sexual and mystical union, and supports this equation with reference to the Hindu understanding of spiritual development. Collection twenty-two represents the consumation of marriage. The heroine has experienced sexual union with the hero, even as the soul is mystically united with God. The saint, "Mānikkavācakar", has become a jīvanmukta (a soul who is released while embodied).65 "Tiruppalliyelucci" represents a movement into marriage and a corresponding movement into mystical realization. Vanmikanathan does not say what preliminary stage of marriage this is, only that it is at "the threshold of the nuptial chamber".66 He translates the concluding refrain of each poem as, "Do graciously rise (in my heart)".⁶⁷ This implies that union has yet to occur. Nevertheless, some realization does take place at this stage according to Vanmikanathan, which is expressed in poem 7: "This is He, this is His beautiful form". The hero has come to the heroine, and he is before her. This immediacy gives her greater clarity about him which Vanmikanathan interprets to be a realization that God is already in the soul waiting to be recognized.⁶⁸ The saint is on the verge of mystical union with God. The

⁶⁴ Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam*, 44, 47, 54-70, 314.

⁶⁵ Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 70, 314, 325-6.

⁶⁶ Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 314.

⁶⁷ He also uses two variations of this translation of the refrain: "Do rise in Your grace, (in my heart)", and "Do, in Your grace, rise (in my heart)".

⁶⁸ Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 58-9. Vanmikanathan specifically invokes the Mahāvākya statement, "Tat tvam asi", which he translates as, "that art thou", 59. His interpretation is somewhat ambiguous as he heads his discussion with, "He is arisen in me", yet translates the refrain as a request: "Do graciously

heroine is on the verge of sexual union with the hero.⁶⁹ Vanmikanathan, in emphasising the spiritual implications of his akam interpretations of "Tiruppalliyelucci", chooses not to be explicit about the akam correlate of the spiritual interpretation of, "Do graciously rise (in my heart)." There is no doubt, however, that in the akam frame, "Tiruppalliyelucci" represents the heroine's request to have her intense desire consummated.⁷⁰

As in the case of "Tiruvempāvai", both Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār and Vanmikanathan understand "Tiruppalliyelucci" within the akam narrative frame, and thereby understand the poem to be about the love relationship between a hero and heroine. However, they place the poem differently, and thus the poem has two different meanings. Navanīta Kirusna Pāratiyār places the poem later in the narrative sequence after the marriage and presumably consummation has taken place. The poem is about the frustrations of the heroine and her friends when they try to awaken the hero while he playfully resists. Vanmikanathan places "Tiruppalliyelucci" at the verge of sexual consummation. The poem is about the heroine's intense sexual desire for the hero. Both interpretations emphasize the awakening expressed in the refrain which ends each of the poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci". The awakening is understood by Navanīta Kirusna

rise (in my heart)". In the Saiva Siddhanta tradition, when a saint's song is correlated to a specific event it can be sung before or after the event with which it is connected. The significant point is that the song and the event are related. A song which Cuntarar sang. after having received wealth from Siva, is recommended today to devotees to be sung to ensure that one has food and clothes in this life, as well as to gain mutti. See Ti. Cu. Cokkalinkam Cettiyar, Palan Tarum Tirumuraip Patikankalum Tutippatalkalum (Varalāru-Palan-Uraiyutan) (Maturai Valamapuri Accakam, 1977), 139-45. All eleven verses are cited in chapter 11 below. In a similar way, Vanmikanathan is not particular about his use of tense in discussing this song. Here also it is possible that the chronology of the song and event are not so significant as the fact that the song is associated with the desired result.

⁶⁹ Vanmikanathan does not imply that sexual union occurs in the stage of secret love.

⁷⁰ See Part III: chapter 11 for a description of the extreme state of desire of the heroine at this point in the sequence of love.

Păratiyār's interpretation to refer to the impatience of a married heroine. In Vanmikanathan's interpretation, the awakening refers to the longing for consummation of the marriage.

Summary

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār and Vanmikanathan employ the same strategy for interpreting "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyel̤ucci". They place the two poems as events in the *akam* narrative world by assigning the characters of the poems the identities of characters of the *akam* world, and by identifying the occasion on which the poems are uttered as circumstances in that world. They differ regarding what events in that narrative world the two poems represent because they focus on different aspects of the poem when situating them. As a result of being situated differently the same poem sometimes has different meanings.

In the following chapter, I will show how the meaning changes even more drastically when "Tiruppalliyelucci" is placed in the other classical frame of interpretation, the *puram* world.

II: Chapter 4: "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the Puram Narrative World

Interpretations of poems in the *puram* narrative world construe the divine-human relationship in terms of the king-subject, hero-bard, or master-servant relationship. In devotional poetry God is the king, hero, or master, while the devotee, soul or saint is the subject, bard, or servant. The relationships of the *puram* world are public in contrast to the private relationships of *akam*.

In the secondary literature, and in the questionnaires and interviews I conducted, "Tiruppalliyelucci" was quite often connected to the *puram* narrative world. I have not seen "Tiruvempāvai" explicitly connected to the *puram* narrative world. However in chapter 7, and in Part III, I will show how it is interpreted in terms of individual biographies, which is a *puram* style of interpretation.

In this chapter, Mu. Aruṇācalam's interpretation of "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" will be presented, following a description of the parameters of the *puram* narrative world. This interpretation appears in a collection of essays written on the *Tiruvācakam* published in 1965. Aruṇācalam, who died only recently, was a widely respected Tamil scholar who wrote a number of books in both Tamil and English on Tamil culture and on Śaivism. He was connected to the Śaiva Siddhānta organization, Caiva Cittānta Makā Camāja.

The Puram Narrative World

Whereas the *akam* narrative world is about the love relationship between the hero and heroine, the *puram* narrative world is constituted by events which may acceptably occur in

¹ Mu. Aruṇācalam, "Tiruppalliyelucci" in *Tiruvācakam: Cila Ārāccik Kurippukkal*, (Citamparam: Caiva Cittānta Makā Camāja, 1965).

² Aruṇācalam, "Tiruppaļļiyeļucci," 12-23.

public, such as heroic acts, grief over death, displays of power or generosity, and praise of virtue, honour or fame.³

There are two main Tamil theoretical works about *puram* poetry: *Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram* (TOL) and *Purapporuļveṇpāmālai* (PPVM).⁴ These texts articulate *puram* poetics primarily in terms of poetic situations and themes, rather than in terms of characters and the occasions on which they speak. These poetic situations and their corresponding themes are listed below.⁵

TOL Akam Situations	TOL <i>Puram</i> Situations	No. of Themes		PPVM situations	No. of themes
kuriñci	veţci	14	cattle raid	vețci	20
_ ₉₁	vetci	21	cattle-recovery	karantai	36
mullai	vañci	13	war prepar, invasion	vañci	21
marutam	uliñai	8	siege of a fort	uliñai	29
II .	uliñai	12	defence of a fort	nocci	9
neytal	tumpai	12	pitched battle	tumpai	24
pālai	vākai	18	victory	vākai	33
peruntiņai	kāñci	20	transcience of the world	kāñci	22
kaikki <u>l</u> ai	pāṭāṇ	20	praise	pāṭāṇ	48
•	1 , ,		general heroism	potuviyal	12
			one-sided love	kaikkiļai	19
			mismatched love	peruntiņai	36
			residuary items	olipiyal	18

³ See A. K. Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War: From the Eight Anthologies and Ten Long Poems of Classical Tamil* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1985), 235, 262-9. Ramanujan provides an interesting discussion of *akam* and *puram* as a shifting pair of terms.

⁴ According to Parthasarathi, later works are more or less repetitions of these two works. J. Parthasarathi, "Puram Poetry," *The Encyclopaedia of Tamil Literature* (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1990), 163f.

Zvelebil dates the *Purapporulvenpāmālai* between 800-1000 CE in *Companion Studies to the History of Tamil Literature* (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1992), 51.

Overviews of puram poetics and poetry can be found: John Ralston Marr, The Eight Anthologies: A Study in Early Tamil Literature (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1985), 31-52; K. Zvelebil, Tamil Literature, vol. 10 in A History of Indian Literature (Weisbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1974), 34-36, 42-44; Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 231-297.

⁵ Adapted from K. Zvelebil, *The Smile of Murugan on Tamil Literature of South India* (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1973), 104, 106.

The *Tolkāppiyam* lists seven situations, five of which deal with various aspects of war, and the remaining two which are praise and the transcience of life. The *Tolkāppiyam* correlates the five situations of war with the five situations of *akam* proper. It also correlates the two situations of love which are inappropriate to *akam* proper, *peruntiņai* and *kaikkiļai*, to worldy transience and praise. The correlation of the *puram* situation to the *akam* situations indicates that one could establish a correspondence of *puram* situations to *akam* geography. Ramanujan, however argues that the *puram* poets do not always use geographical indicators to suggest a *puram* situation. The *Purapporulvenpāmālai* expands on the situations set out in the *Tolkāppiyam* by including under *puram* the two kinds of love inappropriate to *akam* proper (*kaikkiļai* and *peruntiņai*), and by introducing a category for general heroism and one for miscellaneous matters.

Although *Tolkāppiyam* and *Purapporuļveṇpāmālai* do not discuss *puram* poetry in terms of characters, characters can be deduced from the situations listed in the *Tolkāppiyam* and the poems. There does seem to be some restriction on roles in *puram* poetry as there was in *akam* poetry. The heroes are not depicted as lovers, rather they are depicted as kings, chieftans, patrons, warriors and noblemen. Kings and warriors are usually the dominant characters: many of the themes listed in the *Tolkāppiyam* and poems are directly concerned with them.⁸

⁶ For a translation of the puram situations and themes of the Tolkāppiyam see P.S. Subrahmanya Sastri, trans. and comm., Tolkāppiyam: The Earliest Extant Tamil Grammar Text in Tamil, and Roman Scripts with a critical Commentary in English: Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram-Tamil Poetics (Madras: The Kuppuswami Sastri Research Institute, 1949), sūtras 58-87.

⁷ Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 251-3.

⁸ A perusal of the description of the themes in the *puram* section of the *Tolkāppiyam* illustrates this. See *sūtras* 58-87. Ramanujan makes the interesting point that female characters are prominant in *akam* poetry, while male characters are dominant in *puram* poetry. He illustrates this by a comparison of the *akam* collection, *Kuruntokai*, with the *puram* collection, *Puranānūru*. He says that in *Kuruntokai*, 334 poems are assigned to women characters, whereas only 64 are assigned to male characters. In

The women characters of *puṛam* poetry, rather than being the young heroine, her friends, foster-mother and real mother, are older. They are usually mothers and wives of male heroes. In the list of themes found in the *Tolkāppiyam*, female characters appear most prominently in the situation of *kāñci* (transitoriness). There are two themes of mothers lamenting a famous son's death, and a theme about a mother ready to die on behalf of her son's honour. In the same situation (*tiṇai*) there are themes of the wife fearing demons, and, therefore, not going near her wounded husband; the magnamity of the wife killing herself with the spear left by the dying husband; the wife lamenting the loss of her husband, the pitiable life of a widow; and the words of a wife to those who try to prevent her from entering the funeral pyre. The woman's role in these themes is primarily one of responding to the death of her son or her husband. The mother or wife may herself be a hero by virtue of her response to the death of her husband or son. *Puṛanāṇāṛu* 278 depicts a mother who has heard that her son died in a cowardly way on the battle field. She declares that if that is true she will slash the breast that nursed him.⁹ This poem powerfully expresses the valour of both the warrior and his mother.

Puram poetry exhibits some of the same male and female characters as akam poetry, but their function is different. Dancers (kūttar), minstrel (pāṇar), and female dancer (viraliyar) are characters in both types of poems. In akam poetry one of their roles is to be messengers between the quarreling husband and wife. In puram poetry their role is to praise the patron and direct others to him. 10

The theoreticians of *puram* poetry did not connect the *puram* situations into a sequence of events as the theoreticians did for *akam* poetry, nor did a genre of poetry

Puranānūru, discounting poems by women in the role of bards, he says that there are only 18 poems about or by women. Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 268.

⁹ For a translation see Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 182.

¹⁰ See *Tolkāppiyam Porul Atikāram* 87, 150, 166, 167, 176 and 191.

develop linking heroic events. It is possible that the poeticians provided for a sequence of events through the rule in the *Tolkāppiyam* that permits the use of individual names in *puram* poetry. Parthasarathi writes:

The line of demarcation between *puram* and *akam* poems is stated to be the avoidance of specific personal names of the heros in the latter, mentioning only generic appellations; this contrasts with the use of such names allowed in the former (**Tolkāppiyam** *Poruļ*. *Akattiņaiyiyal*-54). (Incidently we find that notwithstanding this freedom to use personal names, *puram* poetry in practice prefers to use generic appellations to an overwhelming extent).¹¹

The rule permitting the use of individual names, whether actually used or not, invites interpretation of the poem in terms of its place in an individual's life. This suggests that the sequential component of the *puram* narrative world could be supplied by individual biographies, even though the poem itself may mention only generic appellations. However, only that portion of the individual's biography which falls into the *puram* world of public activity is appropriately provided. The portion of the individual's life concerned with the private world of love should not be used. By using a particular biography as the sequence within which to understand an event, the *puram* character is given a specific identity.

The poeticians, therefore, provide for sequence differently in the *akam* and *puram* narrative worlds. In the *akam* narrative world, the poeticians constructed a general sequence of events from which poems are framed or against which poems are understood. In the *puram* narrative world the poeticians did not construct the sequence, but provided for the possibility of sequence by allowing the introductions of names in the poems. The name situates the poem as an event in the public life of a person.

¹¹ Parthasarathi, "Puram Poetry," 163. In fact names are permitted in *akam* poetry, as Parthasarathi goes on to say, but only as names of figures who form part of the background landscape. For a translation of the rule see chapter 3 above.

Interpretation in the *puram* narrative world is then a two-fold process. Firstly, the characters in a poem must be assigned a role from the *puram* narrative world - such as bard. Secondly the poem must be given a sequence, in which the event the poem represents is understood, by assigning a character a particular identity. One or more biographies could be assigned: one for the addressee, one for the speaker, and one for the hero if his name is not mentioned in the poem or if he is not the addressee.

In emphasizing this two-fold process for situating poems in the *purum* narrative world I am aware that I depart somewhat from the widely held view that *purum* poems are concerned with specific historic individuals. I am aware that the poetic rules for *purum* poems allows them to be about specific historic individuals, but this is the case only where poems mention a specific individual. According to Parthasarathi the use of specific names in *purum* poems is actually not very common. Among the classical *purum* poems I am familiar with, specific names are used for heroes and addressees, but never for speakers. It is, therefore, not quite correct to say that specific historic poets normally speak in their own voices in the *purum* poems, as Ramanujan, Cutler, Samuel and Zvelebil seem to imply. 13

"Tiruppalliyelucci" in the Puram Narrative World

Aruṇācalam's interpretation of "Tiruppalliyelucci" has to be understood in two stages. He first situates the poem in the *puram* world, and then he places it as a specific event in the

¹² See the long quotation on the previous page (Parthasarathi, "Puram Poetry," 163).

¹³ See for example Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 257; John Samuel, "Akappatal" In *Encyclopaedia of Tamil Literature*, Vol. 2 (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1992), 40-1; Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature* (1974), 94; Norman Cutler, *Songs of Experience: The Poetics of Tamil Devotion* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987), 62, 102.

Cutler, in an endnote, acknowledges that "based on textual evidence alone, the narrator's identity may be ambiguous", *Songs of Experience*, 76 n. 9.

life sequence of a specific individual, Māṇikkavācakar. In working through this interpretation he has to superimpose a number of roles upon one another.

The several superimposed roles in Aruṇācalam's interpretation are the bard-king relationship, the servant-master relationship, and the particularized relationship of Māṇikkavācakar and Śiva. The bard and king are puram characters. When "Tiruppalliyclucci" is understood in terms of these roles, the speaker of all the poems is the bard and the addressee is the king. The roles of servant and master are not so clearly puram characters. However, they provide an overlap of probable inhabitants of the puram world and the world in which Māṇikkavācakar lived. Framed in this relationship, the speaker of the poems is the servant, and the addressee is the master. Finally, the relationship between Māṇikkavācakar and Śiva becomes the particular example of the other two relationships, and "Tiruppalliyclucci" is understood as a poem Māṇikkavācakar addresses to Śiva. In Aruṇācalam's interpretation, Māṇikkavācakar, in the roles of bard and servant, sings "Tiruppalliyclucci" to Śiva, his king and his master.

The setting for the event of "Tiruppalliyelucci" when framed by these different relationships is in each case the home of the addressee early in the morning. The bard sings the song to the king in his encampment, or in his palace, at daybreak. The servant sings to his master in the early morning at his house. Māṇikkavācakar sings to Śiva in his temple at dawn.

Aruṇācalam emphasises two features of "Tiruppalliyelucci" when he argues for understanding the poem as a *puram* event. The first feature is the reference to awakening in the refrain of each verse. The second is the question regarding what form of service the addressee requires of the speaker in poem 7.

Aruṇācalam indicates that awakening the hero is a well-known theme in *purum* poetry:

"We know from the *cankam* texts and the *Tolkāppiyam* . . . that when the king who had gone to war is sleeping without worry because of his great power in the army camp, the *cūtar* sing in order to awaken him from sleep at daybreak; the $p\bar{a}nar$ sing to awaken the king from sleep at daybreak in the castle." 14

One type of bard, the *cūtar*, awakens the king in the army camp, and another type of bard, the *pāṇar*, awakens the king in his castle. The question of how to interpret awakening the hero in his own home is a point of disagreement between Aruṇācalam and Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār. According to Aruṇācalam it is a normal *puṛam* theme. According to Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār it is an *akam* theme. 15

Aruṇācalam also focuses on the idea of service expressed in poem 7: "O King of Tirupperunturai! We ask what is the way in which we may serve [you]?" In order to explain this phrase he brings up two situations which he suggests Māṇikkavācakar would have witnessed frequently. The first is the servant-master relationship in an agricultural setting, and the second is the servant-master relationship in a palace. According to Aruṇācalam, a landholder of the nobility would have had a number of scattered fields requiring different kinds of care. A good servant would come to the master even if the master had not arisen, awaken him, praise and worship him, and then ask what fields he

¹⁴ Translated from Aruṇācalam, "Tiruppalliyelucci," 13. See also pp. 12, 18. The *Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram* reference for this theme is sūtra 87.

¹⁵ Aruṇācalam, "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci," does not provide the specific references to support his argument. Neither the *Tolkāppiyam Poruḷ Atikāram* sūtra nor the *Purapporuḷveṇpāmālai* sūtra specify where the king is awakened, and the *Tolkāppiyam* sūtra mentions only that the *cūtar* was awakening the king.

Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār understands this sūtra to refer to awakening the king in the encampment (pācarai) only. See Ka. Cu. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, commentator, Śrī Maṇivācakapa Perumān Tiruvāy Malarntaruļiya Tiruvācakam Ārāyccip Pērurai (Mavittapum, Ilaṅkai: Patmā Patippakam, 1954), 770.

The Purapporulveṇpāmālai sūtra does not mention who does the awakening, and it seems that Aruṇācalam only surmises that a pāṇar might awaken the king in the palace. It is an important point, as Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār argues, as we have seen, that the setting is a house, and that the heroine and other female attendents perform the task of awakening.

^{16 &}quot;etu emaip paņi koļum āru atu kētpōm".

should work in and what duties he should attend to that day. In a similar way the army commanders and royal administrators would enquire about their duties each day.¹⁷

According to Aruṇācalam, Māṇikkavācakar, as the prime minister to the Pāṇṭiya king would have witnessed both these types of situations.

Aruṇācalam suggests that when Māṇikkavācakar renounced worldy life, he continued with this servant role in his relations with Śiva; he went to Śiva awakened him, and asked what service he should perform:

When he renounced the world, and was made a servant and taken into the service of God, he did not forget this. With this thought he went and asked God what service [he should do]. He awakened and asked: "How do you accept me into service today? What service will I do today? Please give the command (translation mine).¹⁸

"Tiruppalliyelucci" then, when fully interpreted by Arunacalam, is a puram event situated in a particular individual's life. It is about Mānikkavācakar (the bard-servant) awakening Śiva (the king-master) from sleep, and inquiring how he should serve him. The event occurs after he has renounced his position as prime minister to the Pāntiya king.

The basic contours of the *puram* frame provides the substance of the interpretation. Aruṇācalam identifies the event as a *puram* event, and assigns *puram* roles to the speaker and addressee in the poem. He then provides a *puram* setting, and finally provides an individual biography as the background narrative sequence against which the single event of uttering "Tiruppalliyelucci" should be understood. This interpretation contrasts sharply with the *akam* interpretations of Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār and Vanmikanathan. In the first case the heroine and her friends were seen as trying to awaken the playful hero. In the second, the intensely passionate heroine was asking the hero for sexual fulfillment. In this

¹⁷ Aruṇācalam, "Tiruppaļļiyelucci," 21-2.

¹⁸ Translated from Aruṇācalam, "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci," 22-3. Aruṇācalam follows this statement with a full quotation of poem 7.

puram framework the poem becomes respectful awakening of a king/master by a bard/servant. In chapter 5, I will show how the meaning of the poems change once again when understood in terms of the theological narrative world of Śaiva Siddhānta.

II: Chapter 5: The Poems in the Saiva Siddhanta Narrative World

Interpretations of the poems in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world construe the divine-human relationship in terms of the relationship between Ultimate Reality, Śivam, and the soul. Whereas in *akam* and *puram* poetry the relationships are portrayed as those appropriate to human life in the world, the Ultimate Reality-soul relationship is appropriate to all worlds, and its final fulfillment is beyond corporeal existence.²

In this chapter, two interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and one of "Tiruppalliyelucci" which situate the poems in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world will be considered. The three Śaiva Siddhānta commentaries under consideration are dated in the eighteenth or nineteenth century. Aphorisms explaining the meaning of the *Tiruvācakam* predate these commentaries, but these interpretations are the earliest known written explanations of any length on the poems of the *Tiruvācakam*.

The first interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai" is called "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" ("Intention of "Tiruvempāvai")" and is of uncertain authorship. Almost all subsequent publications of "Tiruvempāvai" make some reference to this interpretation. A Tiruvāvaṭuturai Ātīṇam publication attributes the authorship to Tiruttaṇikai Śrī Vicākapperumāṭai, and its initial publication to Kāñcipuram Śrī Capāpati Mutaliyār in 1871. According to Zvelebil, Tiruttaṇikai Śrī Vicākapperumāṭaiyar was born in 1798 and was the son of a famous Vīraśaiva scholar. He became a professor of Tamil and a prolific author. Among his commentaries are one on the grammar, *Naṇṇūl*, and one on

¹ Ultimate Reality is referred to by neuter gender in Śaiva Siddhānta.

² Śaiva Siddhānta regards the earth as one of many worlds.

³ See the list in the introduction.

⁴ Ta. Ca. Mīṇāṭcicuntaram Piḷḷai, ed. *Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu Mutaliyaṇa* (Tiruvāvaṭuturai Ātīṇam, 1952), 1-6, 9.

Māṇikkavācakar's *Tirukkōvaiyār*. He also coauthored Winslow's well known *Tamil Dictionary*.⁵

Another source attributes the authorship of "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" to the eighteenth century Tiruppōrūr Citamparaeuvāmikaļ.⁶ He also was a Vīraśaiva, and a native of Madurai. According to tradition, the Goddess of Madurai, Mīṇāṭci, directed Tiruppōrūr Citamparaeuvāmikaļ in a dream to go to Tiruppōrūr. There he was associated with the Murukan temple. He wrote a number of poetic works on the God, Murukan, and one on Mīṇāṭci, as well as commentaries on various works. There is a story that he began a commentary on *Tiruvācakam*, but did not finish it.⁷

If either of these people were the author of "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu", we could say that the interpretation is dated to the eighteenth or nineteenth century. Since we are not sure of the authorship, I will refer to it as "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu". The presentation of it here is based on the version found in the Tiruvāvaṭuturai Ātīnam publication of 1952, which is a prose explanation of about five small pages on the first ten poems of "Tiruvempāvai".8

⁵ K. Zvelebil, Companion Studies to the History of Tamil Literature (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1992), 162; N. Subrahmanian, An Introduction to Tamil Literature (Madras: Christian Literature Soceity, 1981), 80-81. Zvelebil does not specifically connect Tiruttaṇikai Śrī Vicākapperumāļaiyar to "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu".

⁶ Ma. Pālacuppiramaṇiya Mutaliyār, "Aṇinturai" in *Tiruvempāvai - Tiruppaḷḷiyeḷucci (Mūlamum Uraiyum)* (Ceṇṇai: Caiva Cittānta Makācamājam, 1955), ix.

⁷ This information is pieced together from the following sources: N. Subrahmanian 1981:56, 72; Mu. Varadarajan, *A History of Tamil Literature*, trans. E. Sa. Visswanathan (New Delhi: Sahitya Akademi, 1988), 208; M. Arunachalam, "Saiva Literature" in *Literary Heritage of the Tamils*, ed. S.V. Subramanian and N. Ghadigachalan (Madras: International Intstitute of Tamil Studies, 1981), 193; R. Visvanathaiyar, "Muṇṇurai" in *Tiruvācaka Vyākhānam* by Kāli Tāṇḍavārayar, Part I (Adyar: Mahamahopadhyaya Doctor V. Swaminathaiyar Library, 1954), xvi; K. Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature*, vol. 10 in *A History of Indian Literature* (Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1974), 214. Subrahmanian places him in both the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Varadarajan, Arunachalam, and Zvelebil place him in the eighteenth century. These scholars do not link Tiruppōrūr Citamparacuvāmikal to this interpretation.

⁸ Mīnāṭeieuntaram Piḷḷai, *Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu Mutaliyaṇa*.

Although the authorship of "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" is linked to scholars with Vīraśaiva backgrounds, the interpretation has considerable authority in Śaiva Siddhānta contexts. Vanmikanathan and Navaratnam both acknowledge it before proceeding with their own interpretations. Vanmikanathan even makes "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" sound like the official Śaiva Siddhānta interpretation when he says in his introduction to "Tiruvempāvai" that "Sri Dhandapaani Dhesikar of Thiruvaavaduthurai Mutt (monastery), in fact, condemns those who do not subscribe to this view". Deach of the three main Śaiva Siddhānta institutions (Tiruvāvaṭuturai Ātīnam, Tarumapuram Ātīnam, Tiruppaṇantāṭ Śrī Kāci Maṭam) have included it with their published "Tiruvempāvai" editions.

The second Śaiva Siddhānta interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai" and the one of "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" are taken from Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's commentary on the *Tiruvācakam*. Little is known about "Cīkāli" Tāṇṭavarāyar. His name suggests that he is from Cīkāli. He was a disciple of Civakurunātarāṇakuru Cuvāmiyaṭikal in the Poṛpātakamala Āccāriya spiritual lineage at Tiruvārūr. The commentary was written in the second quarter of the nineteenth century. This places Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar in the early to mid-nineteenth century.

⁹ G. Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam: An Original Interpretation and Complete Translation*, 2nd ed. (Thiruppanandal: Thiruppanandal Kasi Mutt, 1980); Ratna Navaratnam, *A New Approach to Tiruvacagam*, 2nd. ed. (Annamalainagar: Annamalai University, 1971), 193-4.

¹⁰ Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam, 213.

¹¹ The Tarumapuram Ātīṇam version is: Ca. Tantpāṇitēcikar, *Tiruvācakam: Nūlārāycci Kurippuraikaļuṭan* (Tarumapuram Ātīṇam, 1949).

In a later Tarumapuram Ātīṇam edition of *Tiruvācakam*, Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār criticizes "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" for it takes the meaning of one or two poems as the meaning for all the poems. Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār, *Māṇikkavācaka Cuvāmikaṭ Tiruvācakam Tirukkōvaiyār Ākiya Eṭṭān Tirumurai [Kurippuraiyuṭan]* (Tarumapuram: Tarumapuram Ātīṇam, 1966), 271-2. This issue will be discussed in chapter 7.

The Tiruppanantāļ Śrī Kāci Maṭam version is: *Māṇikkavācaka Cuvāmikaļ Aruļiya Tiruvempāvai Kurippuraiyuṭan̩ Tiruppalliyelucci (Polippuraiyuṭan)* (Tiruppanantāļ Śrī Kāci Maṭamn, 1961).

The commentary was edited by R. Visvanathaiyar and published by the Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. V. Swaminathaiyar Library in 1954.¹²

In contrast to the abbreviated "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu", Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar provides a general overview of the meaning as well as a poem by poem explanation. The commentaries on both "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" begin with the *Akattiya Cūttiram* and are followed by a summary commentary (*polippurai anupūti*). In addition, each poem has its own commentary. The poem is introduced with a phrase, which often seems to be a sentence fragment. It is followed by the poem and then a small section giving a Śaiva Siddhānta prose expansion of the poem. The commentaries are extremely terse and damaged in some places, and in spite of the fact that they are full commentaries, it is still difficult to gain an overall understanding of his view of the poem. ¹³

This commentary was chosen, in spite of the difficulties in understanding it, for three main reasons: it is the first known full commentary on the *Tiruvācakam*; the author

¹² The biodata is from Visvanathaiyar, "Muṇnurai," xvii. According to this introduction, Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar began the commentary in *Kaliyukam* 4945 or *Cālivākaṇam* 1756 (i.e. 1833).

¹³ In his introduction to the commentary, Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar writes that his guru taught him the meaning of the *Akattiya Cūttiram* and the summary commentary. The commentator says he wrote a word by word commentary (*pataviyākkiyāṇam*), an explanation of the minute details (*nuṭpam*) and an elaborate commentary (*viri*). The detailed commentary on "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" to which he refers are apparently missing. See the "Uraippāyiram", 11-12.

The editor of Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's commentary provides the version of "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" but does not provide much help in understanding this commentary. My presentation of Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" is particularly dependent upon the guidance received from Dr. (Muṇaivar) Ā. Āṇantarācan who is a scholar of both Tamil language and literature, and of Śaiva Siddhānta. He was able to recognize a number of oblique references to other texts and partial quotes whose source was not identified either by the commentator or by the editor, and thereby suggest what invoking that text in the particular context might mean. Interviews with the author, Palkalainagar, Madurai, February - April 1991: February-July, 1994. Notwithstanding Ā. Āṇantarācaṇ's invaluable insights, the presentation of the commentary is still somewhat tentative.

explicitly states that it has a Śaiva Siddhānta perspective;¹⁴ and it exhibits interpretive strategies which seem to me to situate the poems in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world.

As in the previous two chapters, I will begin with an explanation of the narrative world. This will be followed by "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" of "Tiruvempāvai", and then Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai" and then "Tiruppalliyelucci".

The Saiva Siddhanta Narrative World

The Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world is one in which all events are related to a particular understanding of the spiritual development of the soul. As there are a number of works in Tamil which articulate the poetics of the *akam* and *puram* poetry, so also there are treatises on Śaiva Siddhānta from which it is possible to extrapolate the parameters of the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world. These works are the *Meykaṇṭa Cāttiram* and their subsequent commentaries and secondary literature. There are fourteen *Meykaṇṭa Cāttiram* dated between the twelfth and fourteenth centuries.¹⁵

The characters in this narrative world are the souls, devotees (souls who have become followers of Śivam), Śivam and Catti (Śakti). Śivam is Ultimate Reality in its

¹⁴ He refers to the Civañāṇapōtam and the Civañāṇacittiyār, two of the fourteen core Caiva Cittānta Cāttiram in the introduction. According to Āṇantarācaṇ with whom I went over this difficult portion of the author's introduction, Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's perspective is that civañāṇam (Śiva-knowledge) is the essence of Tiruvācakam, civañāṇam is explained in the Civañāṇapōtam, and civañāṇam is what is elaborated on in the commentary. Ā. Āṇantarācaṇ, interviews with the author, Palkalainagar, Madurai, 11 July 1994.

¹⁵ They are: 1. Tiruvuntiyār, 2. Tirukkaļirruppaṭiyār; 3. Civañāṇapōtam; 4. Civañāṇacittiyār; 5. Irupā Irupatu; 6. Uṇmaiviļakkam; 7. Civappirakācam; 8. Tiruvaruṭpayaṇ; 9. Viṇaveṇpā; 10. Pōrrippakroṭai; 11. Koṭikkavi; 12. Neñcuviṭu tūtu; 13. Uṇmaineriviļakkam; 14. Caṅkarpa nirākaraṇam. They are also called the Caiva Cittānta Cāttiram. Overviews of all fourteen texts can be found in T. B. Siddalingaiah's Origin and Development of Saiva Siddhanta Upto 14th Century (Madurai: Madurai Kamaraj University, 1979); and M. Dhavamoney's Love of God According to Saiva Siddhanta (Oxford: University Press, 1971). Both also discuss the preceeding devotional poetry. The most fundamental of these texts is the Civañāṇapōtam.

ultimate state or any one of its manifestations. Śivam's anthropomorphic manifestations are male. Catti is Śivam's power or grace. Catti also has many manifestations. Catti's anthropomorphic manifestations are female.¹⁶

All the characters in this world except Siva represent roles rather than particular historical or mythical figures, although they may be given a specific identity in a specific poem. For example souls which are not devotees may be given the identity of such figures as the demon, Rāvaṇaṇ, or the Jains or Buddhists. Or in the other extreme a devotee may be given an identity such as the saint Māṇikkavācakar or the God Viṣṇu. Śivam, however, is a specific deity. His position as ultimate being cannot be fulfilled by any other deity.

In Śaiva Siddhānta theology, the souls are divided into three classes: viññānānākalar, piraļayākalar, and cakalar. The categorization is based on the number of bonds (malam) which bind each soul. The viññānākalar souls are only bound by one bond, āṇavamalam, the primordial impurity attached to all souls. The viññāṇākalar souls dwell in the higher, pure regions of the Śaiva Siddhānta universe. The piraļayākalar souls are bound by two bonds: āṇavamalam and karma, the predispositions accumulated from previous existences which determine the situation of the souls' current and future lives. The piraļayākalar souls live in the middle realms of the universe. The cakalar souls are bound by all the bonds: āṇavamalam, karma and māyai, matter. The cakalar souls live in the lower realms of the universe. Human beings are counted among the cakalar class of souls. The last topic of the twelfth sūtra of the Tamil Civañāṇapōtam states that this text is for the souls with three malas, the cakalar (kuruvāl iṇru innūl mummaimalarkku). Therefore, the sequence described here is concerned only with the cakalar.

¹⁶ The gendered distinction between Siva and Catti cannot be maintained too rigourously. All forms of Siva, including his adornments and weapons are grace.

The spiritual development of the *cakala* soul is divided broadly into three stages: *kēvalam*, *cakalam*, *cuttam*. Souls are understood to be beginninglessly covered by impurity (āṇavamalam), and are, therefore, considered to start life in an unconscious stage called *kēvalam*. Śiva brings about the worldly process so that the souls may enter the next stage, *cakalam* in which they attain partial consciousness through embodiment.

Embodied souls become attached to the world. A given soul may overcome this attachment by cultivating indifference to the outcome of its good and bad actions (*iruvinaiyoppu*) through various paths of devotion to Śiva. Therefore it is in the *cakala* stage, rather than the *kēvala* stage, that a soul has the possibility of becoming a devotee of Śiva. When equanimity with respect to the two kinds of action has been achieved the devotee's original impurity is considered to be mature and ready to be nullified (*malaparipākam*). This is accomplished through the descent of grace (*cattinipātam*). Siva's power (Tirōtāṇacatti) which up until this time had functioned concealed in the soul, now operates openly (Arulcatti), finally revealing Śiva's existence in the soul, the *cutta* stage. This enlightenment experience is generally referred to as attaining or seeing God's feet. 17

Śiva's activities concerning the spiritual development of the soul are referred to as the five cosmic actions. They are: 1. creation (paṭaittal); 2. preservation (kāttal); 3.

¹⁷ The basic form of this sequence is found throughout the *sūtra*s and sub-topics (atikaranam) of Meykaṇṭār's Civañāṇapōtam. For example see *sūtras* 1; 1.2.a, b; 2.1.c; 2.2; 2.3; 3.7.a; 4.2; 5.2.a; 6; 6.1; 6.2.a; 8 all; 11.2.d. The first number refers to the *sūtra*, the second number to the topic, and the letters to the examples under each topic.

An English translation of the *sūtra*s and an exposition based on a commentary by Śivañānayōgi of the eighteenth century is found in Gordon Matthews, *Siva-nana-bodham:* A Manual of Saiva Religious Doctrine (Oxford: University Press, 1948). Subsequent Śaiva Siddhānta works elaborate the basic ideas found in the Civañānapōtam and debate various interpretations. For example malaparipākam is thought to occur at four different rates which have been expanded into sixteen rates. Some of the terminology used in my summary such as malaparipākam and cattinipātam to my knowledge do not appear in the Civañānapōtam itself.

destruction (alittal); 4. concealment (maraittal); and 5. gracing (arulal). The first three activities are God's action with respect to inert matter, activities which are indirectly done on behalf of the souls. Creation is the act by which God makes the appropriate body for the souls, the appropriate instruments of knowledge, and the apropriate world out of matter (māyai). Preservation means sustaining the world for a period of time so that the embodied souls may undergo experiences. Destruction refers to removing the souls from the grosser products of māyai. It is a period of rest for the souls. The products of māyai devolve back into acutta māyai where they remain until it is time for the universe to be recreated.

The last two of the five activites are God's action with respect to the soul.

Concealment refers to God's activity as *catti* of stimulating the soul so that it is capable of undergoing worldy experience in accordance with its karma. God's activity in the soul at this time is concealed from the soul. The mechanism by which God limits the soul's knowledge and remains concealed is *āṇavamalam*, or primordial impurity. God activates *āṇavamalam* and makes it function over a number of the soul's different embodiments. This activity weakens the power of *āṇavamalam*, and when its power has been sufficiently reduced, its effect is nullified. The soul's knowledge is then free from limitation, and the soul is able to experience God's presence within itself. God's first act of grace is the nullification of *āṇavamalam*, and the second is God's revelation of himself within the soul. The *catti* which functions concealed in the soul while the soul's knowledge is limited by *āṇavamalam* is called Tirōtāṇacatti (the *catti* of concealment). The *catti* which removes *āṇavamalam* and is revealed within the soul is called Arulcatti (the *catti* of grace). ¹⁸

¹⁸ See the entry "Āintol" in Ā. Āṇantarācaṇ, "Kalaiccol Viļakkam" in *Uṇmai* (Cinkapur: n.p., 1993), 173; Ā. Āṇantarācaṇ, interviews with the author, Palkalainagar, Madurai, February 1994.

Śiva's five cosmic actions are depicted iconographically in Śiva's dancing form, Naṭarācar. Creation is symbolized by the drum in the upper right hand; preservation by the right hand raised as the symbol of hope; destruction by the fire held in the upper left hand, tirōtāṇa or concealment by the right foot which stands on the demon, and mutti (mukti) by the raised left foot .¹⁹ The image of Naṭarācar is important for this study because Māṇikkavācakar, the author of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci", is especially associated with this form of Śiva both in his biography and in one of the rituals studied here.²⁰

Four paths are prescribed for spiritual development while in the human form. These are: cariyai, kiriyai, yōkam, and ñāṇam. These are generally thought to be successive stages, although those in the later stages may still follow the patterns of behaviour characteristic of the earlier paths. The first three lead to births in other worlds. The last, ñāṇam, is the stage in which one attains enlightenment.²¹ In the path of ñāṇam, when the individual has reached the stage of iruviṇaiyoppu, the guru comes to the individual and enlightens the person. The soul for the first time has a direct unmediated realization of Śiva, but even after enlightenment the soul in its human form is in danger of losing the clarity of its realization of Śiva due to the residual effects of malam. These souls

¹⁹ Unmaivilakkam # 35. See C. N. Singaravelu's translation in Unmai Vilakkam (The Exposition of Truth) of Manavasagam Kadanthar (Saiva Siddhanta Maha Samajam, 1981), 52-54. The Unmaivilakkam; is one of the fourteen Caiva Cittanta Cattiram.

²⁰ Māṇikkavācakar refers to Naṭarācar in "Tiruvempāvai", as any reference to Śiva in Tillai, The Place of the Dance, is taken as a reference to Naṭarācar. Poem 12 has a particularly clear reference.

²¹ Each of the four great Śaiva saints are thought to exemplify one of the four paths and one type of relationship with Śiva. Tirunāvukkaracar is the exemplar of *cariyai* who stands as a servant to Śiva the master. Tiruñāṇacampantar is the exemplar of *kiriyai* and stands as a son to Śiva the father. Cuntarar is the exemplar of the path of *yōkam* and stands as friend to Śiva. Māṇikkavācakar is the exemplar of *ñāṇam* and stands as disciple in relation to Śiva the guru. The first three are believed to have attained *mutti* (*mukti*), even though they exemplify the patterns of behaviour which do not directly lead to *mutti*.

may prevent this by keeping the company of other devotees and by continuing spiritual practice.²²

The Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world is like the *akam* narrative frame in that it provides a general sequence of events. It is like the *puram* frame in which the hero is identified in the poem, and the hero's biography is invoked as the specific sequence for interpreting the poem, but the speaker's identity is not indicated in the poem. In both the *puram* situation and the Śaiva Siddhānta sequence, the hero is given a particular identity, but anyone can be the follower of that hero.

The "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" Interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai"

"Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" situates the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" as utterances which are constitutive of the creation of the lower orders of the universe. The utterance of the poem is then God's act of creation which includes the embodiment of the souls. The interpretation begins with enough of an explanation of the temporal and spatial aspects of the Śaiva Siddhānta universe to situate the poem as an event of creation, and then it identifies the key characters and their activity. This is followed by situating each of the first ten poems, and by providing the speakers and addressees with the identities of characters within this world.

The characters in this interpretation are some of the *cattis* and souls of the purer realms of the Śaiva Siddhānta universe. The speakers are the nine *cattis* involved in the

²² See Civañāṇapōtam, sūtras: 8 all; 9; 9.1; 9.3; 10, 10.1; 10.2.a, c, e; 11.2; 11.2.d; 12.2, 2.a; 12.3, 3a; 12.4.a, b. Subsequent texts elaborate and debate various aspects of these paths such as the fruits of the first three, their relation to ñāṇam, exactly what the guru does which leads to a discussion of initation types, and types of aspirants. Specifically the Civañāṇapōtam enjoins meditation on Śiva (I.4.c), reciting the pañcākkaram (9; 9.3), praising God (11.2), keeping the company of devotees (12, 12.2,2.a), and worshipping the dress (and symbols) and the shrines of Śiva (13.3, 3.a; 12.4, 4.a).

periodic re-creation of the universe. Each of the first seven poems is addressed by one of the *cattis* to another. Maṇōṇmaṇi addresses poem 1 to another *catti*, Carvapūtamaṇi. Carvapūtamaṇi in turn addresses poem 2 to Pelappiramataṇi. Pelappiramataṇi then speaks poem 3 to Kalvikaraṇi. She in turn addresses Kāṇi with poem 4. Poem 5 is Kāṇi's address to Rauttiri. Rauttiri addresses Cēṇai with poem 6. Poem 7 is Cēṇai's address to Vāmai. Poem 8 is the speech of Vāmai. Lines one through five of poem 8 are addressed to Anantatēvar, and the remaining lines are addressed to a Civacatti (Śivaśakti) in the sphere of Viṣṇu. Anantatēvar is a highly evolved soul who is leader over the eight Vittiyēcuvarar, who act as Śiva's agents in the impure realms of the universe. In particular, Anantatēvar initiates the re-creation of the mixed (impure *maṇai*) and impure realms (*pirakiruti*) of the universe.²³ The commentary indicates that the Civacatti who resides in the place of Viṣṇu is concerned with the re-creation of elements from *pirakiruti*. The nine *cattis* speak poem 9 amongst themselves. The identities of the speakers and addressees for poem 10 are not clear. It may be spoken by the nine *cattis* mentioned in the first eight poems.²⁴ Other versions of this interpretation attribute poems 9 through 20 to the nine *cattis* as a group.²⁵

²³ See Richard H. Davis, *Ritual in an Oscillating Universe: Worshiping Śiva in Medieval India* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1991), 118. Davis uses the scheme of Śaiva Siddhānta cosmology based on the Sanskrit Śaiva Siddhānta Āgamas.

See also K. Vajravelu Mudaliar, trans., *Civanana Mapatiyam*, by Civanana Munivar (Madurai: Madurai Kamaraj University, 1985), 175, 246.18. The *Māpāṭiyam* is an eighteenth century commentary on the *Civañāṇapōtam*.

²⁴ Visvanathaiyar, editor of Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's commentary, suggests that others say all nine *cattis* sing this poem. He is supplying portions of Irāmacāmi Mutaliyār's version which, with *puṇarcci* or phonetic changes, are identical to this interpretation. Irāmacāmi Mutaliyār, *Tiruvācakam: Mūlamum Uraiyum* (Piruṅkimānakaram: Intu Yuniyan Accukkūṭam, 1897). Also in poem 10, Iramacami's version has two less worlds than Capāpati Mutaliyār's, and one which has a different name.

²⁵ Mu. Irattina Tēcikar, *Tiruvempāvai Uraiyāṭalum Tiruppalli Elucci Uraiyum* (Tiruvārūr: Nā. Rutrāpati Mutaliyār, Maņi Vilā Veļiyīṭu, 1953), 30.

Tiruppaṇantāļ Śrī Kāci Maṭam, MāṇikkavācakaCuvāmikaļ Aruļiya Tiruvempāvai Kurippuraiyuṭanļ Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci (Polippuraiyuṭan) (Tiruppaṇantāļ Śrī Kāci Maṭam, 1961), 8.

In this interpretation, the activity of "Tiruvempāvai" is set in the higher and purer realms of the Śaiva Siddhānta universe. This universe has many worlds. ²⁶ They can be categorized into three groups according to the material out of which they evolve: those from pure $m\bar{a}yai$; those from impure $m\bar{a}yai$; and those from pirakiruti, which is an impurer sub-category of impure $m\bar{a}yai$. Each group has its own types of beings. The souls who live in pure $m\bar{a}yai$, the $vi\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a\bar{n}akalar$, are the most evolved spiritually. The souls of impure $m\bar{a}yai$ are the piralayakalar. The souls of pirakiruti, the cakalar, are the least developed. The human world is one of the many that evolve from pirakiruti. The events of "Tiruvempāvai" as understood in this interpretation take place in pure $m\bar{a}yai$.

In pure *māyai* there are five hierarchically arranged regions: *nāta* (the highest and the most subtle), *vintu*, *cātākkiyam*, *makēcuram* and *cuttavittai* (the lowest and least subtle). Each has a presiding deity. The last three regions each have their own kinds of beings: the Aņucatācivar in *cātākkiyam*, the eight Vittiyēcuvarar and a group of *cattis* in *makēcuram*, and the Mantirēcurar in *cuttavittai*. All three of these beings are *viññāṇākalar*.²⁸ More specifically the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" are uttered in the *makēcuram tattya*.²⁹

Mā. Vē. Nellaiyappa Pillai, *Tiruvācaka Aruļ Murait Tiruṭṭu Patavurai Viļakka Uraiyuṭan* (Tirunelvēli: Ne. Naṭarāja Pillai, 1943), 102

A. Uttantarāma Pillai, *Tiruvempāvai* (Tiruttani: Cuppiramanīsvarar Cuvāmi Vakaiyarā Tēvastānankal, 1963), 7.

²⁶ Lines one and two of poem 10, which refer to Siva's transcendence spatially, are elaborated into an apparently exhaustive listing of all the realms in the universe.

²⁷ The interpretation, in its discussion of poem 10, provides a list of regions with the distance between each one from the lowest in *pirakiruti* to the highest in pure *māyai*.

²⁸ "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu", 3.

²⁹ "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" places Maṇōṇmaṇi and Anantatēvar in the makēcuramtattva, and refers to the mandala of cattis in that region (1-2). The Māpāṭiyam refers to the activation of Anantatēvar in the context of the discussion of the makēcuram tattva. Vajravelu Mudaliar, Civanana Mapatiyam, 246.18.

The main factor for situating "Tiruvempāvai", as a whole, is the reference to the month of $M\bar{a}rkali$ in the last poem. In Śaiva Siddhānta cosmology, the human year is divided into a day and night for the Gods ($t\bar{e}varkal$). From $\bar{A}ti$ month (mid-July to mid August) to $M\bar{a}rkali$ month (mid-December to mid-January) is night time for the Gods; from Tai month (mid-January to mid February) upto $\bar{A}ni$ month (mid-June to mid-July) is day time for the Gods. These six months are respectively the periods during which the universe in which human beings live is destroyed ($cank\bar{a}ram$) and then recreated (cirusti). In the yearly cycle of the gods, $M\bar{a}rkali$ month is dawn, and is the time of the re-creation of the universe for the benefit of the souls who exist in the lower realms. The events of "Tiruvempāvai" then constitute the re-creation of the lower universes, those of impure $m\bar{a}yai$ and pirakiruti.

This interpretation explains the various references to awakening in the first eight poems of "Tiruvempāvai". The utterance of each of the first seven poems is intended to awaken the *cattis* involved in the creation of that universe. "Awakening" the *cattis* means "activating" them to their creative functions. The utterance of poem 8 activates Anantatēvar who is responsible for the evolution of the impure *māyai*, and Civacatti, who is responsible for the re-creation of the *pirakiruti*. Each of the first eight poems is then understood to be a stage in the creation of the universe.

The "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" interpretation thus situates the utterances in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world as part of an act of creation. In terms of the sequence of events of this narrative world, it situates "Tiruvempāvai" at the stage where the souls become embodied. Creation moves the soul from the *kēvala* state to the *cakala* state. In contrast to the *akam* and *puram* interpretations, the activity of these poems is thought of as occuring

³⁰ Mīṇāṭcicuntaram Piḷḷai, Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu Mutaliyaṇa, 1.

well beyond the human realm, in the higher and purer realms of existence. Both the speakers and addressees are *cattis* (i.e. forms of divine energy).

Kāļi Tāņṭavarāyar's Interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai"

Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's commentary is terse and the text is damaged in places so that it is difficult to gain a complete understanding of it. He does, however, illustrate the strategies of identifying the speakers and addressees, and situating the poem in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world. It is reasonably clear in the commentary what the poems taken as a whole represent. According to Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation, "Tiruvempāvai" consists of a series of events by which the *cattis* bring the soul to maturity, and the ensuing experience of enlightenment which is enjoyed by both the *cattis* and the soul. The main characters are the *cattis*, the purified soul and Śiva. The *cattis* in this interpretation are those whose function it is to stimulate the soul, not those who activate inert matter as is the case in "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu". The locus of activity in this case is the sentient soul, rather than the insentient *cutta* realms.

Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar assigns speakers and addressees to the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" from the characters of the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world. The speakers and addressees in most of the poems are *cattis*. The Tirōtāṇacattis appear as a group in each of the poems 1 through 10, but the identity of the other *catti* changes from poem to poem. In poem 1 Parācatti addresses, in sequence, Mūlamalacatti (āṇavamalam), then the Tirōtāṇacattis, and finally the soul. The text of the commentary on poem 2 is damaged. From the editor's reconstruction it would seem to be a conversation between the Tirōtāṇacattis and Ñāṇacatti.³¹ Poem 3 is an exchange between "Iccācatti, the activator of Karmamalacatti",

³¹ The editor mentions that the commentary on this poem was damaged in eight places.

and the Tirōtāṇacattis. Poem 4 contains a discussion between the Tirōtāṇacattis and Kiriyācatti. Poem 5 is a dialogue between the Mature Catti and Āticatti. In poem 6 the discussion is between Mature Tirōtāṇacatti and Inpacatti. In poem 7 the Tirōtāṇacattis addresses Teruļcatti. Poem 8 is an exchange between the Tirōtāṇacattis and Aruṭcatti. Poem 9 is the exchange between the Tirōtāṇacattis and Inpākiyaśivacatti, in which God also is addressed. Poem 10 is an exchange between the Tirōtāṇacattis and Inpātīta aruṭcatti.

In poems 11 through 20, Śiva often is the addressee, and the soul or the *cattis* are the speakers. In Poem 11 the speaker is not identified. There are two addressees, the image of Śiva at the Madurai Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarcurar Temple, Kaliyāṇacuntaraṇ, and the "Girl of Knowledge". Poem 12 is the speech of the "Civacattis who desire maturity", who we can conclude are the Tirōtāṇacattis. It is addressed to the "Girl of Knowledge". In poem 13 the "Cattis of Grace" speak to each other. The text of poem 14 has a gap in the portion which summarizes the poem and identifies the speakers and events, but a portion indicates that some class of *cattis* are the speakers in this poem. In poem 15 Paracatti addresses the Tirōtāṇacattis.³² The identity of the speaker is not provided in poem 16 but the poem is addressed to the "Girls of Nāṇam who are the Friends of the Soul".³³ In poem 17 the speaker is not identified, but the poem is addressed to the "*cattis* who activate the pure souls". Paracatti addresses the *cattis* such as Tirōtāṇa in poem 18. In poem 19 and 20 the pure soul (*cuttāṇmā*) speaks. In poem 19 the Tirōtāṇacatti address Paracatti, and then the pure soul addresses Śiva. Poem 20 is the statement of the soul who has attained release addressing God.

 $^{^{32}}$ "Girls of $\tilde{N}\bar{a}\underline{n}am$ " is probably the *cattis* addressed at the begining of the commentary. \bar{A} . $\bar{A}\underline{n}$ antar \bar{a} commented that anything said about Tir \bar{o} t \bar{a} nacattis is normally applicable to the soul. Interviews with the author, Palkalainagar, Madurai, 9 February 1994.

³³ The choice of $t\bar{o}li$ to indicate friend is interesting, since it is a technical term used to refer to the friend of the heroine in *akam* poetics.

Eight of the first ten poems are interpreted as dialogues between various *cattis*. This contrasts with the interpretations of Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār and Vanmikanathan which understand only poems 2, 3 and 4 to be dialogues, and "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" which does not seem to take any of the poems as dialogues. All of the three dialogue poems in Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's and Vanmikanathan's interpretations are between the heroine and her companions, suggesting that the three poems are part of the same event. For Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar, however, the dialogue poems seem to involve at least one different *catti* in each poem, which suggests that each poem is a separate event, as in "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu". Possibly each dialogue poem represents a different stage in the development of the soul.

The summary commentary (polippural anupūti) at the beginning of Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's explanation of "Tiruvempāvai" situates the whole poem in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world. It describes the first ten poems as events by which the soul is brought to maturity. It says that the first ten poems describes the Tirōtāṇacattis awakening the beginningless malacatti (i.e. āṇavamalam). The sentences preceding the first reference to awakening catti situate the awakening activity in the context of the removal of the soul from āṇavamalam. The remaining ten poems are about the blissful experience of enlightenment. According to the summary commentary, the events of the last ten poems are those in which Arulcatti as Paraicatti gives the soul the highest bath of bliss.³⁵ In the end the soul has reached the cutta state, or the soul is enlightened. The interpretation,

³⁴ There are some versions of this interpretation which interpret some of the first poems as dialogues. Irattina Tēcikar, *Tiruvempāvai Uraiyāṭalum Tiruppaḷḷiyeḷucci Uraiyum* (poems 2-4) and Irāmacāmi Mutaliyār, *Tiruvācakam* (poem 4).

³⁵ The *polippurai* suggests that another meaning for the last ten poems is that they are about the evolution of the universe from *cutta māyai*. The poem by poem commentary on the last ten poems focuses on the bath of bliss, and does not seem to make any reference to creation. I know only of "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" (discussed above) which interprets "Tiruvempāvai" as being about creation. It focuses on the first 10 poems.

therefore, focuses on God's two cosmic actions with respect to the soul, the concealment (poems 1 through 10) and granting of grace (poems 11 through 20).

Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's comments on poems 10 and 11 confirm that he is following the direction provided by his teacher. In the explanation of poem 10, he says that malaparipākam is occurring. Introducing poem 11 he says:

Now, because the *malacatti*, which is inside, becomes mature as a result of the question and answer of the ten *cattis* in the previous poems, *tirōtāṇam* arises outside becoming *arul*, so [the soul] stands and obtains the bath of *pēriṇpam* which is dancing without ego, awakening from the sleep of *mala* in the space of *parai* (*ñāṇam*) [it] bathes in the ultimate bliss (*cukātītam*).³⁶

Kāļi Tāṇṭavarāyar here indicates that the questions and answers of the previous ten poems constitute the actions which bring the soul (that is āṇavamalam) to maturity. When the soul is mature, when it has attained the state in which malam is mature (malaparipākam), the hidden catti (Tirōtāṇacatti) reveals itself (becomes Aruļcatti), and the soul's consciousness transcends the world and experiences the consciousness of Śiva. The result of the events of the first ten poems is, then, the bliss or enlightenment of the soul. Kāḷi Tāṇṭavarāyar says that tirōtāṇa becomes aruļ. This is a description of the event from the perspective of the activity of catti. This same event from the perspective of the soul is expressed as an "awakening from the sleep of malam (impurity) in the space of parai (ñāṇam) (knowledge)".

The point of departure for situating the first ten poems seems to be the "awakening" activity expressed in the form of dialogues in eight of the first ten poems. This question and answer, as we saw in the introductory remarks to poem 11, brought about the maturing of āṇavamalam. The point of departure for the remaining ten poems is the "bathing"

³⁶ Translated with the help of Ā. Ānantarācan, interviews with the author, Palkalainagar, Madurai, 30 April 1991. He says the sentence is not complete.

which is referred to in all the poems. Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar interprets this bath to be the bath of bliss, which is experienced when the soul is in the ultimate state of union with Śiva.

"Tiruvempāvai" in this interpretation reflects events which take place in the soul. In the first ten poems, the Tirōtāṇacattis are awakening the āṇavamalam residing in the soul. The Tirōtāṇacattis are the energies of Śiva that function concealed in the soul prior to enlightenment. The activity of the final ten poems is the soul bathing in the bath of bliss. The Tirōtāṇacattis who have before functioned in a concealed way now reveal themselves in and to the soul. This is the enlightenment experience. Throughout the interpretation the locus of the activity of "Tiruvempāvai" is the soul.

It seems in general that Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar interprets the first ten poems as a sequence of events by which the soul is brought to maturity, and the last ten as a collection of poems on the experience of *mutti*. The introductory statement to poem 11 implies that the soul's attainment of enlightenment is a result of the sequence of events that lead up to poem 11. On the other hand Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar identifies poem 1 as Parācatti grasping the highest soul, a clear reference to a state of enlightenment, but in the other poems in the first group it seems that enlightenment has not been obtained.³⁷ Probably he takes poem 1 as an introduction. Alternatively we might imagine, as in Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation of "Tiruppalliyelucci", that the order of the poems in the edition does not represent the order of the poems as a sequence of events. One could, for instance, imagine poem 1 as the final event in the sequence of the first ten poems. Poem 10 says

³⁷ For example, the elaboration of poem 2 says that the maturity of *mala* has not yet come. Poem 4 is understood to contain a request for the state of 'niţtai', a technical term referring to the soul's ultimate experience of Śiva or "Śivapōkam". In poem 5 there is a request to open the door of delusion, which suggests that āṇavamalam, the deluding principle, has not yet been removed. Poem 6 contains a reminder of the promise to give ñāṇam (enlightenment). In poem 8 the addressee is asked if her sleep is the result of malam, again suggesting that āṇavamalam has not yet been removed.

malaparipākam has occured, or the āṇavamalam has matured and is ready for removal. Poem 11 talks about the bath of bliss. Poem 1 would fit in between these chronologically as the actual removal of the mature āṇavamalam which leads to the bath of bliss. The last ten poems seem to be a collection of poems around the topic of experiencing mutti and do not seem to represent a sequence.

"Tiruvempāvai" has been situated differently by the two commentators in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world. In "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu", "Tiruvempāvai" is about the creation of the universe. The first eight poems represent a sequence of single events in that process. In Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation, "Tiruvempāvai" is about the maturing of āṇavamalam and the soul enjoying the experience of bliss in mutti. Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation assumes the creation of the world. "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" set the poems earlier in the sequence of the soul's spiritual development than does Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation. Both interpretations are quite different from the akam understandings discussed earlier.

Kāli Tāntavarāyar's Interpretation of "Tiruppaļļiyeļucci"

Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's commentary on "Tiruppalliyelucci" is very terse and difficult, and the ideas presented in the following analysis must be taken only as suggestions. He provides an identity for the addressees and some of the speakers in the poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci". He also provides the situation for "Tiruppalliyelucci" generally, and a suggested theme of each of the poems. Furthermore, in his prose expansions on the poems, he introduces a large number of Śaiva Siddhānta technical terms. "Tiruppalliyelucci" in this interpretation, is taken as a collection of poems on the same theme, but the poems do not necessarily represent the same event, as they do, for example, in Vanmikanathan's interpretation. The poems also do not seem to reflect a sequence of events which add up to a single event, as in

"Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" of "Tiruvempāvai" or Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation of the first ten poems of "Tiruvempāvai". If this is the case, each poem would seem to have its own meaning, as each poem represents a separate event. Therefore it is not possible to provide a meaning for "Tiruppalliyelucci" as a whole.

Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar provides identities from the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world for the addressee in all the poems, but identities for the speakers only in poems 1 through 4. The addressee in all poems is God, specifically identified as Śiva except in poem 8. Part of poem 7 is also addressed to the *tēvar* (gods).³⁸ The speakers in the first poem are the women, who are the "Citcattis of the enlightened soul" (*malaparipākavānmacir-cattippeṇkal*). The speaker in poems 2, 3 and 4 is a devotee (*aṭiyēn*). Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar refers to the speakers in the remaining six poems only by first person pronouns.

The setting for the poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" is not clear. In most of the poems, the speaker speaks about aspects of enlightenment, without any indication of where the act of speaking is taking place. In poems 1 and 2 the setting is clear. In poem 1 the Citcattis in the enlightened soul address Śiva who is also in the soul. In a similar sense, the enlightened soul addresses Śiva within the soul in poem 2. The activity of these two poems, at least, takes place within the enlightened soul.

The summary commentary at the beginning of "Tiruppalliyelucci" identifies the collection of poems as being about a state of enlightenment in which the soul is absorbed in Siva to the exclusion of other experience.³⁹ The summary commentary itself phrases it as the rising of the sun in the soul (*uyir*), which is the fifth state beyond the *kēvala*, *cakala* and *cutta* states. This places the theme of "Tiruppalliyelucci" at an advanced stage in the

³⁸ In the Śaiva Siddhānta world view, *tēvas* are souls who have attained a more exalted life form because of good karma in their previous life.

³⁹ I am following an interpretation of the summary commentary suggested by Ā. Ānantarācan, interviews with the author, Palkalainagar, Madurai, November 1990.

soul's spiritual development. The point of departure for situating the ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" in this way is the reference to the rising sun in three of the poems, and the refrain which requests the addressee to arise. 40

In Śaiva Siddhānta theology, there are at least two schemes describing the devotee's evolving awareness of Śiva. One has four stages and the other has five stages. The last two stages in both schemes refer to the two different ways of being enlightened: Śivayōkam and Śivapōkam. Śivayōkam is the state of the soul in union with Arulcatti. It is a state of enlightenment in which the soul can be active in the world. The soul uses grace rather than the instruments of māyai for knowing the world. In other words the soul is directed by grace. In Śivapōkam the soul is completely immersed in the experience of Śiva and enjoys his qualities. Śivapōkam is a state of bliss. The soul is incapable of knowing anything else while in this state, and is incapable of functioning in the world. This is the highest state for the embodied soul, but it is only temporary because embodied souls continue to participate in the world. Viewed from this perspective the fully evolved embodied soul is capable of these two modes of being. Perhaps when the summary commentary says that the soul leaves the cutta state and is in the fifth state, it means as Āṇantarācan suggests, that the soul enters Śivapōkam. This interpretation implies a more

⁴⁰ Dawn is explicitly mentioned or described in poems 1, 2, and 3.

⁴¹ The stages in the four-fold scheme are: 1. kēṭṭal (hearing); 2. cintal (reflecting); 3. telital (clarity); 4. niṭṭai (experiential realization). The five-fold scheme is: 1. cutta cākkiram; 2. cutta coppaṇam; 3. cutta culutti; 4. cutta turiyam; 5. cutta turiyātītam. The five stages are the normal stages of the embodied soul (waking, dream, sleep, deep sleep, deepest sleep) with the adjective "pure" attached. In the Śaiva Siddhānta view, as one proceeds from wakefulness to deep sleep one moves deeper into the darkness of āṇavamalam. On the other hand, the soul advancing spiritually moves into greater degrees of purity rather than impurity. Ā. Āṇantarācaṇ, interviews with the author, Palkalainakar, Madurai, August 1990 and February, 1994. See also Ā. Āṇantarācaṇ, Tacakāriyam (Tirunelvēli: Aruḥnanti Civam Aruṭpaṇi Manram, 1993), 13-4.

⁴² Ā. Āṇantarācan, interviews with the author, Palkalainagar, Madurai, August, November 1990; February 1994.

limited definition of the *cutta* state as that of the pure embodied soul still functioning in the world.

Kāli Tāntavarāyar identifies the theme for each of the poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the introductions to the individual poems. In poems 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 the connection between the general situation described in the summary commentary and the situation of the individual poems is fairly clear. The introductory comment on poem 1 says that it is about the "arising of grace", which is the experience of Siva in the soul. Poem 2 speaks about "when pācam leaves and parañānam emerges". Pācam and parañānam are Śaiva Siddhānta technical terms. Pācam refers to the three bonds of the soul: māyai, karma and āṇavam. Parañānam is the highest knowledge by which one experiences and realizes God. It is possible only when the soul has been freed from pācam.⁴³ The situation provided for poem 3 is that "the feet which are rare for others are easily accessible to me a devotee". Experiencing Siva in the soul is regularly referred to as "experiencing the feet". The theme provided for poem 5 is that the "bent red foot is the ultimate satisfaction". This is a reference to the raised left foot of Natarācar which symbolizes the bestowal of grace and the experience of enlightenment. The theme of poem 6 is "God lives in the mind which has become diffuse". The main point of the Saiva Siddhanta prose expansion is that the special devotees in the Nittai state have pervasive minds and they worship the feet as a symbol of God's human form. Nittai is a technical term in Saiva Siddhanta referring to the soul's ultimate experience of Siva. It is also called Sivapōkam. 44

In Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation, the poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" seems to be a collection of poems about various aspects of a situation, and they do not form a sequence

⁴³ See *Civañāṇapōtam*, *sūtra* 11 and *Civañāṇacittiyār Cupakkam*, 310 & 311 in *Meykaṇṭa Cāttiraṅka*ļ (Ceṇṇai: Caiva Cittāntat Turai, Ceṇṇaip Palkalaik Kalakam, 1988).

⁴⁴ See notes 38 and 42 above.

of events or represent a single event. This point can be suggested by considering three poems: 1, 2 and 7.

The theme Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar gives for poem 7 is that it is a request for grace. In his prose expansion of the poem, the speaker asks: "Will we receive the true teaching?" The "Tiruppalliyelucci" refrain is interpreted as a request for the arising from the bed which is a request for enlightenment. Poem 7 is a request for the experience of enlightenment. It therefore represents a stage prior to the attainment of that stage in the soul's development.

Poems 1 and 2 are expressions from two slightly different perspectives of the experience of Siva in the soul while in that state. These two poems represent an advanced stage in the sequence of events leading to the full spiritual development of the soul. The introductory statement indicates that poem 1 is about the arising of grace. The next statement in the commentary identifies the exact event of the poem: "the cit cattis of the soul, in which malaparipākam has occured, have gathered and are praising the vision of God who is sitting in the audience hall which is the mind" (translation mine). Kāli Tāntavarāyar explains the phrase, "It has dawned", in the poem as "leaving kēvala and cakala states, ñānam which is the pure holy feet arose in [our/my] knowledge" (translation mine). The soul whose malam has matured has received enlightenment. We may conclude that the vision of God in the audience hall of the mind is another way of saying God has revealed himself to the soul and the soul is enlightened. The refrain is understood by Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar to be a request for God to accept the speakers' heart (ematuļam) as his audience hall. An audience hall is where the ruler makes himself available or reveals himself to his subjects.⁴⁵ We may suggest that this is a request that God, having revealed himself in the soul, should remain revealed.

⁴⁵ Tamil Lexicon (Madras: 1982) provides the following definitions for ōlakkam: Assembly of state, audience, royal presence, durbar; Hall.

The event of poem 2 is also an experience of Siva in the soul, expressed this time from the perspective of the soul. Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's prose expansion of poem 2 is as follows:

Now, it tells how when *pācam* leaves, *parañāṇam* emerged. [citation of poem 2]

The two deeds of the knowledge of the soul which search after lower [things] became equal (*iruvinaiyoppāki*) and *malaparipākam* was born; because of that their *pācam* left before Aruṇaṇ who is *atitīvaracattinipātam*; *māyai* which resembles a lamp is gone; as a result of the dawn of grace, the sun which is great bliss (*pēriṇpam*) and the source for that grace shines, and gives grace for the soul, that compassion increases more and more, when the scent of Śiva which is in the soul diffuses, appearing as one with the soul (*apētavattuvitakkātciyāka*), that great compassion of our Lord is the basis for that bliss [in the soul]; while the bees who are the devotees stand praising row by row, this is definitely the way of realizing the foot! O Highest Śiva of Tirupperuntuṛai! O Mountain of *pēriṇpam* which is the glance of grace [which leads the soul to] experience of Śiva [in its] own experience giving [to it] the gem of bliss! O Ocean of Knowledge! It is necessary to celebrate the festival of awakening in the mind of me your devotee! (translation mine). 40

The imagery of dawn in this poem is interpreted in Śaiva Siddhānta technical terminology. Aruṇan is the charioteer of the sun and represents dawn.⁴⁷ Aruṇan's arrival is compared to the descent of grace. Darkness leaving is compared to pācam leaving when grace descends. The rising of the sun is compared to the occurrence of great bliss (pēriṇpam) which follows the descent of grace. The explanation indicates that the soul had attained equanimity with respect to the outcome of its good and bad actions (iruviṇaiyoppu) and the maturity of malam (malaparipākam). Because of that pācam left when grace descended (cattinipātam). The lamp of māyai left. This means that the soul ceases to know by the instruments of māyai, the mental and sensory organs. It implies that the soul knows by grace, and therefore that the soul has achieved the state of Śivayōkam. Up until this point,

⁴⁶ Kāli Tāṇḍavārayar, *Tiruvācaka Vyākhānam*, 737.

⁴⁷ Tamil Lexicon: Arunan can also mean the sun. In the commentary, however, there is a clear distinction between dawn and the sun.

that the state described has been attained. The commentator then shifts to the present continuous form of the verb when he describes the rising of the sun and the experiencing of pleasure. As the result of the dawn of grace the sun of great bliss arises and fills the soul. This is attaining the feet (tiruvați).⁴⁸ The use of the present continuous suggests that this is the state from which the speaker speaks. The soul moves into the state of Śivapōkam. The commentary concludes with the statement that God should enjoy the festival of the bed in the devotee's mind. We may suggest that this reference is a longing that God should remain revealed in the soul.

The events of poems 1 and 2 are the actual experience of Śivapōkam, and the speakers speak from that state. The event of poem 7 is a request for that experience, and the speaker speaks from a different state. The first two poems talk about the same experience from the viewpoint of two different speakers. This suggests that the poems of "Tiruppalliyclucci" are not a collection of poems expressing a single event as they are in Vanmikanathan's interpretation. It also seems that since the same experience is expressed from two different view points, and that poem 7 is an event which occurs prior to the event of poems 1 and 2, that in Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation the poems of "Tiruppalliyclucci" do not represent a sequence, as they do in Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation.

The meaning of Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation of "Tiruppalliyelucci" differs from that arrived at through the interpretation of Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār,

⁴⁸ "kil nāṭalāṇa pacupōta iruviṇai yoppāki, malaparipākam **pirantatu**; avarril atitīvara cattinipātamāṇa aruṇaṇ muṇ avar pācam **akaṇratu**; viļakkaṇaiya māyaiyāṇatu **viṭintatu**; tiruvaruļ utayamākavē, avvaruļukku mutaliya pēriṇpac cūriyaṇ viļaṅki...ivvakaiyō tiruvaṭi **peruvatu**" (emphasis mine). Kāli Tāṇḍavārayar, *Tiruvācaka Vyākhānam*, 737.

Vanmikanathan or Aruṇācalam. In Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's and Aruṇācalam's interpretations, the speaker(s) awaken the addressee from sleep. For Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, the speaker is the wife and her companions who want to see the hero sitting in state attending to those who have come to see him. For Aruṇācalam, the speaker is the bard-servant-devotee, Māṇikkavācakar, who wants to find out from Śiva what service he should perform for him. In Vanmikanathan's and Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretations, the poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" are about an awakening of the speaker. For Vanmikanathan this awakening is the heroine to sexual fulfillment which he correlates to mystical union. For Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar it is an experience of Śivapōkam. In Vanmikanathan's interpretation the fullfillment has not yet happened. In Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation in at least two poems it is happening at the moment the poem is uttered, and in another it has yet to happen.

Summary

"Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" have been situated as events in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrrative world by the strategy of assigning characters of that world to be the addressees and speakers in the poems and by indicating the situation in that world to which the poems correspond. "Tiruvempāvai" was situated as two different events and therefore the meaning of it was also understood differently in the two interpretations. According to "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu", the utterance of "Tiruvempāvai" is the act of creation of the impure orders of the universe. In Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation, the utterance of the first ten poems effects the purification of the soul and the remaining ten poems are expressions of the resulting experience of bliss in the enlightened state. Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar utilized the strategy of assigning identites to the speaker to a lesser extent in his commentary on "Tiruppalliyelucci", but he did provide a theme for each of the poems, as

well as the general situation for the collection of poems as a whole. According to Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar, "Tiruppalliyelucci" is about the experience of Śivapōkam, a complete blissful immersion in Śiva to the exclusion of all other experience.

In this chapter, "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyclucci" have been understood in terms of Śaiva Siddhānta theology. The events as understood in the interpretations presented here occur beyond the world of every day experience, as part of a cosmic drama. In chapter 6, I will consider the meaning of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyclucci" when they are understood in terms of the lives of individuals living in the human realm of experience.

II: Chapter 6: The Poems in the Biographical Narrative Worlds

Interpretations of the poems in biographical narrative worlds depict the divinehuman relationship as one between a god and a particular individual. The events are ordered according to the chronology of the individual's own life. Either the speaker or the addressee have a specific identity. The setting is the specific time and place that the poem is uttered. The meaning or significance of the poems is the meaning or significance that it has when uttered at a particular point in the speaker's or addressee's own life.

Two biographical worlds will be considered in this chapter: the life of the composer of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci", Māṇikkavācakar, and the "first person" narrative world. A brief summary of Māṇikkavācakar's life will be provided, followed by an interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai", in terms of that biography, by R. Navaratnam. Then an explanation of the "first person" biographical world will be given, and several examples of the significance of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" to the lives of individuals will be presented.

"Tiruvempāvai" in Māṇikkavācakar's Biographical World

There are several sources which provide information on Māṇikkavācakar's life. His story has been told in four episodes in perhaps the earliest account of the "sixty-four sports of Śiva in the Madurai area", *Tiruvālavāyuṭaiyār Tiruviļaiyāṭal Purāṇam*, and retold again in a more popular and later account, *Tiruviḷaiyāṭal Purāṇam* by Parañcōti. The main source

¹ K. V. Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature* (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1975), 221. See the list of sources in Radha Thiagarajan, *A Study of Mysticism in Tiruvācakam* (Madurai: Madurai Kamaraj University, 1983), 1 n. 1.

² See the introduction. According to Zvelebil references to Śiva's "sports" occur in various earlier sources, the earliest being the *Cilappatikāram* which mentions two sports. Zvelebil estimates a date for Parañcōti between 1450 and 1625. K. V. Zvelebil, *Tamil*

is the *Tiruvātavūraţikal Purāṇam* by Kaṭavulmāmunivar.³ The whole *purāṇam* is an account of Māṇikkavācakar's life. The following account of Māṇikkavācakar's life is based on the English summaries of the *Tiruvātavūraţikal Purāṇam* by G. U. Pope and Glenn Yocum.⁴

Māņikkavācakar's Narrative World

Māṇikkavācakar was a brahmin from Tiruvātavūr, a village located a short distance northeast of Madurai city. He was a talented and educated youth who at an early age became chief minister of the Pāṇṭiya king. He shone in this post. While chief minister, he was sent by the king to Tirupperunturai⁵ to buy horses. Meanwhile, Śiva and his retinue appeared in Tirupperunturai. Śiva sat under a tree, disguised as a human guru, surrounded by his retinue in human form. Māṇikkavācakar arrived in Tirupperunturai, met this "guru", received spiritual teaching, and became enlightened. He then donated all his and the king's wealth to this guru. His assistants, unable to alter his course of action, returned and reported what had happened to the king. The king sent a message ordering Māṇikkavācakar to return. Māṇikkavācakar consulted Śiva who told him to return to Madurai and he would follow with the horses on an auspicious day. Māṇikkavācakar returned, and when the horses did not appear after some time, he was imprisoned.

Literature, vol. 10 in A History of Indian Literature (Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1974), 177-185.

³ This purāṇam has been published with commentary by Pu. Ci. Puṇṇaivaṇanāta Mutaliyār, Kaṭavuļmāmuṇivar Aruļiya Tiruvātavūraṭikaļ Purāṇam Mūlamum (1957; reprint, Tirunelvēli: Tirunelvēlit Teṇṇintiya Caivacittānta Nūrpatippuk Kalakam Limiṭeṭ, 1967). Zvelebil dates Kaṭavuļmāmuṇivar in the fourteenth to fifteenth century. Zvelebil, Tamil Literature (1974), 176; and Tamil Literature (1975), 221.

⁴G. U. Pope, The Tiruvaçagam or 'Sacred Utterances' of the Tamil Poet, Saint, and Sage Mānikka-vāçagar, 3rd ed. (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1900; republished by University of Madras, 1979), xvi-xxxii. Glenn E. Yocum, Hymns to the Dancing Śiva: A Study of Māṇikkavācakar's Tiruvācakam (New Delhi: Heritage Publishers, 1982), 50-4.

⁵Today Tirupperunturai is identified with Āvutaiyārkōyil.

Eventually, Śiva arrived with the horses disguised as a horse trader. Māṇikkavācakar was released. In the night, however, the horses turned into jackals, caused havoc and escaped. The horse trader was gone. The king, angry, ordered that Māṇikkavācakar stand in the dry Vaikai river-bed in the mid-day sun. The saint appealed to Śiva who, then, made the Vaikai River flood. Everyone was required to build up a portion of the river bank. An old lady who was not capable of doing the work herself, appealed to Śiva for help. He came disguised as a labourer and offered to do her work in exchange for the rice cakes that she sold. The labourer sported and behaved like a mad-man. The king ordered him to be beaten. The blow on his back was felt by all beings. The king realised that the labourer was Śiva, and as a result released Māṇikkavācakar from service.

Once Māṇikkavācakar was free from his worldy duties he became an ascetic. He returned to Tirupperunturai and remained there with Śiva and his devotees. After some time, Śiva prepared to return to Kailācam. He told the devotees to remain with Māṇikkavācakar for a little while longer and then to return to Kailācam also. He told Māṇikkavācakar to go to Citamparam, visiting shrines along the way. Māṇikkavācakar begged to go with Śiva, but was not permitted. Śiva left and the devotees remained for a little longer and then left also.

Māṇikkavācakar composed a number of poems while in Tirupperunturai. Then he travelled to Citamparam, visiting several places and composing poems along the way. He finally settled in Citamparam where he composed most of his poems. While in Citamparam he defeated the Buddhists in a debate.

One day Śiva came to him disguised as a ascetic from the Pāṇṭiya country. He asked Māṇikkavācakar to sing his songs, and while Māṇikkavācakar sang Śiva recorded them. The ascetic then asked him to sing a kōvai which he also recorded. Śiva took these songs to Kailācam and sang them to all the gods. Then Śiva placed them on the steps of

Citamparam Temple. The priests of the temple discovered the songs and sang them before a crowd that had gathered. The crowd went to Māṇikkavācakar to ask him to explain the songs. Māṇikkavācakar took them all to the temple. At the temple, Māṇikkavācakar pointed to Naṭarācar and said that he was the meaning of the songs. Māṇikkavācakar then went into the sanctum and merged with Naṭarācar, attaining *mutti*.

"Tiruvempāvai" in Māṇikkavācakar's Biography:Navaratnam's Interpretation The interpretation presented here is by Ratna Navaratnam, a Sri Lankan educator and scholar of Tamil Śaivism. She was educated in Tamil Nadu and in London, England. She was later the principal of Ramanathan College in Sri Lanka, and subsequently held positions in the education department of the Sri Lankan goverment, ultimately as Director of Education. She is a Śaiva. Her interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai" are found in her study of *Tiruvācakam* which she submitted as a thesis to Annamalai University in Tamil Nadu in 1946.6

Ratna Navaratnam uses Māṇikkavācakar's biography as the frame for interpreting the *Tiruvācakam* in general, and "Tiruvempāvai" in particular. In her view, the poems, in their canonical order, reflect Mānikkavācakar's spiritual development.⁷ She provides an

⁶ This thesis was published twice, firstly under the title of *Tiruvachakam: The Hindu Testament of Love* (Bombay: Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, 1963) and then under the title *A New Approach to Tiruvacagam* (Annamalainagar: Annamalai University, 1971). The second publication appears to be a somewhat revised version of the first. The information about her life comes from the back cover of the first publication, as well as from her introductory remarks.

⁷ See Navaratnam, New Approach to Tiruvacagam, 32-3. Yocum notes that the order of the poems in standard editions of the Tiruvācakam differs from the order provided in the Tiruvātavūraṭikal Purāṇam. He also suggests that the poems in their standard order do not reflect a spiritual development, as the poems at the end are not much different from those at the beginning. Yocum, Hymns to the Dancing Śiva, 56. Vanmikanathan agrees with Navaratnam that the standard order of the 51 units reflects Māṇikkavācakar's spiritual growth. G. Vanmikanathan, Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam: An Original Interpretation and Complete Translation (Thiruppananadal: Sri Kasi Mutt, 1980), 19-26.

identity for the speakers and addressee(s), establishes the setting, and locates the composition in the poet's life. According to Navaratnam, "Tiruvempāvai" was composed in Tiruvannāmalai, while Mānikkavācakar was travelling to Citamparam. It represents an effort to lift his disheartened spirit.

Navaratnam assigns identities to the speakers and addressees in "Tiruvempāvai" in three ways. Firstly, the speakers and addressees are given a general role, and then are assigned the identities of individuals from Mānikkavācakar's biography. The speakers and addressees in the first set of identities are young girls: girls inside different houses and friends outside who try to encourage them to join them. The girls are historic individuals, but they have no specific identities.⁸ In the second set of identities, Mānikkavācakar is the girl inside the house, and Siva's incarnated devotees are the group of girls outside. In this assignment of identities, the different girls in different houses from poem to poem become the same girl, "Mānikkavācakar", in all the first eight poems.⁹ In the third set of identites, Māṇikkavācakar is the speaker as both the girl inside the house and the group outside. In this set of identities he talks to himself. 10

Corresponding to the three sets of identities are two settings and three events. The first setting is the town of Tiruvannāmalai in December at dawn. Mānikkavācakar witnesses young girls going from house to house awakening their friends and going to the

Radha Thiagarajan agrees that the poems of *Tiruvācakam* reflect Mānikkavācakar's spiritual development, however, she does not see this development in the standard order of the poems. Rather, she suggests an alternative sequence for the poems which does reflect it. In this new sequence, "Tiruppalliyelucci" is reflective of an experience which occurs earlier in Mānikkavācakar's development than "Tiruvempāvai". Thiagarajan, Mysticism in

Tiruvācakam, xiv, 193-7.

⁸ Navaratnam, New Approach to Tiruvacagam, 188-193, 195.

⁹ Navaratnam's first set of identities follows the same assumptions about the formal units of the early poems of "Tiruvempāvai" as in the "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu". Her second set of identities follows the same set of formal assumptions about the early poems as in the akam interpretations of Vanmikanathan and Navanīta Kirusna Pāratiyār.

¹⁰ Navaratnam, New Approach to Tiruvacagam, 195-7.

tank to bathe. 11 This activity is the inspiration for this song. Both this activity, and Māṇikkavācakar's utterance of it, according to this interpretation, occur in Tiruvaṇṇāmalai. 12 The second setting is in the poet's mind. The poems of "Tiruvempāvai" are an imagined dialogue between himself and the incarnated devotees, and a real dialogue with himself. In the second event, the incarnated devotees urge a despondent Māṇikkavācakar to come, join them and go to Śiva. The third event is Māṇikkavācakar's effort, inspired by the exuberance of the girls whom he witnessed in Tiruvannāmalai, to arouse himself out of his discouraged state.

Navaratnam places the composition of "Tiruvempāvai", and the experience which she feels it expresses, during Māṇikkavācakar's travels from Tirupperunturai to Citamparam. The poet had been left by his guru and his guru's devotees in Tirupperunturai. Following the instructions of Śiva, he was proceeding to Citamparam, and on his way he passed through Tiruvaṇṇāmalai. While there he saw the young girls going from house to house, awakening their friends and going to the temple tank to bathe. This is the occasion which prompts the composition of the poem, according to Navaratnam.

In situating "Tiruvempāvai", Navaratnam emphasises the references to Śiva at Tiruvaṇṇāmalai, the *Mārkali* worship activity of awakening friends and going to bathe, and the state of the girl in poem 1. Navaratnam places Māṇikkavācakar in Tiruvaṇṇāmalai because in the poem Māṇikkavācakar can be understood to address Śiva in his particular form found in Tiruvaṇṇāmalai. In poem 18, Śiva is addressed as Lord of Tiruvaṇṇāmalai. Also she understands references to Śiva as *cōti* (effulgence) to refer to Śiva in

¹¹ Navaratnam, New Approach to Tiruvacagam, 195.

¹² Navaratnam, New Approach to Tiruvacagam, 188-9, 195.

¹³ Navaratnam, New Approach to Tiruvacagam, 195.

Tiruvaṇṇāmalai, because his form there is the Linga of Fire.¹⁴ The *Mārkali* activity provides the temporal setting of December and dawn, as well as the activity of awakening and the injunctions to bathe, which represent Māṇikkavācakar's effort to lift his spirits.

Navaratnam also focuses on the state of the girl in poem 1 when identifying Māṇikkavācakar's state of mind during this period of his life. Rather than being overwhelmed by love, as in Vanmikanathan's *akam* interpretation, the girl is disheartened. According to Navaratnam, Māṇikkavācakar was discouraged and lonely when he was left by Śiva and the devotees. He was discouraged because he felt that the reason he was left behind was because he was spiritually immature. He longs to be back in the community of devotees. It is in this state that he arrives in Tiruvaṇṇāmalai. He sees the joyfulness of the girls, and their efforts to encourage their friends to participate, and tries to coax himself out of his state of despondency. "Tiruvempāvai" is thus an expression of this effort. 15

The meaning of "Tiruvcmpāvai" in Navaratnam's interpretation differs from Vanmikanathan's, Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's, the "Tiruvcmpāvaik Karuttu" and Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's. In Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's, Vanmikanathan's and Navaratnam's the activity is similar, in that the group of girls awaken one girl and encourage her to join them in their activity, but the significance of this activity differs. In Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's akam interpretation, the heroine's companions encourage the heroine to participate in the Mārkali bathing ritual so she will marry the hero and they will marry his companions. In Vanmikanathan's akam interpretation, the girls are performing the appropriate ritual to gain a good husband. They try to encourage the heroine to participate in the bathing ritual but

¹⁴ Navaratnam, New Approach to Tiruvacagam, 183-4. See poems 1, 2, 5, 8, and 14. The reference in poem 5 is to the story in which Siva appears before Brahmā and Viṣṇu, as a unbounded Linga of Fire, in order to resolve a dispute between them regarding which of the three is the greatest.

¹⁵ Navaratnam, New Approach to Tiruvacagam, 194-7.

she is so consummed with love for the hero, God, that she cannot. In Navaratnam's interpretation, Māṇikkavācakar tries to lift himself out of his depression. All three of these, more human, meanings of "Tiruvempāvai" are quite different from the meanings of the Śaiva Siddhānta interpretations, where "Tiruvempāvai" is seen as either the act of creation, or as the act of purifying the soul and submerging it in an experience of bliss.

First Person Narrative World

In the first person narrative world the poem is interpreted by situating it into the sequence of events in one's own life. In the previous four frames of interpretation the interpreter situates him or herself as part of the audience of the drama which is being enacted within the narrative world in which the interpreter understands the poem. ¹⁶ In the first person narrative world, on the other hand, the interpreter puts him or herself completely within the drama. This is possible for several reasons. Firstly, the duration of the event of the poem equals the duration of the event dramatized in the poem. It is possible to actually live the event of the poem when reading or reciting it. Secondly, the narrators of "Tiruvempāvai" or "Tiruppalliyelucci" are minimal in that they simply report the speech of the poem without having any presence or identity in the poem at all. ¹⁷ Therefore, the singer can easily become the narrator of that poem. In the first person narrative world then, the interpreter is the narrator of the poems. In monologue poems, the narrator may also identify with the speaker of the poems. The ambiguity regarding the identity of the speaker invites one to

¹⁶ I am indebted to James Lindholm, an honours student in a course I was teaching in the winter term of 1993, for the insight that in *akam* poems the reader may situate him or herself variously with respect to the action of the poem and can then take up various attitudes concerning that action.

¹⁷ See Seymour Chatman's discussion of minimal or non-narrated narratives in Story and Discourse: Narrative Structure in Fiction and Film (1978; rpt. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1989), 166ff.

provide an identity. Since the narrator of the poems has no identity either, the narrator can become the speaker. This means that to speak about the event is to enact it. Finally, since the speaker is also the main character of the events of the poem, the interpreter can become the main character and situate the event within their own life while reciting or singing the poem.

The situation for dialogues is a bit more complicated. The possibility of the narrator taking on the role of the speaker in the dialogue poems is impeded by the change of speakers. ¹⁸ The speaker may, however, take on the role of the narrator, and incorporate the event of relating the poems as an event in his or her own life.

"Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" in the First Person Narrative World When people whose work I read, or with whom I spoke, situated "Tiruvempāvai" or "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" in the first person narrative world, they tended to do so in a brief and vague way. Generally, there was not the sustained discussion of the poems situated in this narrative world as there was in the interpretations presented so far.

The strategy people use to situate the poems in the first person narrative world differs somewhat from those in the interpretations presented earlier. Rather than providing a specific identity for the speaker and indicating the specific event which the utterance is in that narrative world, the interpreters indicate the significance of situating the poem in the first person biography in a general way. There is a general consensus among the examples of interpretation provided here that the significance of "Tiruvempāvai" or "Tiruppalliyelucci" is that one may receive benefits by singing the poems to God or that one

Truppaginyciacer is that one may receive benefits by singing the poems to God of that one

¹⁸ Navaratnam overcomes this impediment between narrator and speaker in the dialogue poems by having the narrator take on both speaker roles - Māṇikkavācakar dialogues with himself.

may make requests to God through the poems. The suggested benefit or request may vary from interpretation to interpretation.

In this style of situating the poems, the identity of the speaker is not provided explicitly. It is assumed in the statement of the significance. The speaker is anyone who sings the songs or who makes requests through the songs. Anybody can sing the songs and therefore anybody can situate the poems in their own life and be eligible for the benefits or make requests to God through the poems. Sometimes an interpreter may also utilise singular or plural first person markers when explaining the poems. This technique emphasises that the poem is being situated in the first person biography.

People can suggest to others only in a general way what the meaning or significance of the poem is when it is situated in the first person narrative world because the meaning may vary from individual biography to individual biography. In order to know what "Tiruvempāvai" or "Tiruppalliyelucci" actually means in the first person narrative world one would have to look at specific examples of people situating the poems in specific contexts. We can, however, consider what people have suggested the significance is of interpreting "Tiruvempāvai" or "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the first person narrative world.

Three examples of the significance of "Tiruvempāvai" and four examples of "Tiruppaḷḷiyeḷucci" are provided below. All the interpretations are from the twentieth century. The three interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" are taken from publications. Two of the interpretations of "Tiruppaḷḷiyeḷucci" are from questionnaire respondents and one is from an interview. The fourth is from a twentieth century publication.

"Tiruvempāvai" in the First Person Narrative World

Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār, in the introductory comments to "Tiruvempāvai" in his 1927 edition of the *Tiruvācakam*, says that one should recite "Tiruvempāvai" as part of one's

daily devotions. The person should arise before dawn, go outside, clean oneself, face north and east, apply ash on the forehead, worship Kaṇapati and the guru, recite the *Pañcākṣaram* and then recite *Tiruvempāvai* with great devotion. If one does not do the singing daily, it should be done at least during *Mārkali* month. Those who worship in this way are worthy to receive God's grace, and they will obtain *Tiruvaruļnāṇam*, enlightenment. ¹⁹ Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār's perspective emphasises the act of reciting rather than any aspect of the poem itself, but it is clear that the significance of the poem is that one personally gains enlightenment by singing it.

Ji. Cuppiramaṇiya Piḷḷai in an 1986 essay on "Tiruvempāvai" 20 indicates that there are both worldly and other-worldly benefits to be gained by singing "Tiruvempāvai" in *Mārkaḷi*. When discussing these benefits he employs the first person plural markers which have the effect of emphasising that singing "Tiruvempāvai" should be an event done in one's own life. Firstly he indicates that *Mārkaḷi* itself is a good time for gaining personal benefits. *Mārkaḷi* is a time in which darkness leaves and light rises, and is, therefore, the appropriate time for the "destruction of *our* distress" (italics mine), for the "end of confusion", for the end of affliction, and for the arising of pleasure. Further on he explains that one should arise at dawn, bathe in cool water and sing the *pāvai* songs. If one does this, then one will obtain bodily strength, wisdom, knowledge and grace for the soul.²¹ He concludes his essay with the injunction to the reader: "Let us study those [poems] and obtain the fruits (translation mine)."²² The use of the first person plural markers

¹⁹ Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār, *Tiruvācakamum Tirukkōvaiyār Ceyyuṭṭiraṭṭum:* Kurippuraiyum Viṣaya Cūcaṇamum, 2nd ed. (Ceṇṇai: Rōpil Acciyttiracālai, 1927), 83.

²⁰ Ji. Cuppiramaṇiya Piḷḷai, "Pāvaic Cirippu" in *Tiruvācaka Negi* (Citamparam: Maṇivācakar Patippakam, 1986), 186-191.

²¹ Cuppiramaniya Pillai, "Pāvaic Cirippu," 186.

²² "avarraipa paţittup payan peruvomāka", Cuppiramaniya Pillai, "Pāvaic Cirippu," 191.

emphasises that the people who should sing are himself and whoever reads his essay, i.e. particular individuals. The author then asserts that people should bathe and sing the "Tiruvempāvai" poems in *Mārkali* so that they will be healthy and wise and will obtain grace. Cuppiramaṇiya Piḷḷai emphasises both *Mārkali* month and the act of singing when situating the poem in the first person narrative world.

"Tiruvempāvai" is included in a collection of songs of praise from the *Tirumuṇai* and other texts, compiled and published in 1977 by a prominent industrialist of Madurai, Ti. Cu. Cokkalinkam Ccttiyār.²³ He also refers to the importance of recitation and its benefits. Under the heading of "tradition" (*marapu*) he indicates that those who customarily recite other *Tirumuṇai* songs will recite only "Tiruvempāvai" during the ten days leading up to and including *Tiruvatirai* day in *Mārkali* month. He argues in his introduction that such recitation brings worldy benefits. As he does not indicate any specific benefits for singing "Tiruvempāvai", perhaps he means the regular benefits of recitation, but under the heading of "fruit" he indicates that if the singing is done as a young girl's vow, the monsoon rain will come, the crops will grow, and the prosperity of the world will increase.²⁴ In situating "Tiruvempāvai" in the first person narrative world, specifically for young girls, he is emphasing the act of singing, and also emphasising poem 16, which is usually understood to be a request for rain, and also possibly poem 17, which can be understood as a general injunction to bathe so that well-being will flourish.

²³ Ti. Cu. Cokkalinkam Cettiyār, *Palan Tarum Tirumuraip Patikankaļum Tutippāṭalkaļum (Varalāru-Palan-Uraiyuṭan)* (Maturai Valamapuri Accakam, 1977). ²⁴ Cokkalinkam Cettiyār, *Palan Tarum Tirumurai*, 170.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" in the First Person Narrative World

"Tiruppalliyelucci" is also situated in first person biography as an event in which the person sings the poems in order to make requests with a view to obtaining benefits, or without specifically making requests, in order to receive some benefit. At least two types of requests can be made through singing "Tiruppalliyelucci": those which pertain to the singers' daily activities; and requests for *ñāṇam* (enlightenment).

Two questionnaire respondents indicated that the significance of "Tiruppalliyelucci" is making requests connected with one's daily work. For one person, a 45 year old woman, it was awakening God and receiving permission to begin one's daily affairs. For the other respondent, a 36 year old man, it was awakening God and asking God about the appropriate duties to perform. Both people employed first person plural pronouns in their responses, indicating that others as well as themselves may situate "Tiruppalliyelucci" in their life in this way. These interpretations focus on the awakening of God and the request about service found in poem 7. These views of "Tiruppalliyelucci" are similar in this way to Aruṇācalam's puram interpretation, but different in that in these interpretations, it is any individual who may make this request, whereas in Aruṇācalam's interpretation, it was Māṇikkavācakar who made the request.

The idea that "Tiruppalliyelucci" is a means through which the singer requests enlightenment is brought out in the explanation of the meaning of the poem in an interview with an elderly woman who is well respected for her knowledge of *Tiruvācakam*:

One conception of *palliyelucci* is awakening God and saying "come into the heart". "O God! come into my heart, remove my ignorance, graciously arise in my heart so that

emakkuriya panikalai anaiyitu ena ventuvatu."

^{25 &}quot;Kālaiyil paļļiyarai tirappatarku munnāl paṭappaṭum pāṭal. Iraivanai eluppuvatāka tōnrinum nām nam aluvalkaļai toṭaṅkuvatarku Iraivaniṭam anumati peruvatāka kollalām".
26 "Pāvanaiyil Iraivan uraṅkuvatāka enni Iraivanai tiruppalliyininru eluppi

knowledge will come, give knowledge to me". The song which asks this is *palliyelucci* (translation mine).²⁷

The interpreter indicates that she is giving a general interpretation of "Tiruppalliyelucci" where she says: "the song which asks this is "Tiruppalliyelucci"." She, however, makes it clear that the significance of the poem is precisely as an individual request to God, by expanding on the initial statement about the song in a variety of ways, using a string of first person singular pronouns. This interpretation focuses on the refrain which requests God to arise from the bed. Here the bed is the speaker's heart and the arising is the arising of God as enlightening knowledge in the speaker's heart. This interpretation, like Kāli Tānṭavarāyar's, associates the "arising" in "Tiruppalliyelucci" with enlightenment.

Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār is more specific about the benefits of the daily recitation of "Tiruppalliyelucci". I translate as follows: "Those who recite this *patikam* daily in the early morning will be worthy of Śiva's grace. Āṇavamalam will wear away gradually and be reduced." Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār's interpretation seems to have no obvious link with specific poems in "Tiruppalliyelucci", unless it is a correlation between the removal of spiritual darkness and the removal of physical darkness. This association is made in a poem by Cēkkilār, the author of the *Periya Purāṇam*. He says: "Tiruppalliyelucci is the removal of the inner darkness of those adorned with sacred ash and of the outer darkness of full night." If this is so, Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār is focusing on the dawn described

²⁷ "Paļļiyelucci enral iraivanai eluppi uļļattilē vā enrē collukira pāvanai. Iraivanē ennutaiyē uļļattilē vā, ennutaiyē ariyāmai pōkki, arivu varumpatiyāka ennuļļuttilē eļuntaruļi enakku nanattai kotu enru kēţkira pāṭal paļļiyelucci." Interview with the Author, Madurai District, October 1990.

²⁸ Civa Aruņakiri Mutaliyār, *Tiruvācakamum Tirukkōvaiyār Ceyyuṭṭiraṭṭum*, 142.

²⁹ As quoted by Aruṇācalam: "nīraṇintār akattiruļum niraikaṅkur purattiruļum māravarum tiruppaļļiyelucci". Cēkkilār says this in the story about saint Tirunāvukkaracar. Mu. Aruṇācalam, "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" in *Tiruvācakam: Cila Ārāccik Kurippukkal*, (Citamparam: Caiva Cittānta Makā Camāja, 1965), 19.

in a number of the poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci". In any case, the specific benefit, in his interpretation, is the removal of the individual singer's spiritual darkness.

Summary

The interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the biographical worlds indicate the significance of the utterance of the poem as an event in the life of particular individuals. Navaratnam understands "Tiruvempāvai" in terms of Māṇikkavācakar's biography as the poet's own efforts to lift himself out of his dispondent state after he had been left by Śiva and the other devotees. The significance of the poems in the first person biography is that specific requests can be made through the poems, or some benefit may be gained by singing them. The latter interpretation is similar to Aruṇācalam's interpretation of "Tiruppalliyelucci" in which Māṇikkavācakar is understood to be awakening God and asking what service he should perform. The examples of first person interpretation provided here indicate, in a general way, what the significance might be of situating "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" in one's own life. To assess the actual meaning of situating these poems in first person biographies, specific examples from particular situations are required, which will be left to Part III.

However, before proceeding to Part III it is appropriate to bring into focus some of the issues evident in the understandings of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" presented in Part II. In chapter 7, the strategies of interpretation, and the implications of these strategies for the notion of "text" and the meaning of the "text", and their precedents in interpretation of classical poetry will be discussed.

II: Chapter 7: Interpretive Strategies and Classical Precedents

The strategies of interpretation seen in the preceding chapters have precedents in the colophons and organization of the classical poems. The classical poems are situated in the *akam* and *puram* frames by the colophons accompanying the poems, and also, in some collections, by the organizational pattern of the poems. These features situate the poems by providing identities for the speaker, and sometimes for the addressee, by indicating the occasion on which the poem was uttered, or by identifying the theme of the poem.

There are a few other aspects of the basic strategy of interpretation which were not specifically mentioned in the preceeding chapters. One is that different interpreters will sometimes take the same poem and situate it as two different events in the same narrative frame. On the other hand the same interpreter may use more than one narrative world when interpreting a poem. Although there is considerable lattitude among interpreters regarding how one may interpret a poem, there are sometimes disagreements regarding the legitimacy of using some narrative worlds or frames of interpretation.

The interpretations in the preceeding chapters and the poetics of classical poetry make similar assumptions about what constitutes a coherent understanding of a poem. The coherence of an interpretation of a poem depends upon whether the interpreter has been able to fit the poem coherently within his or her chosen narrative frame. In addition, there is an assumption, especially in *akam* poetics, that poems are inherently ambiguous. The combination of a principle of coherence lying outside the text, and the principle that the poetry is ambiguous, results in an interestingly fluid notion of "text" and "interpretation".

This chapter will begin with a discussion of the interpretive strategies of the *akam* and *puram* poems cited in chapter 2, in order to demonstrate that the same strategies are at work in the interpretations of classical poems and devotional poems. Then the use of

narrative frames in the classical context, and then in the devotional context, will be considered. Following that, the idea of coherence and ambiguity will be considered first with reference to the classical context, and then with reference to "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci".

Strategies for the Interpretation of Classical Poems

The combination of the organizational pattern and the colophons of the classical poems situate individual poems as a situation in either the *akam* or *puram* frames. Below are two tables providing the colophon information for the *akam* and *puram* poems cited in chapter 2. The sample of *akam* poems were selected from three anthologies: *Kuruntokai*, *Ainkurunūru* and *Kalittokai*. The colophons for these poems provide *akam* characters' identities for the speakers and addressees of the poems. They also identify the *akam* occasion on which each poem was uttered. The *Kuruntokai* colophons also provides the name of the poet of each poem. The names of the poets and the general situation of the poems taken from *Ainkurunūru* and *Kalittokai* are known from their position in their respective anthologies.¹

The colophons of *Kuruntokai* provide the identity the speaker, the occasion on which the poem was uttered (which sometimes includes the identity of the addressee), and the name of the poet. The organizational pattern of *Ainkurunūru* and *Kalittokai* provides the identity of the poet, and indicates in which of the five basic *akam* situations the poem should be placed. One poet is considered to be responsible for all the poems composed under one of the five situations. The colophons indicate the occasion on which the poem was uttered. M. Shanmugam Pillai and David Ludden, trans., *Kuruntokai: An Anthology of Classical Love Poetry* (Madurai: Koodal Publishers, 1976), xiii; John Ralston Marr, *The Eight Anthologies: A Study in Early Tamil Literature* (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1985), 338-9, 348-9, 357-60, 363-4; K. V. Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature*, vol. 10 in *A History of Indian Literature* (Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1974), 12-3, 47-8.

1	Poem <i>Kuruntokai</i> 42 ²	Occasion "what her friend (said to him, refusing politely, when he said he wanted more and more meetings with her at night)"	Poet Kapilar
2	Kuruntokai 36 ³	"What she said (to her friend, who showed signs of grief during the pre-marital separation"	Paraņar
3	Kuruntokai 11 ⁴	"What she said (to her heart, to be heard by her friend when he was gone)"	Māmūlaṇār
4	Aińkurunūru 295	"What the heroine said thinking about [her] heart which had gone with [the hero who] when he had obtained permission to marry, left and was prolonged" ⁵	Kapilar (kuṛiñci)
5	Aińku <u>r</u> unū <u>r</u> u 299	"what the hero said to himself with a joyful heart when he saw the heroine who had experienced first union amongst her friends" ⁶	Kapilar (kuṛiñci)
6	Kalittokai 94	"a dialogue between the hunchback and the dwarf who are slaves because of the statement "Learned men say that puṇartal [union], pirital [separtation] etc., are not avoided among slaves and servants, but they are outside the range of the five tiṇais mentioned, i.e. they belong to kaikkilai and peruntiṇai".7	Marutanilanā kanār (marutam)

² Shanmugam Pillai and Ludden, trans., *Kuruntokai*, 116. Ramanujan provides: "What her friend said to Him": A. K. Ramanujan, *The Interior Landscape: Love Poems frpm a Classical Tamil Anthology* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1967), 39.

³ Shanmugam Pillai and Ludden, trans., *Kuruntokai*, 1976:141.

⁴ Shanmugam Pillai and Ludden, trans., Kuruntokai, 416.

⁵ Translation mine, from Po. Vē. Cōmacuntaraṇār, *Ainkurunūru* (Tirunelvēli: Tennintiya Caivacittānta Nūrpatippuk Kalakam Limitet, 1972), 403.

⁶ Translation mine, from Comacuntaranar, Ainkurunūru, 410.

⁷ The colophon is translated from Po. Vē. Cōmacuntaraṇār, *Kalittokai* (Tirunelvēli: Teṇṇintiya Caivacittānta Nūṛpatippuk Kalakam Limiṭeṭ, 1975), 114. The quoted statement is *sūtra* 24 of *Tolkāppiyam Porul Atikāram* as numbered in P.S. Subrahmanya Sastri, trans. and comm., *Tolkāppiyam: The Earliest Extant Tamil Grammar Text in Tamil, and Roman Scripts with a Critical Commentary in English: Tolkāppiyam Porul Atikāram-*

The colophon for *Kuruntokai* 42 indicates that the poem was addressed by the heroine's friend to the hero when he requested her to arrange meetings between him and the heroine. This clue places the poem in the fourth of the four premarital stages in the development of the love relationship. The colophon of *Kuruntokai* 36 indicates that the heroine is speaking to her friend, expressing her grief at the hero's absence. That places this poem in the fourth stage also because it assumes that the heroine has had union with the hero, the friend knows about it, and the hero has left. According to the colophon, *Kuruntokai* 11 is spoken by the heroine to her heart, to be overheard by her friend. This poem could be set at the same stage in the sequence as *Kuruntokai* 36.

The two poems from *Ainkurunūru* are about lovers' union as these are included in the *kuriūci* group of the anthology. The colophon of *Ainkurunūru* 295 indicates that the speaker of the poem is the heroine, but it does not provide an identity for the addressee. The colophon sets this poem at the very end of the premarital stage or at the beginning of the marital stage because the hero has obtained permission to marry and has gone, possibly to collect wealth for the wedding. The colophon indicates that *Ainkurunūru* 299 is spoken by the hero to himself. It sets the poem very early in the relationship as it mentions the first union with the heroine.

The placement of *Kalittokai* 94 in the anthology indicates that it is a dialogue between a hunchback and a dwarf. The colophon confirms the identity of the speaker and addressee implied in the poem. It does not, however, indicate an occasion for the utterance of the poem. The colophon justifies the hunchback and dwarf as being characters in a poem because they are slaves and can be involved in a love relationship. *Kalittokai* 94 is

not, however, considered to be a proper *akam* poem because slaves cannot be involved in a love relationship in the refined way of the hero and heroine of *akam* proper.⁸

The puram poems provided in chapter 2 were selected from Purananuru. Each of the Purananuru poems is accompanied by a colophon which, when it is complete, identifies the situation (tinai), the theme (turai), the hero and the poet. Some colophons provide additional information such as the occasion on which the poem was sung. 10

The colophons which situate poems in the *puram* narrative world, therefore, provide slightly different information than do the *akam* colophons. Rather than providing the occasion on which the poem is uttered, the *puram* colophons provide the theme of the poem and the identity of the hero if it is known. They also suggest an identity for the speaker, but they only suggest an identity for the addressee if he is the hero of the poem. The formula in the colophon for identifying the hero and the poet is: "he or she sang about him" (*avanai avar pāṭiyatu*).¹¹ The poet's or the hero's name will be used in the formula if the poet and hero were not the author and subject of the previous poem in the anthology. This formula for identifying the poet and the hero strongly suggests that the poet is usually identified as the speaker of the poem. This technique situates the poem as an event in the lives of two specific persons: the poet and the hero. In this way the previously known biography provides the sequence of events in which to understand *puram* poems.

#	Poem	Tiņai (Situation)	Turai (Theme)	Hero of Poem	Poet
1	Puranānūru 92	pāṭāṇ	iya <u>n</u> mo <u>l</u> i	Ātiyamāṇ Neṭumāṇ Añci	Auvaiyār

⁸ See chapter 3 regarding why the hero and heroine, but not slaves and servants, are suitable characters for the five *akam* situations.

⁹ Marr, The Eight Anthologies, 73-74.

¹⁰ See for example the colophon accompanying *Puranānūru* 113 and 215.

¹¹ This is a portion of the colophon from *Puranānūru* 92.

2	Puranāṇūru 87	tumpai	tāṇaimaṛam	Ātiyamāṇ Neṭumāṇ Añci	Auvaiyār
3	Puranāṇūru 101	pāṭāṇ	paricilkaṭā nilai	Ātiyamān Neţumān Añci	Auvaiyār
4	Puranāṇūru 312	vākai	mūtinmullai	-	Ponmuțiyār
5	Puranāṇūru 128	pāṭāṇ	vāļttu or iyanmoļi	Ãy ¹²	Uraiyūr Eņiccēri Muţamōciyār

According to the colophons, Puranānūru 92. 87, and 101 are poems by Auvaiyār about Ātiyamān Neṭumān Añci. Puranānūru 92 and 101 have the same situation of pāṭāṇ (praise) but different themes. The theme given for Puranānūru 92 is iyanmoli. The Purapporuļvenpāmālai offers two interpretations for this theme: it is a request that the donor give to the supplicant like generous people give; or it is praise of the king. 13 Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram 86 lists the theme iyanmolivāltu and says it involves praising the king with reference to his ancestors. In this poem, it seems that Auvaiyār is praising Ātiyamān Neṭumān Añci's lineage. The theme for Puranānūru 101 is, on the other hand, paricilkaṭānilai. Neither Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram nor the Purapporuļvenpāmālai lists this theme. The Tamil Lexicon explains it as: "[the t]heme of soliciting bounty from a patron who delays favour." 14 In this poem, Auvaiyār is addressing her heart and indirectly requesting benefits from Ātiyamān Neṭumān Neṭumān Añci.

The theme of *Puranānūru* 87 is *tāṇaimaram* in the situation of *tumpai* (open battle). *Purapporuļveṇpāmālai* provides three possible interpretations for this theme. The most appropriate one is that it is about expressing compassion for the enemies who have to

¹² I am following the colophon which says: "Āyai uraiyūr ēniccēri muṭamōciyār pāṭiyatu" (*Puranānūru*, p. 245); and Marr (*The Eight Anthologies*, 80), in taking Āy to be the name of the hero rather than the name of the place.

¹³ Purapporulyenpāmālai 9:6, 7.

¹⁴ Tamil Lexicon (Madras: University of Madras, 1982) cites this poem as the reference.

meet the stronger army in battle. 15 *Puranānūru* 87 is Auvaiyār's warning to enemies about the capabilities of Ātiyamān Netumān Añci.

The colophon of *Puranāṇūru* 312 identifies the poet as Ponmuṭiyār. ¹⁶ The colophon does not use the usual formula of saying the poet sings about someone. It just provides the poet's name and therefore does not suggest as strongly as is usually done that the poet is the speaker. The colophon does not indicate who either the addressee or the hero of the poem are. The theme, *mūtinmullai* in the situation of *vākai* ("ideals of achievement, victory")¹⁷ is, according to the *Purapporuļveṇpāmālai*, about the heroic quality of women of a particular tribe, the Marakkuṭi. ¹⁸ Therefore, Ponmuṭiyār's poem is about the heroic quality of the Marakkuṭi women.

The colophon for Puranānūru 128 indicates that the poem is by Uraiyūr Eniccēri Muṭamōciyār about the hero Āy. The theme is $v\bar{a}lttu$ or iyanmoli, as was the case for Puranānūru 92, the most appropriate interpretation of this theme is praising the nature of the king. Puranānūru 128 is therefore Uraiyūr Eniccēri Muṭamōciyār's praise of Āy's nature.

The interpretive strategies exhibited in the classical poems are the same as those evident in the interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" presented above. As we saw in Part I, chapter 2, not one of the speakers of either an *akam* or a *puram* poem cited had a specific identity. At most, the poems conveyed the gender or role of the

¹⁵ Purapporuļveņpāmālai 9.5. The other two versions are: describing the warrior who because of his ability fights without perishing and this averts disaster; and describing the strength of the king who causes battle. Purapporuļveņpāmālai 9:3 and 4.

¹⁶ Ramanujan does not include Ponmuţiyar among his list of women poets: *Poems of Love and War*, 323. N. Subramanian identifies the poet as a woman in *The Pre-Pallavan Tamil Index (Index of historical material in Pre-Pallavan Tamil Literature*), Madras University Historical Series No. 23 (Madras: University of Madras, 1966), 618.

¹⁷ Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 252.

¹⁸ Purapporuļveņpāmālai 8.21.

speaker. The *akam* colophons of the interpreters supply the speaker with an identity from the *akam* narrative world. The colophons of the interpreters also provide identities for the addressees with the one exception of *Aiṅkuṛunūṛu* 295. Each colophon also identifies the occasion on which the poem was uttered, using the list of *akam* situations, and thereby makes the utterance of the poem an event in the *akam* narrative world. The poet's name is given for each poem, but the poet is not equated with the speaker of the poems. Therefore, we can say that *akam* poems are situated in the *akam* narrative world by identifying characters of the poems as *akam* characters, and by indicating that the occasion on which the poem was uttered is an *akam* event.

The colophons of the interpreters of the *purum* poems situate each poem in the *purum* world by identifying the themes of the poems as *purum* themes, and by situating the poems in particular biographical worlds. All five poems are given themes from the *purum* repertoire which indicate the type of *purum* event the utterance of the poem involves (praise, requesting benefits, giving advice). The colophons strongly suggest who the speaker is in four of the five poems, and less strongly in the fifth (*Purunānūru* 312). The colophons identify the hero in the same four, and in three of these the hero is identified in the poem itself.¹⁹ In sum, four of the poems are situated in the lives of two historical individuals, the poet and the hero. *Purunānūru* 312 alone is situated in one biography, the poet's.

The interpreters of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" in the preceeding chapters follow the same strategies evident in the classical colophons. "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" were situated in the *akam* world by identifying the speakers of the two poems as *akam* characters and by identifying the occasion of the utterance of the poem as

¹⁹ The hero has no specific identity in either Puranānūru 87 or 312.

an akam event. "Tiruppalliyelucci" was situated in the puram narrative world by casting the speaker of the poems as a puram bard, and as a particular person, the poet Māṇikkavācakar, and also by identifying the event of the poem as a puram event. "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" were situated in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world by the two interpreters by assigning the speakers roles from the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world, and by identifying the event or theme of the poem (in Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpretation of "Tiruppalliyelucci") to be an event or theme in that narrative world. "Tiruvempāvai" was situated in Māṇikkavācakar's biographical narrative world by assigning Māṇikkavācakar the role of the speaker, and by identifying the utterance of the poem to be a particular event in Māṇikkavācakar's life. Finally, "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" were situated in the first person biographical world by assuming that anyone could be the speaker of the poem, and by suggesting what type of event the utterance of the poem could be, when situated in one's own life.

The Use of Narrative Worlds

The classical poems, like "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci", can be situated differently by different interpreters within the same narrative frame, and they can be situated in more than one narrative frame at the same time. Interpreters of classical poems sometimes disagree about where in a particular frame a poem should be placed. Shanmugan Pillai and Ludden make the following statement concerning the *akam* collection, *Kuruntokai*:

Each poem is a dramatic monologue spoken by one of the characters at one narrative moment, although ambiguities in composition and interpretation of the poems sometimes renders it the case that one of several characters might be speaking in the poems, at one of several possible narrative moments. For example, many of the poems

attributed to "her friend" by the writers of the colophons might have been spoken by the female lover herself and vice versa.²⁰

Parthasarathi makes a similar statement regarding the puram collection, Puranānūru:

it is also seen that the specifications of colophons often do not fit (or only loosely fit) the content of the poems and that a verse is, on many occasions, assignable to more than one *turai* [theme].²¹

According to Parthasarathi, it is also the case that some poems identified as *puram* poems could be identified with several different *puram* events.

We recall that Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār and Vanmikanathan situated "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" as different events, even though both were within the *akam* narrative frame. Likewise, the author of "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu", and Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar situated "Tiruvempāvai" at different points in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world, and supplied different identities from that world for the speakers of the poems.

A second pattern of frame usage in the interpretations above involved more than one narrative frame to interpret the poem. Interpretations of classical poems are generally understood within one frame or the other, but even there an interpretation occasionally utilizes both the *purum* and *akam* frames at once. Shanmugan Pillai and Ludden provide a modern example. They made the following comments after their translation of *Kuruntokai* 147:

Those separated from their lovers do not scold dreams for waking them with visions of their lovers; even though it is usually unpleasant to be wakened from sleep. The poet himself is a king; perhaps he had a dream of his wife when he was on a campaign of war.²²

²⁰ Shanmugam Pillai and Ludden, trans., Kuruntokai, 22.

²¹ J. Parthasarathi, "Puram Poetry" in *Encyclopaedia of Tamil Literature*, vol. 1 (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1990), 166.

²² Shanmugam Pillai and Ludden, trans., *Kuruntokai*, 409. They say in the introduction that these comments are their own, pp. xiii-iv. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār refers to this poem when justifying his interpretation of "Tiruppalliyclucci". See chapter 3.

In the above comments, Shanmugan Pillai and Ludden employ both the *akam* and *puram* frames of interpretation. Their translation of the colophon for this poem identifies the speaker as the hero, and the situation to be "separation from his lover after a dream". The event itself is an *akam* event, but that *akam* event is then situated as a *puram* event by suggesting that the king is at war, and more importantly, by making the utterance an event in the life of the poet, Kōpperuñcōlan. With this interpretive move the poet is now speaking in his own voice, so the "impersonal" *akam* poem is now a "personal" *puram* poem.

Some of the interpreters discussed in earlier chapters above combined narrative frames when interpreting "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci". Vanmikanathan, for instance, employs both the *akam* frame and the poet's biography to interpret the poems. The collection of poems that Vanmikanathan interpreted within the *akam* frame were a group of poems that in turn were seen as part of a particular stage of Māṇikkavācakar's spiritual development. Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār's dominant frame of interpretation is the first person biography, however his explanation of the benefits of singing "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" were expressed in Śaiva Siddhānta terminology. He therefore utilises both the first person biography and the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative frames in explaining the poems. Navaratnam invokes the *akam* frame for poems 9, 15 and 19 within an interpretation of "Tiruvempāvai" where the dominant frame is the poet's biography.²³

Disagreements among interpreters of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" regarding in which narrative world a poem should be placed has a counterpart in the classical context. The classification of poems into the narrative worlds of *akam* and *puram*

²³ Ratna Navaratnam, *A New Approach to Tiruvacagam* (Annamalainagar: Annamalai University, 1971), 190-3.

is sometimes difficult because even the fundamental criteria for deciding whether a poem is akam or puram varies. John Samuel, for instance describes it as follows:

The classification of *Cankam* poetry into *akam* and *puram* is clearly made on the basis of the thematic content rather than another criteria. The former deals with romantic sentiments of love and associated situations; the latter is concerned with the heroic sentiments and matters not based on the subjectivism of love.²⁴

Parthasarathi, on the other hand, writes:

The line of demarcation between puram and akam verses is stated to be the avoidance of specific personal names of the heroes in the latter, mentioning only generic appellations; this contrasts with the use of such names allowed in the former (Tolkāppiyam, Poruļ. Akattiṇattiṇaiyiyal -54). . . . There is, however, freedom in the akam verse-division for using personal names as part of the descriptive equipment of the landscape (karupporuļ). As a result of this position, the exposition of many thematic details of puram (like battles, town and city life, etc.) gets included as allusions in the backgrounds depicted by the akam verses. Long poems with the akam content of love situations (e.g. Neṭunalvāṭa in Pattuppāṭṭu) are classified on theoretical grounds under puram if they happen to slip in a personal name or an indication thereof.

On the other hand, long poems predominantly dealing with *puram* detail but strung on the frame-work of a love-situation as the speech of a character in the love drama (like **Pattinappālai** in **Pattuppāttu**) get classified under *akam* verse-division.²⁵

Ramanujan provides another example: when a woman is thought to speak in her own voice about love, the poem is classified as a *puram* poem.²⁶ In this case the topic is love and based on Samuel's criteria, we might expect it to be understood according to *akam*

²⁴ John Samuel, "Akappatal" in *Encyclopaedia of Tamil Literature*, vol. 2 (Madras: Institute of Asian Studies, 1992), 40.

²⁵ Parthasarathi, "Puram Poetry," 163.

²⁶ Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 257. He refers to *Puranāṇūru* 84. Interestingly enough, Ramanujan provides other examples of poems understood to be spoken by the heroine, composed by women poets. These, however, remain classified as *akam* poems. See for example *Kuruntokai* 68 (p. 21), 118 (p. 71), 202 (p. 91), and 325 (p. 49). Subbiah cites three examples of poems which in terms of content are love poems, but because the name of the hero is mentioned in the colophon, the poems are classified as *puram* poems. These poems are *Puranāṇūru* 84, cited by Ramanujan, and *Puranāṇūru* 83 and 85. G. Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India: Ā Study of Classical Tamil Texts" (Ph.D. diss., McMaster University, 1988), 194 n. 215.

conventions, but, the sentiment is attributed to a specific person, and the interpretive strategy becomes *puram*.

Interpreters of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" also disagree over how the two poems should be understood. Vanmikanathan dismisses "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" because he cannot see what "Tiruvempāvai" has to do with creation. In Vanmikanathan's understanding, the poem makes sense as understood within the Tamil path of love (i.e. the *akam* narrative world).²⁷ Navaratnam on the other hand dismisses "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" because "much of the special charm of this group of spontaneous poetry gets lost under the weight of this philosophical approach". In her mind the true meaning of the poems is to be found in the poet's expressions of his spiritual experience, and therefore they must be understood within the poet's biography.²⁸ Both of these interpreters reject the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative frame.

On the other hand, according to Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār, the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world is the correct context in which to understand "Tiruvempāvai". He rejects any interpretation which construes the devotee as the beloved and God as the lover. That is, he rejects any interpretations within the *akam* narrative world such as those of Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's and Vanmikanathan's. His primary reason is that such interpretations are inconsistent with the Śaiva perspective which he believes does not (like the Vaiṣṇavas) hold that the soul is embodied in the state of salvation. Since "Tiruvempāvai" is a Śaiva poem, he argues that it should be understood within the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative frame.²⁹

²⁷ G. Vanmikanathan, *Pathway to God through the Thiruvaachakam: An Original Interpretation and Complete Translation*, 2nd ed. (Thiruppanandal: Thiruppanandal Kasi Mutt, 1980), 213-4.

²⁸ Navaratnam, New Approach to Tiruvacagam, 194.

²⁹ Specifically, according to Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār, Vaiṣṇavas understand the soul to have a divine body in the state of salvation (*mutti*) with which such a pleasure could be experienced. The Śaivas do not accept any embodied state as a state of release (*mutti*), and maintain that gender distinctions belong to the body alone. Secondly, the female

Interpretations of classical poems and of the devotional poems, "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci", thus both utilize the same basic strategy. They interpret a poem within a narrative frame by assigning identity to the characters of the poems, particularly the speaker, and by situating the utterance of the poem as an event in that particular narrative frame. Within the basic strategy there is considerable interpretive freedom. There are a number of narrative frames from which an interpreter may choose. An interpreter may situate a poem at more than one place in a particular narrative sequence. An interpreter may choose to use more than one frame to interpret a single poem. There is sometimes disagreement among interpreters, however, regarding where in a particular narrative frame a poem should be situated, or which narrative worlds are legitimate frames of interpretation for particular poems.

Coherence and Textual Ambiguity

Another feature which the interpretations in the preceding chapters share with the classical poetry is the presupposition that the coherency of the meaning of the poem is determined in part by the narrative background against which the poem is understood. This presupposition is seen in the articulation of *akam* poetics and is manifest in interpretations of *akam* poems. The theoretical texts which discuss *akam* poetics formulate a pattern of signs and things signified, which constitute the components of the *akam* narrative world. The signs are the elements of the poetic geography, which consists of the regions, the

Vaiṣṇava saint, Āṇṭāḷ, sang "Tiruppāvai", and is understood by tradition to have married God and to have obtained release. The Śaiva female poet saint, Kāraikkālammaiyār referred to God as "Appā" and does not ask for God to be a husband. Thirdly, the Śaivas accept four paths as a means for obtaining release: servant-master, son-father, friend-friend, and student-teacher; but they do not accept the beloved-lover path. Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār, Māṇikkavācaka Cuvāmikaļ Tiruvācakam Tirukkōvaiyār Ākiya Eṭṭān Tirumurai [Kurippuraiyuṭan] (Tarumapuram: Tarumapuram Ātīnam, 1966), 264-6.

seasons, and the times of day (*mutarporul*), and the animate and inanimate elements which inhabit those regions (*karupporul*). The things signified are the human moods associated with love (*uripporul*). According to *akam* poetics, a poet wanting to create an *akam* poem should express a thought about one of the moods by using the elements of the poetic geography which function as signs for that mood.³⁰ Understanding a poem in the *akam* frame, then, depends upon knowing the pattern of conventions which give each sign its significance, and upon recognizing the different elements of the poem as signs in a pattern.

Ramanujan's explanation of *Kuruntokai* 3 provides an example of how an *akam* poem is understood in the *akam* frame:

What She said

Bigger than earth, certainly, higher than the sky, more unfathomable than the waters is this love for this man of the mountain slopes where bees make rich honey from the flowers of the kuriñci that has such black stalks.

Tēvakulattār Kuruntokai 3

The kuriñci flower and the mountain scene clearly mark this as a kuriñci poem about lovers' union. The union is not described or talked about; it is enacted by the "inset" scene of the bees making honey from the flowers of the kuriñci. The lover is not only the lord of the mountain; he is like the mountain he owns. Describing the scene describes his passion. The kuriñci, being a plant that takes about twelve years to come to flower, carries a suggestion assimilating the tree to the young tropical heroine who speaks the poem.³¹

³⁰ I am using Ramanujan's language of signifiers and signifieds used in the discussion of *akam* poetics. Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 236-41.

³¹ Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 244. Shanmugan Pillai and Ludden translate the colophon for *Kuruntokai* 3 as follows: "What she said (to her friend who had talked ill of him when he could overhear, so he would hurry to marry)". Shanmugam Pillai and Ludden, trans., *Kuruntokai*, 92.

Ramanujan situates the poem in the *akam* world by focusing on the *kuninci* flower and the mountain which identify the poem as being about lovers' union. He then proceeds to correlate other elements of the poem to the situation of lovers' union: the activity of the bees to sexual union, the mountain to the hero, the *kuninci* stalk to the heroine. He ignores other elements, the waters or the sky, when situating the poem and assumes that they do not functions as signs in the *akam* narrative world.³²

In *akam* poetics, there is an assumption that the *akam* poem has an inherent ambiguity. This allows the interpreter to correlate the remaining elements of the poem once it has been situated initially in the *akam* narrative world. This inherent ambiguity is referred to in *akam* poetics as *ullurai uvamam*, which is comparison between elements in the poem for which there are no explicit markers indicating what elements are being compared. This means that the interpreter must identify the comparison and work out the correspondences, and this is done against the *akam* pattern of signification.

Both Cutler and Ramanujan identify the bees making honey from the *kurjinci* flowers with the sexual activity of lovers, in *Kurjuntokai* 3, as an example of *ullurai uvamam*.³³ The sexual activity of the lovers is not stated in the poem but rather is deduced and worked out from the elements of the poem, within the *akam* pattern of signification. Cutler's explanation of this comparison illustrates this process quite clearly:

Kuruntokai 3 contains several clues that it is a poem of kurinci tinai and one dead giveaway is the reference to the kurinci flower. In this poem the image of bees making honey from the kurinci flower is implicitly compared with the hero and the heroine of

³² Ramanujan brings the waters and the sky into the interpretation when talking about the movement of the poem from the cosmic to the specific: Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 244-45.

³³ Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 244; Cutler, Songs of Experience, 84. Discussions of uļļurai uvamam are found in Ramanujan, Poems of Love and War, 244-8; George L. Hart III, The Poems of Ancient Tamil: Their Milieu and Their Sanskrit Counterparts (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1975), chapter 7.

the narrative and their union in love: the hero is likened to the bees, the heroine to the *kuriñci* flower, and honey to their love for each other.³⁴

Several points must be emphasised regarding the interpretation of *Kuruntokai* 3 according to *akam* conventions. Firstly, the poem is situated in the *akam* narrative world as a poem about lovers' union by focusing on certain elements in the poem which are understood to be signs in the *akam* poetic conventions. Secondly, other correspondences are worked out either between elements in the poem or between elements of the poem and the narrative frame which are consistent with the basic situation of lovers' union. Thirdly, the concept of implied comparison provides flexibility in the poem itself for working out the points of comparison. This means that there is room for determining how elements of a poem will be related to each other, and to the situation of the narrative frame. The coherency of the meaning of the poem depends on the poem being situated within the *akam* narrative world in a way which is consistent with the general patterns of signification of that world, and on the use of *ullurai uvamam* which allows flexibility for patterning the correspondences of elements of the poem.

The suggestion here is that the presuppositions of coherency and ambiguity evident in *akam* poetics are also at work in the interpretations one finds of the devotional poetry of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci". The interpretations studied above use the strategy of situating a poem in the narrative world by corresponding an element or elements of the poem to a situation of that world. Utilising this strategy presupposes that the coherency of the meaning of the poem lies to some extent in the pattern of signification of the narrative world chosen by the interpreters.

³⁴ Cutler, Songs of Experience, 84. He goes on to say: "This network of associations was well known to the audience of akam poetry, and the ability to discern this and other similarly implied meanings in the poems' imagery was an essential part of this audience's literary competence." See also pp. 82-3 regarding the importance of understanding the narrative frame in order to "successfully" interpret an akam poem.

In the *akam* interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai", we see that Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār focuses on the *Mārkali* bathing ritual in order to situate the poem, while Vanmikanathan gives priority to the state of the girl in poem 1. According to Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, the *Mārkali* bathing ritual indicates the stage of the relationship: the heroine had a relationship with the hero; it has been discovered by her friends; and now they are eager that she should marry the hero. For Vanmikanathan, the state of the girl in poem 1 is the state of the heroine when her friends come to call her to participate in the bathing ritual, a state in which she was consumed by love for the hero.

In situating the poems in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world, "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" emphasises *Mārkali* in the calendar year, and the awakening activity of the first eight poems. *Mārkali* is the time during which the universe is recreated. The awakening activity represents an early stage in the recreation in which the *cattis* activate one another.

Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar also seems to focus on the awakening activity in the first poems, but he interprets it as an awakening of the soul to ñaṇam. He emphasises the bathing activity when situating the final ten poems of "Tiruvempāvai", which he takes to be the bathing of the soul in the bliss of ñanam.

In situating "Tiruvempāvai" in the poet's biography, Navaratnam emphasises three elements of the poem: the references to Śiva being in the town of Tiruvaṇṇāmalai, the state of the girl in poem 1, and the awakening and summoning activity. The reference to Śiva of Tiruvaṇṇāmalai indicates where the poet composed "Tiruvempāvai", and this geographical reference enables Navaratnam to determine at what stage in the poet's life the poem was composed. The state of the girl in verse 1 indicates Māṇikkavācakar's depressed mood at this stage in his life, and the awakening activity corresponds to Māṇikkavācakar's efforts to lift himself out of this state.

In situating "Tiruvempāvai" in the first person biography, Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār's perspective emphasises the act of reciting rather than the elements of the poem itself. Cuppiramaṇiya Piḷḷai similarly emphasises the act of singing, as well as the fact that the singing is done in *Mārkali* month in particular. According to Cuppiramaṇiya Piḷḷai, *Mārkaḷi* is a good time of year for the individual to gain in physical, mental and spiritual well-being. Cokkaliṅkam Ceṭṭiyār focuses on the act of singing the poem, but emphasises the request for rain as well. All three agree that the significance of the act of recitation is that the reciter will receive benefits.

The tendency to focus on an aspect of a poem in order to situate it in a narrative world is also seen in the interpretations of "Tiruppalliyelucci". Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār emphasises the awakening activity, as well as references in poem 1 in order to situate "Tiruppalliyelucci" as the act of the wife (the heroine) and her attendents awakening her husband (the hero). Vanmikanathan also focuses on the awakening activity, but relies on its position between other collections which he also has situated in the *akam* world, to place it specifically as the heroine's request for sexual fulfillment. Aruṇācalam focuses on the awakening activity as a *puṛum* theme and the request regarding service in poem 7 in order to place "Tiruppalliyelucci" as the event of Māṇikkavācakar going to Śiva, awakening him, and requesting what service he should perform. Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar situates "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world also by reference to the awakening activity and takes the awakening to correspond to the experience of *ñānam*.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" was situated in the first person biography in various ways. In one interpretation, when situating it as one's own act of awakening God and proceeding with the day's work, the emphasis was on the awakening activity and the request in poem 7 to know what service should be done. Another interpretation, understanding the poem as one's own request for enlightenment, correlated the awakening activity expressed in the

refrain with the arising of Siva as enlightening knowedge in the soul. Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār emphasises the act of reciting "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci", but also seems to focus on the references to dawn as the removal of spiritual darkness.

The interpreters of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci", like the interpreters of the *akam* poems, situate the poems in the narrative world by emphasising one or two aspects of the poems. The interpreters of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci", again like the *akam* interpreters, assume an ambiguity regarding how the parts of the poem relate to each other, and to the narrative world in which the poem is to be situated. The primary point of reference, for removing the ambiguity between parts of the poem, is the event in the narrative world to which the event of the poem is correlated. The interpreters' treatment of the relationship between the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" illustrate this point. Whether or not interpreters understand the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" to represent a sequence, or a collection of poems, depends in part upon what event the poem is thought to represent in the narrative world to which it corresponds.

For Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār, Vanmikanathan and Navaratnam the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" represent a sequence of events in the order in which they are traditionally received. This is consistent with their respective interpretations in which there is some sequence of activity. For all three interpreters, "Tiruvempāvai" most basically represents girls awakening each other and going to bathe, and so they retain the sequence of the poems. However the goal of this sequence of activity differs from interpreter to interpreter. In Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's interpretation the activity is encouraging the heroine to participate in the *Mārkali* bathing ritual so that her chastity can be preserved and they can get good husbands. In Vanmikanathan's interpretation, the sequence of activity represents the friends' progressive but still incomplete realization of the heroine's state. In

Navaratnam's interpretation the activity represents Māṇikkavācakar's ongoing efforts to improve his mood.

Similarly, in the "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" interpretation presented here, the first eight poems represent a sequence of events correlated to the creation activity. After these eight poems the creative activity is completed. Poems 9 and 10 and the remaining poems in other versions of this interpretation are taken as a collection of poems.

Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar seems to take the first ten poems of "Tiruvempāvai" as a sequence, but not neccessarily in the received order, and he seems to see the last ten as a collection of poems not necessarily in a sequence. The sequence of activity in the first ten poems represent the progressive purification of the soul, and the remaining ten are collections of poems about the experience of the bliss of enlightenment.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" is interpreted as both a sequence and as a collection of events. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār interprets "Tiruppalliyelucci" as a sequence of events but not in the received order. The poem as a whole is thought to convey the progressive frustration of the heroine and her companions with the hero, so Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār reorders the poems so that the sequence reflects this progressive development. Vanmikanathan takes the poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" as a collection of poems portraying the same event. The poem is a request for marital consumation. All the poems seem to be taken together as a single expression of this request. Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar seems to take the poems as a collection on the same theme (enlightenment) but constituting different events. Some poems are taken as expressions of the soul or the soul's *catti* while in the experience of enlightenment, while another poem is taken as a request to be given the enlightenment experience.

The various interpretations of poem 9 of "Tiruvempāvai" also provide an example of the process by which the interpreters work out other correspondences once the poem has

been situated in a narrative frame. Poem 9 contains four lines in which the speakers promise to serve the devotees of the addressee who will become the speakers' husbands. Both Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār and Vanmikanathan agree that the companions of the heroine speak all four lines as part of a request that God's devotees become their husbands. The fact that the heroine does not speak in this poem is crucial for their interpretation, because the girl inside the house is already in a love relation with God, the hero, so she definitely could not ask God for one of his devotees as her husband. In the *akam* frame, the heroine is always faithful to the hero, whether or not he is faithful to her.³⁵

In "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" these four lines are attributed to the nine *cattis* activated in the previous poems. The characters to whom the speakers refer are interpreted to be the beings of the lower realms of pure *māyai*. The nine *cattis* promise to serve the feet of the Aņucatācivar and to be friends to the eight Vittiyēcuvarar. They assert that they will marry the Mantirēcurar.³⁶

Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar attributes these four lines to different speakers: the Tirōtāṇaccattis promise to serve the devotees; and lṇpākiya Civacacatti utters the line refering to husband(s). The devotees whom the Tirōtāṇacattis promise to serve are the souls in whom they operate, who have become God's devotees and have obtained God's feet. The Tirōtāṇacattis promise to operate according to the wishes of these souls.³⁷ Civacatti says that the God whom they refer to is her husband whom they all will serve.

 $^{^{35}}$ Once the heroine and hero are married, his affairs with other women are a frequent source of quarrels.

 $^{^{36}}$ Anucatācivar are indicated by the phrase $t\bar{a}l$ $paniv\bar{o}m$; the eight Vittiyēcuvarar by $p\bar{a}nk\bar{a}v\bar{o}m$ (friends); and the Mantirecurar by enkanavar.

³⁷ The logic here may be something like this: before the soul gains enlightenment, the soul is activated by *catti's* concealed within them. They are not in a position to direct their *cattis*. After enlightenment the souls are guided by grace. They are aware of grace within them and act according to it. They do not need to be guided unknowingly.

The shift in meaning in these four interpretations of poem 9 is apparent. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's and Vanmikanathan's interpretations reflects the *akam* emphasis on this world and the human love relationship. "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu" reflects the Śaiva Siddhānta world view, but with an emphasis on creation and the spatial-temporal arrangement of worlds and their inhabitants, rather than on souls and their spiritual development. In Kāli Tāṇṭavarāyar's interpetation, the reference to devotees and service reflects the worldview of the Śaiva Siddhānta narrative world with an emphasis on God's action with respect to the souls through his various *cattis*, in particular those souls who are devotees and who have reached God's feet.

The presupposition that the coherency of meaning lies in the narrative frame and that a poem is inherently ambiguous allows considerable flexibility concerning how the text is treated when situating it in a narrative frame. In all the interpretations presented, the texts that are interpreted, are the twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai", and the ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci". They all agree on the boundaries of the text, that it consists of twenty or ten poems. They do not agree on how the parts of the texts are related to each other. For example interpreters disagree on whether the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" should be taken as they are in their canonical order. They disagree on whether the verses should be taken as a collection of utterances on one topic or as a sequence of events. They also disagree on which poems are monologues and which are dialogues, and on divisions of speech and the meaning of the utterances within poems.³⁸

³⁸ All modern commentators do not operate on these assumptions to the same extent. Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār does not accept this assumption of coherency if it violates the internal coherency of the poem. "Tiruvempāvai" is usually introduced in publications with the Akattiya Cūtra which summarizes the meaning for the poem as "In Praise of Catti (cattiyai viyantatu). He rejects this interpretation because, according to him, catti is mentioned only in poems 14 and 16. The other verses are not about catti and therefore it is not suitable to take the meaning of a part for the meaning of the whole (271-2). He also rejects the "Tiruvempāvaik Karuttu". He argues that if one accepts that the inner meaning

Summary

The strategies of interpretation evident in the interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" provided in this section have precedents in the interpretations of classical poetry. The classical poems and the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" are interpreted by situating them in a narrative frame. This is accomplished by assigning characters in the poems identities from the narrative world, and by identifying the event which the poem represents as an event in the respective narrative world. Poems may be situated differently in the same frame, situated in different frames or in more than one frame at the same time. There is disagreement within this basic strategy regarding what frames serve as the best background for interpreting a poem. This strategy has two basic presuppositions which can be traced back to the earliest akam poetics: one, the coherency of the meaning of the poem depends to some extent upon the poem fitting coherently in the narrative frame in which it is situated; and two, the poems can be inherently ambiguous. This strategy and its presuppositions have implications for understanding the characteristics of a text. A "text" is what is interpreted by situating it as an event in a narrative world. Its order and the relation of its parts depend on how the text is understood to be an event in a particular narrative world.

(uḷḷurai poruḷ) of the first eight poems is the cattis of creation awakening one another, then the inner meaning of the remaining twelve poems should be compatible with the creation of the world. He says that such an interpretation for those twelve verses is too forced (272). Even though Aruṇaivaṭivēl Mutaliyār believes that the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" should be interpreted according to the Śaiva tradition, this interpretation must present a meaning which is consistent for all twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai".

Part II: Summary

I have argued in Parts I and II that there is a view of text and interpretation evident in "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" and its interpretations. This view is that the text is a poem (or group of poems) which represents an episodic moment in which there is some ambiguity regarding the identity of the speaker or narrator, usually the addressee, the situation which the poem portrays, and the setting of the poem. The text is understood by situating it in a narrative world which resolves some of these ambiguities. I have suggested that this concept of text and interpretation has precedents in classical *akam* and *pupam* poetry.

In Part II, I have shown how "Tiruvcmpāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" have been interpreted by situating them in various narrative worlds. I have defined a "narrative world" to be a world in which a particular story takes place. I suggested that "Tiruvcmpāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" tended to be interpreted in one or more of five narrative worlds: the *akam* world, the *puram* world, the world of Śaiva Siddhānta theology, the poet's biography and the first person biography. This does not mean that these poems are only interpreted in these five worlds. They may also be interpreted in other worlds. I have described each of these narrative worlds, but this does not mean that these narrative worlds have been ridgidly defined, or that all interpreters understand these narrative worlds in exactly the same way.

The poems were situated by identifying especially the speaker as a character of a certain narrative world, and the occasion or theme of the poem as a situation in that world. In determining where in a particular narrative world the poem should be placed, the interpreters tended to emphasize some aspects of the poem over others, and then interpret

other aspects of the poem in line with the situation in the narrative world in which the poem has been placed.

This strategy involves making certain presuppositions about the nature of "text". Firstly, it involves acknowledging that the coherence of the meaning of the text depends to some extent on the poem fitting coherently into a position as an event in a particular narrative world. Secondly, this strategy assumes that there is ambiguity in how the parts of the poem relate to each other, and therefore, that the "text" is not limited to a single view of the relation of parts.

There is a strong continuity between the classical and the devotional milieu in this matter of interpretation. The interpreters of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" assume a concept of text and interpretation already evident in classical poetry and poetics. In Part III we will see that this same model of text and interpretation is at also work in ritual events where "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" are recited.

PART III: MODERN USAGE

You can praise them, tell them just what they want to hear, cleave to them as servants, but they will still give you nothing, those fakes-

listen, you poets, don't sing to them: sing of our father's Pukalūr.

You will have in this world rice and clothes, a celebration, even an end to sorrow,

and in that other life without a doubt you will rule Siva's world.

(1/340)

Uran, the harsh devotee,
son of Caṭaiyan,
father of Vaṇappakai,
from Nāvalūr
with its flowering fields rich in honey,
sang these ten songs
to the wealthy lord who lives in southern Pukalūr
where dense pockets of lotus
rise high in the paddy-fields.

Those who can sing them will doubtless reach the feet of **dharma**'s lord

 $(11/350)^1$

¹ Translation by David Dean Shulman in *Songs of the Harsh Devotee: The Tēvāram of Cuntaramūrttināyaṇār* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1990), 205, 211.

Vaiṣṇava and Śaiva Tamil poems are sung as part of the daily and yearly worship in temples in Tamil Nadu, as well as part of personal or group worship. In Tamil Nadu, the month of *Mārkali* is considered especially appropriate for worshipping God. People awaken to the sounds of religious music playing loudly from loudspeakers between four and five AM.² Singing Māṇikkavācakar's "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" are especially significant during this time. Children learn "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci", along with the Vaiṣṇava saint Āṇṭāl's "Tiruppāvai", in *pāvai* schools.³ One poem each from Āṇṭāl's "Tiruppāvai" and one each from Māṇikkavācakar's "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" is sung and commented on each morning of *Mārkali* on All India Radio. Many temples in Tamil Nadu have "Tiruvempāvai" festivals during this month. People recite the poems in a wide variety of worship contexts: at temples, in recitation groups, or at home.

I chose to study the singing of these songs in three separate ritual events. Two of those events take place in the Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in the heart of old Madurai city, and the other in the adjoining Citti Viṇāyakar and Nākamalai Murukan Temples in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, which is about ten kilometers from Madurai. From a Śaiva perspective, Madurai and Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai both fall within a sacred geography defined by Śiva's "sixty-four sacred acts" associated with Madurai. The Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple is very large, ancient, and has a very well established ritual cycle.

² Fuller also makes this observation: C. J. Fuller, *The Camphor Flame: Popular Hinduism and Society in India*, (New Delhi: Viking, Penguin Books, 1992), 182.

³ See Holly Baker Reynolds' discussion of *pāvai* schools in Madurai: Holly Baker Reynolds, "The Changing Nature of a Tamil Vow: The Challenge of Trans-Sectarian Bhakti in Contemporary South India" in *Boeings and Bullock-Carts: Studies in Change and Continuity in Indian Civilization*, vol. 4, ed. Bardwell L. Smith (Delhi: Chanakya Publications, 1990), 64-95.

In contrast, the two village temples are small, relatively new and have somewhat fluid ritual cycles.

The two settings provide three quite different examples of the ritual usage of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyelucci". In the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" is sung each morning during the year as part of the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* ritual. In the same temple, "Tiruvempāvai" is sung as the central feature in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival during the month of *Mārkali*. Both events are highly institutionalized, with participation restricted, and only male participants. In the village context, "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are sung together, along with the Vaiṣṇava "Tiruppāvai" in the "*Pāvai* Singing" which occurs yearly. The singing of the poems in this context is done by an informal group of singers who are almost entirely female.

The view of text and interpretation discussed in Parts I and II provides the basis for understanding the way in which the poems are used in these ritual events. The "text" of each ritual event is not, however, just the canonical text of the ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and the twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai", but it is a different "text" for each of the three rituals. I will use the phrase "ritual text" to refer to the text that is actually used in the different ritual events. By this term, I mean to refer to that which is sung as part of the act of worship by those who assume the role of performer of the songs during the ritual event.

A ritual performance of a poem is an interpretation of the poem. In the rituals, the poems are situated as part of a particular event in a particular setting. The poems are situated in three <u>different</u> biographical narrative worlds in these three rituals.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" is framed as a *puram* event of awakening a "king", who is the God, Cuntarēcuvarar, in the *Tiruvanantal Pūcai* at Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple.

"Tiruvempāvai" in the same temple is framed as an event in Māṇikkavācakar's biography in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival. In the Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai temples both "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are sung as part of individual devotees' worship, and are therefore situated in first person biographical narrative world. The significance of the poems in each ritual is determined by the significance that the particular ritual has in the respective narrative worlds.

In chapter 8, the daily singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* at Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple will be described and interpreted. In chapter 9, the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival at Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple will be described and interpreted. The temples in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai and the "*Pāvai* Singing" will be described in chapter 10, and interpreted in chapter 11. Chapter 12 consists of a discussion of the pattern of behaviour evident in these three rituals, the characteristics of the "ritual text", and the assumptions being made about the coherence of the meaning.

III: Chapter 8: Tiruvanantal Pūcai, Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple: "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the Puram Narrative World

Temples in Tamil Nadu have a calendar of daily and yearly ritual events. In major temples, like the the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in Madurai, eight prescribed rituals are conducted for the presiding deities each day. The first of these daily rituals is the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* in which the deities are awakened. In the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" is sung during this ritual. The singing of the poem is understood to be part of the act of awakening the presiding deities of this temple, Cuntarēcuvarar and Mīṇāṭci. The performer singing is an ōtuvār, a temple employee. The ōtuvār has no particular identity in this ritual, except that the singing of "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" is like the puram theme of the bard awakening the king and the ōtuvār serves as the bard and Cuntarēcuvarar is the king.

This chapter will begin by providing a description of the setting of the ritual in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple and in the ritual cycle. It will be followed by a description of the characters participating in the event, and then a description of the ritual event. The chapter will close by showing that the singing of "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" is framed by the biography of Cuntarēcuvarar, as this is expressed in the structure of the ritual.

Setting: The Place: Madurai and the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple

Viewed from a Śaiva perspective, both Madurai city and the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar

Temple have legendary pasts. The *Tiruviṭaiyāṭal Purāṇam* by Parañcōti relates sixty-four of Śiva's activities in the Madurai area and in doing so describes a sacred geography of the God's domain. The early stories tell about the discovery of the site of the temple, the building of Madurai city, and stories about how the deities, Mīnātci and Cuntarēcuvarar,

came to be the presiding deities in the temple. According to the *Tiruvilaiyāṭal Purāṇam*, the God Indra discovered a Linga and a tank in a forest. He set up a shrine there, and began worshipping. He continued to worship this Linga once a year. The shrine was rediscovered for the benefit of earthly beings by a seer who told the Pāṇṭiya king, Kulacēkaran where it was. The king cleared the forest, and built a temple and a city there. Brahmins were brought from North India to perform the worship. In due course, the king appointed his son to succeed him and then died.

The king's son was unable to father a son of his own in spite of ten thousand years' effort, so he undertook a sacrifice in order to obtain a son. A young girl three years old with three breasts emerged from the sacrificial fire. Her parents were told to call her Taṭātakai (Irresistable Valor), to raise her as a prince, and were promised that when she met her husband she would loose her third breast.²

Taṭātakai conquered the whole earth, and even the Gods, including Indra. She then went to Kailācam to fight Śiva. As soon as she saw Śiva her third breast disappeared, and she became modest as she realized that he was to be her husband. Śiva promised to marry her, and so she returned to Madurai to prepare for the wedding.

Śiva came to Madurai and they were married. He was crowned and took the name Cuntara Pāṇṭiyan. They ruled Madurai together for some time, during which Śiva as Cuntarēcuvarar (the Beautiful Lord) performed many gracious acts. In time, they turned

¹ Irāya. Co., notes, *Tiruviļaiyāṭal Purāṇam (Maturai kāṇṭam)* (Maturai: Mīṇāṭci Cuntarēcuvarar Tirukkōyil, 1973), 126 v. 537.

² See "Tatātagai, Pudumandapam", a photograph of a sculpture of Taṭātakai found in Putumaṇṭapam which is associated with the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, in D. Devakunjari, *Madurai Through the Ages: From the Earliest Times to 1801 A.D.* (Madras: Society for Archaeological, Historical and Epigraphical Research, 1979), n.p.

the kingdom over to their married son, Ukkira Pāṇṭiyan, and retired to the shrines of the temple as Mīṇāṭci and Cuntarēcuvarar.³

One of Cuntarccuvarar's sacred acts, before turning over the kingdom to his son, was to establish the Vaikai River. A great excess of food remained after Cuntarccuvarar's and Mīṇāṭci's wedding. In order to dispose of the food, Cuntarccuvarar caused his attendent dwarf to experience an insatiable hunger which enabled him to consume all the food and still want more. The dwarf's cravings were finally satisfied by the Goddess Aṇṇapūrṇīcuvarī. His hunger then gave way to an insatiable thirst, and so he drank all the water in the country. In order to alleviate the dwarf's thirst, Cuntarccuvarar negotiated with the Goddess, Kāṅkai, to release some water. As a result the Vaikai River was formed and still flows through the city. \(\frac{1}{2} \)

The founding of Madurai up until the time when Mīṇāṭci and Cuntarccuvarar retire to their shrines in the temple covers only the first twelve of the sixty-four sports of the *Tiruviļaiyāṭal Purāṇam*. The other stories are about Cuntarccuvarar's other activities in the Madurai area, or those of his followers such as Māṇikkavācakar and Tiruñaṇacampantar. Story fifty-one tells of the establishment of an academy of poets at Madurai. This story and stories fifty-two through fifty-five link, Cuntarccuvarar directly with the poets of the classical poetry, and specifically attribute to him the composition of *Kuruntokai* 2. These

³ I have consulted the summaries in J. H. Nelson, *The Madura Country: A Manual* (1868; rpt., Madras: Asian Education Services, 1989), III:4-10; and Dennis D. Hudson, "Two Citra Festivals in Madurai," in Guy R. Welbon and Glenn E. Yocum, ed. *Religious Festivals in South India and Sri Lanka* (New Delhi: Manohar, 1982), 108-112. The marriage of Śiva and Taṭātakai is reenacted every year during the main festival of the temple, the Cittirai Festival, which has been very well described by Hudson.

See also William Harman, *The Sacred Marriage of a Hindu Goddess* (Bloomington: University of Indiana Press, 1989.

⁴ Nelson, *The Madura Country*, III:9, Stories 7 and 8; K. V. Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature*, vol. 10 in *A History of Indian Literature* (Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1974), 181.

stories depict Cuntarēcuvarar as being directly involved in the composition of poems, the adjudication of the quality of poems, and in resolving disputes among poets.⁵

There are indirect references to the existence of Madurai city in the early centuries of the common era, but much of the structure of the old part of the present city dates from the sixteenth century.⁶ Madurai city today is the capital of Madurai District, and according to the 1991 Census the population of the city was 951, 696.⁷ The city is divided by the Vaikai River, which is a wide and flat riverbed that for most of the year is reduced to a series of small streams. Sometimes, however, the river floods and causes substantial damage. The Mīnātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple is at the centre of the old city on the south

⁵ See Nelson, *The Madura Country*, Part III, 29-32; and Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature*, (1974), 183-4. According to other traditional accounts, there were three academies of poets. The first two academies lasted thousands of years and both were destroyed when the city was overun by the sea. The third academy lasted nearly two thousand years. All of the Ettuttokai are said to have been composed by the poets of the third academy. The Tolkāppiyam is associated with both the second and third academies. See K. V. Zvelebil, Tamil Literature (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1975), 55-61. The fourth Tamil Cankam was established in Madurai in 1901 by Pāntitturai Tēvar, the Cētupati ruler of Ramanatapuram. Zvelebil, Tamil Literature (1975), 13. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār was associated with this Cankam as an examiner of Tamil scholars and as a contributer to their journal, Centamil. See chapter 3. Madurai is well represented in the classical literature. "Maturaikkānci", one of the ten poems in the *Pattupapāttu*, is on Madurai city. Zvelebil dates this poem around 215 CE.: Zvelebil, Tamil Literature (1975), 79. It is the longest poem in Pattuppāttu with 782 lines; see: J. V. Chelliah, trans., Pattupattu: Ten Tamil Idylls: Tamil Verses with English Translation (1946; republished by Thanjavur: Tamil University, 1985) 221-282. Subbiah indicates that all the existing *Paripātal* songs are on the Vaikai river which runs through Madurai, or to forms of Murukan or Visnu at places near Madurai. G. Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India: A Study of Classical Tamil Texts" (Ph.D. diss., McMaster University, 1988), 72. Kapilar and Paranar, two of the authors of the classical poems cited in chapter 2 (see also chapter 7), are mentioned in the fifty-third story and are therefore linked to Madurai city and the Mīnātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple.

⁶ See Holly Baker Reynolds, "Madurai: Kōyil Nakar" in *The City as a Sacred Centre: Essays on Six Asian Contexts*, ed. Bardwell Smith and Holly Baker Reynolds (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1987), 21-34

⁷ Census of India 1991, Provisional Population Totals, Supplement to Paper-1 of 1991, Series 23: Tamil Nadu (Government of India, 1991), 75-76.

side of the river, and is surrounded by streets in four concentric squares.⁸ The traffic on the square of streets immediately outside the compound wall proceeds one-way in a clockwise circumambulatory direction around the temple.

The Mīṇātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple has been the subject of a number of scholarly studies, and there are therefore a number of descriptions, diagrams and pictures of the temple available. My description will be selective, emphasising those aspects which enable one to get a sense of the contrast between the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the Mīṇātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple and in the village temples where the "Pāvai Singing" takes place. The following description is based on my own observations in areas where I had free access, and on Jeyachandran, Fuller, and priestly informants for areas to which I had limited access. A diagram of the Mīṇātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple compound is found in Appendix I.3 and diagrams of Mīṇātci's and Cuntarēcuvarar's Shrines are found in Appendices I.1 and I.2 respectively.

The Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple consists of a large compound surrounding the shrines of the main deities, the Goddess Mīṇāṭci and God Cuntarēcuvarar. The temple compound covers an area of 847 feet on the east-west axis and 792 feet on the north-south axis. ¹⁰ The compound of the complex has entrances on all four sides. One enters through tall towers called *kōpurams* at about the middle of the south, west and northern sides. There are two entrances on the eastern wall opposite the Mīṇātci and Cuntarēcuvarar

⁸ There are many temples in Madurai. However, the Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple has geographical prominence and is the largest temple in the city.

⁹ See A. V. Jeyechandrun, *The Madurai Temple Complex: With Special Reference to Literature and Legends* (Madurai: Madurai Kamaraj University, 1985); C. J. Fuller, *Servants of the Goddess: The Priests of a South Indian Temple* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984); and Devakunjari, *Madurai Through the Ages*.

¹⁰ Jeyechandrun, Madurai Temple Complex (1985). According to Fuller it is approximately 850 feet by 720. Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, 2. Reynolds gives the measurements as 850 by 725 feet: Reynolds, "Madurai: Kōyil Nakar," 22.

shrines respectively. Within the compound walls are the Āṭi Streets which themselves enclose the main shrines of the temple. The two shrines are side by side, and open towards the east. Each shrine is a complex in itself with its own main deity, surrounding subsidiary deities and other significant figures. There is a large tank roughly opposite Mīṇāṭci's shrine, and another large shrine for Cevvantīcuvarar on the southeastern side of the temple inside the Āṭi Streets and main walls of the temple. There are many other structures such as halls (maṇṭapams), rooms of religious organizations, administration offices, kitchens, a shopping area, book stores, and quarters for elephants and cows. 11

The main entrance into Mīṇāṭci's shrine is through the Kiḷikkūṭu Maṇṭapam. In the Maṇṭapam opposite the main entrance to Mīṇāṭci's shrine there is an image of Nanti, Śiva's bull, and a *palipīṭam* at which people often worship. On the south side of the outer wall of the Mīṇāṭci complex is a small shrine housing Citti Viṇāyakar. On the north side of the entrance to Mīṇāṭci's complex on the same wall is another small shrine housing Kumāraṇ (Murukaṇ) with his two consorts. Also along this wall are the offices of the superintendent and his assistant, the place where personal worship (*arccaṇai*) tickets are sold, a book stall, a store room, and the Ūñcal Maṇṭapam (swing hall).

The Mīṇāṭci complex within the larger temple complex consists of the shrine of Mīṇāṭci and two *pirākāram*s or concentric surrounding walkways. The whole complex is inaccessible to the non-Hindu. The main entrance¹² to the complex is through a door on the east side. One proceeds through this doorway into the second *pirākāram* and

¹¹ For a further discussion of the other facilities in the complex consult Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, Jeyechandrun, Madurai Temple Complex (1985), and Devakunjari, Madurai Through the Ages.

¹² The other enterance to the Mīṇāṭci complex is on the north side and leads directly into Cuntarēcuvarar's second *pirākāram*. There is also a gate on the west side but it is closed. See Fuller, *Servants of the Goddess*, p. xxvi, and Jeyechandrun, *Madurai Temple Complex* (1985), attached map.

immediately in front of the door is the flag pole, another *palipīṭam* and an image of Nanti. There are some shrines and *manṭapams* in the first and second *pirākāram*. These shrines are predominantly forms of Śiva's consort's divine children, Vināyakar and Murukan. The main entrance into the first *pirākāram* is on the other side of the flagpole through the Six Pillared Hall which is a raised platform in the second *pirākāram* at the center of the eastern side. The first *pirākāram* and the central shrine are therefore higher than the second *pirākāram*.

The main shrine is situated on the western side of the first *pirākāram* midway between the north and south walls. It is divided into several rooms into which only the priests, their assistants and the Vedic chanters may go.¹³ The Goddess Mīṇāṭci, represented by an anthropomorphic image, resides in the innermost room. Extending from the outer room of Mīṇāṭci's immediate quarters are two long rails with a walkway in the middle. Towards the end of the rails, at the opposite end from the main shrine, there is an image of Nanti facing Mīṇāṭci. People worshipping Mīṇāṭci stand on the outer side of these rails. Conventionally, men stand on the south side and the women on the north side. The priest attends to the devotees from the middle. At the end of the rails along the north wall facing south is the *palṭliyaṛai* (bedroom). There is a large mirror hanging high up on the wall opposite Mīṇāṭci which devotees can look into and see the *pūcai* if the crowd is so great that they cannot work their way up to the railings.

The complex of Cuntarēcuvarar 's shrine, like Mīṇāṭci's, consists of a main shrine and two *pirākāram*s (walkways). However, Cuntarēcuvarar 's complex is significantly larger than Mīṇāṭci's and contains many more shrines. Images of the sixty-three saints whose stories are told by Cēkkiḷār in the twelfth *Tirumurai*, The *Periya Purāṇam*, and

¹³ All three of these groups are brahmins. Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, 33-42.

other important saints are found in Cuntarécuvarar's complex, but not in Mīṇāṭci's. Also unlike the Mīṇāṭci complex, non-Hindus may enter the second *pirākāram*, but not the first *pirākāram* or the main shrine area.

The second *pirākāram* of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine is very large and spacious.

There is a shrine for the classical poets in the northwest corner. The walkways of the south, west and north sides open into a large area on the eastern side. In approximately the center of this area there is the Kampattaṭi Maṇṭapam, which is an area enclosed by fencing, with a very large image of Nanti facing Cuntarēcuvarar, a large *palipīṭam* and a flagpole. The far northeastern corner is the Hundred Pillared Hall in which there is a large image of Naṭarācar. In the southwest corner of the Hundred Pillared Hall is the shrine for the Navakkirakam (nine planets). Proceeding southward from the Hundred Pillared Hall along the outer wall are two very large images of Akkiṇivīrapattiraṇ and Akōravīrapattiraṇ surrounded by an iron fence. On the other side of the eastern entrance there is another set of equally large images, Ūrttuvatāṇṭavar and Pattirakāṭi, also surrounded by an iron fence. At the foot of Ūrttuvatāṇṭavar (a dancing form of Śiva) is an image of Kāraikkālammaiyār (one of the Śaiva canonical poets) watching him dance.

In the outer southeastern corner of this large area there is the Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam containing the images of eight Śaiva saints. The images proceeding from the left to the right side of the maṇṭapam are of: Māṇikkavācakar; Cuntarar; Tirunāvukkaracar; Tiruñāṇacampantar; Neṭumāṛanāyaṇār; Maṅkaiyarkkaraci, Kulacciṛaināyaṇār, and Mūrttināyaṇār. The first four saints are worshipped in many places in Tamil Nadu whereas the remaining four are specifically connected with Madurai.

¹⁴ Devakunjari provides a picture of the outside of the *manṭapam* entitled "Entrance--Sangattār temple". Devakunjari, *Madurai Through the Ages*, n.p.

¹⁵ See the picture entitled "Nandi Shrine--Kambattadi Mandapam". Devakunjari, Madurai Through the Ages. n.p.

The outer wall of the first *pirākāram* also contains a number of shrines. On the north side of the entrance proceeding south are two Lingas and three shrines of different forms of Murukan: Murukan as the Ascetic Tanṭayutavan at Palani Temple; Murukan as Kumāran at Kalukumalai Temple and Murukan as a child, Pālamurukan. On the south side of the wall proceeding south there is a shrine to Anukkaivināyakar, the form of Vināyakar who grants permission to enter the temple, and two more shrines with Lingas.

On the outer edge of the entrance into the first *pirākāram* are rather large images of the four main Śaiva saints: Tirunāvukkaracar and Tiruñāṇacampantar on the south side, and Cuntarar and Māṇikkavācakar on the north side. Inset into the south side of the thick entrance is an image of Atikārananti, chief of the temple.

The first *pirākāram* of Cuntarēcuvarar's complex has many shrines. There are images of human figures such as Cēkkilār, the sixty-three saints, and the ten collections of Śaiva saints ¹⁶. There are images of the Goddesses Caracuvati, Turkkai, and Makālaṭcumi. There are also images of Śiva's children, Viṇāyakar and Murukaṇ. There are images of various forms of Śiva: Taṭciṇāmūrtti (Śiva as guru), Iliṅkōṛpavar (Śiva as the column of fire), Kācivicuvanātaṇ (Śiva as lord of Kāci), the processional images of Śiva as the Dancing God, Natarācar, Cittar (Śiva as a yogi) as well as various Lingas.

The main shrine of Cuntarēcuvarar consists of the rooms in which he resides and a larger area called the Makāmaṇṭapam. As is the case for Mīṇāṭci, Cuntarēcuvarar, represented by a Linga, is in the inner of the rooms to which only the priests, their assistants and Vedic chanters have access.¹⁷ Two rails extend from the outer of the rooms

lé The Tamil Lexicon (Madras: University of Madras, 1982) identifies nine groups. Fuller says there are ten. Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, xii. I am following Fuller as he is specifically speaking about the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple.

¹⁷ Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, 33-42.

towards the Makāmaṇṭapam, and the worshippers stand on either side of the rails as in Mīnāṭci's shrine.

There are several shrines in the Makāmaṇṭapam. An image of Naṭarācar is installed in a Silver Hall on the north side of the Makāmaṇṭapam. On the south side there are the festival images of the four saints (Māṇikkavācakar, Cuntarar, Tirunāvukkaracar, Tiruñāṇacampantar), the sixty-three saints and the collection of ten saints, and the festival images of Cittar and of Śiva in his form as Cantiracēkaran.

The Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple evolved over many centuries. I will briefly mention the stages of evolution suggested by A.V. Jeyechandrun. He proposes that there was a very basic shrine with an enclosing wall for Śiva in the seventh century. By the twelfth century the shrine for Śiva inside the wall had developed into a three-room inner sanctum. In addition, a small shrine for Mīṇāṭci had been built outside this complex. He suggests that in the thirteenth century the second *pirākāram* wall was added for Cuntarēcuvarar and a wall was built for Mīṇāṭci's shrine which became the second *pirākāram* wall. The temple complex was partially destroyed by the invading Muslims in the fourteenth century. The *paṭṭṭṣṇaṇai*, the first *pirākāram* wall for Mīṇāṭci's shrine and a hall for Naṭarācar in Cuntarēcuvarar's Makāmaṇṭapam were added in the fifteen century. Most of the other structures of the temple were built between the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries, although additions and repairs continue to the present day. ¹⁸

¹⁸ Jeyechandrun, *Madurai Temple Complex* (1985), 159-201. There is inscriptional evidence from which to reconstruct the evolution of the temple from the twelfth century onwards. Jeyechandrun also uses literary works.

Temporal Setting: the Ritual Cycle of Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple

The Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar temple has a well developed and complex ritual cycle. The rituals of the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temples are said to follow the Kāmikāgama and Kāraṇāgama, as well as Akōracivācāriyar's manual, Śrī Pārāttanittiyapūjāviti-Uttaram. 19 The temple has daily, weekly, monthly and yearly worship cycles. 20 During the hours which the temple is open, but not during any pūcai, the priests perform special offerings on behalf of devotees. 21 On some auspicious days couples are even married in Mīṇāṭci's shrine.

The formal ritual activity of the temple consists most basically of $p\bar{u}cai$ and processions. According to the Āgamas, $p\bar{u}cai$ is a form of worship consisting of a series of offerings ($upac\bar{u}ram$) to the deity. The number of offerings varies from list to list in the different Āgamas.²² Fuller has provided the following list:²³

- 1. Invocation of the deity
- 2. Offering a seat to or installation of the deity
- 3. Offering water for washing the feet
- 4. Offering water for washing the head and body
- 5. Offering water for rinsing the mouth
- 6. Bathing
- 7. Dressing or offering a garment
- 8. Putting on the sacred thread
- 9. Sprinkling perfume

¹⁹ Carl Gustav Diehl, *Instrument and Purpose: Studies on Rites and Rituals in South India* (Lund: CWK Gleerup, 1956), 57, 98, 148; Fuller, *Servants of the Goddess*, 136.

²⁰ There are also rare ritual events such as the purification of a temple, or the installation of a new image, or the consecration of a part of the temple.

²¹ See Fuller's description. Servants of the Goddess, 21-2.

²² See Richard H. Davis, *Ritual in an Oscillating Universe: Worshiping Siva in Medieval India* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1991), 179 n. 8.

²³ Fuller indicates that he has reproduced this list with modification from Jan Gonda, *Visnuism and Śivism: A Comparison* (London: Athlone, 1970). *Camphor Flame*, 67. Jeyechandrun provides the same list expressed in slightly different English terminology. Jeyechandrun, *Madurai Temple Complex* (1985), 231 n. 76. Davis provides a description of offerings based on Āgamic texts: Davis, *Ritual in an Oscillating Universe*, 148-159.

- 10. Adorning with flowers
- 11. Burning incense
- 12. Waving an oil lamp
- 13. Offering food
- 14. Paying homage by prostration, etc.
- 15. Circumambulation
- 16. Dismissal or taking leave of the deity

According to Fuller, items one through five, and fourteen through sixteen, are omitted in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple. Items six through thirteen are offerings which are made by the priests to Mīṇāṭci and Cuntarēcuvarar. These items are normally referred to under four headings: bathing (apiṭēkam or abhiṣekam), decorating (alaṅkāram), offering food (naivēttiyam) and offering lamps (tīpārātaṇai).²⁴ Fuller does not include singing or the recitation of texts as part of his list of offerings, but according to the Kāmikāgama, the recitation of texts, singing of songs (in various languages) and dancing should follow the offering of incense to the deity.²⁵

The cycle of daily $p\bar{u}cai$ refers to the $p\bar{u}cai$ offered to the presiding deities in their immovable forms in the main shrines. $P\bar{u}cai$ is conducted eight times a day for the presiding deities in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, although some of the $p\bar{u}cai$ s are joined together so that there is actually only six separate $p\bar{u}cai$ times. According to the

²⁴ Fuller provides a composite description of *pūcai* as it is conducted at the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple. Bathing is item six; decorating includes items seven through ten, offering food is item thirteen, and waving the lamp is item twelve but is sometimes preceded by an offering of incense (item eleven). *Camphor Flame*, 64-67.

²⁵ Davis cites the *Kāmikāgama* 4.436-39: "He should have songs consisting of mantras sung, or else vina music may be played. After the offering of incense, there should be Vedic recitations or readings from other sacred texts, and after that songs in the Gauda, and other languages. Afterward he should have performed songs composed in the Dravidian language, or in uncorrupt Sanskrit, joined with dance, or songs in the eighteen languages using many tones." *Ritual in an Oscillating Universe*, 150.

Āgamas, eight daily $p\bar{u}cais$ is the optimal number.²⁶ The names and times of the $p\bar{u}cai$ in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple are posted on a board in the temple:²⁷

Daily Worship	M ĭnāṭci AM	Cuntarēcuvarar AM
1. Tiruvanantal	5:00	6:00
 Viļāpūcai 	6:30-7:00	6:45-7:30
& 3. Kālacanti 4. Tirikālacanti & 5. Uccikālam	10:30-11:00	11:00-11:30
	PM	PM
6. Cāyaraţcai	4:30-5:15	5:00-5:30
7. Arttacāmam	7:30-7:45	7:45-8:30
8. Paḷḷiyarai	10:00	9:30

These $p\bar{u}cai$ s usually start earlier in Mīṇāṭci's shrine than in Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine. The exception is the last $p\bar{u}cai$ of the day, which begins in Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine because it is the $p\bar{u}cai$ in which his image is brought back to her shrine to spend the night.

A procession is the essential element of festival worship, during which movable images (*uṛcavamūrtti*) are taken around the precincts of the temple or to areas outside the temple. In the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, the deities are taken in procession within the *pirākārams* of the temple, along the square of Āṭi Streets within the compound walls, or along the other three concentric squares of streets surrounding the temple compound.²⁸

Festivals are conducted throughout the year, and according to Jeyechandrun there are festivals for the various deities or saints on 300 of the 365 days.²⁹ Fuller lists eight

²⁶ Ār. Supramaņiyan, "Parārtta Pūjai" in *Śiva Temples and Temple Rituals*, ed. by S.S Janaki (Madras: Kuppuswami Sastri Research Institute, 1988), 78.

²⁷ As of 3 July 1990. The same *pūcai* order is given by Nī. Cī. Cuntararāmaṇ. "Maturaik Kōyil Nittiya Valipāṭu" in *Maturait Tirukkōyil (The Madurai Temple Complex): Tirukkuṭa Naṇṇīrāṭṭup Peruvilā Malar (Kumbabhisheka Souvenir)*, ed. A. V. Jeyechandrun (Madurai: Arulmighu Meenakshi Sundaresvarar Tirukkoil, 1974), 271-3. The number of *pūcais*, their order and times differ from Diehl's record of the Devastānam list: Diehl, *Instrument and Purpose*, 148-152.

²⁸ See Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, 17-21.

²⁹ Jeyechandrun, *Madurai Temple Complex* (1985), 215.

festivals for Mīṇāṭci and Cuntarēcuvarar together, and four for Mīṇāṭci alone.³⁰ The most important of these festivals is in *Cittirai* month in which, among other events, the marriage of Mīṇāṭci and Cuntarēcuvarar is reenacted. There are two festivals for Śiva in his form as Naṭarācar: one in Āṇi month and one on *Tiruvātirai* day of *Mārkali* month. Festivals for Viṇāyakar, Murukaṇ and Nanti are held in *Māci* month. The saints' birthdays are celebrated by festivals as well.

Certain days of the week and certain days of the month also involve special worship. For example on Fridays the swing festival is conducted for Mīṇāṭci and Cuntarēcuvarar, during which they are swung on a swing in Ūñcal Maṇṭapam. On piratēṭam day,³¹ Cantiracēkaraṇ is taken in procession into the second pirākāram of Cuntarēcuvarar 's shrine.

Tiruvanantal Pūcai

"Tiruppalliyelucci" is sung during *Tiruvanantal Pūcai*, the first *pūcai* of the daily ritual cycle at the Mīnatci-Cuntarcuvarar Temple. The *pūcai* takes about an hour to complete and involves quite a number of temple staff.

Cast and Audience

The Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple is huge and therefore requires a very large staff. Fuller has discussed the staff of the temple as of 1980, and it is only necessary here to consider the staff directly involved in the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai*.³² In *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai*, a

³⁰ Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, 18.

³¹ According to the *Tamil Lexicon*, this is the thirteenth lunar day of the dark fortnight, a day which is auspicious for worshipping Śiva.

³² Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, chapter 2, 23-48. Fuller gives a short description of the duties and rights of the various positions, and their relative position in the heirarchy in society and in the temple.

number of priests, assistant priests, other temple support staff, $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ and musicians have direct roles. All these roles are filled by men. The many other staff which indirectly have roles such as the cleaning staff, the kitchen staff and the administrative staff will not be discussed here.

The role of the priest is the most important role in the overall ritual event in which "Tiruppalliyelucci" is sung. It is the priest who attends to the deities and makes the offerings during pūcai. There are two priestly families at the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple who have hereditary rights to perform priestly functions, but only one of these families has the right to perform the daily pūcai.³³ Every day there is one priest to attend to Mīṇāṭci and one to attend to Cuntarēcuvarar. The two positions are filled by a different priest each day according to a monthly schedule.³⁴ The *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* is conducted entirely by the priest of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine, even though the pūcai takes place in both Mīṇāṭci's shrine and in Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine.³⁵ He usually has two brahmin assistants which accompany him as he goes from shrine to shrine.

The ōtuvārs are the professional singers of Tamil songs in general and of the *Tirumurai* in particular. They sing the songs primarily in temples during daily ritual and festival ritual. In the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, the ōtuvārs give a recital of Tamil songs, accompanied by instrumental musicians, in the morning and evening in Kiļikkūṭu Maṇṭapam. It is the ōtuvārs who sing "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple.

³³ Fuller discusses these two families and their respective rights at some length: Fuller, Servants of the Goddess.

³⁴ Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple Priest, interview with the author, Hamilton, Canada, December 1991.

³⁵ I am told that Cuntarēcuvarar's priest does this *pūcai* because this is the *pūcai* in which Cuntarēcuvarar's image is returned to his own shrine.

The actual singing pattern of the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ deserves a separate study, however, a few general comments can be made here. One $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ summarized the daily singing duty as singing the $Pa\bar{n}capur\bar{a}nam$ in the daily $p\bar{u}cais$. This summary glosses over some interesting points. It seems that the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ sing the $Pa\bar{n}capur\bar{a}nam$ only during the middle four daily $p\bar{u}cais$ and only in Cuntarecuvarar's shrine. In the first and last $p\bar{u}cai$ times different songs are sung. The $Pa\bar{n}capur\bar{a}nam$ consists of selections from each of the following groupings of five Tirumurai texts:

- 1. *Tēvāram*, the first through seventh *Tirumurai*, which contains the poems of Tiruñānacampantar, Tirunāvukkaracar, and Cuntarar
- 2. Tiruvācakam and Tirukkōvaivār, the eighth Tirumurai, by Mānikkavācakar
- 3. *Tiruvicaippā*, which is a group of poems composed by nine different authors, in the ninth *Tirumurai*
- 4. Tiruppallāntu, composed by Centanar, also in the ninth Tirumurai
- 5. Periva Purāṇam, the twelfth Tirumurai, composed by Cēkkilār

The ōtuvārs probably select one poem from each of the five groups according to their liking, as they do when they sing the Pañcapurāṇam in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival. Another ōtuvār informed me that during the daily pūcai to Mīṇāṭci, rather than the Pañcapurāṇam, the ōtuvār sings songs from other works such as Maturai Mīṇāṭciyammai Piḷḷait Tamiḷ and Apirāmi Antāti, which are not part of the Tirumuṛai. The singing of the Tirumuṛai songs in Cuntarēcuvarar's complex but not in Mīṇāṭci's complex is an important distinction which corresponds with the fact that the images of the saints who composed those songs are found in Cuntarēcuvarar's complex but not in Mīṇāṭci's.

There were six $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ positions in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in 1993-94. One is the hereditary position of the *Stala Ōtuvār* and the other five are non-hereditary salaried positions. While the position of *Stala Ōtuvār* may be several hunderd years old,

 $^{^{36}}$ The Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}rs$, interviews with the author, Madurai, August 1990; July 1994.

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the position of non-hereditary salaried $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ seems to be a fairly modern development which began around the 1940s.³⁷

The $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ has a limited role in the $Tiruvanantal\ P\bar{u}cai$. The $p\bar{u}cai$ takes about fifty to sixty minutes, and the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ participates for only about ten minutes. The singing

An entry in the Government records of 1836 records a late succession dispute over the hereditary position of $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ in the Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, because the right to the position had been registered in the names of the heirs of only two of three brothers. The third brother was claiming his share from his nephews. Devakunjari mentions that during the Nayak period and the early British period there were two $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ working in the Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple. It is not clear what the source of her information is, and it is possible that the two mentioned by her may be the two brothers recorded in this dispute.

There are at least two factors which suggest that the appointment of non-hereditary $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ began in the 1940's or 1950's. The first is that in the 1940s in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple the role of the temple dancers ($t\bar{e}vat\bar{a}ci$) was eliminated, and the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ apparently took over some of their duties. Fuller had evidence that the $t\bar{e}vat\bar{a}cis$ used to sing in the first ($Tiruvaṇantal\ P\bar{u}cai$) and last $p\bar{u}cai$ ($Palliyarai\ P\bar{u}cai$), but notes that the $t\bar{e}vat\bar{a}cis$ stopped working in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in the 1940s and that the dedication of girls as $t\bar{e}vat\bar{a}ci$ was banned by a law in 1947. Fuller, $Servants\ of\ the\ Goddess$, 38, 40-1, 188 n, 24.

The second reason for the change in the role of the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ in the 1940s was that The Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments Department developed a deliberate policy of appointing $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ and Vedic reciters in temples in Tamil Nadu. Administration Report of the Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments (Administration) Department for the period from 1 April 1953-54 (Madras: Superintendent, Government Press, 1955), 12-4. This is the earliest report that I saw. The policy could have been in place earlier. See also the reports of 1954-55:16, and 1955-56:17.

The reports for the years 1954-55 and 1955-56 show that two temples in Madurai District had ōtuvārs and Vedic reciters. Administration Report of the Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments (Administration) Department for the period from 1 April 1954-5 (Madras: Superintendent, Government Press, 1957), 16, 92; Administration Report of the Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments (Administration) Department for the period from 1 April 1955-56 (Madras: Superintendent, Government Press, 1957), 17, 64.

By the time of the 1960-61 report, only four more temples in the Madurai District had ōtuvārs or Vedic reciters appointed. Administration Report of the Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments (Administration) Department for the period from 1 April 1960-1 (n.p., n.d.), 101.

³⁷ The superintendent, the *Stala Ōtuvār* and a few other *ōtuvār*s verified the number and status of *ōtuvār*s. I was told that the family of the *Stala Ōtuvār* was appointed with an endowment at the time of Tirumalaināyakkar (seventeenth century), and that it is recorded in Telugu on a copper plate. Details about the appointment of the *Stala Ōtuvār* at the time of Tirumalaināyakkar were provided by the *Stala Ōtuvār* and mentioned independently by a friend of the family.

during this $p\bar{u}cai$ is done by one of the non-hereditary $\bar{o}tuv\bar{u}rs$ who take turns performing this duty.

The instrumental musicians playing during *Tiruvanantal Pūcai* include a *nātasvaram* (wind instrument with a long pipe) player, a cymbal player and one or two drummers. They are present for most of the *pūcai* but do not play continuously. They proceed ahead of the priest during any major change of location, such as the procession from Mīnāṭci's temple to Cuntarēcuvarar's. In this segment there are also bearers who carry the palanquin carrying Cuntarēcuvarar's image from Mīnāṭci's shrine.

The audience for the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* consists primarily of devotees. The size of the crowd varies. In *Mārkali* month the crowd is very large, including a significant number of Ayyappa *bhaktas* on pilgrimage to Sabarimala in Kerala. During *Mārkali* month, the coldest and darkest time of the year, getting up very early and going to the temple is considered to be especially meritous. When I was observing this *pūcai* in 1990-91, I noticed that many of the same people came to the temple on a regular basis. On the occasions when I went into Mīṇāṭci's shrine, the atmosphere at this early hour was relaxed, friendly and sociable.

Devotees are entitled to view the images of the deities (taricanam) in the main shrines and to receive various piracātam, or substances that transfer the deity's grace to the devotee, but they are not permitted to go close to the deities. In the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, devotees must also satisify a basic dress code in that men are not permitted to wear a kaili or patterned piece of cloth; nor are they allowed to wear a paṇiyan or sleeveless undershirt.

Thus during $Tiruvanantal P\bar{u}cai$, the priest of the Cuntarecuvarar shrine conducts the $p\bar{u}cai$ aided by assistants, the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ sings, the musicians play, the bearers carry Siva's

image back to his daytime seat in the main shrine, and the devotees may view the deity (taricanam) and receive grace (piracātam).

The Event³⁸

The *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* is primarily the act of awakening the God and Goddess, and returning them to their respective shrines for the day. Cuntarēcuvarar, who is represented by an image of his feet when he joins Mīṇāṭci every night, is returned to the Linga in his sanctum. The *pūcai* thus begins at Mīṇāṭci's shrine and concludes in Cuntarēcuvarar's.

Only two of the four offerings discussed above are included in this *pūcai*. In other words, there is no *abhiṣekam* or *alaṅkāram*, but there is an offering of *naivēttiyam* and *tīpārātaṇai*. The *pūcai* starts at 5:00 AM and concludes before 6:00 AM. The ritual movement of the *pūcai* in both shrines is from the periphery toward the centre and back outside again. The motion inward and outward generally moves about the shrines in a

³⁸ There are several sources which refer to the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai*. Fuller gives a brief description of the main features of the ritual as they ocur at the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple and a list of deities worshipped during the *pūcai*. There are some minor differences between his list and mine: Fuller, *Servants of the Goddess*, 11-2; 168-70.

Diehl provides a fairly long description of the rituals the priest performs in order to prepare himself to undertake the worship, and a brief description of the worship itself based on Akōracivācāriyar's manual on worship, Śrī Pārātta Nittiya Pūjāviti. The description based on the manual seems to have little correspondence with what is actually done in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple: Diehl, *Instrument and Purpose*, 98-107.

Jeyechandrun provides another brief description based on the Tamil text, *Tamil Vițu Tūtu*. Jeyechandrun, *Madurai Temple Complex* (1985), 223-4.

Another short note about this *pūcai* is found in Cuntararāman, "Maturaik Kōyil Nittiya Valipātu," 271.

My description of the ritual is based on a detailed account from a priest, subsequent verification of that description with the same priest and another priest, clarifications from $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ and my own observations in 1990-91 and 1993-4. The description relies most heavily on informants for activity which is done inside the restricted area, and most heavily on my own observations for the activity done in areas to which I had access. I did see the *Tiruvanantal Pūcai* on two occasions in the restricted area, and was given a fairly detailed tour of the inner areas. Therefore, I have an idea of the layout of the restricted area and some sense of the activity of the $p\bar{u}cai$ which takes place there.

clockwise circumambulatory direction. Diagrams of the route of the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* in Mīṇāṭci's and Cuntarēcuvarar's Shrine are found in Appendix I, Diagrams 1 and 2 respectively. The numbers beside the names in the text below correspond to the numbers on the diagrams. The numbers indicate the location and the position in the sequence followed as the images are worshipped during this *pūcai*.

The *pūcai* begins outside Mīṇāṭci's shrine at the Citti Viṇāyakar shrine (1) which is on the south side of the outer wall of Mīṇāṭci's second *pirākāram* in Kiļikkūṭu Maṇṭapam. The assistant priest holds out a pot containing the *naivēttiyam* and offers the food to the deity with motions of his hand. Then he shows the five flame camphor lamp to that deity while he rings a bell. The priest and assistant priest, followed by a fluid audience, then move to the Kumāran shrine (2) on the opposite side of the door leading into Mīṇāṭci's shrine, and there they repeat the same actions.

Then the priest and his assistant enter Mīṇāṭci's shrine and proceed to the bedroom (paḷḷiyaṛai) in order to wake up Mīṇāṭci and Cuntarēcuvarar (3). The crowd follows and gathers around the paḷḷiyaṛai. The ōtuvār stands on the west side of the door to the paḷḷiyaṛai. Usually he sings only one poem of "Tiruppaḷḷiyeḷucci",³⁹ and then the door to the paḷḷiyaṛai is opened. The naivēttiyam is offered in the same way as at the other shrines by a motion of the priest's hand. Then a series of lamps are shown to the God and Goddess.

The priest and assistant go into Mīṇāṭci's sanctum, and rejoin her with her main image there (4).⁴⁰ They then leave the inner room and come out to one of the outer rooms

³⁹ During the ten days of the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival some *ōtuvār*s say they should sing "Tiruvempāvai" during this segment also. On two days in 1993 they sang the first poem of "Tiruppalliyelucci" at the *palliyarai* and the last poem of "Tiruvempāvai" in Tiruñanacampantar Mantapam.

⁴⁰ According to Fuller, the priest puts back Mīnātci's nose ring and thereby restores her powers to her main image: Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, 12.

to offer *naivēttiyam* to her with the curtain drawn so that the public cannot see. This is followed by the offering of a series of lamps to Mīṇāṭci. The curtain is opened as the first lamp in the series is offered. The last lamp is then brought to the people who pass their hand over it and then raise their hands to their faces. The priest then distributes *kunkumam*, a red saffron powder associated with the Goddess. Passing one's hands through the camphor flame and receiving *kunkumam* are two ways of receiving grace from the deity.⁴¹

Once Mīṇāṭci has been restored to her main shrine, the priest then returns the image of Cuntarēcuvarar's feet to his shrine. There are a number of stops on the way. The priest and his assistant return to the *paḷḷiyarai* (5) and take the image of the feet to a palanquin which is kept opposite the *paḷḷiyarai* in the second *pirākāram* (6). The palanquin is taken in the non-circumambulatory direction to the Tirumalaināyakkar statue (7) in the southeast corner of the second *pirākāram*.⁴² A single wick lamp, a five layer lamp and a camphor flame are offered to the image in the palanquin on behalf of Tirumalaināyakkar, the seventeenth century ruler of Madurai. Between the Viṇāyakar shrine and the Six Pillared Hall (8, 9) two more lamps are offered to the image of Cuntarēcuvarar's feet. The palanquin is then taken out of Mīṇāṭci's shrine and into Kiḷikkūṭu Maṇṭapam where another lamp is offered to Cuntarēcuvarar beside a large granite stone (10).⁴³ These four offerings of lamps are provided for by *kaṭṭalais*, which in this context means provisions for a special

⁴¹ Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, 14.

⁴² That is, in a non-circumambulatory direction because Śiva should not be thought of as worshipping Mīnaṭci. Mīnaṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple Priest, interview with the author, Hamilton, Canada, December 1991. The list of services offered to a deity includes circumambulation. If Śiva were to be taken in the circumambulatory direction he would be thought of as worshipping Mīnaṭci.

 $^{^{43}}$ I have not actually seen this stop, as on the occasions on which I observed this $p\bar{u}cai$, the palanquin proceeded straight into the second $pir\bar{a}k\bar{a}ram$ of the Cuntarēcuvarar shrine without stopping.

service to be offered to the deity on behalf of, or for the benefit of, some individual. In observing the ritual, it was not possible to identify who had provided for the services, nor on whose behalf they were being offered.⁴⁴

The image of the God's feet is then taken into Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine on the palanquin, led by the musicians and accompanied by the priest and his assistants. They proceed around the second pirākāram of Śiva's shrine in the clockwise circumambulatory direction. A number of stops are made on the way to the first pirākāram. The palanquin halts briefly at the shrine of the classical poets, the Cankattar temple (11) in the second pirākāram. I did not see any offering made there. The palanquin then continues its round of the second pirākāram, going around the large Nanti and stopping just in front of the guard (tuvārapālakar) on the south side of the door to Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine. An offering is made to Anukkaivināyakar there (12) because it is he who gives permission to enter the temple. He receives naivēttiyam and the five flame camphor plate. The palanquin remains by the guard, and the priest and an assistant go to worship Atikārananti, the chief of the temple who is set into the south side of the main door. They offer him naivēttivam and the five flame camphor plate (13). The priest and his assistant return to the palanquin and offer a single oil lamp, a five layer lamp and then a single camphor flame to the image of God's feet (14). This service is provided for by a *kattalai*, 45 and this is one of the favourite places for devotees to line up along the route and wait for the palanquin to come.

The palanquin is then taken inside to the first *pirākāram* and placed at the bottom of the steps on the south side of the main shrine beside the entrance leading to Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine (15). The priest takes the image of the feet and places it facing east

⁺¹ The priest did not know who had provided for these services, nor on whose behalf they were being offered.

⁴⁵ There is no obvious beneficiary for this service either, based on an observation of the ritual.

near the Śiva Linga in the inner sanctum (16). *Naivēttiyam* is offered while the curtain is closed. Then, the curtain is opened, and the same series of lamps offered to Mīnāṭci is offered to Cuntarēcuvarar. Afterward the priest brings the camphor flame to the devotees and distributes the sacred ash. 46 The sacred ash is associated with Śiva, as the *kuṅkumam* is with Mīnāṭci, and to receive the ash is to receive grace from God. 47 At this point, Cuntarēcuvarar has been restored to his main shrine.

The final portion of the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* is the worship of many of the inhabitants of the shrines beginning in the Makāmaṇṭapam, proceeding to the first *pirākāram* and finishing in the second *pirākāram*. The priest first offers *naivēttiyam* to images in the Makāmaṇṭapam, starting with the Naṭarācar in the Silver Hall (17). Naṭarācar is offered *naivēttiyam*, a single lamp and a camphor flame. The priest then offers *naivēttiyam* and the camphor to Cantiracēkaran (18), Urcavacittar (19) and the Nālvar or four saints (20).

The priest and the assistant then exit the Makāmaṇṭapam and proceed to the southeast corner of the first pirākāram where they worship the deities proceeding around the pirākāram in the circumambulatory direction. They begin with Cēkkiṭar (21) and continue in the following order: the sixty-three saints of the Periya Purānam (22), the Goddess, Caracuvati (23), Śiva in his form as guru, Taṭciṇāmūrtti (24), the festival deities (25), the festival image of Kārttikēyan (26), Śiva in his form of the column of fire, Linkōrpavar (27), Śiva as Lord of Kāsi, Kācivicuvanātan (28), Cittar (29), the Goddess, Tūrkkai (30), the festival images of Naṭarācar (31), the Aṭcara Linkam (32), the Goddess, Makālaṭcumi (33), and Irattinacapai Naṭarācar (34). The priest offers all of them

⁴⁶ At some point the image of the feet is then taken to a room and the door is locked.

⁴⁷ Fuller, Servants of the Goddess, 14.

naivēttiyam and the five flame camphor lamp. The festival images of Śiva, his consort, his children, Cantiracēkaran and Atikārananti (25) are offered one more lamp between naivēttiyam and the camphor.

The priest and his assistants leave the first *pirākāram* and proceed to the second *pirākāram* led by the musicians. They worship the deities in the Kampattaṭi Maṇṭapam proceeding in a clockwise direction. All receive *naivēttiyam* and are offered the five flame camphor lamp. The priest worships the large Nanti first (35). They then proceed to the three forms of Murukaṇ on the outer first *pirākāram* wall and offer worship first to Taṇṭayutavaṇ (36) and then to Kalukumalai Kumāraṇ (37) and finally to Pālamurukaṇ (38).⁴⁸ The priest then goes to the Navakkirakam (nine planets) and worships them as a group (39). The priest offers worship to Naṭarācar, who is in the Hundred Pillared Hall, from the steps leading into the hall (40). Then the priest makes the offerings first to Akkiṇivīrapattiraṇ and Akōravīrapattiraṇ as a pair (41), and then to Ūrttuvatāṇṭavar and Pattirakāļi also as a pair (42).

Finally, the priest and his assistant go to the Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam. At this stage, the $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ rejoins the $p\bar{u}cai$. Inside the Maṇṭapam, a single flame is shown to the eight saints. The $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ sings a poem which is inaudible from outside the maṇṭapam. On the floor in the maṇṭapam are several pails of milk. A brass pot is placed before the buckets of milk. The priest passes his hand over the brass pot. The brass pot is filled with milk. A ladle of milk from the brass pot is put into each bucket. The five flame camphor plate is shown. The flame is passed to the people inside (i.e., the $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$) and then brought to the devotees outside the maṇṭapam.

⁴⁸ I was told that worship was offered to Pālamurukan, but I did not actually see him receive it. I did not see the *pūcai* on the day that the priest who was describing it to me conducted it. Perhaps when he did this *pūcai* he made an offering to Pālamurukan.

The devotees line up to receive *piracātam* from a platform near the Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam (44). The *naivāttiyam* for this *pūcai* consists of fried rice (*pori*) and milk. The *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* ends with the distribution of the *piracātam* (milk only) to devotees. In the month of *Mārkali* the crowd is so large that bamboo rails are erected to direct the line up of devotees for the *piracātam*.

The "Ritual Text"

The only poems sung in the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* are those sung at the *palḷiyaṛai* at the beginning and in the Tiruñaṇacampantar Maṇṭapam at the end. Therefore the ritual text of *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* can be said to consist of only one poem selected from "Tiruppaḷḷiyeḷucci" and another poem chosen by the *ōtuvār* which is sung in praise of the saints at Tiruñaṇacampantar Maṇṭapam. The second poem may be a poem in praise of one saint one day, and another saint on another day. I was told that during ten days in *Mārkali* month "Tiruvempāvai" is sung in place of the *Pañcapurāṇam* in the temple, but during all ritual events there was some disagreement among the *ōtuvār*s regarding whether or not "Tiruvempāvai" should also be sung instead of "Tiruppaḷḷiyeḷucci" during those ten days. During at least a few of the ten days in *Mārkali* month in 1993-94 the *ōtuvār* on duty sang the twentieth poem of "Tiruvempāvai" in the Tiruñaṇacampantar Maṇṭapam, but he also sang a poem from "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" in the *palliyarai*.

The "ritual text" for this ritual is then short and composite, drawing on only two source texts on any one day. The first source text is Māṇikkavācakar's "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci", and the second is any text which is a song in praise of one or more of the saints. The text is stable in that it consists of two poems, one of which is almost always from "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci", yet fluid in that there is flexibility regarding which poem from "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" is used, and which poem is chosen to be sung in the Tiruñāṇacampantar

Maṇṭapam. It is not possible to say definitely what the structure of the whole text is because the poem which is sung at the end of the $p\bar{u}cai$ in the Tiruñaṇacampantar Maṇṭapam may vary daily and it is the choice of the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$.

Interpretation: The *Puram* Narrative World & Cuntarēcuvarar's Biography
The singing of this "ritual text" is part of the *Tiruvanantal Pūcai*, which is one event in the activities of the lives of Cuntarēcuvarar and Mīṇāṭci and their entourage at the MīṇāṭciCuntarēcuvarar Temple. The *Tiruvanantal Pūcai* is the event of awakening the presiding deities, Cuntarēcuvarar and his wife Mīṇāṭci. The singing of these two poems in this event incorporates the utterance of the poems into the act of awakening. The event is understood like the *puram* event of awakening the hero from sleep. In the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, the "hero" is the deity Cuntarēcuvarar. The voice heard in this narrative frame is not that of the source poet nor that of individual devotees, but rather the voice of a special servant of the hero, who plays the role of the bard in the *puram* frame. Therefore the event of awakening is situated as an event in the life of a specific hero, but not as an event involving a specific poet.

The singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" is unequivocally associated with the awakening of Cuntarēcuvarar and Mīṇāṭci. The priest, his assistants, the ōtuvār and the audience stand before the bedroom. The ōtuvār first sings a poem from "Tiruppalliyelucci", then the door to the bedroom is opened, naivēttiyam is offered and then tīpārātaṇai. In this context, the poem is sung as a song of awakening. The poem is not sung at any other point during the pūcai.

This particular use of the song evokes the *puram* theme mentioned in the previous section on interpretation, namely the theme of awakening the king from sleep. We see part of Aruṇācalam's *puram* interpretation of the hero being awakened in his castle by the bard

being evoked here. In this ritual setting, the king is the God, Cuntarccuvarar, and his wife, the Goddess, Mīṇāṭci, and the bard is a temple representative who is especially assigned to this task. The *puram*-like event takes place in the quarters of Mīṇāṭci at the bedroom.

This perspective is given some support by the comments of a priest. He explained that there are two ways to enjoy God: absorbing him (akattū[y]mai) or going to him (purattū[y]mai). "Tiruppalliyelucci" is the second variety. The priest's comments are suggestive of the classical akam and puram context, although he did not specifically make the connection. The akam (love) frame would be an indicator of the lover-beloved relationship with God or a mystical union; and the puram frame would be an indicator of the public relationship of king-subject with its primary motif of going to the hero and praising him. The priest, then, casts the worship of God in these two modes which seem to correspond to the two narrative worlds of akam and puram, and he seems to situate the singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the puram narrative world.

The singing of the poems as part of a *puram*-like event of awakening the hero is situated in the biography of a particular hero and his heroine, rather than in the biography of a particular speaker, such as the poet. Although "Tiruppalliyelucci" is sung in the *Tiruvanantal Pūcai* in other Śaiva temples, the singing of it described above is a particular ritual form which takes place in a particular temple, the Mīnatci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple. There is no mistake about which deities are being awakened; they are Cuntarēcuvarar and Mīnatci, the particular forms of Śiva and his consort who have manifested themselves in Madurai, who have a history in Madurai and who, as the *Tiruvilaiyatal Puranam* tells us, have proven to show concern for the inhabitants of Madurai and the surrounding area.

The emphasis in this ritual is on Cuntarccuvarar. The *pūcai* is conducted by the priest who attends to Cuntarccuvarar that day, even though part of the event takes place in Mīṇāṭci's shrine. The actual proportion of the ritual conducted in Mīṇāṭci's shrine is

minimal. There is the necessary preliminary worship of Vināyakar and Murukan at the beginning, but no other supporting deities are worshipped there. The worship on the route is directed towards the image of the feet of Cuntarēcuvarar in the palanquin rather than towards Mīnāṭci or the other images in her shrine. In contrast there is an elaborate worship which includes many of the subsidiary deities and saints after the procession reaches Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine. The *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* is particularly associated with Cuntarēcuvarar, and it is specifically the awakening of him and his household from sleep.

The event of awakening involves not only awakening the presiding deities, but establishing them in their day-time positions, making them comfortable, honoring them, and honoring other members of their household. The second poem used in the ritual is situated as part of the honoring of members of the hero's household, the saints. The event concludes with a sharing of the deity's beneficience (*piracātam*) among his followers.

The speaker or performer of "Tiruppalliyelucci" is not situated in any individual biography. The voice heard in this frame is not that of Māṇikkavācakar's, the composer of the source poem, nor that of the composer of the other poem (especially since this identity may change from day to day), nor that of individual devotees. Rather it is the voice of an officially appointed person for whom this is one of his duties. Neither Māṇikkavācakar nor any other poet has any particular presence in name or in image within this pūcai. The pūcai is called Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai, and it would not be called Māṇikkavācakar's Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai or any other poet's pūcai. At no time during the pūcai is Māṇikkavācakar's image worshipped by itself. It is worshipped as one of the four saints in Śiva's Makāmaṇṭapam (20) and as one of the eight saints in Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam (43), but in these contexts, Māṇikkavācakar has no priority over the other saints.

The voice of the song cannot belong to the audience. The $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ is separated from the audience spatially in that he stands on the east side of the steps before the *paḷḷiyarai* while the audience is off to the south. In the month of $M\bar{a}rka\underline{l}i$ when the crowd is bigger, the audience is separated from the immediate ritual space by ropes and at the end of the ritual, the $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ goes inside the Tiruñanacampantar Maṇṭapam, while members of the audience may not. Furthermore, devotees in their role as devotees or as particular individuals are not permitted to sing in this $p\bar{u}cai$; for it is only the $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ who is permitted to sing as one fulfilling a role.

In the formal structure of the temple ritual, the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ does not sing on his own behalf. It is the duty of the salaried $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ s to sing during this ritual as appointees, not because of who they are as individuals. There is no special association between an individual $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ and the $Tiruvanantal P\bar{u}cai$, it does not matter which particular $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ performs that task on any given day.

The "ritual text" of the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai*, which consists of a poem of "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci" and another poem in praise of the saints, is situated and ritually interpreted, as part of the *puram* event of awakening the hero. The event takes place in the hero's house, the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in Madurai, and consists of awakening a particular hero, Cuntarēcuvarar, his wife, Mīṇāṭci, and his household and preparing them for the day. The performer of the ritual text, the *ōtuvār*, has no particular identity and fulfills a role like the *puram* bard. In contrast, as we will now see, in the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, the speaker is given the particular identity of the poet, Māṇikkavācakar, and the interpretation of the "ritual text" is clearly in terms of the poet's biography.

III: Chapter 9: "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple: "Tiruvempāvai" in Māṇikkavācakar's Biography

In the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, "Tiruvempāvai" is sung only during the ten days up to and including *Tiruvātirai* day in *Mārkali* month. During these ten days the *ōtuvārs* will substitute "Tiruvempāvai" for the *Pañcapurāṇam* in all ritual events. Also, during these ten days a special festival is celebrated to honor Māṇikkavācakar and "Tiruvempāvai" in the temple. The entire festival is situated as an event in Māṇikkavācakar's life. He is identified as the singer of the poem and he sings before different deities, although Naṭarācar, the dancing form of Śiva, has special prominence.

This chapter will begin with a short description of the characters who participate in the festival, and will be followed by a description of the festival itself. The final portion of the chapter will provide a short description of the "ritual text", and a discussion showing how the festival portrays Māṇikkavācakar to be the singer of "Tiruvempāvai".

Caste and Audience¹

¹ My observations of this festival were made most extensively in 1993-94, and the description presented below is based primarily on those observations.

Technically, the festival took place in December 1993 and did not span into January 1994, however I am referring to it throughout as "1993-94" since it is often the case that the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival does span 2 calendar years.

The data included from the 1990-91 festival will be noted when used. In 1990-91 the festival ran from 22 December to 1 January, and in 1993-94 it ran from 20 December to 29 December. I also conducted interviews with the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ and one priest in 1990-91, and had ongoing discussions with some of the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, several priests and the superintendent of the temple in 1993-94. References to their views are taken from these interviews and the ongoing discussions.

Fuller provides a brief description of the festival. C. J. Fuller, *The Camphor Flame: Popular Hinduism and Society in India* (New Delhi: Viking, Penguin Books, 1992), 195; and also mentions it in passing: 182-203.

There is an inscriptional reference to *kōvaṇars* singing "Tiruvempāvai" at Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple dated in the thirteenth century; see. ARE [Annual Report (on South

The main figures in the festival are the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, the priests and their assistants, the musicians, the bearers and the audience. All participants, except a few members of the audience, are male.

The most important role in the festival belongs to the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, and in particular the Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$. The Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ is distinguished from the other $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ by receiving a special honor (particularly the parivaṭṭam (which is a long piece of cloth tied around the head).² The $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ sing "Tiruvempāvai" during the festival. All the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ of the temple participate in this festival.

Indian) Epigraphy] 192/ of 1942-3 quoted in A. V. Jeyechandrun, *The Madurai Temple Complex: With Special Reference to Literature and Legends* (Madurai: Madurai Kamaraj University, 1985), 366.

A date of the thirteen century is provided by K. G. Krishnan, "The Growth of the Madurai Temple Complex" in *Maturait Tirukkōyil (The Madurai Temple Complex):* Tirukkuṭa Naṇṇrāṭṭup Peruvilā Malar (Kumbabhisheka Souvenir), ed. A. V. Jeyechandrun (Madurai: Arulmighu Meenakshi Sundaresvarar Tirukkoil, 1974), 196.

Devakunjari writes that a ten day festival conducted for Māṇikkavācakar in Mārkali month in Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple was listed in a British record of 1802: D. Devakunjari, Madurai Through the Ages: From the Earliest Times to 1801 A.D. (Madras: Society for Archaeological, Historical and Epigraphical Research, 1979), 307.

There are inscriptional references to the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" in other temples. Four inscriptions refer to the "Tiruvempāvai" rights of the "dēvaraḍiyār/dēvaraḍiyāļ" at Vilvāraṇyēśvara Temple at Nallūr in South Arcot District: *Annual Report on South Indian Epigraphy* (New Delhi: Department of Archaeology), ARE 143, 149, 160 and 161 of 1940-41.

There is also an inscription referring to the recitation of "Tiruvempāvai" before Māṇikkavācakar at the Vīraṭṭānēśvara Temple at Valuvur in Tanjavur District: *South Indian Epigraphy*, ARE 421 of 1912

Younger provides a description of the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" at Citamparam Temple during *Mārkali*: Paul Younger, [forthcoming].

² "Honors" is a system of giving special recognition to people who are important in a particular ritual context. These people may be temple personnel or donors. Breckenridge defines a donor as any devotee who offers services, or supplies, or both, for the purpose of worshipping the deities. Carol Appadurai Breckenridge, "The Śrī Mīnākṣi Sundareśvarar Temple: Worship and Endowments in South India, 1833-1925," (Ph.D. diss., University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1976), 105. She discusses honors in the Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple on 105-24.

Recognition is bestowed upon the important person by giving them one or more items such as a headband (*parivaṭṭam*) during the ritual event. The primary significance of the honors is the prestige bestowed represented symbolically by giving the clearly specified

The priest and his assistants are perhaps the next most important individuals as they conduct the *pūcai* which accompanies the singing of "Tiruvempāvai". I was told that for each day of the festival a different priest had the rights to perform the priestly duties, but I observed that the same priest performed the duties for most of the festival. The priest makes the offerings of *naivēttiyam* and *tīpārātaṇai* to the deities and to the image of Māṇikkavācakar, distributes honors, and gives *piracātam* to the audience.

There were two groups of musicians in the festival, both of whom have roles in some segments. The first group is associated with the temple worship generally, while the second group only accompanied the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$. The temple group is comprised of a $n\bar{a}tasvaram$ player, cymbals player, drummer and accordian player who perform during daily $p\bar{u}cai$, and play in front of the image of the deity when it is being carried in processions. There are three musicians who accompany the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$: a drummer and two accordian players. They walk with the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ behind the image of Śiva in the procession, and they accompany the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ during the daily singing sessions in the Kilikkūtu Mantapam outside Mīnātci's shrine. The $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r's$ musicians also receive honors in this festival.

Another visible role in the festival is that of the bearers. The bearers carry the platform with the festival images from place to place. Their level of fatigue dictates the pace of some segments of the festival, and they routinely receive *piracātam*.

I am using "audience" here to refer to those who come to the temple but do not fulfill any of the above roles or any official temple function. During this festival there is a

very small crowd which watches the ritual in the various segments, receives the camphor flame and ash in the appropriate places, or goes in procession with the festival image.

Segments and Sequence

The festival may be divided into three segments: I. the activities of the first day; II. the repeated pattern of core activities of the second through the ninth day; and III. the activities of the final day. Segment I takes place in the Makāmaṇṭapam of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine. Segment II takes place in several places: the east side of the Kampattaṭi Maṇṭapam, the Hundred Pillared Hall, the Āṭi streets, the Kiḥikkūṭu Maṇṭapam outside Mīṇāṭci's shrine, and the second pirākāram of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine. Segment III is conducted at the Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam. (Diagram 3 of Appendix I shows the locations of the various parts of the festivals.) All activities of the festival, with the exception of Segment I, occur in areas of the temple accessible to non-Hindus.

Segment I: First Day in the Makamantapam of Cuntarécuvarar's Shrine

The first segment of the festival represents a movement into the festival time. It is a relatively short event which takes place on the evening of the first day. It consists of rekṣāpantaṇam³ for Māṇikkavācakar, and singing before the Linga and Naṭarācar. The following description of this segment is based on a general description by a priest, my own observations, and a discussion with the Stala Ōtuvār.

According to an official statement about the festival, it was to begin before Arttacāmam pūcai, which on a normal day places the starting time around 7:45 PM. However, this festival runs concurrently with a ten day festival for Mīnāṭci, and the

³ I have transliterated the term from the temple notice.

opening ritual of this festival starts only after the segment of Mīṇāṭci's festival has been completed.

According to one of the priests, Māṇikkavācakar is first given abhiṣekam (bath) and alankāram (decoration) in the cērtti, the place in the first pirākāram where Māṇikkavācakar's festival image is kept during the ten days of the festival. Part of the saint's dress is a parivaṭṭam (a silk scarf of special honor). The adorned festival image of the poet, Māṇikkavācakar, is then brought into the Makāmaṇṭapam of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine, and placed opposite the Naṭarācar in the Silver Hall in a direct line with the Linga in the main shrine. A string is then tied on Māṇikkavācakar's right wrist (rekṣāpantaṇam) to protect him during the course of the festival. The ōtuvārs sing the twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai". After each poem, there is naivēttiyam and tīpārātaṇai. The naivēttiyam consists of a banana and betel leaf. The tīpārātaṇai consists of a single flame oil lamp and the five layered lamp. After the last poem there is a special series of lamps. The priest adds that the Stala Ōtuvār receives a parivaṭṭam, and the other ōtuvārs are given sacred ash.

My observation of this segment was restricted to what was in immediate line with the main doorway, and it seemed to me that the image was being decorated in the Makāmaṇṭapam itself by the *ōtuvār*s at around 8:15 PM. Māṇikkavācakar was placed in direct line with the Linga as the priest described, and the priest stood between Māṇikkavācakar and the Śiva Linga (Cuntarēcuvarar), very near Māṇikkavācakar but south of the direct line between the Linga and Māṇikkavācakar. The priest's assistant stood in

⁴I observed the event from the doorway of the first *pirākāram*, the limit to which non-Hindus are allowed to go. Māṇikkavācakar was placed directly in front of the Linga, and therefore directly in front of the door. I could see the activity immediately surrounding Māṇikkavācakar, but could not see the *ōtuvār*(s) nor hear the singing.

approximately the same postion but to the north of the line. The priest periodically rang a bell and showed a lamp first to the Linga, then to Naṭarācar and finally to Māṇikkavācakar.

The Stala Ōtuvār in a later explanation of the ritual sequence, said that he was the only ōtuvār who sang, and that he stood just east of a line between Naṭarācar and Māṇikkavācakar. First Māṇikkavācakar was given the rekṣāpantaṇam, then the Stala Ōtuvār received the parivaṭṭam, and then he sang twenty-five poems. The first five were the Pañcapurāṇam, and the other twenty were "Tiruvempāvai" poems. After each of the twenty-five poems a lamp was offered. We may recall that the ōtuvārs usually sing the Pañcapurāṇam during the daily pūcai in Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine, but sing only "Tiruvempāvai" during the ten days of the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival. Tying the string on Māṇikkavācakar (rekṣāpantaṇam) and singing the Pañcapurāṇam followed by "Tiruvempāvai" on the first day seems to represent the transition into the festival time and its activities.

Segment II: Days 2 - 9: The Core of the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival

The activities of the festival follow the same basic pattern for the middle eight of the ten days. All activities except for the daily decoration of Māṇikkavācakar, take place in areas accessible to everyone. It was possible, therefore, to observe in greater detail the activities of these days.⁵

The events of this portion of the festival take place in the morning. According to an official acount they should begin at 6:30 AM, but in my observations they began as early as 6:20 and as late as 6:45. The whole event takes about one hour.

⁵ I observed the events of segment II for seven of the eight days in 1993-94, and on one day of this eight day period in 1990-91.

Segment II can be sub-divided into 6 parts. This six-part segment starts after the daily decoration of Māṇikkavācakar, which occurs in the *cērtti* where the festival images of the presiding deities are kept in the first *pirākāram* of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine. Each part involves different activities, and, with the exception of 1 and 6, they occur in different locations.

Segment II.1: The Stala Ōtuvār Sings before Māṇikkavācakar

The general pattern of II.1 is: Māṇikkavācakar's adorned image is brought on a platform to the second pirākāram, preceded by the temple musicians. Māṇikkavācakar's image is placed on the eastern side of the flagpole in the Kampattaṭi Maṇṭapam, positioned so that he faces the Linga. The platform is very large and is carried with some difficulty by young male temple staff. The Stala Ōtuvār and the priest or his assistant stand between the Maṇṭapam and Māṇikkavācakar, facing the saint. The priest gives the Stala Ōtuvār ash.6 The ōtuvār sings a poem in praise of Māṇikkavācakar, and plays cymbals. When the ōtuvār fīnishes the poem, the image of Māṇikkavācakar, followed by the ōtuvār, the priest and his assistant, go into the Hundred Pillared hall.

This poem is found among other poems of praise to various deities and saints at the beginning of the *Tiruviļaiyāṭal Purāṇam*. The following is a translation of the poem as it was provided by the *Stala Ōtuvār*:

In Praise of Mānikkavācakar

without ever ceasing to worship the God who is the clarity of the Vedas with [our] hands folded in worship on [our] heads submerged in tears, weeping, we will serve the devotees of the devotee who reached the feet.⁷

⁶ According to one priest, the *Stala Ōtuvār* when receiving the ash is receiving *piracātam* from Māṇikkavācakar.

⁷ Mānikkavācakar Tuti

There was some variation from this basic pattern during the course of the festival. On three days this part of segment II was omitted altogether because, either the Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ or the priest was not there. On two of the days there was no $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ so the priest sent the platform to the Hundred Pillared hall for segment II.2. On the third day there was no priest, so the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ sent the platform to the Hundred Pillared Hall. On yet another day when the $Stala\ \bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ was not there, another $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ was summoned by the priest to take his place.

It is difficult to assess the audience for this part of the ritual as it is conducted in a major thorough-fare of the temple and people are passing by who are unaware of this ritual. Many stopped and looked, but it is difficult to say whether they had come specifically to see this part of the event.

Segment II.2: Māṇikkavācakar Sings before Naṭarācar

Segment II.2 consists of the performance of all the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" before Naṭarācar. Māṇikkavācakar is placed on a dais facing Naṭarācar. The ōtuvārs stand in a line on Naṭarācar's right with the Stala Ōtuvār standing closest to Naṭarācar. The priest stands inside Naṭarācar's sanctum, also on the deity's right side. The assistant priest stands on Naṭarācar's left. Naṭarācar's shrine, the platform on which the ōtuvārs stand,

eļutaru maraikaļ tērā iraivanai

polutaru kālattu yenrum pūcanai vitātu ceytu

toluta kai talaimītu yēra tulumpu kannīrul mūlka

alutați ațainta anpan ațiyavarkku ațimai ceyvam

The ōtuvār cited this as being from the Tiruviļaiyāṭal Purāṇam. There is a slight difference from a published version of the poem found in Irāya. Co., Tiruviļaiyāṭaṛ Purāṇam: Maturai Kāṇṭam (Maturai: Mīṇāṭci Cuntarēcuvarar Tirukkōyil, 1973), 8. The published version has "elliṛkaṅkul" after "iraivaṇai", "aru" for "aṛu", "talaimēl" for "talaimītu", "tuļumpu" for "tulumpu", and "mūlki" for "mūlka".

⁸ On the day which I observed in 1990 this segment was also omitted. The *Stala Ōtuvār* came sometime later, and segment II.2 was delayed until he arrived.

and the dais on which Māṇikkavācakar is placed, are all raised several feet above the main floor. The audience stands on the main floor, usually the men on Naṭarācar's right side and the women on his left side. People who inadvertently move into the open space between Māṇikkavācakar and Naṭarācar, or who climb onto the platform where the ōtuvārs stand, are generally moved away by the ōtuvārs or the assistant priests.

The ritual begins with a showing of a series of five oil lamps and a camphor flame, shown first to Nataracar and then to Manikkavacakar. Then honors are distributed to the ōtuvārs beginning with the Stala Ōtuvār. The Stala Ōtuvār receives the parivattam, which distinguishes him from the other ōtuvārs. Then all the ōtuvārs, beginning with the Stala Ōtuvār, receive garlands, the camphor flame, ash and sandal. When this distribution of honors is completed the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" begins. Each ōtuvār sings a poem, beginning with the Stala Ōtuvār, and proceeding down the line of ōtuvārs, and then back to the Stala Ōtuvār. After each poem of "Tiruvempāvai" is sung, the priest shows a single oil lamp and then a camphor flame first to Natarācar and then to Māṇikkavācakar. After the final poem is sung and the oil lamp and camphor flame are shown, naivēttiyam is offered first to Natarācar and then to Māṇikkavācakar. Then a final series of lamps are shown to Natarācar and then Mānikkavācakar. These are the same set of lamps that initiated the ritual. The final camphor flame is taken to the *otuvārs* first and then to the audience. Then sacred ash, cuntal (chick pea snack), bananas and betel (verrilai pākku paṭṭi) are distributed to the *ōtuvār*s in the order in which they stand, beginning with the *Stala Ōtuvār*. Finally the sacred ash and *cuntal* are distributed to the members of the audience.

This general pattern varied in several ways from day to day. I was told that every day a different priest had rights to perform in this ritual. Even if that is the traditional arrangement, on five of the seven days that I observed this segment the same priest performed the duties. This led to continuity in the performance of the priestly side of the

ritual. On one of the days on which a different priest officiated there were quite a few changes. The *naivēttiyam*, for instance, was offered prior to the initial set of lamps, at the beginning of the ritual rather than at the end. Also, this priest showed the initial set of lamps, as well as the other lamps after each poem. After the final poem he showed the first three lamps to Naṭarācar and not to Māṇikkavācakar, and only the fourth and fifth lamps were shown to Naṭarācar then Mānikkavācakar.

The number of $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ participating in the ritual varied from three to six. For five days the same three $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ performed the singing of "Tiruvempāvai": the current Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ and two others. On the eighth day of the festival the ritual started with only two $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, neither of whom was the Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$, and one of whom had not participated on the other three days. After a few poems another $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ came, and he stood farthest away from Naṭarācar. During the singing of the next poem the retired Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ came and took the position nearest to Naṭarācar. On the final day, five $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ participated and the sixth $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ came in during the final series of lamps. On this day the retired Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ took the position nearest to Naṭarācar, and the current Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ actually stood last until a sixth $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ arrived and stood after him.

Occasionally other people did share the platform with the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$. On two days there was a lay trustee of the temple, and on one of the days an acquaintance of the trustee

⁹ The Stala Ōtuvār position is hereditary. The retired Stala Ōtuvār is the father of the current Stala Ōtuvār. When the father acts as Stala Ōtuvār he receives all the honors due to the Stala Ōtuvār such as the parivaṭṭam and priority in position and in receiving the other honors. I asked a priest about the switching of roles and which one of the two should receive the parivaṭṭam, and was told that it does not matter as both are the same, they together are the Stala Ōtuvār. So, although the son is now the current Stala Ōtuvār, when his father participates he defers, usually taking the last position among the salaried ōtuvārs and receiving honors last.

I did not see a distinction in the type of honors the salaried $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ received. However, one of the older salaried $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ usually stood beside the Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ and therefore was usually second in receiving honors.

as well. On another day some boys were permitted by the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ to share the platform. These people did not sing, and I did not see any woman on the platform during the ritual. On the final day, the musicians who accompanied the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ stood on the platform behind the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, except for the drummer who stood on Naṭarācar's left, and after poem 2 returned to his usual position.

There were also variations in the distribution of honors. On the day that the two guests shared the platform with the $\delta tuv\bar{a}rs$, the guests received the initial honors, even before the $\delta tuv\bar{a}rs$. No guest, however, received a parivațiam, which is the honor due to the Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ alone. The guests also received the substances distributed at the end of this segment, prior to the $\delta tuv\bar{a}rs$. The boys on the platform did not receive any honors as the guests had. On another day the garlands and other substances arrived late. Used garlands were distributed to the $\delta tuv\bar{a}rs$ at the beginning, but at about poem 5, the fresh garlands arrived, and there was a break in the singing while the fresh garlands were distributed. The Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ also received the parivațiam at this point, and the camphor flame was taken to the properly attired $\bar{\delta}tuv\bar{a}rs$ before the singing resumed. On the final day, all the $\bar{\delta}tuv\bar{a}rs$ and the $\bar{\delta}tuv\bar{a}r$ musicians received a new piece of cloth as parivațiam. On this day the Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ did not wear the parivațiam which he usually wore. On the days that the $\bar{\delta}tuv\bar{a}rs$ arrived late, they received honors when they arrived.

There was little variation in the format of the singing of "Tiruvempāvai". The $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ s stood turned towards Naṭarācar and sang. The $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ closest to Naṭarācar always sang the first poem. The $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ standing next to him sang the next and so on. The same $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ s, however, did not always stand in the same place, so they did not always sing the same poems. The singing style was not uniform. Each $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ would give a personal rendition of the poem he sang, embellishing one phrase or prolonging another.

The audience for this segment was composed of a few regulars, some people who came once and appeared to know what was going on, and people passing by who apparently saw some activity and came to see what it was. Generally the audience for the singing was fluid, composed primarily of people coming and going. During segment II.2 the audience sometimes grew to approximately thirty people. The core group, those who were present for most or all of this segment on a single day usually included between six and eight older women. The core group of men numbered as high as eight, but there were none at all on some days. There were about six regular women and one regular man who came almost every day and stayed. Occasionally members of the audience tried to sing along, but the variation in the *ōtuvārs*' personal styles made participation in the singing difficult.

Segment II.3: Māṇikkavācakar's Procession

After the activites at the Hundred Pillared Hall are finished Māṇikkavācakar's image is taken in procession around the Āṭi streets. He is carried on his platform out the main eastern gate of the Cuntarēcuvarar's complex to a cart. Meanwhile the other participants in the procession gather around the intersection of East Āṭi street and the hall leading to Cuntarēcuvarar's Shrine.

The procession has a number of components. The procession is led by a bull covered with an elaborate cloth supporting drums which the attendant beats. Two elephants follow also covered with elaborate cloths accompanied by their attendants. Two umbrella bearers follow the elephants. Next are the temple musicians - a *nātasvaram* player, an accordian player and a cymbals player. They are followed by the priest and his assistant who are in turn followed by Māṇikkavācakar's image on the cart. The *ōtuvār*s follow behind Māṇikkavācakar in a row singing "Tiruvempāvai" in unison. The

procession is completed by the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ musicians who walk beside and behind the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$. 10

The procession begins once all the participants have gathered. At the beginning the priest offers incense (cāmpirāṇi) to Māṇikkavācakar. Then the procession sets out in the clockwise circumambulatory direction, southward on East Āṭi Street. At each of the major and minor compass points the procession stops and the priest offers incense to Māṇikkavācakar. On the South Āṭi Street the procession stops at the Paṇṇiru Tirumurai Maṇram (Twelve Tirumurai Association). Pūcai is offered through the priest by representatives of the maṇram. A plate with coconut, banana and camphor is handed to the priest. The priest breaks the coconut, and then puts it back on the plate. The torchbearer lights the camphor and the priest offers the whole plate including the camphor flame to Māṇikkavācakar. The priest then passes the flame on the plate to worshippers and returns the plate to the representative from the maṇram. The priest distributes sacred ash. The contents of the offering plate are shared with the torchbearers and cartpullers who distributed their portion of it amongst themselves. The procession then continues. In 1990 the procession made at least two additional stops. One was at one of the shops on East Āṭi Street and the other at the Tiruppukal Maṇṭapam near the Twelve Tirumurai Association.

There was some variation from the general pattern on certain days. On the third day of the festival there was a heavy downpour at the time of the procession. The venue was changed to the covered second *pirākāram* of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine. It took some effort to assemble the procession in there. The bull was not in the procession, only the two elephants eventually led the procession. One of the elephants was brought in the eastern

 $^{^{10}\,\}mathrm{The}$ drummer walked beside the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r\mathrm{s}$ and the accordian players followed behind.

¹¹ According to one priest, arrangements had to be made in advance with the temple administration in order for the procession to stop along the way.

door of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine to the south corridor and began the procession, and the other elephant joined the procession further on. Also on this day the procession did not stop at the Twelve Tirumurai Association, which is situated on South Āṭi Street, and I did not see a similar *pūcai* performed along the second *pirākāram* route. On the first day of the festival there was a man carrying a long silver staff who followed the temple musicians, but I did not see him on subsequent days.

Generally the ōtuvārs who sang in the earlier singing in the hall participated in the procession also. The exception to this was the retired Stala Ōtuvār who walked before Māṇikkavācakar in the procession without singing and who on the last day did not go in the procession at all. The same priest and assistant who officiated in the Hundred Pillared Hall also officiated in this part. On one day someone at the mannam gave an offering directly to Māṇikkavācakar, but this is generally not permitted as only the priests are ritually eligible and have rights to offer worship to the festival images of the temple.

Few people follow along in the procession. Sometimes a few of the regulars from the recitations inside would participate. On at least one occasion a member from the Twelve Tirumurai Association joined in and followed the procession.

Segment II.4: Singing at Kilikkūṭu Maṇṭapam and Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam

There are two concurrent ritual activities which take place after the procession. When the procession concludes at the main eastern gate of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine, the image of Māṇikkavācakar is taken to the Kilikkūṭu Maṇṭapam and then to Mīṇāṭci's Shrine accompanied by the priest, his assistant, the Stala Ōtuvār, and the temple musicians (II.4a). In the meantime, the other ōtuvārs and ōtuvār musicians proceed to the Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam and conclude the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" there (II.4b).

In the Kiļikkūţu Mantapam, Mānikkavācakar is placed in front of and facing Citti Vināyakar. The *Stala Ōtuvār* sings the second poem of "Tiruvempāvai". Then the priest offers milk, and a plate containing bananas and a camphor flame to Citti Vināyakar. Afterwards Mānikkavācakar is taken to the main doorway of Mīnātci's shrine, in the area in front of Nanti facing Mīnātci. The priest, assistant and *Stala Ōtuvār* go inside the second *pirākāram* of Mīnātci's Shrine and stand on the eastern side of the flagpole. Here the *Stala Ōtuvār* sings the sixteenth poem of "Tiruvempāvai". Again an offering is made, and on the last day I was able to see that the offering was made only to Mīnātci, not to Māṇikkavācakar. Māṇikkavācakar's image is then taken to face Kumāran (Murukan) in the Kilikkūtu Mantapam. Here, the *Stala Ōtuvār* sings poem 5 of "Tiruvempāvai", and an offering is made to the deity but not to Mānikkavācakar.¹²

There was not much variation from day to day in this segment. The day that the current *Stala Ōtuvār* did not come, his father, the retired *Stala Ōtuvār* sang the poems. The other *ōtuvār*s never participated in segment II.4a. On one occasion the *ōtuvār* put his hands over the flame after it had been offered to the deity. Two other times the *Stala Ōtuvār* received the *piracātam*, milk and bananas, which had been offered to the three deities after worship was fīnished at the Kumāran shrine. On one of these days the *ōtuvār* shared the milk with a couple of female participants, ¹³ one of whom was a regular attender at this event. The position of Māṇikkavācakar in front of the Mīṇāṭci Shrine was altered in order to prevent people from stepping in the line of Māṇikkavācakar's view of Mīṇāṭci. At first he was placed back from the main door, but on subsequent days he was moved closer

¹² Later some priests and the *Stala Ōtuvār* confirmed that there is no offering made to Māṇikkavācakar's image during segment II.4a. I was also told by the *Stala Ōtuvār* that it is their "family tradition" to sing these particular poems in front of these particular images during this festival.

¹³ These are the occasions on which these actions were specifically observed. I did not specifically see whether or not they happened on the other days.

to the door, thereby blocking the door in order to prevent people from stepping in front of Māṇikkavācakar.

In the other concurrent component of this segment (II.4b), all the other $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ who participated in II.2 and II.3 go to the Tiruñaṇacampantar Maṇṭapam accompanied by the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ musicians. They stand at the bottom of the steps of the *maṇṭapam* facing west, and complete the singing of "Tiruvempāvai". When this is concluded the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ go to Kiḷikkūṭu Maṇṭapam, and generally reached there before that component of part four is completed.

Segment II.5: Māṇikkavācakar sings to Cantiracēkaran and Consort in Procession

Segment II.5 consists of a procession around the second pirākāram of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine in which the images of Śiva as Cantiracēkaran and Māṇikkavācakar are carried.

After the worship at the Kumāran shrine has been completed, Māṇikkavācakar is taken to Cuntarēcuvarar's second pirākāram and placed just outside the doorway to Kilikkūṭu Mantapam where he waits with the Stala Ōtuvār.

Meanwhile the priest and his assistant go to bring Cantiracēkaran. First, they sprinkle water and show a single flame lamp to the large *palipīṭam* in the Kampattaṭi Maṇṭapam. Then, they go to the eastern side of the Kampattaṭi Maṇṭapam, where the image of Cantiracēkaran is waiting there in a silver palanquin. The priest shows a single oil lamp to the palanquin. The palanquin is then carried to the south-east corner where another lamp is shown to the deities there, and it is then taken to the place where the image of Māṇikkavācakar and the *Stala Ōtuvār* are waiting. The entire procession then proceeds around the second *pirākāram* in the circumambulatory direction.

The procession is led by Māṇikkavācakar, proceeding backwards so that he faces the deity. The priest, his assistant, the torchbearer, and the *Stala Ōtuvār* follow

Māṇikkavācakar (i.e. they are looking at Māṇikkavācakar, while the deity behind them is inside a palanquin). The palanquin comes last with a trident bearer walking nearby. There are no bulls, elephants, umbrella bearers, or musicians (temple or $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$). No other $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ s participate in this segment. The *Stala Ōtuvār* sings all the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" in order while proceeding around the *pirākāram*. At each of the eight compass points the procession stops and a single lamp is offered to the deity in the palanquin.

In this segment I observed little variation from this general description. On one day it seemed that the priest made the motion of sprinkling water on the *palipīṭam* rather than actually doing so. Also on one day the trident was absent from the procession. One day in particular I noticed that the *Stala Ōtuvār* was singing particularly loudly and in a more complex way than usual. It happened to be the same day that one of the regular attenders of the festival was walking with the procession trying to sing along. As I said in reference to II.2, if she wanted to sing along with the *ōtuvār* it would have been difficult for her to anticipate where the changes would come, and I wondered if the *ōtuvār* was trying to impede this woman's participation by singing in a more complex manner than on other days, because an audience member does not have the right to participate in the festival in this way.

Very few audience members followed along with this procession, and I and my colleague were actually the most regular. On one occasion two family members of the $Stala\ \bar{O}tw\bar{a}r$ accompanied the procession, and one woman who attended the rest of the festival regularly came on this procession several times.

¹⁴ I did not notice temple musicians, but one day I did notice the ōtuvār drummer.

Segment II 6: Māṇikkavācakar and Cantiracēkaran in Front of the Linga

The final part of segment II is a *pūcai* conducted at the same place at which segment II begins, the space on the east-side of the flagpole in Kampattaṭi Maṇṭapam. The procession of II.5 terminates at this spot, and the image of Māṇikkavācakar is held facing Cuntarēcuvarar, as it is at the beginning of this segment. The palanquin is held between Māṇikkavācakar and the flagpole, facing south. The priest and his assistant usually stand between the palanquin and the flagpole on the south side, and the *Stala Ōtuvār* stands between the palanquin and the flagpole on the north side. If the *ōtuvār* has not already completed all the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" during the procession around the second *pirākāram*, he completes them here, and on two days he sang the twentieth poem of "Tiruvempāvai" at this point, while on other days he had finished singing before he reached this position.

The final *pūcai* includes offerings of incense, a single flame oil lamp, a five layer lamp and a single camphor flame. On the last day *naivēttiyam* preceded the offering of incense. Each of these things is offered to the Linga, the palanquin and then to Māṇikkavācakar. Occasionally the order of the offerings was changed and it was offered to the palanquin first. One day the offerings were made to Māṇikkavācakar first, but this was the day that a non-regular priest officiated. The final camphor flame is passed to the audience.

When this part of the ritual is completed the festival is finished for the day.

Māṇikkavācakar's image is taken back to the *cērtti* where he resides for the duration of the festival. The participants disperse.

There was usually a fairly large audience for II.6. The location is a main thoroughfare and the participants had difficulty keeping people from walking through the

middle of the ritual space while they were getting ready. During the *pūcai*, and especially during *tīpārātaṇai*, people crowded around and pushed in to see.

Segment III: Finale at the Tiruñanacampantar Mantapam

The last segment of the festival is a performance of "Tiruvempāvai" before Mīṇāṭci at the Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam. This portion takes place in the evening of the final day. According to Fuller, this segment coincides with the Poṇṇuñcal festival of Mīṇāṭci which is connected to the Eṇṇcykkāppu Festival.¹⁵

A festival image of Mīṇāṭci is placed on a swing which has been set up temporarily in the Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam. The image of Māṇikkavācakar is placed at the bottom of the steps leading up to the Maṇṭapam on the eastern side of the steps facing west. The ōtuvārs line up on the opposite side of the steps. The priest and his assistants stand between Māṇikkavācakar and the ōtuvārs during the singing of "Tiruvcmpāvai", and during the rituals which seemed to concern Mīṇāṭci only, they stand or sit inside the Maṇṭapam. The rather large audience sits on the northwest corner of the steps behind ropes and barriers.

Around 7:00 PM Mīṇāṭci is brought into the *maṇṭapam* and placed on the swing, after a short *pūcai* with five other processional deities placed in the pillared area in front of the Hundred Pillared Hall. For the next fifteen minutes or so preparations and rituals are performed for Mīṇāṭci. A single flame offered to Mīṇāṭci signals the conclusion of these rituals. Immediately after this, the *ōtuvār*s receive sacred ash and a garland, beginning with the *Stala Ōtuvār*. The *Stala Ōtuvār* also receives the *parivaṭṭam*. The *ōtuvār*s then sing "Tiruvempāvai". Each sings a poem in turn, beginning with the *Stala Ōtuvār* singing

¹⁵ See Fuller, *The Camphor Flame*, 182-203 for a description of these two festivals.

the first poem. After each poem a single flame oil lamp and a single camphor plate are shown while the priest rings a hand bell. The lamp is shown first in the direction of Somāskandar in front of the Hundred Pillared Hall, then to Mīṇāṭci on the swing, and finally to Mānikkavācakar. 16

I observed that in the 1993-94 festival, four $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ s participated in this segment. The retired $Stala\ \bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$ was acting as $Stala\ \bar{O}tuv\bar{a}r$, and therefore received the special honor of the parivattam.

The order of showing the lamps varied slightly after the first few poems. One time the oil lamp was shown to Māṇikkavācakar first and then to Mīṇāṭci, and on another occasion the camphor flame was shown to Sōmāskandar, Māṇikkavācakar, and then Mīṇāṭci. By far the most common pattern was Sōmāskandar, then Mīṇāṭci, then Māṇikkavācakar.

When the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" is finished, the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ sing the $Pa\bar{n}capur\bar{a}nam$. No lamp is offered to Mīnātci between these five poems. When the singing of the $Pa\bar{n}capur\bar{a}nam$ is completed, a single flame oil lamp is shown and a single camphor flame. Then the camphor flame and ash are brought to the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ and other significant people. In 1993-94, the flame was presented first to a temple administrator who was present, then to the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, and then to some women who participated in the later part of the ritual. Ash was then distributed to the administrator and $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$. Finally the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ were given bananas and betel.

¹⁶ The Stala Ōtuvār confirmed that the lamp is shown to Sōmāskandar, one of the five festival images temporarily placed in front of the Hundred Pillared Hall rather than to Naṭarācar inside the Hundred Pillared Hall.

Māṇikkavācakar had no presence in the ritual after this. ¹⁷ According to the *Stala Ōtuvār*, this concluded the festival for Māṇikkavācakar. As the first segment opened the festival by singing first the *Pañcapurāṇam* and then "Tiruvempāvai", this section closed the festival by singing first "Tiruvempāvai" and then the *Pañcapurānam*. After Mīṇāṭci leaves, Māṇikkavācakar is returned to the Makāmaṇṭapam of Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine, and the festival is finished. Any doubt that it was over for Māṇikkavācakar was dispelled when I saw the unceremonious way in which the image was hoisted onto an assistant priest's shoulder and carried away.

The "Ritual Text"

The "ritual text" of the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival at Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple is more complicated than the "ritual text" of the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai*. It consists of: *Pañcapurāṇam* and all twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai" in segment I; the *Tiruviḷaiyāṭal Purāṇam* poem, the twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai" sung twice, then poems 2, 16 and 5 of "Tiruvempāvai", and another singing of the twenty poems in segment II, all of which is

¹⁷ The remaining portion of this ritual concerns Mīnātci, and is part of the Ponnuñcal Festival. The retired Stala Ōtuvār and the current Stala Ōtuvār, the administrator and the priest went inside the mantapam. At 7:35 a bell was rung and the swing began to move. At this point, one by one, several women went into the mantapam, performed some actions, and then each received ash and betel, and then they left. This was followed by a long, seemingly intricate ritual in the mantapam which involved circumambulating around Mīnātci. Much of it was not visible from our position on the floor. After some time the Stala Ōtuvārs sang four poems from Mānikkavācakar's song, "Tirupponnūcal". Mīnāṭci was swung on the swing. The nātasvaram was played. There was a final pūcai. The same five lamp series and single camphor flame which concluded the ritual in the Hundred Pillared Hall concluded this ritual also (i.e. the single flame oil lamp; the 5 layer lamp; the cobra headed lamp; the 5 wicks lamp and the pot). Each lamp was shown three times to Somaskandar first and then three times to Mīnaṭci. The assistant priest then passed the camphor flame to the people and the priest distributed a powder. Two women went and received some substance and a garland. Mīnātci was then returned to the other deities on the other side near the Hundred Pillared Hall to be taken in procession. The *ōtuvārs* did not receive any special items at this point.

repeated on each of the eight days; and a singing of all 20 poems and then the five Pañcapurāṇam poems in segment III.

The "ritual text" of "Tiruvempāvai" Festival therefore uses more than three source texts and utilizes them in a variety of ways. As we saw above the festival opened and closed with the *Pañcapurānam*. The *Pañcapurāṇam* consists of five different poems drawn from five groupings of the many poems of *Tirumurai*, composed by sixteen different authors. On the middle eight days a poem was sung from the *Tiruviṭaiyāṭal Purāṇam*, which is the account of Śiva's activities in Madurai, and which is not one of the twelve *Tirumurai*. The particular selection comes from the praise portion at the beginning of the *Purāṇam*. "Tiruvempāvai" was sung in whole and in part, and the whole was repeated three times on each of the middle eight days of the festival.

This "ritual text" is fairly stable. In 1993-94 the only variation from day to day was whether or not the poem in praise of Māṇikkavācakar was sung, which depended on whether or not segment II.1 was omitted. It is possible that from year to year the specific songs constituting *Pañcapurāṇam* may also vary, thus altering the text from year to year. The requirement for singing the *Pañcapurāṇam* is that the selection be from certain texts, but the particular selection of poems is not specified.

The Singing of "Tiruvempāvai" as an Event in Māṇikkavācakar's Life
In the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" is understood as the
replication of an event in Māṇikkavācakar's life. The naming of the festival associates it
directly with the saint, and his image is present in all segments of the festival. The singing
and the activity is understood by ōtuvārs and priests to be done by Māṇikkavācakar

¹⁸ See chapter 8.

¹⁹ See chapter 6 and 8.

himself. The spatial arrangements, the ritual forms and the singing of the festival create distance between the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, who act on behalf of Māṇikkavācakar, and the audience. Each of these structural characteristics of the festival prevent devotees from participating in the activity associated with Māṇikkavācakar. In the festival Māṇikkavācakar is portrayed as the only devotee worshipping at the temple. The meaning of "Tiruvempāvai" as celebrated in this festival, is that it is Māṇikkavācakar's mode of praise, worship and supplication to God that leads to *mutti*.

The festival is referred to both as "Tiruvempāvai' Vilā (festival)" and as Māṇikkavācakar's Festival. A temple administrative notice referred to the festival as "Tiruvempāvā' Urcavam" (sic., temple festival), and the blackboard in the temple which notes the current events, referred to the first day of the festival as "Māṇikkavācakar Urtsavarampam" (sic., the beginning of the Māṇikkavācakar festival).²⁰ One Tamil calendar of events (pañcāṅkam), which indicates the starting dates of festivals in various temples in Tamil Nadu, refers to the festival as "The Sri Māṇikkavācakar 'Tiruvempāvai' Festival".²¹ In name, then, the festival is clearly associated with Māṇikkavācakar.

Māṇikkavācakar's image is also present in all the segments of the festival, and it is the only image that is present in all the segments. Both the specific setting and the addressee (to whom the songs are addressed, or for whom they are performed) change from segment to segment in the festival. In segment I, Māṇikkavācakar is brought before Cuntarēcuvarar and Naṭarācar in the Makāmaṇṭapam. He receives the protective thread and then in the person of the *Stala Ōtuvār* performs his song before these images. In segment II.1, he is praised by the *Stala Ōtuvār*. In II.2 the full "Tiruvempāvai" is sung as he stands

²⁰ The Tamil spelling of "festival" is copied directly from the temple notice and the blackboard respectively.

²¹ S. Vācan, *Vācan Cutta Tirukkaņita Pañcānkam* (Cennai: Vācan Pukhavus, 1993), 14; Ibid., (1994), 14.

before Naṭarācar in the Hundred Pillared Hall. Then in II.3 he is taken in procession around the Āṭi streets. In II.4 he is taken before the images of Citti Viṇāyakar, Mīṇāṭci and Kumāraṇ (Murukaṇ). In II.5 he goes with Śiva (Cantiracēkaraṇ) in procession around the second pirākāram. In the last portion of this segment, II.6 he is worshipped along with both Cuntarēcuvarar and Cantiracēkaraṇ. Finally, in segment III he is stood near Mīṇāṭci and the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" are sung. In the festival Māṇikkavācakar is thus brought to six different places, and his "Tiruvempāvai" is sung before six different deities.

Although the location of the activites of the festival change, and the deities present for each event change, Māṇikkavācakar's image is always present. Furthermore, in all portions of the festival, the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" are sung only in the presence of the image of Māṇikkavācakar. This arrangement contrasts sharply with the singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai where neither Māṇikkavācakar nor any other person has such a presence, in image or in name, because the ritual use of the poems in that case is completely different.

Māṇikkavācakar is especially associated with Naṭarācar in this festival. In segments I he is brought before Naṭarācar in the Makāmaṇṭapam, and in segment II he is brought before Naṭarācar in the Hundred Pillared Hall. A priest expressed the idea that there is a special relationship between Māṇikkavācakar and Naṭarācar, and an ōtuvār of the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple suggested that Māṇikkavācakar, "Tiruvempāvai", and Naṭarācar are especially linked with one another. These views seem to be supported by tradition, and by the poet's biography. Many of the Tiruvācakam songs are believed to have been sung in Citamparam where Naṭarācar is the main deity, and, as we saw in the summary of his biography provided in chapter 6, Māṇikkavācakar is thought to have finally attained full mutti by actually merging with Naṭarācar at Citamparam. We are suggesting that the festival emphasizes this special relationship by associating

Māṇikkavācakar regularly with Naṭarācar, even though Naṭarācar is not one of the presiding deities of the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple.

According to both priests and $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, the singer of "Tiruvempāvai" in this festival is Māṇikkavācakar himself.²² One priest made the point in a negative way by explaining that Māṇikkavācakar in the festival is an idol and cannot sing, so the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ acts on his behalf. In a slightly different way the point was made by another priest when he referred to the events of the festival as a representation in which the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ act as Māṇikkavācakar. Both Stala $\bar{O}tuv\bar{a}rs$ regard themselves to be singing the poems of "Tiruvempāvai" on Māṇikkavācakar's behalf. One of them actually said at two points during the festival that he was Māṇikkavācakar.²³ Regardless of whether the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ represents Māṇikkavācakar like an actor in a play, or through some stronger ritual identification, it is clear that for both the priests and the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ the singer of "Tiruvempāvai" in this festival is understood to be Māṇikkavācakar himself.

The structure of the festival also suggests that only Māṇikkavācakar's voice (through his representatives) should be heard singing "Tiruvempāvai". Distance is created between the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ who sing on Māṇikkavācakar's behalf and any other devotees who might want to participate. This is accomplished through spatial arrangement, through special ritual procedures and through specialized singing styles. On the first day, the image of Māṇikkavācakar and the *Stala Ōtuvār* stand in a special formation. The *Stala Ōtuvār* stands on the north side of Māṇikkavācakar and on the south side of Naṭarācar. On the other hand the audience has to stand on the opposite or the south side of Māṇikkavācakar. Similarly, in segment II.2 of the eight day cycle which takes place in the Hundred Pillared Hall, the images of Māṇikkavācakar and Naṭarācar, and the priests and the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ s are all

²² Fuller makes this point also: Fuller, *The Camphor Flame*, 195.

²³ The 1990-91 "Tiruvempāvai" Festival.

raised above the audience on platforms. The only exception to this was when the VIPs and special guests shared the platform with the $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ s, but these men and boys did not sing "Tiruvempāvai". In the two processions (II.3 and II.5), the worship at Mīṇāṭci's Shrine (II.4), and in front of the flagpole (II.6) the spatial distance was not so marked, but at Mīṇāṭci's shrine and at the flagpole there was a real effort to keep people out of the space reserved for the ritual activity. In the final segment of the festival, Māṇikkavācakar's image, the $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ s, and the other devotees are on the same level, but the devotees are behind rails and are moved back from the $\delta tuv\bar{a}r$ s.

Māṇikkavācakar and the *ōtuvār*s are both distinguished ritually from the audience (devotees) by special ritual markers. Māṇikkavācakar always wears a *parivaṭṭam*. The *Stala Ōtuvār* also receive the *parivaṭṭam* in segments I, II, and III. The other *ōtuvār*s and their musicians receives *parivaṭṭam*s on the last of the eight days. On all the eight middle days of the festival in the Hundred Pillared Hall the *ōtuvār*s receive special ritual attention prior to the singing of "Tiruvcmpāvai". They receive the camphor flame (which is not taken to the audience), ash, sandal, and garlands. The special guests also receive these, but they did not join in the singing of the poems of "Tiruvcmpāvai". In the final segment, the *ōtuvār*s also receive similar special recognition before they began singing, and at the end of their portion of that event they received bananas and betel. The women who participated later in the ritual also received these honors after their participation, but not at the same time as the *ōtuvār*s.

The use of distinctive singing styles also creates distance between the audience and $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$. As noted above, in the Hundred Pillared Hall the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ sing with their own personal embellishments, making it difficult to anticipate how the song will proceed and therefore making it difficult to sing along. It was also noted earlier how it seemed that on one occasion the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ sang in an even more complex style when someone did try to join

in. The easiest place in which a devotee could participate in the singing would be in the Āṭi streets procession, because the spatial arrangement there is less rigid, and during these processions there are no clear ritual distinction marking off the place for the ōtuvārs in the procession. The ōtuvārs are still marked off somewhat because they are walking in direct association with the cart carrying Māṇikkavācakar and are accompanied by their band. On lookers can certainly identify the ōtuvārs as ritually significant, but no one is physically prevented from joining them.

The different segments of the festival show Manikkavacakar in various devotional poses. This is especially prominent in segment II which is repeated for eight days. II.1 and II.6 seem to be the preliminary and concluding segments respectively. Segment II.1 is an exchange between the Stala Ōtuvār and Māṇikkavācakar in which the Stala Ōtuvār praises Māṇikkavācakar before beginning to act on his behalf. Segment II.6 is a final pūcai to Cuntarēcuvarar, Cantiracēkaran in the palanquin, and to Māṇikkavācakar. In between, Mānikkavācakar becomes respectively performer (II.2), important devotee with all temple honors (II.3), a human worshipper (II.4), and a supplicant (II.V). Using language that reflects Māṇikkavācakar as the actor in the festival we can say that in II.2 he goes to Națarācar, stands before him and performs the 20 poems of "Tiruvempāvai". In the procession around the Ati streets (II.3), he is given all temple honors: the bull, the elephants, parasol, and musicians. According to the *ōtuvārs* and priests, taking Māṇikkavācakar in a procession with all the fanfare is showing him respect and acknowledging that he is an important person. He might be considered important because he was, according to his biography, the first minister of the King of Madurai, a great poet, and a saint who attained *mutti*. Yet the circumambulatory route and the singing of devotional songs picture him in a devotional pose, as one priest said, "worshipping God" in the procession. In II.4, Mānikkavācakar is presented as a human who sings a song (a

poem of "Tiruvempāvai") and worships Citti Viṇāyakar, Mīṇāṭci and Murukaṇ. The fact that he is depicted as human here is made clear by the fact that he himself receives no naivēttiyam or lamps, as he does in some other parts of the festival.²⁴ Furthermore, like other humans he comes with a plate of offerings to be offered to the deity, and then receives back the camphor flame and piracātam through the Stala (Ōtuvār. In the following segment (II.5) we see Māṇikkavācakar as a human supplicant.²⁵ He goes to the second pirākāram, and waits for Cuntarēcuvarar to come, and when Cuntarēcuvarar arrives Māṇikkavācakar proceeds backwards singing his songs. There are no processional elements such as bulls, elephants, umbrellas and musicians in this event Only Cuntarēcuvarar receives offerings of lamps. These points underscore the fact that Māṇikkavācakar is a human in this segment, and is given no special recognition. In this eight day segment, Māṇikkavācakar is a performer, a great person who receives recognition, an ordinary worshipper, and one who makes requests of God.

Māṇikkavācakar is, however, no ordinary devotee. He is also depicted as divine at some points in the festival because he is offered lamps and the camphor flame. According to a priest, tīpārātaṇai is offered only to deities, and Māṇikkavācakar receives offerings of lamps in segment I, segment II.2, II.3 and II.6, and III. This distinguishes him from devotees in the audience, and even from the ōtuvārs who are his representatives during the festival. He is a devotee, but he has also attained mutti. This gives him a status beyond

²⁴ This point was made clearly to me when I asked a priest and *ōtuvār* if Māṇikkavācakar received *naivēttiyam* or *tīpārātaṇai* in this segment. I was told, "No!, here he is a human doing worship."

²⁵ The ōtuvār referred to Māṇikkavācakar as viṇṇappattār. When saying this the ōtuvār made the motion of going backwards bent over with hands folded. The image is standing and cannot bend over with hands folded, but it does explain why Māṇikkavācakar proceeds backwards in the second pirākāram. When I asked why the Āṭi streets procession had a bull, elephants and so on, but in the later procession in the second pirākāram did not, I was told that it was because in the later procession Māṇikkavācakar was a supplicant.

human. The *ōtuvār*s and other devotees in attendance at the festival are not recognized through ritual as being divine in this way.

In an interview with one of the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, it was asserted that my questions concerning the meaning of the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, and the meaning of "Tiruvempāvai" itself, ultimately come down to the same question. It was agreed that by giving importance to the "Tiruvempāvai" songs, the soul gains $p\bar{e}rinpam$ (mutti), and because the festival gives special recognition to the "Tiruvempāvai" songs, it also enables one to gain mutti. We may suggest that the significance of this festival is that it embodies Māṇikkavācakar's path to final mutti. In this festival Māṇikkavācakar entertains, praises, worships and petitions God through "Tiruvempāvai", and it was through the medium of his poems that he attained final mutti. The devotee, as an audience member in attendence at the festival, witnesses a path that leads to mutti. The devotee may also follow this path. As Civa Aruṇakiri Mutaliyār suggested, the devotee may sing "Tiruvempāvai" in his own worship of God and attain mutti.

Summary

The poems of "Tiruvempāvai" are sung in a special way in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival at the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in Madurai. The performer of these poems, as structured by the ritual and as understood by the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ and priests, is Māṇikkavācakar. The poems and their significance is understood within the biography of the composer of the poems. The significance of "Tiruvempāvai" as presented in this ritual is that worshipping through these songs. as Māṇikkavācakar did, is a means of attaining the highest goal, final *mutti*. In chapter 10, we will see how the poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and

²⁶ See chapter 6 above.

"Tiruvempāvai" can be understood quite differently when situated in the biographies of individual devotees rather than in the biographies of the "hero" or the "poet".

III: Chapter 10: Nagamalai Pudukottai: Citti Vināyakar and Nākamalai Murukan Temples

In the two preceeding chapters I have looked at the singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" in a large temple complex where there are people whose job it is to sing these and other Śaiva songs before the deities and saints who reside in the temple. Now, in this and the following chapter. I will consider the singing of these same songs in a temple setting in which there are no temple officials especially designated for singing. The setting of this and the following chapter is the village of Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai where there are two community temples: Citti Viṇāyakar Temple and Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple. The event is the "Pāvai Singing" (pāvai pāṭuvatu) which occurs once a year throughout Mārkali month. The performers of the songs are devotees, predominantly woman, and the significance of the songs is the significance those devotees give them in terms of their own life.

This chapter will begin with a description of the village, the two temples, and the ritual cycle of the two temples. This will be followed by a description of the participants and the event. In chapter 11 I will then discuss the "ritual text" of the "*Pāvai* Singing" and the interpretation of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai".

The Village

Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai is a village about ten kilometers west of Madurai on a main road heading towards the western ghats. A long rocky hill called Nākamalai (Snake Hill) runs along the north side of the road, and the Vaikai River runs north of Nākamalai. The landscape is dotted with hillocks and fields.

The area around the village falls into the sacred geography of Madurai, and the domain of Cuntarēcuvarar and Mīṇāṭci, as defined by the traditional legends of the *Tiruviṭaiyāṭal Purāṇam*. According to the twenty-eighth episode in that text, the Jains (traditional rivals of the Śaivas) undertook a sacrifice and created a giant snake in order to destroy a zealous Śaiva King of Madurai. The king appealed to Lord Cuntarēcuvarar, who assured him that he would destroy the snake. After more appeals to Cuntarēcuvarar, the king succeeded in destroying the snake, and legend holds that the body of the dead snake became the long hill known as Nākamalai. ¹

A bit further west of the village, on the north side of the Vaikai River is another sacred site whose story is told in the sixty-third episode of the *Tiruvilaiyāṭal Purāṇam*. According to this story, another King of Madurai was a follower of the Jains, and was vigorously imposing this religion on his subjects. The Queen, Maṅkaiyarkkaraci, and the Prime Minister, Kulacciraiyār, summoned the Śaiva saint, Tiruñāṇacampantar, in the hope of restoring the king's faith in Śaivism.² Several contests took place between the Śaiva saints and the Jains, and in the final and decisive contest, both the saint and the Jains inscribed their respective religious principles on palm-leaves and the leaves were thrown into the Vaikai River to see which would flow against the current. Only Tiruñāṇacampantar's leaf floated upstream, and all the Jains were converted to Śaivism or put to death. The saint's leaf floated on until it was found in an area of the river surrounded by forest. Where the leaf was found the king discovered a Linga and built a

¹ J. H. Nelson, *The Madura Country: A Manual* (1868; rpt., Madras: Asian Education Services, 1989), III:18-19.

² The images of Mańkaiyarkkaraci and Kulacciraiyār are two of the four images of saints with a special association to Madurai in the Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple. See chapter 8.

temple there. This place is known today as Tiruvēṭakam and there is a reasonably sized Śaiva temple there, quite near Nākamalai.³

Rock carvings on a hillock slightly south of Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai provide a concrete reminder of a former Jain presence in the immediate area. On this hill there is Jain cave with carvings cut into the rock, and higher up near the top of the hill are Jaina figures and Kirantam (Grantha; ancient script used by Tamils for writing Sanskrit) inscriptions carved into the rockface facing east.

The population of Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai was 12,398 according to the 1991 Census. The village seems to be composed of two different settlements: an older village style settlement to the northeast of the main road, and a newer town-like settlement to southwest of the road. The older area has narrow winding streets, the housing styles are mixed and houses tend to be crowded against each other, and there is a central meeting area called a *mantai*. In the newer area, by contrast, the streets are wider and organized in a grid pattern, and the houses tend to be large, free-standing structures within compounds, and there is no *mantai*. The older area is an agricultural settlement. On the other hand, the newer area is comprised of recent settlers with no ancestral ties to the land, who either work in Madurai, or teach or work in administration at Madurai Kamaraj University a few

³ The group of poems which the saint is thought to have inscribed on the palm leaf is called "Tiruppācuram" and is highly regarded among Śaivas. The first verse is included in the "Pāvai Singing". Nelson, The Madura Country, III:37; P. S. Somasundaram, Tirujñaṇasambanadhar: Religion and Philosophy (Madras: Vani Pathippakam, 1986), 27, 39 94-99; Indira Viswanathan Peterson, Poems to Śiva: The Hymns of the Tamil Saints (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1989), 281 n. 232. The temple at Tiruvēṭakam was classified as one of the seven great temples in Madurai along with the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, Tirupparaṅkuṇram Murukaṇ Temple, Kaḷḷaḷakar Temple, and three others in the early reports of the British upon their takeover of Madurai (c.a. 1802). Carol Appadurai Breckenridge, "The Śrī Mīṇākṣi Sundareśvarar Temple: Worship and Endowments in South India, 1833 to 1925" (Ph.D. diss., University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1976), 152-3. See also Nelson, The Madura Country, IV:135-6.

⁴ Census of India 1991, Provisional Population Totals, Supplement to Paper-1 of 1991, Series 23: Tamil Nadu (Government of India, 1991).

kilometers to the west. The inhabitants of the older area tend to dress in the style of the Piramalai Kallar of the area, which for women means they wear their saris and hair in a distinctive manner. Some of the men wear the uniforms of service employees of the university. The women of the newer area wear their saris and hair in the way found in Madurai, and the men tend to dress in the western style of pants and shirt rather than in the more traditional *vētti* (dhoti).⁵

The two areas of the village maintain a kind of distance from each other. This is quite apparent in the following excerpt from the "Nākamalai Murukan Tala Purāṇam":

In our village of Alvārnakar N.G.O Colony, today there are one thousand houses, one college, two high schools, one middle school, a mosque, two churches and three temples. But in April 16, 1962 on Catācivam Road when Tiru. Amirtalinkam first set up his house, there were no other houses. On Feb. 7, 1964, when the first electric connection was installed in his house, there were only fifty houses.

On September 9, 1964 on Vināyakar Caturtti day, when Tiru. S. Tarmaliṅkamutaliyār installed Lord Vināyakar, he made this village in which our houses are, a village with a temple. He and the retired post-master Tiru. Veṅkacāmrāv who performed the daily *pūcai*, obtained some donations and established the Piḷḷaiyār Temple (translation mine).⁶

Ālvārnakar is a sub-division of Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai on the west side of the village and south of the main road. The "Tala Purāṇam" attests to the newness of the settlement and to the number of educational and religious institutions in Ālvārnakar. The Citti Viṇāyakar and Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temples are two of the three temples mentioned in the "Tala Purāṇam".

The older, northeast area of the village has at least six temples. There is an older temple north of the main road that was under renovation when I was there. Proceeding north from the main road one also passes temples for Amman, Pillaiyar (Vinayakar), and

⁵ At the temple the traditional *vēṭṭi* is considered appropriate attire for men.

⁶ S. Catācivam, "Tala Purāṇam" in *Aruļmiku Nākamalai Tirumurukan Tirukkōyil Kuṭamulukku Vilā Malar* (n.p.: Malarkkulu, 1993), 3. This "Tala Purāṇam" is one and a half pages long and lacks the legendary quality of those such as *Tiruvilaiyāṭal Purāṇam*.

Alakar (Viṣṇu), all of which are visible along the winding road. Proceeding north past the settlement and towards the eastern end of Nākamalai hill is a fairly large temple for Taṭātakai, the valorous form of Mīṇāṭci prior to her marriage to Śiva as Cuntarcuvarar. The image installed in the temple, according to the priest, has three breasts, and the temple is said to mark the place of her birth. Preliminary inquiries suggest that the temple existed at least as early as 1921, but even it is not included in the enumeration of temples in the "Nākamalai Murukaṇ Tala Purāṇam". It seems clear that the "Nākamalai Murukaṇ Tala Purāṇam" assumes that the northeast area of Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai with its own temples is a completely separate area from Ālvārnakar. The temples of Ālvārnakar, including the two about to be studied, serve primarily the relatively new settlement of literate, fairly educated middle-class Hindus.

The Citti Vināyakar and the Nākamalai Murukan Temples

The "Pāvai Singing", during which "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are sung, is arranged so that it begins at the Citti Vināyakar Temple and concludes at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple. These temples are considerably smaller and newer than the Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple complex in Madurai, and the ritual cycles one finds there are much less complex than the one at the Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple. There are only a few people on staff in each temple. (A Diagram of the Citti Vināyakar Temple is found in Appendix I.4, and that of Nākamalai Murukan Temple is in Appendix I.5.)

The Citti Viṇāyakar Temple complex is housed in a compound which covers approximately 4500 square feet. The only entrance to the complex is on the eastern side of the temple. There are six shrines in the complex: the shrine of the presiding deity, Citti Viṇāyakar, and the surrounding shrines of the five subsidiary deities. In front of the temple and facing Citti Viṇāyakar is an image of his mount, a rat (mūñcūr). The subsidiary

deities proceeding clockwise around the temple are: Civappirakācanātar, Cinna Piḷḷaiyār set into the back of the main shrine, Pālacuppiramaṇiyar (Murukan as a child), Cuntara Āñcanēya Cuvāmi (Rāma), and Cuntara Āñcanēyar (Hanumān). All except the Cinna Piḷḷaiyār face the easterly direction and have their own structures. In addition to these installed images, there are two festival images, one of Viṇāyakar situated on Citti Viṇāyakar's right and one of Murukan on his left. Within this temple compound there is a well, 7 three sacred trees and a kitchen. There is also an organization called the Tiruppukal Capai associated with the temple, dedicated to the singing of the songs to Murukan which were composed by Aruṇakirinātar (the *Tiruppukal*).

According to the "Nākamalai Murukaṇ Tala Purāṇam", the image of the presiding deity in the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple was installed in 1964. The inscriptions in the temple complex provide dates for the other shrines. The picture of Cuntara Āñcanēya Cuvāmi was installed in 1971,8 the structure housing the presiding deity (*ālayam*) was consecrated in 1975, and the image of Cuntara Āñcanēyar was installed in 1976; Pālacuppiramaṇiyar in 1991; and Civappirakācanātar in 1992. There are no dates available for the installation of Ciṇṇa Piḷḷaiyār, but it is attached to the hall of the presiding deity which was built in 1975.

The Nākamalai Murukan Temple is adjacent to and shares a compound wall with the Citti Vināyakar Temple. The compound of the Nākamalai Murukan Temple covers an area of approximately 6400 square feet and is therefore slightly larger than the Citti Vināyakar Temple compound. It has one entrance which is also on the eastern side. The complex contains ten shrines: the shrine of the presiding deity, Nākamalai Murukan, and the surrounding shrines of the eight subsidiary deities, and an image of Murukan's mount,

⁷ The well was closed by July 1994. I was told it was polluted and that the temple now gets water from the adjacent Nākamalai Murukan Temple.

⁸Cuntara Āñcanēya Cuvāmi is represented by a colour picture rather than a sculpture as in the other shrines.

a peacock (*mayil vākaṇam*), which faces him. Above the entrance to the main shrine is a relief of the Goddess, Kajalaṭcumi. A small image of Viṇāyakar sits on the top step of the Murukan shrine to his right, facing east. Three of the subsidiary shrines are attached to the main shrine. Proceeding clockwise around the shrine of Murukan are: Taṭcaṇāmūrtti on the south wall facing south: Mahāviṣṇu on the west wall facing west; and Turkkai on the north wall facing north. There are five other free standing shrines: Cuntarccuvarar (a Linga) is behind Murukan in the southwest corner facing east. Mīṇāṭci Amman is behind Murukan in the northwest corner, facing east. An image of Śiva's mount, Nanti the bull, is in front, and faces both the Linga and Mīṇāṭci. Nākarājar is to the northeast side of Murukan at the compound wall, facing west. The Navakkiraham (nine planets) are situated in a single structure to the northwest of Nākarājar but to Murukan's northeast. Finally, Caṇṭikēsvarar is situated close to Murukan's shrine at its northeast corner and faces south. The compound has a borewell pump, funded by various branches of the Rotary Club, a kitchen, and a number of shrubs and trees.

The Nākamalai Murukan Temple complex evolved even more quickly than the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple complex. The very first structural features, a maṇṭapam and a portion of the compound wall, were built in 1985. In July 1989 the temple committee began collecting donations in order to build a Murukan Temple in the maṇṭapam. In October 1989 the construction was completed and the image of Nākamalai Murukan installed. On 30 August 1991 the ceremony installing the images of Viṇāyakar, Taṭcaṇāmūrtti, Mahāviṣṇu, Turkkai, the Navakkiraham, Caṇṭikēsvarar and Nākarājar was conducted. The construction of the vimāṇam (small tower over the image of the main deity) began 26 January 1992. The construction of the Mīṇāṭci and Cuntarēcuvarar shrines began on 22 August 1992. On 25 January 1993 the vimāṇam was sanctified and the images of Mīnātci

and Cuntarccuvarar were installed. It took three and a half years to build the complex from the beginning of the collection of funds to its present state.⁹

Ritual Cycle of the Citti Viṇāyakar and the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temples 10

Both the temple structures and the ritual calendars of these two village temples are in the process of change. The installation of new deities leads to changes in the ritual pattern in order to provide for their worship. In the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple the images of Pālacuppiramaṇiyar and Civappirakācanātar were installed after I had completed my fieldwork in 1991 but before I returned in 1993. As a result the rituals had been expanded to include these deities, with Civappirakācanātar included in the daily ritual and Pālacuppiramaṇiyar in the daily, monthly and yearly schedule. Two new shrines are planned for the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple complex, one for Kācivicuvanātaṇ and one for Rama, Laksmanan and Sita. The ritual pattern will change again to incorporate them.

When I completed my fieldwork in 1991 only the main Nākamalai Murukaṇ image was installed and receiving worship in the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple complex. Since then all the other deities in the temple were installed. Most of the rituals of the current ritual cycle developed since the beginning of my fieldwork. The description of the two ritual cycles here presents what was in place as of mid-1994.

The Citti Viṇāyakar and Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temples have daily, monthly and yearly ritual activities, and the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple also has some weekly rituals. The daily activity at both temples consists of daily *pūcai* and the performance of personal worship on behalf of devotees. In contrast to the eight daily *pūcai*s at the Mīnāṭci-

⁹ "Tala Purāṇam," 3-4; temple inscriptions.

¹⁰ The information about the ritual cycles is based on interviews with the priests of the temples, as well as some input from devotees.

¹¹ For example: Navarāttiri, Āti Paurnami for Mīnātci.

Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, these two temples have daily worship performed twice for the presiding deities. The times of the daily *pūcai*s are coordinated so that devotees may watch at least the showing of the lamps at both temples. The morning *pūcai* takes place between 7:30 and 8:45 AM in the Citti Vināyakar Temple and begins at about 8:00 AM in the Nākamalai Murukan Temple. In the Citti Vināyakar Temple the evening *pūcai* occurs at 6:15 and in the Nākamalai Murukan Temple at 6:00.

In both temples the morning $p\bar{u}cai$ consists of bathing the main deity with various substances ($apit\bar{e}kam$ or abhisekam), dressing and adorning the deity ($alank\bar{a}ram$), offering food ($naiv\bar{e}ttiyam$) and then showing lamps which culminates in the showing of a camphor flame ($t\bar{t}p\bar{a}r\bar{a}tanai$). This four-fold structure of worship is the same as a full $p\bar{u}cai$ in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarccuvarar Temple. The abhisekam and $alank\bar{a}ram$ is done first to the presiding deity and then to the subsidiary deities. Finally the lamps are offered to the main deity and then to the other deities. In both temples the evening $p\bar{u}cai$ consists of $naiv\bar{e}ttiyam$ and $t\bar{t}p\bar{a}r\bar{a}tanai$ to the main deity and to subsidiary deities. There is neither abhisekam nor $alank\bar{a}ram$ during normal daily evening $p\bar{u}cai$.

In the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple complex there are no special weekly *pūcais*. Every month there are two special days for Citti Viṇāyakar, one for Pālacuppiramaṇiyar and one for Cuntara Āñcanēyar. Yearly there is a four day festival for Citti Viṇāyakar, a six day festival for Pālacuppiramaṇiyar, a one day special event for Cuntara Āñcanēya Cuvāmi and a one day event for Cuntara Āñcanēyar. For the whole of *Mārkali* there is the special early morning *pūcai* conducted to awaken the God, as *Mārkali* is the dawn of the gods.

¹² See chapter 8 above. *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* is not a full $p\bar{u}cai$ in the sense that the deity is not bathed nor dressed during this $p\bar{u}cai$.

¹³ In the Citti Vināyakar Temple, Cinna Piḷḷaiyār is not included in the daily worship.

In the Nākamalai Murukan Temple complex there is a special *abhiṣekam* every Thursday morning for Taṭcaṇāmūrtti. Tuesdays and Fridays are special for Turkkai and Nākarājar. Saturday is special for the Navakkiraham. Monthly, there are two special days for Nākamalai Murukan, one for Viṇāyakar, two for Cuntarēcuvarar, one for Mīṇāṭci Amman and a *viṭakku* (lamp) *pūcai* which is undertaken by the village ladies each month at the temple.

Yearly there are seven special events for Nākamalai Murukan, six for Cuntarēcuvarar, and three for Mīṇāṭci Amman. Five of the special events for Nākamalai Murukan are single day events. The main festival for Nākamalai Murukan, is the Kantacaṭṭi Festival in the Tamil month, Aippacci, which lasts six days. All of the special days for Cuntarēcuvarar are one day events. Two of Mīṇāṭci's yearly events are single day events, including her marriage which the reader will remember is the main festival at the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple. Her third yearly event is Navarāttiri which lasts nine days. For the whole of Mārkali there is the special early morning pūcai conducted to awaken the God.

"Tiruppaḷḷiyclucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are sung as part of the "Pāvai Singing" which occurs every year throughout Mārkali in the early morning. Three events at Nākamalai coalesce in the "Pāvai Singing", which are conducted as separate events in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, one is the regular early morning pūcai which awakens the gods from sleep (Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai), the second is the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" during Mārkali month, and the third is the special awakening pūcai for the gods because Mārkali is dawn for the gods and the appropriate time to awaken.

¹⁴ The festival can be nine or ten days depending on the annual calendar.

The Ritual Event: "The Pāvai Singing"

Cast and Audience

The " $P\bar{a}vai$ Singing" at the Citti Vinayakar and the Nakamalai Murukan Temples consists basically of ordinary worshippers singing before the deities while the priest and his assistant perform the $p\bar{u}cai$. The participants in the event are the priest, his support staff, the singers, the donors and the audience.

Each of the two temples has only one priest. Both are male brahmins who have undergone initiation which qualifies them to perfom $p\bar{u}cai$ in Śaiva temples. The priest at the Citti Vināyakar Temple previously worked in a temple kitchen, as did his father, but he was trained for and then initiated into the priesthood. The priest at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple comes from a priestly family. Both priests receive a salary, and neither position is either hereditary or supported by endowments (*kaṭṭaḷai*). Normally, the priest of the Citti Vināyakar Temple collects the items for $p\bar{u}cai$, prepares and conducts the $p\bar{u}cai$, prepares the *piracāṭam* (food offering) and makes the personal offerings to the deities for individuals who come to worship. The Nākamalai Murukan priest performs the same duties as the Citti Vināyakar priest except that he does not prepare the food offerings.

Both temples have other staff which participate in the *Mārkali* month *pūcai*. At the Viṇāyakar Temple there is only one other person on staff, the woman who cleans. The cleaning lady cleans the temple precincts, sweeps and sprinkles water, draws the *kōlam* or rice flour designs on the floor, washes the *piracātam* vessels, and also rings the large temple bell during *tīpārātaṇai*. During *Mārkali*, one of the female singers also swept, sprinkled water and drew the *kōlam* in both temples. The priest arranged to have another priest assist him with this *pūcai* during *Mārkali*.

¹⁵ She dressed as a Piramalai Kallar lady and identified Putukkōṭṭai, i.e. the northeast side of the village, as the place where she lived.

The Nākamalai Murukan Temple has two other staff members: the assistant priest and the watchman. The assistant priest cooks as well as assists the priest in $p\bar{u}cai$, and he also makes private offerings to the deities on behalf of individuals. In the $M\bar{a}rkali$ month ritual the assistant priest assisted the priest during the $p\bar{u}cai$. On some days a brahmin member of the community also assisted these two priests. To my knowledge, the watchman had no special duties during $M\bar{a}rkali$.

There are two groups of singers, one at the Citti Vināyakar Temple and one at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple. I focused on the Citti Vināyakar Temple group primarily because my contacts were with this group during my first field trip, and therefore it was convenient to continue with this group during my more extensive study of the singing in my second fieldtrip. Also, the singing by a separate group at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple began in the years between the my two fieldtrips.

The lay singers in the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple are from the immediate surrounding community. They are predominantly female, with about two-thirds of the women being married and about one third unmarried and young girls. ¹⁶ The female singers sit in front of Citti Viṇāyakar in a semi-circle. When they move to the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple they also sit right in the middle, facing the deity, in contrast to the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple "Pāvai Singing" group who sit in two rows at the sides in front of the main deity (see Plates No.s 4 and 5, photos 6, 7 and 8). There were occasionally some male singers, but they usually stood to the side or sat apart. The group of singers was smallest at the beginning of the event and grew as time passed.

The donors are those who pay for the special *Mārkali pūcai* for that day. As each temple has its own special *pūcai*, each has its own donors. The name of the donors for the

¹⁶ This is based on my observation and on the fact that I knew the marital status of quite a few of the women.

day are written on a blackboard at each temple. Some of the donors are also singers. The donor has a special role in the *pūcai*s at these temples, ¹⁷ in contrast to the situation in the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple where the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival and the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* are largely supported by *kaṭṭaṭai*s or endowments, and only the seventeenth century ruler Tirumalaināyakkar (qua donor) has any presence in the ritual. ¹⁸

I am using "audience" here to refer to those who come to the temple, but do not fulfill any of the above roles. They represent the normal role of the devotee who goes to worship at a temple. They go to the temple, watch the *pūcai*, and when the camphor flame comes around they usually touch their hands to it and then to their eyes. Sometimes they will put money on the plate and receive sacred ash and *kuṅkumam* from the priest, and *piracātam* from the priest or devotees assisting the priest in the distribution. There was usually no audience for the early stage of the singing. The audience builds throughout the event at peaks at both temple during *tīpārātaṇai*.

The Segments and Sequence²⁰

The "Pāvai Singing" of the Citti Vināyakar Temple group may be divided into five segments: 1. preliminary personal worship at one or both temples; 2. the singing and pūcai at Citti Vināyakar Temple (the core of the event); 3. singing and pūcai to the subsidiary

¹⁷ This will be described below in the discussion of the segments of the event.

¹⁸ See chapter 8.

¹⁹ At the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple the distributer seemed to be one of the regular singers. At the Nākamalai Murukan Temple the two distributors were usually a member of the temple committee and another man.

²⁰ The data for the description of the sequence of the events itself was collected in *Mārkali* month of 1990-91 and 1993-94. In both years *Mārkali* month began on December 16 and concluded on January 13 making the month 29 days long. The data is based primarily on my observations in 1993-94.

deities at the Citti Vināyakar Temple; 4. singing and *pūcai* at Nākamalai Murukan Temple; 5. the concluding worship activities.

Segment 1: Preliminary Personal Worship 21

The full preliminary personal worship pattern begins with worship first at the Citti Vināyakar Temple and then at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple. This involves worshipping the main deity and circumambulation, and stopping at the subsidiary deities of one's choice. This pattern may be abbreviated or eliminated altogether. On two occasions I saw several people circumambulate at the Citti Vināyakar Temple only, because they had arrived after the singing had already begun, or after the singing should have begun. On two other occasions this segment seemed to be eliminated as it was late for the singing to begin. The people involved were leaders among the singers and had to immediately initiate the singing. On another occasion individuals arrived after the singing had started and immediately joined in without performing any preliminary worship. The members of the audience as well as the singers usually perform personal worship, and it is not uncommon to see people worship and circumambulate while the *pūcai* and singing are going on.

Segment 2: Singing and Pūcai at Citti Vināyakar Temple (the Core)

This segment, which is the core of the event, has two major components: the *pūcai* performed by the priest and his assistant; and the singing of the essential songs: "Tiruppaḷḷiyelucci", "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppāvai". Ideally, at the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple, the two components are synchronized. The general expectation is that the singing and the *pūcai* begin at about the same time and the singing of the essential songs should be

²¹ The information concerning this segment is based upon my observation of individuals who sang regularly during the month of *Mārkaļi* at these temples.

completed before the final portion of the $p\bar{u}cai$ (the showing of the camphor flame). The whole segment should be finished shortly after 6:00 AM, but definitely before 6:15.²² During the days on which I observed, the singing and the $p\bar{u}cai$ usually began between 5:10 and 5:15, although on a few occasions they started as late as 5:20. They did not necessarily start at the same time, and on some days the singing would begin before the $p\bar{u}cai$ and on other days the $p\bar{u}cai$ would begin before the singing.²³

The Mārkali pūcai consists of abhiṣekam, alankāram, naivēttiyam and tīpārātaṇai for Citti Viṇāyakar. The priest begins the abhiṣekam by ringing a hand-bell and showing a single camphor flame. The abhiṣekam consists of the priest rinsing the image with water,

²² This general expectation was expressed to me several times by one regular singer. It was graphically expressed on the first day of *Mārkali*, 1993-94 when the expectation was not met at all. The priest at the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple was new and this *Mārkali* was his first at this temple. The previous priest had been there since about 1975 and was replaced by the new priest when he retired. Therefore in this particular temple there had been a well established pattern for the *Mārkali* singing and the special *pācai*. On 1 *Mārkali* 1993-94 the singing started at 5:10. The *pācai* started at 5:30 and was completed by 6:30. The third segment was omitted all together and the people at the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple missed segment 4, the final stages of *pācai* at the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple. At about 6:00 AM when it was clear that the priest was way behind schedule there was murmuring in the crowd and calls that the time was over ("*neram ayicchu*"). One person at least was actually telling people to go to the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple. Afterwards steps were taken to inform the priest of the correct time frame during which he should complete the *pācai*. For the rest of the days that I observed, the priest conformed to the expected time frame.

Part of the reason for the late start of the $p\bar{u}cai$ was that the priest conducted personal arccanai from 5:00 to 5:30. A number of these $p\bar{u}cai$ s were for the Ayyappa bhaktas marking the commencement of their eventual pilgrimage to Sabarimalai. I did not notice any such personal $p\bar{u}cai$ s for the Sabarimala pilgrims nor others on the first day of $M\bar{a}rkali$ in 1990-91, nor during the remaining days of 1993-94 did I see other personal $p\bar{u}cai$ s conducted during segment 2 of this event. When I pressed a long-time regular singer regarding whether or not it was the custom for personal $p\bar{u}cai$ s to be conducted during this event or any event, the response was that normally people will wait until after the $p\bar{u}cai$ is over. The person phrased their answer in such a way that no criticism was made of either the priest or the pilgrims for the events on the first day of $M\bar{u}rkali$ or that anything inappropriate had happened. These events just did not happen again during the days I participated in the singing.

 $^{^{23}}$ In 1990-91 on the 3 days I participated, the singing and the $p\bar{u}cai$ started at the same time.

pouring on or applying a substance to the image, and then ringing the hand bell and showing a single camphor flame. There are usually five items including milk and the final item, sacred ash. The final camphor flame is shown to the deity, and then taken to the singers and audience by one of the priests.²⁴ Then a vessel of milk and the plate of ash which had been collected during the *abhiṣckam* are passed to the singing women for distribution amongst themselves, the audience, and those who come later. The curtain in front of Citti Viṇāyakar's shrine is then closed.

Behind the closed curtain the priest decorates the image of Citti Vināyakar while the singing continues outside. When the *alankāram* is complete, the priest offers *naivēttiyam* to the deity behind the closed curtain. The priest then emerges from behind the curtain and goes to the other deities of the complex with a vessel of water and the food offering. Upon completion of the offering of *naivēttiyam* to all the deities in the complex the curtain is opened revealing the decorated deity.

The remaining activities of this segment are: the offering of a series of lamps, the donors' personal worship, doing *arccanai* (placing flowers on the deity and chanting his names) and the offering of a final set of lamps. The sequence varied somewhat.

Sometimes no donors came forward, or the curtain would be opened after the donors' personal worship. During the personal worship of the donors, the priest asks the name and birth star for all the members of the family. The priest repeats the names to God and makes the offering on their behalf so that God will bless the whole family.²⁵ The priest also performs *arccanai*.

²⁴ On one occasion at least the camphor flame was handed to one of the women singers who then took it around to all the people present including the singers and the audience.

²⁵ Pāvai Group Singer, interview with the author, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, Madurai, 21 February 1994.

The final item of the $p\bar{u}cai$ always is the showing of a single camphor flame and a plate with five flames. This seems to be the highpoint of the $p\bar{u}cai$. When these lamps are shown the singers and the audience press forward pushing in on one another to see the God. At this point the singers and audience become indistinguishable. After the five flame lamp is shown to the deity it is brought to the singers and the other worshippers. They put their hands over the flame, touch their hands to their faces, and then receive *kunkumam* and sacred ash from the priest.

The singing follows a regular pattern. It begins with two poems to Viṇāyakar and then two poems to Murukaṇ. Then all 10 poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci", all 20 poems of "Tiruvempāvai" and all 30 poems of "Tiruppāvai" are sung. The singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci", "Tiruvempāvai", and "Tiruppāvai" is considered essential for this ritual event. A poem in praise of the Vaiṣṇava saint, Āṇṭāl, is sung after her poem, "Tiruppāvai". These sixty-five verses were completed on all the days on which I participated. If there is time before the *pūcai* is completed other songs are sung. These additional songs are selected according to personal preference. On most days the *Paūcapurāṇam* was sung after the poem in praise of Āṇṭāl. A number of additional songs were frequently sung, not all of which were familiar to me. One of the regular singers wrote these songs out for me on her own initiative, which I have translated and included as Appendix II.

²⁶ Pāvai Group Singer, interview with the author, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, Madurai, 21 February 1994.

²⁷ On 10 January 1994 the singing of the verse in praise of Ānṭāļ was completed as the final lamp was being shown.

²⁸ Of the sixteen days on which I was at the Citti Vināyakar Temple for all of segment 2, I know definitely that the *Pañcapurāṇam* was sung on eleven days: 16 December 1990; 12, 13 January 1991; 18, 30, 31 December 1993; and 1-4, 11 January 1994. I am fairly certain that it was sung on at least one other day (17 December 1993). The particular selections constituting the *Pañcapurāṇam* that were sung came from the pamphlet: *Tiruccirrampalam Pañcapurāṇam* (Tirunakar: Tirumurai Manram, 1990).

Segment 3: Singing and Pūcai to the Subsidiary Deities at Citti Viṇāyakar Temple

Segment three also consists of both worship and singing. After the five flame camphor is shown to Citti Viṇāyakar, the assistant priest takes it to the singers and the audience.

Meanwhile the main priest takes a single camphor flame to the other deities in the complex: Civappirakācanātar (sometimes), Pālacuppiramaṇiyar, Cuntara Āñcanēya Cuvāmi and Cuntara Āñcanēyar. He shows it to each deity in turn and finally it is held for people to touch. Then the worshippers proceed to the Nākamalai Murukan Temple.

The worship during this segment to some extent goes according to personal preference rather than the group consensus evident in segment 2. After receiving the five flame camphor plate, people go to the other deites in the complex and worship as the priest shows the lamp. However, the priest moves quickly from shrine to shrine, and when the crowd is large at the main shrine not all the people can both receive the five flame lamp and reach the other shrines at the same time as the main priest. The singers have the advantage in this because they are closest to Citti Viṇāyakar and the priest comes to those closest to him first. Not all people go to the individual shrines and not all go to all the shrines. People often go from shrine to shrine circumambulating at their own speed.

Some of the regular singers sing at the Pālacuppiramaṇiyar shrine and some singers (and perhaps others) also sing at the Cuntara Āñcanēyar shrine. Not all of the people at these two shrines sing.²⁹ Neither of these songs is from those sung during segment 2.

²⁹ This is perhaps in part because the song sung at Pālacuppiramaṇiyar shrine was sung very quickly and one would have to know the song in order to participate whereas the song sung at the Cuntara Āñcanēyar shrine consists of ephithets and a regularly repeated phrase. See Appendix II, songs 15 and 16.

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Segment 4: Singing and Pūcai at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple

A special $p\bar{u}cai$ is conducted at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple on all the days of $M\bar{a}rkali$ month. Ideally this $p\bar{u}cai$ starts around 5:30 and concludes shortly after 6:15 AM. It also consists of abhisekam, $alank\bar{a}ram$, $naiv\bar{e}ttiyam$ and $t\bar{t}p\bar{a}r\bar{a}tanai$. The personal $p\bar{u}cai$ for the donors, arccanai and the $t\bar{t}p\bar{a}r\bar{a}tanai$ to the subsidiary deities are incorporated into the sequence of the $p\bar{u}cai$ generally after the $alank\bar{a}ram$ and before the $t\bar{t}p\bar{a}r\bar{a}tanai$. The general expectation is that the worshippers from the Citti Vinayakar Temple will join those at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple at least for the final $t\bar{t}p\bar{a}r\bar{a}tanai$. Segment 4 consists

³⁰ There are some differences in the *pūcai*, such as at Citti Vināyakar Temple the priest tends to do the personal pūcai for the donors after naivēttivam has been offered to the deities, whereas I observed it being done prior to naivēttiyam in the Nākamalai Murukan Temple. Also the *tīpārātanai* to the subsidiary deities is done after it has been concluded to Citti Vināyakar, whereas at the Nākamalai Murukan it is incorporated into the main pūcai, and is done before the final camphor tipam to Murukan, the climax of the pūcai. Generally the personal pūcai for the donor and the naivēttivam were completed before the curtain was opened. The curtain is opened to reveal the adorned God, Nākamalai Murukan and is immediately followed by the showing of the five layered lamp and a single camphor flame, arccanai, another single camphor to Murukan, which is taken to the Parivaram or subsidiary deities then back to Murukan, the priest chants, and finally shows the five flame camphor lamp. The showing of this lamp, as at the Citti Vināyakar Temple, is the climax of the pūcai. The people press and lean in to see the God. After the priest takes the five flame camphor lamp to the people, and the assistant and a second assistant brings kunkumam and ash respectively. This description is based on the 1993-94 Mārkali season, as in the 1990-91 season the Parivaram deities had not yet been installed.

³¹ This statement is based on a number of observations, including: the fact that a regular singer and one committee member of the Nākamalai Murukan Temple told me that the pūcai at Citti Vināyakar Temple should finish by 6:00 AM so that the people can come to the Nākamalai Murukan Temple for the 6:15 pūcai (16 December 1993); the fact that the pūcai begins approximately half an hour later than the Citti Vināyakar Temple pūcai; that there is a time when the priest at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple is standing and talking to people and apparently not doing anything specifically related to pūcai as though he is waiting for the time to pass (12, 13 January 1994); and the general flow of the crowd after the Citti Vināyakar Temple pūcai is in fact to the Nākamalai Murukan Temple. However, the pūcai at Nākamalai Murukan Temple will not wait indefinitely for the pūcai to finish at the Citti Vināyakar Temple, as on 16 December 1993 when the pūcai at Citti Vināyakar Temple finished at 6:30, after it had already been completed at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple.

of the portion of the Nākamalai Murukan Temple *pūcai* for which the Citti Vināyakar Temple singers are present.

The stage in the *pūcai* of the Nākamalai Murukan Temple at which the Citti Vināyakar Temple singers arrive varied because of the day to day variations in the *pūcais*. Generally the Citti Vināyakar Temple worshippers arrived after the *abhiṣekam*, *alaṅkāram* and *naivēttiyam*, but before *arccaṇai* and *tīpārātaṇai*.

The Nākamalai Murukan Temple also has its own group of *Mārkali* singers, and therefore when the two groups join in the final stages of the *pūcai* at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple a consensus has to be reached about what will be sung. I did not record all the songs that were sung during this segment, but I noticed that leaders from the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple singers often initiated the singing of the same songs that had been written down for me. The core songs, "Tiruppalliyelucci", "Tiruvempāvai" or "Tiruppāvai" are never sung during this segment, for they have already been completed separately by each group in their respective temples.

This segment is finished when the priest passes around the five flame camphor plate which completes the *pūcai* to Nākamalai Murukan, and his assistants distribute *kuṅkumam* and sacred ash.

Segment 5: Concluding Worship Activities

The final segment consists of a final personal worship at the temple, collecting *piracātam*, and social activity.³² The personal worship consists of circumambulation and stopping at the various deities of one's choice for worship after receiving the five flame plate, the

³² The sequence of this last segment is based on what I observed of the routine of some regular singers at the Citti Vināyakar Temple.

kunkumam and sacred ash.³³ Most people did this, although like the preliminary worship, it is optional, and the feeling seems to be that one should do at least one or the other.³⁴

After the final personal worship, food *piracātam* is collected at both temples. The *piracātam*, in this case, is food that has been prepared at the temple. It is first offered to the deity and then passed out to the worshippers after the *pūcai* has been completed. I was told that eating *piracātam*, and sharing it with others, brings benefit to the individual.³⁵ Collecting *piracātam* then is an important part of the event. The donors receive a large share of the temple's *piracātam* which they then distribute to others. The *piracātam* is often collected in a small containers and then shared with those at home.³⁶

This final segment is very sociable. I did not generally notice people socializing while they were actually completing the personal worship, but people would stand around and socialize while others would worship. The collection of *piracātam* at the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple was especially sociable. It was often distributed by one of the singers and so the ladies would tend to collect together briefly and chat.³⁷ This social period, however, was never very long.

³³ This also was different in the *Mārkali* of 1990-91 as there were no *Parivaram* deities. Circumambulation still was done at that time (12 January 1991)

³⁴ This point was made to me once when one person had to leave quickly. They happened to say that they would not circunambulate that day but it was okay because they had done it at the beginning (3 January 1994).

³⁵ Pāvai Group Singer, conversation with the author, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, Madurai, 22 February 1994.

³⁶ In 1990-91 I declined *piracātam* as I had been extremely ill since day two of the "Tiruvcmpāvai" Festival and was reluctant to eat anything I had not cooked myself. This was simply incomprehensible and unacceptable. Every day that I went to the temple in the 1993-94 season I took *piracātam*. Sometimes when I was delayed for whatever reason someone made sure that I got *piracātam* from both of the temples. Frequently I was given an extra portion of *piracātam* from the donor's portion.

³⁷ In contrast the *piracātam* was distributed by two men at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple, and the singers, who are mostly ladies, do not gather there even briefly to chat.

This basic pattern was altered somewhat on certain days. Three of these occasions were *Tiruvātirai* day, days when a Citti Vināyakar Temple singer was a donor at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple, and the final day of *Mārkali*.

On *Tiruvātirai* day the two groups of singers joined together and sang at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple in front of Cuntarēcuvarar. *Tiruvātirai* day of *Mūrkali* 1993 was the first time that this special day was celebrated in this temple, as no form of Śiva was in this temple prior to the installation of the Linga (Cuntarēcuvarar) less than a year before. On this day there was a special *pūcai* for the Linga which included a nine item *abhiṣekam*, a *pūcai* for a cow, and a special *tīpārātaṇai* for Mīṇāṭci, as well as the early morning *Mārkali pūcai* to all the deities of the temple. The worship began with the *abhiṣekam* for the Linga at about 5:20 AM, and ended with the special *pūcai* for Mīṇāṭci 6:50 AM. Woven in between was the early morning *Mārkali* month *pūcai* and the special *abhiṣekam* for the cow.

The singing of the core songs of "Tiruppalliyclucci", "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppāvai" was not correlated with the *pūcai* on *Tiruvātirai* day as the singers had completed all of "Tiruppalliyclucci", "Tiruvempāvai" and up to verse 12 of "Tiruppāvai" before the *abhiṣekam* of the Linga had begun. After completing "Tiruppāvai" the leaders of the two different groups initiated the singing of the songs, and it was possible to see differences between the group that sings at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple and those who usually sing at the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple. While the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple group wanted to sing *Tirumurai* songs, particularly in the order of the *Pañcapurāṇam*, the leader of the other group tended to initiate more informal songs such as response songs composed primarily of epithets. For the most part the people sang throughout the *pūcai*. The singers were predominantly women.

The crowd was very large for this special day. For the most part it was gathered around the Linga, but it was so large that it actually spread out all through the temple complex. The crowd later shifted and centered around Mīṇāṭci for her tīpārātaṇai at the end of the ritual. In summary, one might say that on Tiruvātirai day, the usual sequence of the singing of the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple group was suspended. Segments 2, 3 and 4 were replaced by the singing in front of the Linga.

Another occasion on which there was a variation from the basic pattern of singing at the Citti Vināyakar Temple was when a member of the Citti Vināyakar Temple group was a donor for the *pūcai* at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple. The *abhiṣekam* at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple begins at about 5:30 so that the donor would leave the Citti Vināyakar Temple (the *abhiṣekam* for Citti Vināyakar would normally be finished by this time) and go to the Nākamalai Murukan Temple. Other family members and friends also went to the Nākamalai Murukan Temple, and there they joined in the singing of that group at that temple.³⁸ The ladies who stayed at the Citti Vināyakar Temple continued with their usual pattern of worship.

On the final day of *Mārkali*, the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple singers hold a closing function. In 1993-94 this was conducted when the curtain was closed after the *abhiṣekam* which coincided with the conclusion of "Tiruvempāvai" and it was completed prior to the offering of *naivēttiyam* and the reopening of the curtain. When the ceremony was finished, the singing of "Tiruppāvai" began.

The first item in the closing ceremony was the handing out of *piracātam* to those who came regularly. The *piracātam* consisted of a package containing a comb, mirror,

 $^{^{38}}$ The singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci", "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppāvai" at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple starts at about 5:00 or a little bit later. Since the $p\bar{u}cai$ starts at about 5:30 the singing is not correlated to the $p\bar{u}cai$ as closely as it is in the Citti Vināyakar Temple singing.

green pan leaves, banana, jasmine flowers, a few tumeric lumps and a pot of *kunkumam*. The same lady provides this *piracātam* gift every year. This was followed by the distribution of prizes to those who had participated in the "Tiruppalliyclucci""Tiruvcmpāvai" competition, and the "Tiruppāvai" competition held at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple.³⁹ The lady who provides the *piracātam* packages was then given a presentation in appreciation for her providing the *piracātam*. This was followed by a statement of the money collected in connection with the *Mārkali* singing at Citti Viṇāyakar Temple and its distribution. Then the same lady who provided *piracātam* for the ladies presented some books to a few men.⁴⁰ The concluding activities finished with the reading of a "Vote of Thanks" which expressed appreciation to those who participated in the month's singing, and to those who performed various functions on behalf of the singers, as well as to the priests and other temple employees.

Inspite of these twenty minutes of closing activities, the core songs, the verse in praise of Āṇṭāḷ, and the *Pañcapurāṇam* were all completed by the time of the final five flame camphor, but there was no time for other songs. This special event did not substantially alter the basic pattern of singing at all.

Summary

The Citti Vināyakar Temple and Nākamalai Murukan Temple of Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai are similar in structure and ritual pattern to the Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in Madurai, but

³⁹ In 1993-94 two competitions were held at the temple. One was for singing "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppaļļiyeļucci" (sponsored by the Tirunakar Tirumurai Manram), and the other was for singing "Tiruppāvai" (sponsored by one of the lady singers). The competition was announced at the beginning of *Mārkaļi* and was held a few days before the end of the month. Young boys and unmarried girls and ladies were eligible to participate.

⁴⁰ After this one of the men made an announcement about another matter which was not part of the scheduled events and was not, in my opinion, particularly well received.

they are much smaller in size and have a simpler ritual cycle. The simpler style of ritual is evident in the way in which "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are sung. In the Mīnātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, the awakening of the deity with "Tiruppalliyelucci", the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" and the special awakening of the gods in *Mārkali* are separate events. In Nākamalai Putukköttai they are one event, and the songs are all sung together in that one event. Furthermore, there are no temple employees to sing "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" in the Nākamalai Putukkōttai temples, and the singing is part of the people's worship. The Mīnātci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple was built by kings and other wealthy people over a long period of time, and its rituals are to a large extent financed by endowments. The two temples in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai are primarily community temples. Although the Citti Vināyakar Temple is run by the state government, and even administered through the Mīnātci-Cuntarccuvarar Devasthanam office, it receives only the most basic funds from the Devasthanam, and relies on donors from the community for any special events,⁴¹ and the Mārkaļi pūcai is paid for by local donors. The Nākamalai Murukan Temple is run entirely by a committee elected by a body of people who have donated a required sum to the temple and continue to make a monthly donation.⁴² The rapid growth and expansion of this temple attests to a certain amount of wealth in the community, but it does not match that available to the Mīnāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple.

The initial differences between the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarccuvarar Temple and the two Nākamalai Putukkoṭṭai temples provide quite different religious opportunities for the worshippers. In Nākamalai Putukkoṭṭai, the devotees can go before the presiding deities

⁴¹ The Devasthanam pays the salaries, electicity, and provides the *piracātam* for daily *pūcai*. The Devasthanam counts and controls the funds from the *untiyal* (collection box): Priest, interview with the author, Nākamalai Putukkōttai, December 1993.

⁴² Secretary of the Committee, Nākamalai Murukan Temple, interview with the author, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, Madurai, August 1994.

and perform their song before the deity in conjunction with the $p\bar{u}cai$. In the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, that right and duty is assigned to a special individual, the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$. This leads to different types of "ritual texts", and different interpretations of those texts, as we shall see more clearly in the next chapter.

III: Chapter 11:

"Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" in First Person Biography

In contrast to the singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" at Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, the performers of the songs at the Citti Viṇāyakar and the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temples are individual devotees. The "Pāvai Singing" is situated as an event in the first person biography of the singers themselves. The singers' perception about what they are doing and about the significance of the songs, indicate that they understand themselves to be singing in their own voice, and that this has benefit for themselves and for others. The significance of the event is stated in four ways: obtaining good husbands for girls; ensuring good rain for crops; obtaining blessings in general for oneself and others; and making requests for God's help to resolve specific problems or achieve specific goals. The structure of the ritual event reinforces the view that the voices heard singing the songs are those of individual devotees rather than a temple bard or an original poet.

This chapter will begin with a description of the "ritual text" of the event, providing a short description of the additional songs and a discussion of some of the characteristics of the text as a whole. It will then show how the singing of this "ritual text" is situated as an event in the lives of the singers by indicating how the singing is understood by some of the singers, and by considering the structure of the event spatially, ritually and in terms of singing styles.

The "Ritual Text"

The "ritual text" of the "Pāvai Singing" is considerably more complex than either of the "ritual texts" of the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* or the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival. It draws on more

source texts composed over a longer period of time. Like the other two "ritual texts" it has a stable component and a variable component.

The "ritual text" of the "Pāvai Singing" has a well defined structure. In segment 2. the group sang four invocatory songs, followed by the three essential groups of poems in a specific order ("Tiruppalliyelucci", "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppāvai"), the song in praise of Āṇṭāl, the Pañcapurāṇam, and finally the songs of choice. In segment 3 in the Citti Viṇāyakar complex "Centippatipurakkum" was sung at the Pālacuppiramaṇiyar Shrine, and then a poem in praise of Cuntara Āñcanēyar (called "Jeya Haṇumāṇ") was sung at the Cuntara Āñcanēyar complex. The additional songs, sung in segment 2, if there was time, and in segment 4 at the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple, were: "Nātavintu Kalātī", three poems provided to me under the title "Vālttu", "Song for Camphor Flame" (Kaṛpūra Ārattip Pāṭal), "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiṇ", and "Viral Māraṇaintu".

This presentation of the "ritual text" is necessarily composite, as the choice of additional songs varied somewhat from day to day. All the songs of this composite "ritual text", with the exception of the three essential songs, "Tiruppalliyclucci", "Tiruvcmpāvai", "Tiruppāvai", and the *Pañcapurāṇam* selections, are translated in Appendix II.¹ The additional songs cited here were the ones most frequently sung. The four invocatory songs and the additional songs, with the exception of the two songs sung in segment 3 (15 and 16), were handwritten especially for me by one of singers, without my asking. I refer to the songs by title if it was provided, and if not then by the traditional way of referring to the song, that is, by the first few words of the first line.

¹ "Tiruppāvai" has been translated by Norman Cutler, Consider Our Vow: Translation of Tiruppāvai and Tiruvempāvai into English (Madurai: Muttu Patippakam, 1979), 30-59 and by Vidya Dehejia, Āṇtāļ and Her Path of Love: Poems of a Woman Saint from South India (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1990), 41-72.

The first verse sung in praise of Vināyakar, "Maṇṇulakam Taṇil"(1), explains that the speaker worships Vināyakar in order to remove the suffering of this birth, and so that all desires will be fulfilled. The speaker is indicated by the first person plural verbal form (paṇintu porruvom). The addressee is not indicated in the poem. The poem is found in the praise portion at the beginning of the Kantapurāṇam by Kacciyappacivācāriyar, who is tenatively dated by Zvelebil in the later half of the fourteenth century.²

The next poem, sung in praise of Viṇāyakar, "Piṭiyataṇ Urumai" (2), refers to Śiva and his consort who took the form of elephants, which resulted in the birth of Kaṇapati. There are no markers to indicate the speaker or the addressee. Both Śiva, as manifested in a particular place, and Viṇāyakar, referred to as Kaṇapati are talked about in the third person. The poem is the fifth verse of the 123rd *Patikam* of the first *Tirumuṇai*, 3 composed by Tiruñāṇacampantar who is generally dated in the seventh century.

The third and fourth invocatory poems, which are used to praise Murukan are verses about Śiva which refer to his relationship to Murukan. The third poem, "Nańkaṭampaṇai" (3), indicates that Śiva's consort gave birth to Skanda (Murukan). The content of this poem is that it is the duty of Śiva to support and protect the speaker, who is a devotee, and that it is the duty of the devotee to serve. The speaker is indicated by first person pronouns and markers (nam, aṭiyēṇai, eṇ) and the addressee is not indicated by markers. The fourth poem, "Camara Cūrapaṇmā" (4), refers to Śiva, the father of Kumāran (Murukan) who killed the demon, Cūrapaṇmā. The poem indicates that servants who love Śiva will rule in the world of the immortals. Neither the speaker nor the addressee are indicated in the poem by any explicit markers. Poem 3 is the ninth verse of

² K. V. Zvelebil, *Tamil Literature*, vol. 10 in *A History of Indian Literature* (Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1974), 186.

³ Tēvāram Paņmurai: Hymnes Śivaites du Pays Tamoul, ed. T. V. Gopal Iyer and François Gros, 2 vols. (Pondichéry: Institut Français D'Indologie, 1984-85), 1:128.

the 132nd *Patikam* and the fourth poem is the tenth verse of the 177th *Patikam* of the fifth *Tirumurai*, composed by Tirunāvukkaracar⁴ who is also dated in the seventh century.

The third essential song, "Tiruppāvai" (7), if all the poems are taken as a sequence, tells about girls undertaking the *pāvai* vow in order to obtain prosperity, abundant rain, a land free from harm, and the removal of past and future karma.⁵ The poem begins with a description of the vow and the benefits which will be obtained. It then moves through a sequence of verses which awaken and summon girls to join them.⁶ After awakening the other girls, they proceed to Kṛṣṇa's house and proceed to awaken members of his household, including his wife.⁷ Then they awaken Kṛṣṇa and request the items they need to finish their vow.⁸ In the penultimate verse they say that what they really want is to serve only Kṛṣṇa forever. The final verse of "Tiruppāvai" is a signature verse which identifies the author and indicates that those who sing these songs will receive the grace of Tirumāl (Viṣṇu) and will live in joy forever.⁹ This is the only verse in the poem which provides any identity for a speaker. There are a number of different addressees in the thirty poems. As in "Tiruvempāvai", there is at least one dialogue poem.¹⁰ The poem is by Āṇṭāḷ, a Vaiṣṇava saint, who is dated in the ninth century.¹¹

The eighth song of the "ritual text", "Tiru Āṭippūratti", is the poem in praise of Āṇṭāḷ. The verse is twelve lines long, eight of which wish her long life. The remaining lines wish long life to other devotees, to the form of Viṣṇu at Śrīraṅkam Temple, to another

⁴ Tēvāram, ed. Gopal lyer and Gros, II:130, 176.

⁵ Poems 3 and 5.

⁶ Poems 6 through 15.

⁷ Poems 16 through 20.

⁸ Poems 21 through 28.

⁹ See Dehejia's summary: Dehejia, Antal and Her Path of Love, 62-4.

¹⁰ As is apparent in the interpretations of "Tiruvempāvai" given above, whether a verse is a dialogue or not is to some extent a matter of interpretation. In this case I am relying on Cutler's and Dehejia's interpretations of the verses.

¹¹ Dehejia, Āṇtāļ and Her Path of Love, 3.

great Ālvār poet, Nammālvār, to the world, and to Maṇavāla Māmuṇi, a fourteenth century scholar of one of the Śrīvaiṣṇava sects. The portion that wishes well-being contains no first or second person markers, and it is not addressed to anyone in particular. The portion addressed to Maṇavāla Māmuṇi also does not contain any first person markers. I was unable to obtain the identity of the author or source for this poem, either from the singers or from any other source. The poem mentions a fourteenth century Vaiṣṇava scholar, so its composition is no earlier than that.

Frequently the *Pañcapurāṇam* (9) was sung following the poem to Āṇṭāļ (8). The same pamphlet was used each time, except on *Tiruvātirai* day. It generally seemed that the only people who knew these songs were the people with the booklet. Most people did not sing along, and consequently the singing usually lagged at this point. This particular pamphlet has a selection for each of the seven days of the week. The booklet was published in 1990 and this particular selection was first used in the *Mārkali* of 1990-91. This particular *Pañcapurāṇam* selection in the "*Pāvai* Singing" is therefore relatively new in this "ritual text". These poems are taken from the *Tirumurai*, and are therefore composed by sixteen different authors whose dates range between the seventh century and the thirteen century. 12

"Nātavintu Kalātī" (10) frequently followed the *Pañcapurāṇam* in segment 2 if there was time, and was also sung in segment 4, and sometimes in both segments on the same day. This was a popular song with a very pleasing melody. The poem consists primarily of various descriptions of the deity. The speaker is not indicated in the poem.

¹² I have chosen not to include a discussion of all the thirty-five songs because, as we will see below, while it is significant that the *Pañcapurāṇam* is sung, which particular verses are chosen to constitute the *Pañcapurāṇam* each day is not significant. The occurrence of any one selection of songs was at most four times in a month, and since the *Pañcapurāṇam* was not sung every day these songs would not have been sung even that often. The rest of the songs of the text were usually sung at least once a day.

The poem is addressed to Murukan in his form at the temple in Palani. This song is found in a collection of poems called *Tiruppukal* composed by Arunakirinātar, dated by Zvelebil at the end of the fourteenth and the beginning of the fifteenth century. ¹³ The *Tiruppukal* has six major divisions, each of which is comprised of songs about Murukan at one of his six abodes: Tirupparankunram, Tiruccentūr, Palani, Cuvāmimalai, Tiruttanikai, and Palamutircōlai.

A group of three verses given to me under the title of "Valttu" (11, 12, 13) were frequently sung as a unit following "Nātavintu Kalātī". All three are benedictions. The first (11) wishes long life to Murukan, his emblem, his mount, his two consorts and his devotees. The second poem (12) asks for rain, for prosperity, good government, for a sufficient life for souls, and for religion to flourish, particularly the Vedic and Śaiva religion. The third verse (13) requests the well-being of brahmins, the celestials and cows, rain, the well-being of the king, that evil and misery in the world should perish and that all the world should know about Siva. When the singers sing the three poems under the heading of "valttu", they repeat three times the line "Let the excellent Saiva way flourish throughout the world". This is the only line of the three songs which they repeat. All three poems have a similar structure in that all three are not addressed to anyone in particular, nor is the speaker explicitly indicated in the verses. 14 Poems 11 and 12 are from the Kantapuranam by Kacciyappacivācāriyar who, as we have already mentioned, is dated in the fourteenth century. Poem 11 is from the chapter on the marriage of Valli (Murukan's consort)in the sixth book, Taksakānta. Poem 12 is from the praise portion at the beginning of the Kantapuranam, as is the first invocatory verse. Poem 13 is the first verse of

¹³ Zvelebil, Tamil Literature (1974), 108.

¹⁴ The verse which wishes long life to Murukan and so on, is not specifically addressed to him as would be indicated by vocatives or second person markers.

"Tiruppācuram", the 54th *Patikam* of the third *Tirumurai* composed by Tiruñānacampantar. 15 "Tiruppācuram", according to tradition, is the collection of poems inscribed on a palm leaf which floated up the Vaikai River from Madurai to nearby Tiruvēṭakam and thereby signalled the defeat of the Jains. 16

The "Song for the Camphor Flame" was often song by some members of the group during the offering of the camphor flame to the deity, the ritual act which concludes the worship in segments 2 and 4. It is a single verse which says that the addressee is the unlimited light in the moon, the sun, the fire, in "us", in Iśvara, as well as in the camphor. There is a first person marker (enkal) in the poem, and the addressee is indicated by a series of second person pronouns ($n\bar{\imath}$). I asked several singers about the composer of "The Song for the Camphor Flame" and the song in praise of Hanuman, which will be discussed below, but was unable to get the author's name and thereby find the source for these songs. One lady told me that her aunt had instructed her to sing "The Song for the Camphor Flame", so she did.

In segment 3, two songs were frequently sung. The first (15),
"Centippatipurakkum" was frequently sung by some of the regulars at the
Pālacuppiramaṇiyar shrine in the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple complex. This song makes a
number of requests to Murukaṇ. The following is my paraphrase of the summary given to
me by one of the singers of this song:

God is asked to protect the devotee from trouble, to shower blessings on the devotee, to make the devotee become a great poet, to make the devotee a great scholar in Tamil, to remove the devotee's bondage, to help the devotee curb pride of "I and mine", and to let the devotee keep company with other devotees.

¹⁵ Tēvāram, ed. Gopal Iyer and Gros, I:332.

¹⁶ See chapter 10 above.

The speaker is indicated in the poem by first person markers (*emmai*, āṭiyēṛkum) and the God, Murukan, is addressed with a vocative (*Centippatipurakkuñcevvēlē*). This selection is an excerpt from *Kantar Kalivenpā*, composed by Kumarakuruparar who is dated by Zvelebil in the seventeenth century. The work has 122 stanzas. The first 110 are a long description of Murukan addressed to him. The remaining 12 are a variety of requests also addressed to Murukan. The portion sung at the shrine consists of the last 13 stanzas and it actually begins in the middle of the one hundred and tenth stanza in order to include part of the vocative. Thus the selection consists of the request part of the work, retaining only one line of the address and description.

The second song usually sung in segment three, "Jeya Hanumān" (16), consists primarily of the phrase "Victory Hanumān" (*jeya hanumān*) with a few other descriptive epithets addressed directly to the deity. There are no first person markers. It appears in a small pamphlet of songs printed by a now disbanded organization of these village women. The source of the song is not provided in the publication.

The remaining two songs of this composite "ritual text", "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiṇ", and "Viral Māraṇaintu", are addressed to Murukaṇ. They were frequently sung in segment 4 at the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple. "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiṇ" (17) is a short poem which consists of several descriptive addresses to Murukaṇ and a request that he please give the garland to the girl who has fallen in love with him. "Viral Māraṇaintu" (18) is a slightly longer poem

¹⁷ Kumarakuruparar is the founder of the Kāci maṭam (mentioned in Part II). He composed a song about the Goddess Mīṇāṭci at Madurai which he is said to have performed before Tirumalaināyakkar. He was from a veḷḷāla family at Śrīvaikuntam in the extreme south of India. He was born as the result of a boon bestowed upon his parents in response to a prayer to Murukaṇ of Tiruccentūr. The boy was apparently unable to speak, so his parents took him to the shrine of Tiruccentūr and prayed to Murukaṇ. The boy had a vision of Murukaṇ, and his response to this vision was to sing Kantar Kaliveṇpā. K. V. Zvelebil, Tamil Literature (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1975), 229-30; and K. Sivaraman, trans. Tiruchendur Kandar Kalivenba of Sri Athi Kumaragurupara Swamigal (Tirupananadal: Kasi Mutt, 1968), 2-3.

which asks Murukan to remove the want of a girl who is afflicted by love by giving the flower garland to her. It also contains several descriptive addresses to Murukan. The speaker is not indicated in either poem, however in both poems the addressee is God who is indicated by several vocatives. Both poems are from *Tiruppukal*, composed by Arunakirinatar. "Nīlankoļ Mēkattin" is from a collection of songs which are not associated with a particular place, whereas "Viral Māranaintu" is from the section on Tiruccentūr.

Summary of the "Ritual Text"

The "ritual text" of the "Pāvai Singing" has a minimal component which is fairly stable, and another component which may vary. The minimal text consists of four invocatory poems, all ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci", all twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai" and all thirty poems of "Tiruppāvai". As far as I have been able to discern, this minimal "ritual text" has been stable from year to year, for a number of years. The song in praise of Āṇṭāl and the Pañcapurāṇam songs are almost, but not quite, part of the minimal ritual text. The song in praise of Āṇṭāl was sung on every day that I was present, and it was added to the "ritual text" some years back, but only after the essential songs were already in place. The Pañcapurāṇam was sung on most days prior to the additional songs, but it seems that the singing of the Pañcapurāṇam depends on whether or not there is time in segment 2.

The variety in the "ritual text" lies with the "other" songs which are sung and their inclusion is determined by factors such as time, personal preference of group members and who is leading the singing. The songs which follow *Pañcapurāṇam* in Appendix II

¹⁸ Occasionally a man came and sang by himself after the essential songs had been sung. He usually sang one or two songs, and these changed from visit to visit. People did not join him, but his singing was appreciated by the singers and the leaders encouraged him to participate.

were almost always sung if any additional songs were sung in segment 2 or initiated in segment 4 by the ladies of the Citti Vināyakar Temple group.

The "ritual text" of the "Pāvai Singing" draws on a variety of source texts, composed over a long period of time by a variety of authors. If we omit the selections from the Pañcapurāṇam, the remaining songs of the composite "ritual text" including the essential songs were composed by ten different poets. ¹⁹ If we include the Pañcapurāṇam selections, another thirteen possible poets are added to the list. The songs of this "ritual text" were composed over a period of approximately one thousand years, from the time of Tirunāvukkaracar (seventh century) until the time of Kumarakuruparar (seventeenth century). The selection of songs is not restricted to Tirunavai songs, because the Kantapuraṇam, "Tiruppāvai", the song in praise of Āṇṭāḷ, Tiruppukaḷ, quite possibly the "Song for the Camphor Flame", Kantar Kaliveṇṇā, and the song in praise of Haṇumāṇ are not Tirunuvai songs. "Tiruppāvai", the song in praise of Āṇṭāḷ, and song in praise of Hanumān are associated with Vaisnavism.

Interpretation: First Person Biography

In Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai the singing of the songs is an event in the lives of those who sing them, primarily local women. The singers sing in their own voices. The event in general is worshipping God with the expectation of receiving benefits. More specifically, the event is worshipping God through the singing of the *pāvai* songs, and this event is associated with specific benefits such as obtaining good husbands for girls, good rain, prosperity, and blessings for oneself and others. This understanding of the event is evident from the

¹⁹ Kacciyappacivācāriyar, Tiruñānacampantar, Tirunāvukkaracar, Mānikkavācakar, Ānṭāl, an unknown author, Arunakirinātar, another unknown author, Kumarakuruparar, and another unknown author.

singers' own perceptions of what they are doing, and from their understanding of the significance of the essential songs and the additional songs. This perception is reinforced by features of the ritual context such as the spatial arrangement, the ritual activity and the singing style.

One singer explained the "Pāvai Singing" by referring to the following poem by the *Tirumurai* poet, Cuntarar, and emphasized particularly verse 1:

You can praise them, tell them just what they want to hear, cleave to them as servants, but they will still give you nothing, those fakes-

listen, you poets, don't sing to them: sing of our father's Pukalūr.

You will have in this world rice and clothes, a celebration, even an end to sorrow,

and in that other life without a doubt you will rule Śiva's world.

(1/340)

(2/341)

Even if you call some weakling 'Bhīma' or 'a mighty Vijaya with his bow,' or praise a miser as a latter-day Pāri, they will still give you nothing!

Sing, you poets, about Pukalūr of our auspicious lord, his body covered in ash:

without doubt you will rule the kingdom of the gods which towers over other worlds piled upon worlds.

'He owns great tracts of land:

he is learned, supports his kinfolk. He holds lavish feasts'--

you can describe them in these terms, but they will still give you nothing!

Sing, you poets, of cool Pukalūr where peasants plough with their bullocks while birds cry in song:

without a doubt you will be the linch-pin of the gods' own world.

(3/342)

Even if you celebrate that old man, his body wrinkled, white, gone slack, all atremble when he stands, as a hero whose shoulders are firm as the hills-

he will still give you nothing.

Sing, you poets, about Pukalūr of the auspicious lord who rides the fine white bull:

without doubt you will reign like kings over the world of the gods.

(4/343)

You can call him a saint-that deceitful liar, that fraud, that foul and faithless criminal-but he will still give you nothing.

Sing, you poets, about Pukalūr of the auspicious god with the matted hair red as gold:

without doubt you will cut away the anguish of the heart and be redeemed. (5/344)

Call a worthless man good,

a gray-beard youthful-give a man without family a fine lineage--

they will still give you nothing.

Sing, you poets, of lovely Pukalūr, its fields intoxicating with their sweet fragrance:

without doubt without confusion, you will rule the gods' world.

(6/345)

You can proclaim that invalid a hero with mighty arms, or that vile man a mother munificent to all poets-

and they will still give you nothing.

don't wander this world, starving, with eyes sunk deep into their sockets:

sing, you poets, of our father's Pukalūr--

without doubt, without paying for it, you will rule the whole world.

(7/346)

If a sesame seed falls to the ground, they will search for it everywhere but they wouldn't give anything even to a fly.

Even if you praise such people as great patrons and protectors, they will still give you nothing!

Sing, you poets, of lovely Pukalūr, where the birds take refuge:

without doubt, without sinking into the mire, you will go free.

(8/347)

You may speak of some ignoramus as a fine, learned man, say he resembles the lord of love,

make someone wholly immature into a paragon of wholeness--

and they will still give you nothing.

Sing, you poets, of Pukalūr, where the owls in the tree-hollows never stop hooting:

without doubt, as masters you will rule the gods' world. (9/348)

'He is a veritable Kāma to women, that handsome Lord. He brandishes a spear in his hand'--

you may chatter on like this, but they will still give you nothing!

Sing, you poets, of Pukalūr, where buffaloes plunge through the ponds and pools:

without doubt, as lords you will rule the gods' world. (10/349)

Ūran, the harsh devotee,
son of Caṭaiyan,
father of Vaṇappakai,
from Nāvalūr
with its flowering fields rich in honey,
sang these ten songs
to the wealthy lord who lives in southern Pukalūr
where dense pockets of lotus
rise high in the paddy-fields.

Those who can sing them will doubtless reach the feet of **dharma**'s lord (11/350)²⁰

²⁰ From David Dean Shulman, trans. and comm., Songs of the Harsh Devotee: The Tēvāram of Cuntaramūrttināyaṇār (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1990), 205-211. The numbers 1-11 are the Patikam numbers. The numbers 340-350 represent the position of these verses within the seventh Tirumurai.

The signficance of Cuntarar's poem as explained to me was: why praise others, praise this God who will give benefits and release also. This is what the "*Pāvai* Singing" is: individual devotees praising God so that they will receive benefits.

The references that the women use with respect to themselves indicate that they regard the " $P\bar{a}vai$ Singing" as an event in their lives. The following quote is a translation of part of the opening paragraph of the "Vote of Thanks" read out to the singers on the final day of $M\bar{a}rkali$:

I give thanks, on behalf of you, to the Lord who gives to us the greatest pleasure of gathering here to worship his foot, by bowing [our] heads, seeing [him] with [our] eyes, spreading his fame, extolling his names and beauty with [our] tongues while [our] hearts soften and melt; I place my head at his foot and worship.²¹

This excerpt indicates that the activity which the singers have been doing for the month of *Mārkali* is praising and worshipping God. The use of inclusive first person plural (*nammai*, *namakku*) indicates that the praising and worshipping of God has been done by all who are gathered.

Other references in the "Vote of Thanks" indicate that the specific act of worship is singing the pāvai songs. The speaker thanked one member of the group for leading the singing of the pāvai songs (namakku ellām pāvaipāṭa aṭiyeṭuttuk koṭuttu). Then she thanked those who came early to sing the pāvai songs (pāvaipāṭa paṛantōṭi varum tāymārkaļukkum). Next she thanked the member of the group who collected and managed the money for the pūcais and gifts "under the auspices of those who sing the pāvai each year" (āṇṭutōṛum pāvaipāṭuvōr cārpil). Afterwords she thanked the lady who gives the auspicious items to those who sing the pāvai songs each year (āṇṭutōṛum maṅkalac

²¹ "avan tāļ vaņanka nammai ellām inku kūṭṭuvittu avan pukalaiyum - nāmattaiyum alakaiyum talaiyāl vaṇanki kaṇkaļāl kaṇṭu, nāvāl ēttip paravi, nekilntu ullam nekkuruki nirkum paramānantattai namakku alitta epperumānukku unkal anaivarin cārpāka nanriyait terivittu avan tāl mītu en cenniyai vaittu vaṇankukirēn."

cinnankaļai pāvaipāṭuvōrukku aļittu). Although other songs were also sung, the activity for which these ladies are thanked is only connected with singing the pāvai songs. The perception conveyed by the "Vote of Thanks" is that the ladies have been singing the pāvai songs as an act of worship.

The meaning of the *pāvai* songs as situated as the event of "singing the *pāvai*" in the lives of these individual women is that benefits can be gained by singing these songs during *Mārkali*. Several explanations were given by singers and by other members of the community for what is special about singing *pāvai* songs at this time: to gain worldy benefits, specific and general, and to attain *mutti*.

In my preliminary investigations in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, I asked what the significance of "Tiruvempāvai" and the *Mārkali* festival were. I had thirteen respondents²²: four men and nine women. Some gave more than one answer. One man and five women (one of whom was his wife) said that the significance was so that young girls could get good husbands and so that there would be good rain. One of the same women and another responded that the meaning of "Tiruvempāvai" is the individual imagining themselves as the woman and God as the hero or lover. Another man said that singing these songs was something that women did and was for the benefit of themselves. Another man said that it was something that women and children do in order to obtain well-being. A gentleman who sang occasionally in 1993-94, provided this answer: "Because of our singing "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" blessings are available to us so that we

²² This is not a random sample. Six of the nine women sang both years and are leaders of the Citti Vināyakar Temple group. One of the remaining three was not able to come and sing in the early morning. The remaining woman frequently stays in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, and when there she conducts classes on *Tiruvācakam*. She was there in 1990-91 but did not sing due to old age. The last of the ladies was unmarried; I only really got to know her in 1993-94. Of the four men, one was one of the priests, another a husband of one of the woman respondents who I did not see singing, another I could not identify, and another came periodically throughout the month and sang some of the time.

may obtain release".²³ The other responses of the women were: for blessings in general (3 responses); it is a devotional song (1 response); by observing the *Mārkali* activities at daybreak, the rest of life will go in an orderly manner (1 response); and it is a time for making particular requests to God (2 responses). These remaining reasons are really aspects of the same thing: it is a good time to worship God; for worshipping; for blessings in general; and for making requests to Him. This enumeration of benefits is similar to those listed in chapter 6 by authors who had placed "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the first person biography, with the exception that these authors mentioned in chapter 6 did not mention the purpose of getting good husbands for girls.

These benefits are actually mentioned in the two *pāvai* songs: "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppāvai". Poems 9 and 19 of "Tiruvempāvai" are regularly construed as the request by girls for Śaiva husbands. Poem 16 is addressed to the cloud requesting it to rain just like the Goddess bestows her grace. Poem 17 can be understood as a request for general wellbeing: "play, springing into the waters so that well-being will flourish". Poems 11, 12, 13 and 20 suggest that the cleansing activity and the life-style of devotees leads to *mutti*.²⁴ It has already been mentioned above that in "Tiruppāvai" the benefits to be obtained from the vow are prosperity, rain, a land free from harm and the removal of past and future karma which leads to *mutti*.

The significance of singing most of the "other" songs echoes the reasons for singing the $p\bar{a}vai$ songs. Generally the respondents to my questionnaires were the ones

²³ "nām tiruvempāvai, tiruppaļļiyeļuccipāṭalkaļ pāṭuvatan mūlamāka nām vīṭu pēṛu aṭaiya namakku āci kiṭaikkum".

²⁴ See the whole of poem 11. Poem 12: "He who is the holy water in whom we joyfully bathe to remove the suffering of binding birth". In poem 13 the pond is compared to Siva and his consort, and the blemishes that are washed off are often understood to be physical and spiritual. Poem 20: "[Your] golden flowers graciously accept [us] so that we are redeemed".

who determined which additional songs were sung in the Citti Vinayakar Temple singing group. They shaped the ritual to some extent by their choice of song. I have relied for the most part on one of the leaders' interpretation in trying to understand the significance of these songs. The reasons for singing the additional songs reinforce the reasons given for singing the three essential songs: for good husbands for girls, and for well-being in general, including rain and prosperity for oneself and for others.

The singing of the *Pañcapurāṇam*, the "Nātavintu Kalātī" song,
"Centippatipurakkum", and the three "Vāltu" poems can be understood as songs sung for
general benefits, including rain and prosperity, either personally for the devotee who sings
or on behalf of others.

The pamphlet of $Pa\bar{n}capur\bar{a}nam$ songs used in the " $P\bar{a}vai$ Singing", says that if one sings them once a day there will be benefit.²⁵ In response to my query to one of the singers about what benefit would be gained, I was told that one's wishes would be fulfilled, God would give His blessing, and God would give one the energy to face any difficulty. She then said that this list was only an humble attempt to articulate the benefit, and in order to really understand, one would have to sing every day and realize the benefit for themself.²⁶ "Nātavintu Kalātī" (9) is interpreted as a general request for grace (arul $t\bar{a}r\bar{a}y$). The fourth verse which specifically asks for grace is repeated at the end of the song when it was sung by the group. "Centippatipurakkum", as we saw in the earlier summary, is a request to God to give the speaker, who is a devotee, a life free from hardship, an education, and spiritual maturity. In the second and third of the three verses under the title

²⁵ The pamphlet says that the *Pañcapurāṇam* should be sung in the home as well as in temples. See the Introductory comments: *Tiruccirrampalam Pañcapurāṇam* (Tirunakar: Tirumurai Manram, 1990).

²⁶ Pāvai Group Singer, interview with the author, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, Madurai, 5 April 1994.

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of "Vālttu" (Benedictions) we see a specific request for rain, a wish for a world which is prosperous and orderly, in which people, good government and religion flourish.

The last two poems of the composite "ritual text", "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattin" and "Viral Māraṇaintu" were frequently sung in segment 4 at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple in 1993-94 because one lady, who wanted to complete her daughter's marriage soon, had asked that it be sung at this time with this purpose in mind.²⁷ I was told that previously,

Yet in the two ritual events studied here in which "Tiruvempāvai" is sung (i.e. the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival in Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, and the "Pāvai Singing" in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai) unmarried girls have a low profile. In Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, where this festival is framed as an event in the life of the poet-saint Māṇikkavācakar, no young girls at all participated in the singing, and they had virtually no presence in the audience.

I have already noted that the group of singers in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai was usually at least two-thirds married women. Prior to Mārkaļi in 1993-94, I obtained a list of names of the core group of singers in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai; and every woman on the list was married. During the Mārkaļi of 1993-94 all of the core group were married women, and the women who included "getting good husbands" as one of the reasons for singing these songs in Mārkaļi were married women. Clearly they were not singing in order to get good husbands for themselves. One of these women did say that before she was married she sang verses 9 and 19 of "Tiruvempāvai" for the purpose of getting a good husband, and she feels that her request was granted. Some of them may have sung these songs for good husbands, because many have been singing since childhood. The majority of the participants, and especially the leaders of the singing, are not doing what is commonly perceived that is done, singing for good husbands for themselves. One of the men said he sang specifically to get blessings and in order to attain mutti.

Some of those who came and joined the "Pāvai Singing" were unmarried. One of the singers who I interviewed was unmarried, and among the five things she was singing for in the 1993-94 Mārkali, marriage was the last on the list. She mentioned that if she had been singing in particular for a good husband this year, she would have followed some of the restrictions practiced by those singing for marriage. In 1993-94 she did not follow those restrictions. This was not because she thought marriage was unimportant, rather it was because this year marriage was not a priority.

²⁷ The idea that mothers sing the *pāvai* songs so that their daughters will get married is a variation on the widespread idea that the *pāvai* songs are sung by unmarried girls to get good husbands. See Dehejia, *Āṇtāl and Her Path of Love*, 4; C. J. Fuller, *The Camphor Flame: Popular Hinduism and Society in India* (New Delhi: Viking, Penguin Books, 1992), 182, 197-8; Holly Baker Reynolds, "The Changing Nature of a Tamil Vow: The Challenge of Trans-Sectarian Bhakti in Contemporary South India" in *Boeings and Bullock-Carts: Studies in Change and Continuity in Indian Civilization*, vol. 4, ed. Bardwell L. Smith (Delhi: Chanakya Publications, 1990), 64; and Cutler, *Consider Our Vow*, 1.

these songs had been sung so that the daughters of the women in the group would be married quickly, and both of the daughters in question are now married. The women believe these marriages were the result of their singing of the songs.²⁸

I asked what it was about "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiņ" and "Viral Māraṇaintu" that made them suitable to sing in order to complete the daughter's marriage. The response, in summary, is that the poems are understood to request the marriage of a girl. Both songs, in addition to praising Murukaṇ in various ways, request Murukaṇ to give a garland to a girl. To one singer, the garland in the poem represents both Murukaṇ's grace and the garlands exchanged by the couple in the marriage ceremony. The garland that Murukaṇ wears is a symbol of his grace. God should show his grace by giving the garland. If God

There is in fact variety in the way "Tiruvempāvai" is sung by Śaivas during Mārkaļi. For several years in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai some men used to sing during Mārkaļi. They would sing "Tiruppaļļiyelucci", "Tiruvempāvai", and the other songs while walking along the streets. They would leave from Citti Vināyakar Temple and return there.

Members of the "Twelve Tirumurai Association" housed in the Mīṇaṭci-Cuntarcuvarar Temple circumambulate in the Mīṇaṭci-Cuntarcuvarar Temple singing Tirumurai and Tiruppukal songs. In 1993 during the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival at Mīṇaṭci-Cuntarcuvarar Temple, I saw them circumambulating in the Āṭi streets and the second pirākāram, and heard them singing "Tiruvempāvai". The members doing this were mostly men. I did not see any unmarried girls singing in the "The Twelve Tirumurai Association" circumambulation.

Another specific *Mārkali* practice, which one lady recalled from her childhood, was the gathering of men, boys and girls into a group, and going to some devotees' houses and singing there. The people would then give the group something to drink and some *cuntal*. The ladies sang at the local *matam*.

There is a strong perception that <u>young girls</u> sing the *pāvai* songs, and in the Tamil Śaiva context specifically, "Tiruvempāvai", in order to marry good husbands. In the examples cited here, however, there is no evidence to suggest that the singing of the *pāvai* songs is an activity undertaken particularly by unmarried girls in order to marry good husbands. Yet in Tamil society, securing a good marriage for a girl is thought to be a major concern for both the family and the girl. It would be interesting to pursue the question as to why there is such a strong association between the singing of the *pāvai* songs and unmarried girls, when there seems to be so little evidence of it in current practice.

²⁸ Pāvai Group Singer, interviews with the author, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, Madurai 25, 28 February and 17 March 1994.

gives the garland it means that the girl also will receive the garland from the husband, i.e., her marriage will be completed. The reference to "deficiency" in "Viral Māraṇaintu" is explained as the deficiency of not being married. Therefore the request to remove the deficiency of the girl is a request that she should be married soon. The line which expresses the desire that the deficiency of the girl should be removed is repeated by the ladies when they sing the poem. When concluding this explanation, I was told that the famous commentator on *Tiruppukal*. Kirupāṇantavāriyār, said that a girl should sing "Viral Māraṇaintu" in particular if she wanted to get married.

In Part II, we saw that the giving of the garland is a theme in *akam* poetry. Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār invokes this theme when situating "Tiruvempāvai" in the *akam* narrative world. The hero came to the virgin girl and gave the garland making known to her his love for her. The heroine then undertook the *Tai* bath so that she would obtain him as her husband.²⁹ Two interpretations of "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiṇ" and "Viral Māraṇaintu" understand them also in terms of the *akam* narrative world. In one interpretation the poems are a request to the hero on behalf of the heroine to accept the heroine's love.³⁰ In the other interpretation, "Viral Māraṇaintu" is understood to be about the suffering of the heroine who is in love with the hero, and "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiṇ" is about the heroine wanting the

²⁹ Ka. Cu. Navanîta Kiruşņa Pāratiyār, commentator, Śrī Maṇivācakapa Perumāṇ Tiruvāy Malarntaruļiya Tiruvācakam Ārāyccip Pērurai (Maviṭṭapum, Ilaṅkai: Patmā Patippakam, 1954), 463-4.

³⁰ In a discussion about these two poems, Ā. Āṇantarācan also situated the poems in the *akam* narrative frame. According to him, the poems are addressed to Lord Murukan by the stepmother or a friend. The girl is lovesick and so the stepmother asks Murukan to give the garland to her as acceptance of her love. Interview with the author, Palkalainakar, Madurai, July 1994.

In Navanīta Kiruṣṇa Pāratiyār's use of the theme of the hero giving the garland when interpreting "Tiruvempāvai", the giving of the garland is the hero's revelation of his love to the heroine. In Ā. Āṇantarācaṇ's interpretation of these two songs, the same theme is used to indicate that the heroine has not yet received the hero's love and is therefore suffering.

flower garland in order to consummate her desire. In this second interpretation, the heroine represents the soul, and the hero represents God.³¹

In the ladies' usage of "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiṇ" and "Viral Māraṇaintu" in the "Pāvai Singing", the girl in the poem is either their own daughter or their friends' daughter, and Murukaṇ is the God who can make the union possible, but not the one to whom the daughter should be united. The two songs, when situated in the lives of at least some of the singers of the group, are not a request to the hero on behalf of the heroine for him to accept her love, nor a request that the Highest soul unite with the individual soul, but rather a request to God to make possible the marriage of a daughter.

Even though some of the women consciously sang these songs specifically for the benefit of a particular person's daughter, it does not mean that others participated for that purpose. Others, outside the immediate group, may not have known the specific reason for singing these songs this year. They perhaps sang for themselves or their own daughters or for someone else, or maybe they sang just to praise God.

³¹ Kirupāṇantavāriyār in his commentary on "Viral Māraṇaintu", which includes a reference to "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiṇ", casts the relationship portrayed in the poems in terms of the beloved-lover relationship (nāyaki nāyaka pāvam). He says about "Viral Māraṇaintu": For the heroine (talaivi) who has love for the hero (talaivaṇ), the cool light of the moon is hot and the Tenral wind burns like fire. Here, putting the soul (jīvāṇmā) as the beloved (nāyaki) and the God (paramāṇmā) as the lover (nāyakaṇ), the soul, who is the beloved has love for the hero who is God, becomes increasingly anguished and becomes emaciated. In this way, there are many songs in the beloved-lover mode (nāyaki nāyaka pāvam).

The commentator cites two other examples and then makes the following comment regarding "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiņ": "In this way, the soul (jīvānmā), who desires God (paramānmā), desires the flower garland in order to consummate that desire." Kirupāṇantavāriyār, Tiruppukaļ Virivurai Tirupparaṅkuṇaṇam Tiruccentūr (mutaṛpaṭaivīṭum, iraṇṭām paṭaivīṭum) (Ceṇnai: Vāṇati Patippakam, n.d.), 186.

The Structure of the Ritual and First Person Biography

Aspects of the ritual reinforce the view that the singing of the songs in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai is an activity of individual devotees, an event in their own lives. During the ritual, there is no absolute distinction between the singers and the audience. The audience and singers share the same space. The audience can receive any ritual honor that the singers receive, and anybody can participate in the singing. There are also no images or other legendary personalities whose voice is heard singing the songs.

In the ritual event of "Pāvai Singing" there is no spatial distance maintained between female singers and female audience members or between male singers and male audience members. During the "Pāvai Singing" the women who sing at the Citti Viṇāyakar Temple sit both in the center of and at the sides of the railings. Any woman or child could come and join the singers, to sing or to just sit there. The men generally sat or stood apart at the side usually occupied by men during worship, and any man could join in and sing.³² This is in sharp contrast the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* and the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival of the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in which the singers, the ōtuvārs, have a special space in the ritual where audience members are not permitted.

There were also no ritual distinctions between audience and singers in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai. The special honor (*piracātam*) bestowed on the last day was given to anyone who participated regularly. The bestowing of the special honor happens yearly. If one wants to, one could come regularly and then receive that honor also. The *abhiṣekam* items (milk and ash) passed out at the end of the *abhiṣekam* were also shared with the audience. The lack of ritual distinction is emphasised during the final *tīpārātaṇai* when the whole crowd merges in an effort to see the showing of the camphor flame to the deity and to

³² The spatial distance between women and men reflects the cultural custom that women generally should share space only with men from their own immediate familes.

receive the flame, ash and $ku\dot{n}kumam$. The singers and the audience are indistinguishable at this point, and the priest made no special distinction between the singers and the audience when giving the camphor flame, $ku\dot{n}kumam$ and ash at the end of the $p\bar{u}cai$. This is unlike the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival in which the singers of the songs, the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$ s, receive special ritual distinction in the form of temple honors.

The style of singing at the temples in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai was also uniform. All three songs, "Tiruppalliyelucci", "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppāvai" (and also the song in praise of Āṇṭāl) were sung in the same tune without any variation so that one could join in easily. Thus any devotee could become a singer by simply singing, thereby making the event one's own. This contrasts with the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival in which the singing style was generally individualized by the ōtuvārs, making it difficult to sing along.

In the Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai singing, there are also no images of saints or poets, and generally no special personalities who take over the voice of the poems. The ritual does not include any images of saints, poets or other personalities, unlike the continual presence of Māṇikkavācakar's image in the "Tiruvcmpāvai" Festival. Furthermore, the selections used in the *Mārkali* month singing in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai are removed from their original context, as a part of a particular text composed by a particular author with a specific life story.³³ No information concerning the text, source or the author was made known during the singing of the hymns. Even when songs 1 to 5, 10 to 14 and 17 and 18 were hand copied by one of the ladies singing and given to me on the first few days of *Mārkali* month, the selections contained no information about either the author or the title of the work. Only two of the selections had any headings: "The Song for the Camphor Flame"; and the songs thus collected under the heading "Vālttu". Whether or not the

³³ The exception to this is "Tiruppāvai" in which the author's identity is given. This situation is addressed in the following paragraph.

person who provided me with copies of the songs knew the sources and author I do not know. But it would seem that she did not think it was important for me to know such matters in order to participate in the singing. For her it was important that I have a copy of the songs and that I know certain details about how to sing them.

I have argued that the historical poet is absent for the most part in the Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai singing, but, in one case the historical author was present. That was in the singing of "Tiruppāvai" in which the last verse is a signature verse which identifies the author. The singing of this verse was immediately followed every day that I was there by the verse in praise of this poet. I was told that the reason for singing this song was to honor Āṇṭāṭ, who originally sang "Tiruppāvai", thereby setting her apart from them. I then asked why no song was sung in praise of Māṇikkavācakar who sang "Tiruppalṭṭiyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai", and the answer seemed to be that until that moment nobody had thought to sing a song of praise of him.³⁴ I think the reason that Āṇṭāṭ is praised and not Māṇikkavācakar is because "Tiruppāvai" ends with a signature verse which brings her into the ritual, whereas "Tiruppalṭṭiyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" can be sung without ever knowing who composed them. The response to Āṇṭāṭ's presence in the ritual is to honor her, and then to continue with what they are doing, i.e. worshipping God through song in order to obtain benefits.

Summary

The singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" at the Citti Vināyakar and the Nākamalai Murukan Temples in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai is set in first person biography.

³⁴ This question was posed to one singer who then posed it to some of the other singers. The answers were much the same. *Pāvai* Group Singer, interview with the author, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, Madurai, 21 February 1994.

The specific event is the "Pāvai Singing" in which the individuals sing songs as worship in order gain benefits. The "Pāvai Singing" like the singing in the Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai and the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, is understood in a biographical narrative world which is a puram style of interpretation. In chapter 12, I will suggest that the pattern of behaviour exhibited by the singers in these three ritual events is also a puram style of behaviour.

III: Chapter 12: Pattern of Usage

In Part III we have considered the singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" in the Tiruvanantal Pūcai and "Tiruvempāvai" in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, at the Mīnāţci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple in Madurai, as well as the singing of both of these collections in the "*Pāvai* Singing" at the Citti Vināyakar and the Nākamalai Murukan Temples in nearby Nākamalai Putukkōttai. In each of these ritual events the significance of the poems is different because they are situated in different narrative worlds. In the Tiruvanantal Pūcai, "Tiruppalliyelucci" is part of an event of awakening the presiding deity of the temple by the deity's especially designated servant. The voice of the poem is that of a bard and the poem is situated as an event in the life of a specific hero and his wife, Cuntarecuvarar and Mīnāţci. In the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival at the Mīnāţci-Cuntarceuvarar Temple, the singing of "Tiruvempāvai" is situated as an event in the life of the poet, Mānikkavācakar. The significance of "Tiruvempāvai" in this narrative world is that singing "Tiruvempāvai" is Māṇikkavācakar's act of worship through which he attains the spiritual goal, *mutti*. In the Citti Vināyakar and the Nākamalai Murukan Temples, both "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are sung as part of the "Pāvai Singing", and are understood as an event in the first person biography. In this narrative world the songs are sung by individual devotees in order to obtain benefits.

These poems are, therefore, understood in three different biographical worlds in these three ritual events. I have argued in chapter 4 that understanding a text in a biography is a *puram* style of interpretation. I shall now suggest that the singers' pattern of behaviour in each ritual event is a pattern of behaviour implied in the classical *puram* poetry: going to the hero, singing praises, making petitions and receiving benefits. I will argue that this

behaviour pattern is noted specifically in the *puram* guide poems (*ārruppaṭai*) of the classical era.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are not the only poems that are sung in these rituals, although they have strong associations with the central meaning of the ritual events in which they are sung. Each event has its own distinctive "ritual text". I will try to show how both the composition of the "ritual text" and the coherence underlying the significance of the "ritual text" depends upon the narrative world in which it is situated.

This chapter will begin with a discussion of the pattern of behaviour evident in the three ritual events. That will be followed by showing why this is a basic *puram* pattern of behaviour, and the chapter will close with a discussion of the concepts of "ritual text" and "coherence" as manifest in the way in which the poems are used in the three ritual events.

Model of Behaviour Evident in the Three Ritual Events

The singing in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, the "Pāvai Singing", and, less clearly, the Tiruvanantal Pūcai exhibit a similar pattern of behaviour, namely a going to the hero, singing his praises and receiving benefits. In each event, the singer receives back some of the deity's beneficence.

In the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai*, the *ōtuvār* goes to the *paḷḷiyaṛai* and sings to the deity. Later on he also sings to the followers of the hero, the saints. So also in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, Māṇikkavācakar is depicted as going before Naṭarācar, the most important form of Śiva for Māṇikkavācakar, to sing "Tiruvempāvai". He also sings before Mīṇāṭci and Cuntarēcuvarar, the presiding deities. In a similar way the ladies in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai go before Citti Viṇāyakar and Nākamalai Murukaṇ, the presiding deities in their respective temples, and sing songs. In segment II.4 of the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, Māṇikkavācakar is depicted as performing various acts of worship before Viṇāyakar,

Mīṇāṭci and Murukaṇ. As part of his worship, he sings a poem from "Tiruvcmpāvai" for each of them. In a similar way, the ladies at Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai go before Pālaccupiramaṇiyar and Haṇumāṇ, and worship and sing a song before these deities as well.

In both the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival and in the "Pāvai Singing" the singers make requests to God through their songs. In segment II.5 of the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, Māṇikkavācakar is depicted as a supplicant, and the medium of this request is the song, "Tiruvempāvai". In a similar way, the ladies in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai also use songs to present their requests to God, with the clearest example of a request being for husbands for daughters through the singing of "Nīlaṅkoṭ Mēkattiṇ" and "Viral Māraṇaintu" to Nākamalai Murukan.

The singers in each of these events receive in return some of the deity's favour, piracātam. To receive piracātam is to receive God's grace. We have already noted in chapter 8 that the camphor flame, ash, kuṅkumam, and food distributed after tīpārātaṇai transfers grace to the worshipper. Davis notes that many Hindu sects, including some Śaivas, view the distribution of the food after worship as a "form of divine 'favour'". This food is said to have great powers such as purifying, and destroying sin. The various substances the devotee receives at the end of worship are one of the ways in which the deity gives to the devotee.

¹ Richard H. Davis, Ritual in an Oscillating Universe: Worshipping Śiva in Medieval India (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1991), 155, 160. Davis goes on to quote the Kāmikāgama, one of texts which are said to be the basis of ritual at the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple, in order to say that in a Śaiva Siddhānta temple food as piracātam is not distributed because humans cannot bear it. At the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple today, however, food is distributed as piracātam. In Mārkali month the line-ups for the milk at the end of Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai are very long, and one can purchase food piracātam at piracātam stalls. Also, clearly the ladies in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai place importance on receiving piracātam.

At the end of the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai*, the *ōtuvār* receives *piracātam*: the camphor flame, ash and milk, just before the other devotees. In the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, Māṇikkavācakar is depicted as receiving *piracātam* (camphor, milk and bananas) in segment II.4 when he is worshipping Viṇāyakar, Mīṇāṭci and Murukaṇ. The ladies receive *piracātam* several times during the "*Pāvai* Singing". They receive ash and milk that had been used in the *abhiṣekam*. At the end of the *pūcai* at both temples, they receive the camphor flame, *kuṅkumam* and ash. At the end of all segments they receive the *naivēttiyam* as *piracātam*.

Even though the pattern of behaviour is the same in these three rituals, there is an important difference in the status of Māṇikkavācakar in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, the *ōtuvār* in the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai*, and the ladies in the "*Pāvai* Singing". The *ōtuvār* in the *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai* and the ladies in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai are always treated as human. Māṇikkavācakar is treated as both human and divine. His human aspect is manifested ritually by the fact that he receives the *parivaṭṭam* or headscarf and is depicted in various human postures.² Over and over again, however, Māṇikkavācakar is treated as divine, and this is ritually expressed by offering him *tīpārātaṇai*.

The difference is significant because the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival confirms ritually a pattern of behaviour that leads to *mutti*, and this is reinforced by Māṇikkavācakar's biography. In the Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple festival, Māṇikkavācakar goes to Naṭarācar, sings his songs and then he is offered *tīpārātaṇai* - a recognition of his divine nature. His human postures show how a human should behave, going to the deity and

² Māṇikkavācakar wears the *parivaṭṭam* throughout the festival (segment I, II, III). I was told that this is an honor given to humans, not to gods. Further, his pose as worshipper in segment II.4, and as supplicant in segment II.5, as interpreted by the priests and *ōtuvār*s, also stress his human aspect.

worshipping through song, and being offered *tīpārātaṇai* indicates the result of behaving as Māṇikkavācakar did, and attaining *mutti*.

According to the biography, Śiva himself records Māṇikkavācakar's songs and thereby legitimizes them. The biography associates Māṇikkavācakar's attainment of *mutti* with the Naṭarācar form of Śiva and indicates that the occasion on which he attained *mutti* is directly related to the songs. The songs are recorded and Māṇikkavācakar has an opportunity to explain that Naṭarācar is the meaning, and then immediately he merges with Naṭarācar. The sequence of events suggests that through these songs one understands Naṭarācar and unites with him, attaining *mutti*.

The *Tirumurai* texts also construe the deity-devotee relationship in this way. The third invocatory poem, "Nankaṭampaṇai", sung by the ladies, composed by the *Tirumurai* poet Tirunāvukkaracar, describes the relationship between the God and devotee:

The duty of the Lord of Tirukkara temple of Southern Kaṭampai, whose consort bore our Skanda, is to support even me, a devotee; my duty is to serve.³

God's duty is to support and protect the devotee, and the devotee's duty is to serve (paṇi ceytu). The Tamil Lexicon cites the last line of this poem when it gives the meaning for paṇi as "bowing, reverencing". Therefore, we may understand that service means also worshipping. Cēkkilār, the author of the twelfth Tirumurai, the Periya Purāṇam, while relating Cuntarar's biography indicates that Śiva prefers the offering of song to all other forms of worship. After Cuntarar had been claimed by Śiva and had been made to realize who the claimant was, Śiva said to him: "because singing in love is for us the finest form

³ My translation of "Nankaṭampanai" by Tirunāvukkaracar, fifth *Tirumurai*, 132:9.

⁴ The verb used to describe God's action with respect to the devotee is *tānkutal*. The *Tamil Lexcon* gives as the primary meaning for this verb "uphold, bear up, support"; the secondary meaning "to protect, guard"; and as the third meaning "to give shelter, rest".

of worship, sing about us in Tamil words on earth."⁵ The devotee, then, should serve Śiva through song. Cuntarar's song, cited in full in chapter 11, indicates that by praising Śiva through song, one will receive worldy and other worldy benefits. According to this song, if one sings about Śiva, one will receive rice, clothes, the removal of suffering in this life (poem 1, 8), the attainment of a high status in another life (1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 10), and *mutti* (5, 11). These three *Tirumurai* references depict the relationship between Śiva and the devotee as one in which the devotee serves Śiva through song and in turn Śiva supports and protects the devotee in this world by providing concrete benefits, and eternally by enabling the devotee to attain *mutti*.

Just as the structure of devotional text and interpretation described in Parts I and II has a counterpart in the classical context, so also the pattern of behaviour evident, particularly in the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival and the "Pāvai Singing", has its counterpart in the classical context. The pattern of behaviour of going to God, praising him, making requests and receiving benefits is implicit in the situation envisaged behind *puram* poetry.

The Puram Pattern

G. Subbiah has identified three interrelated concepts which he argues identify the world-view evident in the classical poetry and poetics. These are the "hero", "space" and "giving". Subbiah suggests that the Tamil concept of hero included both a human hero and a deity, and it is not necessary to see one concept evolving out of the other. According to

⁵ Excerpted from verse 70 of the "Taţuttāţkoṇṭa Purāṇam" in *Cēkkiḷār Perumāṇ Periya Purānam eṇa Vaḷaṅkum Tiruttoṇṭar Purānam* (Tiruvāvaṭuturai: Tirukkayilāya Paramparait Tiruvāvaṭuturai Ātīṇam, 1988), 27. I am thankful to Dr. Gomathi for this reference.

I am indebted to Dr. Gomathi for her guidance as a scholar and as a singer. Many of her insights were expressed as a singer. As I had originally conducted interviews under the condition of anonymity, I have not been able to specifically acknowlege all her valuable contributions.

Subbiah, the distinguishing characteristic of a hero is giving. Valour is necessary to be a hero, but a hero attains that most coveted achievement, fame, through giving. The ideal hero gives out of compassion, spontaneously, without distinction and without expectation of return. Two of the most famous donors in Tamil history are the classical heros, Pāri and Pēkan. Pāri is particularly remembered for spontaneously giving a chariot to a vine which had no support on which to grow. Pēkan is remembered for giving a robe to a peacock which he thought was shivering in cold, because he was overwhelmed with compassion. Furthermore, the classical hero is accessible. He has a particular place on this earth where supplicants can approach him. According to Subbiah's argument, the classical Tamil world had heroes who were able and willing to help others. In the classical Tamil world view the ideal hero (human or divine) is found in this world, and all one has to do is go to his place and receive gifts from him.⁷

In the classical context, the heros are primarily kings and chieftans, and the recipients are primarily poets, bards and other performers. The classical *puram ārruppaṭai* poem in a sense encapsulates the relationship between hero and bard. In *ārruppaṭai* poems one bard, performer or poet directs another to a benefactor. The following example is Ramanujan's translation of *Puranānūru* 69 by Ālattūr Kilār about Killai Valavan.

Dear singer:

here you are, a lute in your hand that knows its grammar,

⁶ See also A. K. Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War: From the Eight Anthologies and the Ten Long Poems of Classical Tamil* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1985), 289.

⁷ G. Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India: A Study of Classical Tamil Texts" (Ph.D. diss., McMaster University, 1988). Subbiah develops this argument in chapters III (89-183), IV (183-224) and V (225-268). He summarizes it in the conclusion. This study has been published under the title, *Roots of Tamil Religious Thought* (Pondicherry: Pondicherry Instititute of Linguistics and Culture, 1991).

a hunger in your belly that no one heeds, clutching at your waist a cloth of patches with strange threads, damp with sweat, on a body aimless as a ruined man's, and your large family dulled by poverty.

You round the whole earth and you're here to ask in a small voice for help.

So listen.

In bannered camps, his army slaughters the murderous elephants of enemy kings, leaves them wounded in pools of blood, makes a slaughterhouse of the battlefield.

He is at Uraiyūr.
city of tall towers;
he takes up spears only against enemies
and he moves right into the heart of their country.

He is Killai Valavan,

he wears perfect garlands, his ornaments are flames of yellow gold.

Go to him,

and you don't even have to stand at his great door.

Go, fill your eyes with the chariots he gives away in broad daylight.

Once you've seen him you'll wear lotuses of gold, flowers no bee will touch,

and you don't even have to stand

there, at that door.8

The speaker recognises the pitiable state of the singer and urges the singer to go to this hero who is mighty, generous and accessible. The speaker is a living example of the hero's generosity and by telling the pitiable singer to go to the same hero, he praises that hero also. The key elements of this poem are going to the hero, receving benefits from the hero and then praising the hero. 10

The basic elements of going to the hero, praising the hero, making requests, receiving benefits and then continuing to praise the hero occur as themes under the *puram* situation of praise (*pāṭānṭiṇai*) in the *Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram*:¹¹

"eulogising the giver and revilling the non-giver";

"the kūttar, pāṇar, porunar and viraliyar who have received presents directing those who have not received them and telling what they have received";

"poets etc mentioning their wants and getting rewards";

"eulogising the prosperous condition of the king after receiving the reward and [taking leave of the king] either on his own initiative or on the initiative of the king."

In addition, a number of poems in the two *puram* anthologies, *Puranānūru* and *Patirruppattu*, have been assigned themes which indicate they are understood to be about

⁸ Ramanujan, *Poems of Love and War*, 127-8.

⁹ See Cuntarar's poem verse 7/346, in chapter 11 above.

¹⁰ Shulman identifies Cuntarar's poem cited in chapter 11 as a guide poem: David Dean Shulman, trans. and comm., *Songs of the Harsh Devotee: The Tēvāram of Cuntaramūrttināyanār* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1990), 210.

According to traditional accounts, Cuntarar needed money so that his wife Paravaiyāi could give charity on Paṅkuṇi Uttiram day. So Cuntarar went to Pukalūr, worshipped the form of Śiva there, and then lay down to sleep. When he awoke, the bricks that he had used as pillows had turned to gold. He then sang these poems to Śiva as the God of Pukalūr. See Ti. Cu. Cokkaliṅkam Ceṭṭiyār, Palaṇ Tarum Tirumuraip Patikaṅkaḷum Tutippāṭalkaḷum (Varalāru-Palaṇ-Uraiyuṭaṇ) (Maturai Valamapuri Accakam, 1977), 145.

¹¹ P.S. Subrahmanya Sastri, trans. and comm., *Tolkāppiyam: The Earliest Extant Tamil Grammar Text in Tamil, and Roman Scripts with a Critical Commentary in English: Tolkāppiyam Poruļ Atikāram-Tamil Poetics* (Madras: The Kuppuswami Sastri Research Institute, 1949), 86, 87.

requests for gifts or presentations of needs to the hero. Subbiah identifies thirty-seven such poems, as well as fourteen guide poems. 12

There is then implicit in the *puram* poetry and poetics the pattern of behaviour of going to the hero, making requests, receiving benefits and then praising the hero. It is an appropriate way to interact with the hero. If he is a true hero he responds generously. In a similar way, the three ritual events under study here show that the appropriate way to relate to Śiva is to go to him, and sing his praise. He will bestow benefits immediately in the form of *piracātam*, and he will respond to requests, provide a good life and finally will give *mutti*, all because he is a true hero.

The presupposition that God is "other" is implicit in the *puram* pattern. In this pattern, God is encountered in a place, in time and space, rather than in mystical experience. One can go to that place, worship that manifestation of God, make requests to that God, and receive concrete evidence of God's beneficience in the form of *piracātam*. The very presupposition of making a request is that there is a distinction between the one who makes the request and the one who has the ability to fulfill that request. I am suggesting that in the three rituals studied here, that the bard, poet or any individual devotee enjoys and interacts with God as "other". 13

¹² Subbiah, "Patterns in Religious Thought in Early South India," 247.

¹³ I am differing from Cutler by suggesting that God remains as "other" in these three ritual uses of "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppalliyelucci". Cutler seems to suggest that the distinction between God, author-poet, professional singer and audience diminishes and is removed in the ritual use of Śrīvaiṣṇava and Śaiva poems. See Cutler, *Songs of Experience*, all of chapter 2, and also in particular 35, 37, 46-7, 52, 73, and 113.

In the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival only some of the identifications suggested by Cutler are plausible. The structure of the ritual suggests that the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}r$, particularly the *Stala Ōtuvār*, may identify with the poet, for the *Stala Ōtuvār* sings as though he is Māṇikkavācakar. Secondly, the act of showing Māṇikkavācakar $t\bar{t}p\bar{a}r\bar{a}tanai$ indicates that he is divine, which suggests that the poet is identified with God. $T\bar{t}p\bar{a}r\bar{a}tanai$, however, is not offered to the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, which suggests that some kind of distinction between $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ and the poet is maintained. The depiction of Māṇikkavācakar as a human supplicant in segment II.5, and also possibly in segment II.4, suggests that for part of the festival a

distinction is perceived between the one who requests and the one who is able to give. Certainly in the ritual performance there is no identification implied between the audience and the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$, for there is a very sharp distinction made between the $\bar{o}tuv\bar{a}rs$ who sing on the poet's behalf and the members of the audience, who are kept at a distance spatially, ritually and through singing styles (see chapter 9 above).

In the *Tiruvanantal Pūcai*, the series of identifications also breaks down because the original poet has no specific presence at all in the ritual, and because the premise of the ritual maintains a distinction between the reciter and the deity. The presence of the poet as the important personality in the ritual reenactment of the poem would seem to be a necessity in Cutler's model, as it is the poet's experience which it seems is reenacted in the ritual recitation of the poem (see Cutler, *Songs of Experience*, 73, 113). I have argued earlier that Māṇikkavācakar is at no point specifically associated with his song throughout the ritual singing of the poem, and the fact that he is worshipped in a group with other saints at one point, almost confirms the fact that he is not the ritual speaker of the poem. Furthermore, the purpose of the ritual is to wake up God and return him to his daytime location. This assumes a distinction between the one who awakens and the one awakened, and one sees no indication that this distinction is negated in the ritual itself. What the ritual does underline is the respectful distance of the bard who calls on God as "other" in the particular manifestation as Cuntarēcuvarar, with ties to the particular locale of Madurai.

In the "Pāvai Singing", it is doubtful that identification takes place because here identification with the poet is problematic for several reasons, and here the premise of the whole activity is very clearly based on a sharp distinction between God and the worshipper. There are three factors in the Nākamalai Putukkōttai singing which suggest that the poet's identity is not an essential part of the singing. One is that people sometimes do not know who the composer is. A second is that a large number of source texts are used to make up the "ritual text", and these are composed by many different authors. The third is factor that the poets have no presence in the ritual, except in "Tiruppāvai" which has a signature verse. The singing of this verse is immediately followed by a verse in praise of this poet, Ānṭāl. This verse of praise, rather than enabling the singers to identify with Āntāl, distances her from them by exalting her through song. (This potential irrelevence of the poet to the usage of the songs was highlighted to me in an interview. The individual was telling me her favourite devotional song. I asked who the author was. She did not know. Some time later, when we were at another person's house, she asked someone there who the author was and was told that the author's name is in the song itself. If the name made no sense to her, it is doubtful that the historicity of the author is relevant to the use of that song to that individual.)

Furthermore the ladies' own emphasis on making their own requests through the songs also undermines the notion that identity with the deity occurs in this ritual performance of the poems. There is the strong sense both among the singers and also among community members that the "Pāvai Singing" is done in order to obtain benefits. The most specific of these benefits is the ladies' request for husbands for their daughters. As we have already said, the act of making a request to someone, for something like the marriage of someone's daughter, implicitly maintains the distinction between the supplicator and the one to whom the request is made. Even if one sings for the purpose of obtaining mutti the implication is that mutti, and therefore identity, has not been obtained. The distinction between God and devotee is intact.

"Ritual text" and Coherence of Meaning

The definition of text given at the outset of this study was that the text is that which is interpreted by situating it in a narrative world which provides an identity for at least one of the speaker, addressee, or the hero, and which identifies the utterance of the text as an event in that narrative world. In Part I and Part II, we looked at two texts, the ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and the twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai". In Part III, however, the text is neither the ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" nor the twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai", but another text which I have called the "ritual text". The reason for utilising a special term, "ritual text", to refer to the text used in a ritual event is to shift the emphasis away from the variety of source texts, which may potentially be used, to a text that is actually used. In the three ritual events studied, it is the utterances which constitute the "ritual text" that is situated in the narrative world. The boundaries of the "ritual text" and the coherence of its meaning are determined by the narrative world in which it is situated and the particularities of the setting of the ritual event.

In Part I, we considered "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" as they lie in their canonical state. In that state ten poems are marked off as a unit and given the title, "Tiruppalliyelucci". Likewise, twenty poems are marked off as a unit and given the title, "Tiruvempāvai". They are associated with other units and all collectively are identified as being by one author, in this case, Māṇikkavācakar. Organization by author lends itself to interpretations such as Navaratnam's or Vanmikanathan's which accept the poems in their canonical order as the markers of steps of spiritual development.

In Part II, we considered "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" as they are understood by various people who interpreted the poems by situating them in various narrative worlds, one of which was the poet's biography. The boundaries of the texts in these interpretations are still the ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and the twenty poems of

"Tiruvempāvai", but in Part II we saw great variation in how these texts are understood. In the interpretation presented in Part II, the internal relationship of the parts of the poems was perceived in various ways. Some parts were given priority over other parts when situating the poems, and there was no agreement on whether the poems constitute a sequence or a collection of poems.

In the ritual events described in Part III, the ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and the twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai" are no longer the text. A new text is constructed whose composition, boundaries and coherence are all determined by the narrative world in which the poems are understood, and by the particularities of the ritual event itself. The selection of texts which make up the "ritual text" are connected to the particular biography in which the "ritual text" is interpreted. The length and shape of the "ritual text" are affected by the parameters of the ritual.

As we have already seen, "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are treated differently in these three different "ritual texts". In the *Tiruvanantal Pūcai*, only one poem of "Tiruppalliyelucci" is used. In the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival, all the twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai" were used. They are repeated as a whole several times, and at other times specific poems from the collection were selected and sung. In the "*Pāvai* Singing", the ten poems of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and the twenty poems of "Tiruvempāvai" are sung in order once each day.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" were only a portion of the texts in each of these ritual events; other poems also become part of the text. The "ritual texts" of these events are constructed out of parts and wholes of other texts.

I argued in chapter 8, that the "ritual text" of the *Tiruvanantal Pūcai* is part of the event of awakening the presiding deity of the temple, Cuntarēcuvarar and honoring him and other members of his household. The selection of poems which comprise the "ritual text"

correspond to these awakening and honoring activities and are appropriate to the particular hero, Cuntarēcuvarar. "Tiruppaļļiyelucci", which is often understood to be a song of awakening, is sung in order to awaken Cuntarēcuvarar and his wife. The "Tiruppaļļiyelucci" chosen is one in praise of Śiva, even though there are other "Tiruppalliyelucci"s addressed to other (human and divine) figures available. In the world of Tamil Śaivism, honoring the devotees of Śiva is as important as honoring Śiva, 15 and the second poem of the "ritual text" sung in the Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam is sung in honor of devotees of Śiva who resides in this particular shrine. Only one poem is sung in each place because of time constraints; the portions of the ritual in which the poems are sung are only small parts of a very long ritual which moves quickly from location to location.

I argued in chapter 9 that the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival is an event in the life of Māṇikkavācakar and have said that the festival corresponds to the time frame in which "Tiruvempāvai" is given special attention in all rituals. The composition of the "ritual text", and its coherence, reflects the emphasis on "Tiruvempāvai" duing a special time-frame and that the singing is portrayed as an event in Māṇikkavācakar life.

The "ritual text" begins and closes with the *Pañcapurāṇam*, the special selection of *Tirumurai* songs normally sung during the temple rituals. Māṇikkavācakar sings "Tiruvempāvai" (through the *ōtuvārs*) after the first singing of the *Pañcapurāṇam* and before the final singing of the *Pañcapurāṇam*. This selection and organization, and the fact that Māṇikkavācakar is depicted as singing the songs, reflects the shift from the normal

¹⁴ See chapter 2 above.

¹⁵ Some of the stories of the *Periya Purāṇam* provide some extreme examples of devotees who honor Śaiva devotees.

pattern of singing *Tirumurai* songs by the *ōtuvār*s (as bards), to the special time of singing "Tiruvempāvai" by Māṇikkavācakar.

The portion of the "ritual text" sung on the middle eight days of the festival focuses on the poem and its poet. The repeated singing of "Tiruvcmpāvai" by Māṇikkavācakar through the ōtuvārs as a whole and in selected verses, to the exclusion of any other poems by any other authors, except the poem in praise of Māṇikkavācakar, emphasises the poem, "Tiruvcmpāvai" and the singer, Māṇikkavācakar. The poem of praise sung to Māṇikkavācakar acknowledges and honors him as the author of the poem.

The boundaries of the "ritual text" reflect the time-frame of the festival. Days one and ten are the opening and closing of the festival. The *Pañcapurāṇam* and "Tiruvempāvai" are each sung once on those two days to open and close the festival. On the middle eight days the text, in its general pattern, is the same. The main full performance of "Tiruvempāvai" during these eight days is before Naṭarācar, a form of Śiva with whom Māṇikkavācakar has a special association. The worship in segment II.4a involves three short stops at Viṇāyakar's shrine, Mīṇāṭci's shrine and Murukaṇ's shrine. Only one verse of "Tiruvempāvai" is sung at each shrine, not the full text as is sung in front of Natarācar.

I have argued that the singing of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" at the Citti Viṇāyakar and Nākamalai Murukan Temples in Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai is part of the event of "Pāvai Singing" as framed by the lives of individual devotees. The selection of songs which make up the "ritual text" and its coherence reflect both the particularities of this event and the interests of the leaders of the singing.

The "Pāvai Singing", based on the accounts of these women, is undertaken in the month of Mārkali in order to gain benefits. The essential songs of the "Pāvai Singing" are

"Tiruppalliyelucci" and the *pāvai* songs, "Tiruvempāvai" and "Tiruppāvai". ¹⁶
"Tiruvempāvai" is a Śaiva poem and "Tiruppāvai" is a Vaiṣṇava poem. As we have seen in chapter 11, the *pāvai* poems make requests or mention benefits which are understood by the singers to be attained by those who sing the songs. The event is singing the *pāvai*, and therefore these two *pāvai* songs must be sung, regardless of the sectarian associations of the songs.

Most of the remaining poems which constitute this "ritual text" reflect the interests of the leaders of the singers: their preference for Śaivism, the concern for obtaining benefits in general for themselves and others, and the concern that (at least) one women's daughter should be married soon.

The formal singing which begins in segment 2 starts with invocatory songs, moves to the essential songs and concludes with a variety of additional songs. The first four invocatory songs are sung because it is customary, I was told, for Śaivas to begin devotional singing with songs to Viṇāyakar and to Murukaṇ. These leaders reportedly sing these same four songs to begin all singing events. Three of the four songs are selected from the *Tirumuṛai*. Three of the four selections depict Viṇāyakar and Murukaṇ as the children of Śiva and his consort, and therefore situate the worship of Viṇāyakar and Murukaṇ within the larger framework of Śaiva worship. After the essential songs and the song to Āṇṭāḷ were sung, the singers invariably sang the *Pañcapurāṇam* if there was time prior to the singing of the other songs. Śaivas should sing the *Pañcapurāṇam* every day. When the singers sing the three poems under the heading of "vāḷttu", they repeat three

¹⁶ "Tiruppalliyelucci" is usually grouped with "Tiruvempāvai" in this context, thus giving the Śaiva component thirty verses to match the thirty Vaisnava poems.

¹⁷ Pāvai Group Singer, interview with the author, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai, Madurai, 22 February 1994. The leaders indicated that they prefer to sing songs from the *Tirumurai* or songs to Murukan in their personal devotions.

times the line: "Let the excellent Saiva way flourish throughout the world". This is the only line of the three songs which they repeat.

The selections of the additional songs also reflect the concern for obtaining benefits. Singing the *Pañcapurāṇam* will bring the singer general benefits. As we have seen in chapter 11, "Nātavintu Kalātī" and the three "Vālttu" songs are concerned with blessings in general. The song sung to Pālaccupiramaṇiyar also contains a request for a series of benefits the singer would like to receive. Finally, the last two songs, "Nīlaṅkoļ Mēkattiṇ" and "Viral Māraṇaintu" which were invariably sung at the Nākamalai Murukaṇ shrine, if the leaders of the group had a chance to sing, were specifically sung by the leaders so that one of the leader's daughter would get married.

The boundaries of the text are to some extent determined by the particularities of the ritual context. The invocatory and essential songs were always sung in the normal course of events. The singing of the additional songs varied according to the constraints of time and the presence of other devotees. If for example the singing started late, or as on the last day when there were the closing remarks and honors, there would not be so much time for singing additional songs. Also, sometimes in segment 2, a man would sing a song solo. This reduced time for the ladies to sing songs of their choice. When the ladies joined with the other group at the Nākamalai Murukan Temple, they had to adjust to the singing of that group, singing what the other group initiated. If they could initiate the singing, they would sing the songs of their choice, particularly "Nīlankol Mēkattin", and "Viral Māranaintu, but also "Nātavintu Kalātī", "Vālttu" and the "Song for Camphor Flame".

PART III: Summary

Part III began by examining two source texts, "Tiruppalliyclucci" and "Tiruvempāvai", in three ritual contexts. The study shows that the source texts do not appear alone in their canonical state in these rituals, rather they become part of different texts, and in the process they are truncated, elongated, or incorporated in their canonical form. They are used in different rituals in different ways. The circumstances of the ritual, particularly whose voice is heard singing the songs and the particular ritual event in which poems are incorporated, determine the specific composition, boundaries and the meaning of the "ritual text".

The study of the use of "Tiruppalliyclucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" in these three ritual events suggests that in each ritual the poems were interpreted within a particular narrative world, and that in each case the narrative world was a biography: the biography of the hero, the poet or first person respectively. The use of biographies to interpret the poems, I have argued in Part II, is a *puram* style of interpretation. Furthermore, I have suggested that in the three rituals presented in Part III, the pattern of behaviour exhibited by those who assume the role of performer or speaker of the poems is a *puram* pattern of behaviour.

Just as the interpretations in Part II assume that the principle of coherence of the meaning of the poem is determined by the narrative world in which it is interpreted, so also in the ritual usage of the poems the principle of coherence of the "ritual text" lies in the narrative world in which it is interpreted and the particularities of the specific context in which the text is used. This principle of coherence, however, has a more radical effect in the context of ritual usage, than in the interpretations in Part II. It affects the composition or the boundary of the text in the ritual event, whereas in the interpretations in Part II it affects only the relations of the parts of the poems and their relative emphasis. In each of

the three ritual events, the selection of songs which make up the individual "ritual texts" reflects the interests of the particular biography in which the "ritual text" is interpreted, and the opportunities and constraints of the particular ritual context in which the "ritual text" is sung.

CONCLUSION

This study has been about the nature of two Tamil Śaiva poems, "Tiruppalliyclucci" and "Tiruvcmpāvai", their structure as text, the style in which they are interpreted, and the way in which they are used in ritual events. There is a strong connection between the structure and interpretation of the classical Tamil poems, and the pattern of behaviour evident in the classical *puram* poems on the one hand, and the structure, interpretation and the pattern of behaviour exhibited in the ritual usage of these two devotional poems on the other.

"Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai" are collections of poems which are single episodic utterances in which neither the narrator nor the speaker is ever given a particular identity in the poem, and in which the addressee or hero is only sometimes given an identity. These poems are understood in commentarial literature by situating the utterance of them as events in different narrative worlds. The poems represent discrete moments rather than longer narrative sequences. This means that they can easily become incorporated into a narrative as a moment of that narrative. The speaker and the addressee or hero are given identities of characters in the narrative world in which the poems are situated. The poems considered in Part II were generally situated into one or more of five narrative worlds: the *akam* world of love, the *puram* world of heroism, the theological world of Śaiva Siddhānta, the world of the poet-saint's life, and the world viewed from the perspective of one's own life. In the three ritual events presented in Part III, three different biographical narrative worlds were used as frames of interpretation: the biography of Cuntarcuvarar (the hero), the biography of Māṇikkavācakar (the source poet) and the biography of individual devotees (the first person biography).

The significance of a poem interpreted in this style is the significance of the poem when situated as an event in a particular narrative world. The meaning therefore changes from narrative world to narrative world, and even within the same narrative world, if the poem is situated as a number of different events. The coherence of the meaning of these poems depends upon the poems fitting coherently as an event in the narrative world in which they are situated. In commentarial interpretations, the assumption that the relationship between the internal parts of the poem is ambiguous allows flexibility for fitting a poem coherently into a narrative world. In the three examples of rituals provided here, I have suggested that the assumptions about coherence and textual ambiguity affect even the boundary and composition of the "ritual text". The process of constructing a "ritual text" involves combining, truncating, and elongating source texts. The composition and length of the "ritual texts" presented in this study reflect the particularities of the narrative worlds and the specific events in those worlds in which those "ritual texts" have been uttered.

The understanding of text and interpretation proposed here, and the pattern of usage evident in the use of these Śaiva poems in ritual, have precedents in the earliest Tamil literature, the classical *akam* and *puram* poetry. The structure of the devotional poems is the same as that of the classical poems. The strategies of interpretation have antecedents in those implicit in the colophons of the classical poems. The pattern of behaviour evident in the use of the poems in the three rituals studied here follows a pattern of behaviour implicit in *puram* poems and poetics.

Tamil Śaivas stress that it is important to sing the *Tirumurai* songs. In other words, in the terminology of this thesis, Tamil Śaivas believe that it is important to situate the poems in the first person narrative world. These poems can be combined or recombined to make different moments in different narrative worlds, as we saw in the ritual

usage of "Tiruppalliyelucci" and "Tiruvempāvai". Furthermore, the duration of the moment of the poem is the same as the duration of the event when the poem is sung or recited, which means one can live the moment of the poem by simply singing it. As neither the narrators nor the speakers in the poems are given specific identities, one can easily step into the role of narrator or speaker. The style of interpretation, specifically assuming the coherence of meaning is dependent upon the narrative world rather than in the poem itself, emphasises the importance of the poem as part of a narrative world. These factors lead me to reiterate a suggestion proposed to me, that the absence of a long tradition of written commentary on the *Tirumurai* poems is understandable precisely because the devotees' individual lives are the proper commentary.

I have suggested that the use of the poems in the three rituals studied here reflects a distinctive pattern of behaviour which is rooted in the classical *puram* poetry. Implicit in this pattern of behaviour is an assumption of and maintenance of God as different from the devotee. According to Śaiva Siddhānta theology, one can enjoy God also intimately, as inseparable from oneself. The intimate experience of God, I am suggesting, is the religious version of the Tamil concept of *akam*. The religious lives of the saints, particularly Tiruñāṇacampantar, Tirunāvukkaracar and Cuntarar, suggest that the enlightened soul has the option of experiencing God intimately, or, as enjoying him as "other". It is believed by the tradition that these saints were enlightened, yet their biographies also portray them as following the *puram* pattern of religious behaviour described in this thesis. It may be fruitful to explore this two-fold experience of God as complementary rather than hierarchical in the Tamil Śaiva devotional poetry. That is, rather than beginning with the assumption that the experience of God begins with God as "other", and evolves to an experience of God as immediate, it may be illuminating to explore the possibility that the

devotee has two modes in which he or she can experience God as "other" and as immediate.

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Common Title of Poem	Page
1. "Maṇṇulakam tanil" 2. "Piṭiyatan urumai" 3. "Nankaṭampanai" 4. "Garananana"	324 324 324 325
4. "Camaracūrapanmā"5. "Tiruppalliyelucci"6. "Tiruvempāvai"	36 19
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¹ See chapter 11, note 1, p. 266 for sources for the translation of "Tiruppāvai".
² Text of *Pañcapurāṇam* varies.

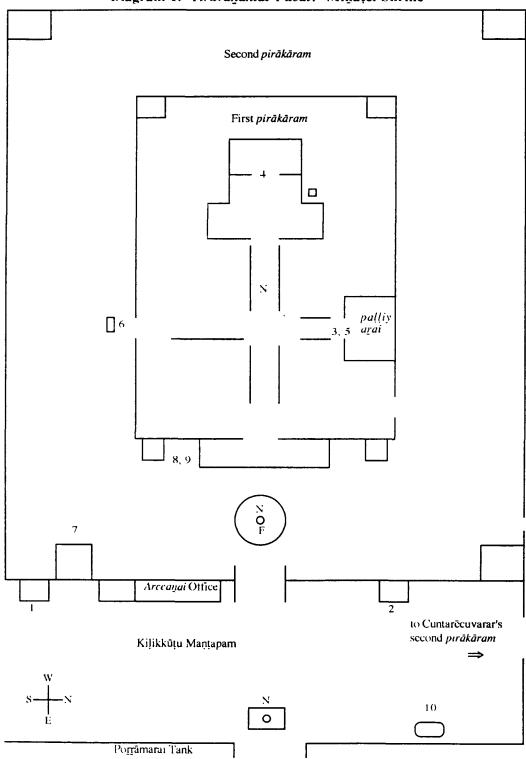


Diagram 1: Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai: Miṇāṭci Shrine

Key for Diagram 1: Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai: Mīṇāṭci's Shrine Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple¹

Location	Deity Worshipped
Kiļikkūţu Maṇṭapam	1. Citti Viṇāyakar 2. Kumāraṇ (Murukaṇ)
Mīṇāṭci's 1st pirākāram paḷḷiyaṛai	3. Mīṇāṭci & Cuntarēcuvarar's feet
Mīṇāṭci's sanctum	4. Mīṇāṭci
Mīṇāṭci's 1st <i>pirākāram</i> paļļiyaṛai	5. (take feet from <i>palliyarai</i>)
Mīṇāṭci's 2nd <i>pirākāram</i> : near Tirumalaināyakkar statue between Viṇāyakar & Six-pillared hall between Viṇāyakar & Six-pillared hall	6. (take feet to palanquin) 7. feet of Cuntarēcuvarar (kaṭṭaḷai) 8. feet of Cuntarēcuvarar (kaṭṭaḷai) 9. feet of Cuntarēcuvarar (kaṭṭaḷai)
Kiļikkūţu Mantapam- huge granite slab	10. feet of Cuntarēcuvarar (kaṭṭaļai)
N. Nanti F. Flagpole	

See C. J. Fuller, Servants of the Goddess: The Priests of a South Indian Temple (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984), 168-70. See also Diagram 2 below. Fuller provides a list of deities worshipped in both Mīṇāṭci's and Cuntarēcuvarar's shrines during this pūcai. My list differs from his in that his list does not include the offerings provided for by the five individual kaṭṭaṭais in either shrine, nor the offering to Cēkkilār in Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine. Fuller includes Bhikṣātana in Cuntarēcuvarar's shrine whereas I have not.

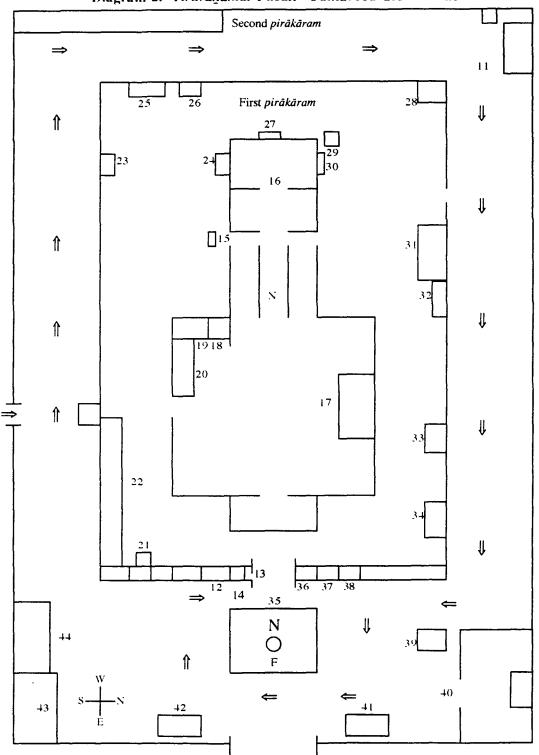


Diagram 2: Tiruvanantal Pūcai: Cuntarēcuvarar Shrine

Key for Diagram 2: *Tiruvaṇantal Pūcai*: Cuntarēcuvarar's Shrine Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple

Location Cuntarēcuvarar's second <i>pirākāram</i> near Caṅkattār Shrine	Deity Worshipped 11. 12. Anukkai Vināyakar
Between doorway of 1st & 2nd pirākāram	13. Atikārananti
Cuntarēcuvarar's second <i>pirākāram</i> temple guard	14. feet of Cuntarēcuvarar's (<i>kaṭṭaṭai</i>) 15. (remove feet from palanquin)
Cuntarēcuvarar's sanctum	16. Linga & Cuntarccuvarar's feet
Cuntarēcuvarar's Makāmaņṭapam	17. Naṭarācar in the Veḷḷiyampalam 18. Cantiracēkaran 19. Urcavacittār 20. Nālvar
Cuntarēcuvarar's first pirākāram	 21. Cēkkilār 22. 63 Nāyanmār 23. Caracuvati 24. Taţciṇāmūrtti 25. Processional deities 26. Kārttikēyan 27. Ilinkorpavar 28. Kācivicuvanātan 29. Cittar 30. Turkkai 31. (processional) Pañcacapai Naṭarācarkaļ 32. Aṭcara Linkam 33. Makālaṭcumi 34. Irattiṇacapai Naṭarācar
Cuntarēcuvarar's second pirākāram	35. Nanti 36. Taṇṭayutavaṇ 37. Kalukumalai Kumāraṇ 38. Pālamurukaṇ 39. Navakkirakam 40. Naṭarācar in Hundred Pillared Hall 41. Akkiṇivīrapattiraṇ & Akōravīrapattiraṇ 42. Ūrttuvatāṇṭavar & Pattirakāḷi 43. Tiruñāṇacampantar Maṇṭapam 44. Distribution of piracātam (milk)
N. Nanti F. Flagpole	

West Āṭi Street Second pirākāram Second pirākāram North Āṭi Street South Áți Street Cevvan-tīsvara's Shrine II.4a II.5 Po<u>r</u>rāmarai Tank 11.2 Ш <u>II.1</u> II.4b□□ .II.6. East Āți Street Other Structures Other Structures East Āţi Street 11.3

Diagram 3: Mīṇāṭci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple: Segments of "Tiruvempāvai" Festival

this corner is curved 11-12-1991 Proposed sites for Aracam tree & Vempu tree Kasivis-<u>'</u>Rama Vilpam tree 'y anathan ! Laksmanan 12 raised cement floor 1-3-1992 Sita 31 5-7-1971 0 81 6↓ closed well 1.3 raised cement Ĺι↓` platform kitchen & **O**↑2 supplies <u>26 - 1-1975</u> 1.5 1.1 1.4 below H blackboard Tiruppukal Capai above 17-12-1976 pillar pillar

Diagram 4: Citti Viņāyakar Temple, Nākamalai Putukkōţţai

Key for Diagram 4: Citti Vināyakar¹ Temple,

Nākamalai Putukkōţţai

- 1. Citti Vināyakar
- 2. Mūñcūr (rat)
- 3. Civappirakācanātar
- 4. Cinna Pillaiyār
- 5. Pālacuppiramaņiyar
- 6. Cuntara Āñcanēya Cuvāmi
- 7. Cuntara Āñcanēyar
- 8. The festival image of Vināyakar
- 9. The festival image of Murukan
- H. Untival (locked box for eash offerings)

Inscriptions

I.1 Re: Pālacuppiramaņiyar

I.2 Re: Civappirakācanātar

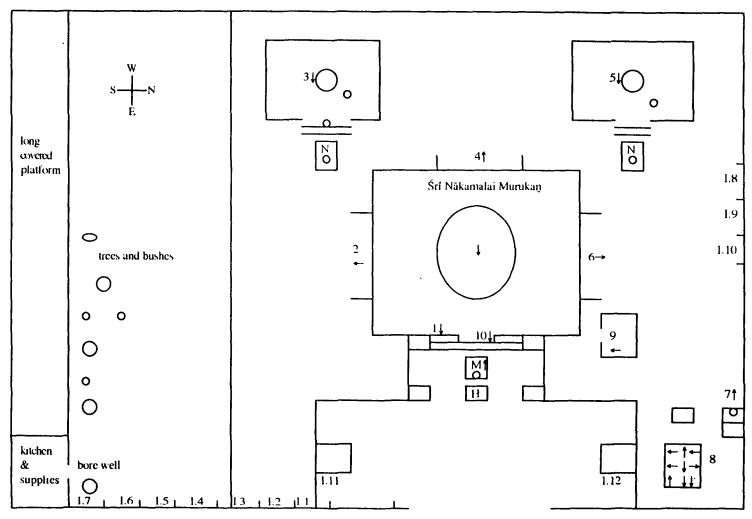
1.3 Re: Cuntara Āñcanēya Cuvāmi

I.4 Re: Cuntara Āñcanēyar

I.5 Re: Citti Vināyakar Ālayam

¹ The name of the god Vināyakar, is spelled in two ways: Vināyakar or Vināyakar I have spelled the name here to correspond with the spelling on the inscriptions.

Diagram 5: Nākamalai Murukan Temple, Nākamalai Putukkōţţai



Key for Diagram 5: Nākamalai Murukan Temple, Nākamalai Putukkōtṭai

- 1. Vināyakar
- 2. Tatcanāmūrtti
- 3. Cuntarēcuvarar
- 4. Mahāvisņu
- 5. Mīnātci Amman
- 6. Turkkai
- 7. Nākarājar
- 8. Navakkiraham
- 9. Cantikēsvarar
- 10. Kajalatcumi
- H. Untiyal (locked box for cash offerings)
- M. Mayil Vākanam
- N. Nanti

Inscriptions

- I.1 Re: Nākamalai Murukan
- I.2 Re: Nākamalai Murukan
- 1.3 Re: Donors of the images of Vināyakar, Taṭcaṇāmūrtti, Mahāviṣṇu, Turkkai,
 - Cantikēsvarar, Mayil vākanam, Navakkiraham
- 1.4 Re: Donors for the installation ceremonies of the subsidiary images and Navakkiraham
- 1.5 Re: Donors for the installation ceremonies of the subsidiary images and Navakkiraham
- 1.6 Re: Donors for the sanctification of the vimāṇam
- I.7 Re: Donors for bore well
- I.8 Re: Donors for installation of Mīṇāţci and Cuntarēcuvarar
- 1.9 Re: Donors for sanctification of vimānam
- I.10 Re: Donors to temple in general no date
- I.11 Re: Donors of Mahāmaṇṭapam
- I.12 Re: Donors for Navakkiraha Mantapam

APPENDIX II

Composite "Ritual Text" for the "Pāvai Singing" Citti Viṇāyakar and Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temples, Nākamalai Putukkōtṭai¹

1. "Mannulakam tanil"

maṇṇulakam taṇil piravi mācara eṇṇiya poruļelām eļitil murrura kaṇṇutal uṭaiyatōr kaļirru māmukap paṇṇavaṇ malaraṭi paṇintu pōrruvōm

So that the stains of [this] birth on earth will cease so that all things which are thought about will be easily fulfilled We serve and praise the flower-feet of the great elephant faced God with the eye on the forehead.

2. "Piţiyatan urumai"

piṭiyatan uru umai koļa miku kariyatu vaṭi koṭu tanataṭi valipaṭum avariṭar kaṭi kaṇapati vara arulinan miku koṭai vaṭivinar payil vali valamurai iraiyē

The Lord who gave grace
with Umai as a female elephant
[and he] as a male elephant
so that Kaṇapati, who removes the affliction of those who worship his feet,
would appear,
is, indeed, the God of Valivalam, where generous people dwell!

3. "Nankatampanai"

nankaṭampaṇaip perraval paṅkiṇaṇ teṇ kaṭampait tirukkarak kōyilāṇ taṅkaṭaṇ aṭiyēṇaiyum tāṅkutal enkatan pani ceytu kitappatē

¹ The songs are arranged according to the order in which I recorded them as being sung. Songs 1 through 8 were always sung in this order. 9 usually followed 8. The order of 10 through 18 is approximate, as the order could change from day to day and some songs could be sung more than once. Songs 1 to 4, 10 to 14 and 17 to 18 were written and given to me by one of the singers. I have deliberately included only the information which she provided in the Tamil portion. Other information on the songs is provided in chapter 11 above. She did not provide translations. These poems have been transliterated from the hand written copy. Published versions of the songs are available for those songs whose source text has been identified in chapter 11 above. Songs 15 and 16 were given to me by another singer upon my request. Dr. Gomathi Sooriamoorthi and Dr. Ā. Āṇantarācaṇ helped me in these translations except where otherwise noted. However, any errors or ommissions are my responsibility alone.

The duty of the Lord of Tirukkara Temple of Southern Kaṭampai whose consort bore our Skanda is to support even me, a devotee; my duty is to serve.

4. "Camaracūrapanmā"

camara cūra paṇmāvait taṭinta vēl kumaraṇ tātai naṛkōlampam mēviya amarar kōviṇukkē aṇpuṭait toṇṭarkaļ amaralōkamatāļuṭai yārkaļē

The servants who love the King of the immortals who dwells in good Kōlampam, the father of Kumaran with the spear that killed Cūrapanmā in battle indeed will be born in the world of the immortals.

- 5. "Tiruppalliyelucci"
- 6. "Tiruvempāvai"
- 7. "Tiruppāvai"
- 8. "Tiru āṭip pūrattu" (Song in Praise of Ānṭāļ)

tiru āṭippūrattu cekattutittāļ vāliyē tiruppāvai muppatum ceppināl vāliyē periyālvār perretutta penpillai vāliyē perumpūtūr māmunikku pinnānāl vāliyē orunūru nārpatu mūnu uraittāl vāliyē uyararankarkē kaņni ukanta alittāl vāliyē maruvārum tirumalli vaļanāti vāliyē van putuvai nakar kōtai malarp patankal vāliyē aṭiyārkal vāla aranka natar vāla caṭakōpan tan tamil nūl vāla - kaṭalcūlnta mannulakam vāla maṇavāla māmuniyē innum oru nūranţu irum ānṭāl tiruvaṭikalē caranam

Prosperity to the foot praised by the world during the Atipuram Festival!

Prosperity to She who spoke the 30 pāvai [poems]!

Prosperity to the girl child taken and raised by Periyalvar!

Prosperity to She who wove flowers in the great Pūtūr

Prosperity to she who said the 143 [poems]!

Prosperity to She who delighted the lofty Lord of Arankam with the flower garland!

Prosperity to the woman of the fertile country with the strongly fragrant jasmine!

Prosperity to the flower-like feet of Kōtai of bountiful Śrīvilliputtūr!

Long live the devotees! Long live Lord of Arankam!

Long live the cool Tamil works of Catakopan!

Long live the earth surrounded by ocean! O Maṇavāļamāmuni Live yet another century!

Refuge at the sacred feet of Āṇṭāļ

9. Pañcapurāņam

10. "Nātavintu kalātī"2

nāta vintuka lātī namonama

vēta mantracorūpā namōnama ñāna pantita cuvāmi namōnama

vekukōţi

nāma campuku mārā namonama

poka antari pālā namonama

nāka pantama yūrā namonama

paracūrar

cēta tantavi notā namonama

kīta kiņkiņi pātā namonama

tīra camprama vīrā namonama kirirāja

tīpa mankaļa joti namonama

tūya ampala līlā namonama

tēva kuncari pākā namonama

arultārāy

ītalum pala kõlāla pūjaiyum

otalun kuna ācāra nītiyum

īra munkuru cīrpāta cēvaiyu

maravāta

ēltalam pukal kāvēriyāl vilai

cola mantala mite manokara

rāja kempīra nātālu nāvaka vavalūrā

ātarampayi lārūrar tōlamai

cērtal kontavarotē munālinil

ātal vempari mītērimākayi laiyilēki

āti yantavu lāvācu pātiya

cērar konkuvai kāvūr nanātatil

āvinankuti vālvāna tēvarkal perumālē

Repeat the three lines "tīpa mankala...arultārāy".

Obeisance O Source of *nāta*, *vintu* and *kalai*!

Obeisance O Form of the Vedic mantras!

Obeisance O Expert in Nanam!

Obeisance O Kumārar of Lord Campu, possessor of innumerable names!

Obeisance O Son of Umā Tēvi, [the Catti] of experience!

Obeisance O Lord of the peacock whose legs are entwined with snakes!

² This translation is based on the *Patavurai* and *Polippurai* of Kirupāṇantavāri in *Tiruppukal (Virivuraiyuṭaṇ), Mūṇram Tokuti, Palani* (Ceṇṇai: Tiruppukalamirtam Kāriyālayam, 1967), 2-4.

Obeisance O Sporter who punished and destroyed the demon!

" O One whose [ankleted] feet tinkle [like a] song!

O Bold One! O Excellent One! O Hero!

O Lord of the Mountain!

Obeisance O auspicious Light of the lamp!

O Sporter in the pure space!

" Lord with divine Kuñcari at [your] side! Give grace!

O Ruler of pleasant Rājakempīra land!

in the Cola region

abundant because of the Kāvēri [river]

praised [by the people of] the seven continents

in which [people dwell who] do not forget

service of the illustrious [lotus] feet of the guru

compassion

good qualities and conduct

recitation

many kinds of splendid pūjai

and charity.

O Lord of Vayalūr!

O Lord of the gods who lives in Tiruvāviņankuţi!

in the good area of Kāvūr in Konku of the Cērar

who previously mounted a dancing fiesty horse

and went to Kayilai with his close friend Ārūr (Cuntarar),

and who extemporaneously sang the Kayilai Procession Poem.

11. "Vālttu"

āriru taṭan töl vālka

arumukam vālka verpaik

kūru cey tani vēl vālka

kukkutam vālka cevvēl

ēriya maññai vālka

yānai tan ananku vālka

mārilā vaļļi vālka

vālka cīr atiyār ellām

Long live the Twelve wide shouldered One;

Long live the Six faced One;

Long live the Matchless spear which split [the mountain];

Long live the [peacock] flag;

Long live the peacock which [He with] the red spear mounted;

Long live [Teyva]yānai;

Long live the unchanging Valli;

Long live all the illustrious devotees.

12. "Vālttu"

vān mukil vaļātu peyka malivaļañ curakka mannan kon murai yaracu ceyka kuraivilātuyirkaļ vāļka nānmarai yaranka ļonka narravam vēļvi malka mēnmai koļ caivanīti viļankuka ulakamellām

(Repeat the last line three times)

Let the cloud in the sky rain without fail; Let the abundant fertility increase; Let the king rule in the approved way; let the souls live without want; Let the virtues of the Four Vedas grow; let good religious practice and sacrifice increase; Let the excellent Caiva Way flourish throughout the world.

13. "Vālttu"

vālka antaņar vāṇava rāṇiṇam vīlka taṇpuṇal vēntaṇu mōṅkuka ālka tīyatu ellām araṇ nāmamē cūlka vaiyakamum tuyar tīrkavē

Let brahmins, celestials and cows flourish; Let cool water fall; Let the king flourish; Let evil deeds drown; Let all know the names of Aran; Let the affliction of the world perish!

14. Karpūra ārattippāṭal - Song for Camphor Āratti

tinkaļil jōti nī tinakara jōti nī ankiyil jōti nī anaittilum jōti nī enkaļil jōti nī īsvara jōti nī kankilā jōti nī karpūra jōti nī

(Repeat the last line three times)

You are the light in the moon; You are the light in the sun;

You are the light in the fire; You are the light in other such things;

You are the light in us; You are the light in Isvara;

You are the light without limit; You are the light in the camphor.

15. "Centippatipurakkum"³

centinnatipurakkuñ cevvēlē—cantatamum palkoti canmap pakaiyu mavamiruttum palkōti vikkinamum palpiniyum-palkōti pātakamuñ ceyvinaiyum pāmpum pacācumatar pútamuntī nīrum porupataiyum—tītakalā vevvitamun tutta mirukamuta lāmevaiyum evvitamvan temmai vetirntālum avvitattir paccaimavil vākanamum pannirantu tintōlum accamakarru mavilvēlum-kaccait tiruvaraiyuñ cīratiyuñ cenkaiyu mīrā rarulviliyu māmukanka lārum-virikiranam cintap punainta tirumutika ļorārum entat ticaiyu metirtonra—vantitukkan ellam potipatutti yevvaramun tantupukun tullāca māka vulattiruntu-palvitamām ācumuta nārkaviyu mattāva tānamuñcīrp pēcumiyal palkāp piyattokaiyum-ocai eluttumuta lämain tilakkanamun töyntu palutta tamilppulamai pālit-tolukkamutan immaip pirappi liruvātanaiyakarri mummaip perumalankan mocittut-tammai vitut tāyum palaiya vatiyā rutankūttit tōyum parapōkan tuyppittuc-cēya katiyerkum pünkamalak kalkatti yatkon tatiyērku munnin raruļ.

O Lord Murukan who protects Tiruccentur! If

many crores of hated births untimely death many crores of obstacles many diseases many crore heinous crimes karma snakes, devils, killing demons fire and water

³ Translated with the aid of the following publications: Ku. Cuntaramūrtti, Kantar Kaliveṇpā (Mūlamum - uraiyum) (Tiruppaṇantāļ: Kāci Maṭam, n.d.); A. Mahātēva Ceṭṭiyār and Kō. Vaṭivēlu Ceṭṭiyār, Kantar Kalivaṇpā Mūlamum, Uraiyum (Ceṇṇai Śrī Cātu Irattiṇa Carkuru Puttakacālai), 1926; and K. Sivaraman, trans. Tiruchendur Kandar Kalivenba of sri Athi Kumaragurupara Swamigal (Tirupanandal: Kasi Mutt, 1968). This English translation is preceeded by a version of the Tamil text, however the page with the publication details was missing. I have used the Tamil text of this edition because it was the edition provided to me by the singer. There are some variations, as for example, in the first words: The Kasi Mutt Tamil version and the version by Ku. Cuntaramūrtti has centippati where as the version by A. Mahātēva Ceṭṭiyār and Kō. Vaṭivēlu Ceṭṭiyār has centirppati.

weapons of war enduring sufferings severe poison ferocious animals come and appear before me, in that place wherever it may be on your green peacock with twelve strong shoulders the sharp spear which removes fear, the sacred waist with the belt little feet red hands twelve gracious eyes six beautiful faces and six crowns spreading light in all directions come and appear before [me] make all my extreme sufferings into dust, give all boons and gaily enter and be in my mind give me knowledge of Tamil in which [I] am trained and soaked in the many [poems] of four kinds of verse the art of doing eight things at one time the many beautifully spoken epic poems the five aspects of grammar beginning with the letter sounds remove the two kinds of dispositions in this birth through good behaviour remove the three great malas remove the ego join [me] with ancient devotees who investigate [you] make [me] experience the highest bliss in which [I] become soaked show me the feet like red scented lotuses, enslave [me], stand before me a devotee, and give grace.

16. "Jeya Hanumān"

jeya hanumān jeya hanumān mārutirāya jeya hanumān jeya hanumān jeya hanumān vāyukumārā jeya hanumān jeya hanumān jeya hanumān ancaviputra jeya hanumān jeya hanumān jeya hanumān śrī rāma tūtā jeya hanumān jeya hanumān jeya hanumān mākānupāva jeya hanumān

Victory Hanuman Victory Hanuman O King Maruti Victory Hanuman Victory Hanuman Victory Hanuman

O Son of Vayu Victory Hanuman Victory Hanuman
O Son with folded hands
Victory Hanuman
Victory Hanuman
O Messenger of Sri Rama
Victory Hanuman
Victory Hanuman
O Great One
Victory Hanuman
Victory Hanuman
Victory Hanuman

17. "Nīlankoļ Mēkattin"

nīlankoļ mēkattin mayil mītē nī vanta vāļvaikkan tatanālē;
mālkonta pētaikkun maņanārum mār tanku tāraittan taruļvāyē
vēlkontu vēlaippan terivonē vīrankoļ cūrarkkun kulakalā;
nālanta vētattin poruļonē nānenru mārtattum perumālē

When [she] saw [your] majestic appearance
when you came on the peacock like a blue cloud
she fell in love,
graciously give your scented breast garland to her.
O Ancient One who throws the spear into the sea!
O God of death to all demons!
O He who is the essence of the Four Vedas!
O Lord who proudly says "I [will help]"!

18. "Viral Māranaintu"

viralmāra naintu malarvāļi cinta mikavāni lintu veyilkāya; mitavātai vantu talalpola vonra vinaimātar tantam vacai kūra; kuravānar kunri lurai pētai konta koți tăna tunpa mayal tīra kulirmālai yinka naņimālai tantu kurai tīra vantu kurukāyō; marimā nukanta iraiyon makilntu valipātu tanta matiyāļā malai māvu cinta alaivēlai yañca vativē lerinta atitīrā; arivāla rintu nirutā ļiraincu matiyā ritaiñcal kalaivone alakāna cempon mayil mē lamarntu alaivā yukanta perumāļē.

Repeat "kuravāņar...kurukāyō".

When the heroic God of Love strews the five kinds of flowers, when the cool breeze touches [her] like a fire,

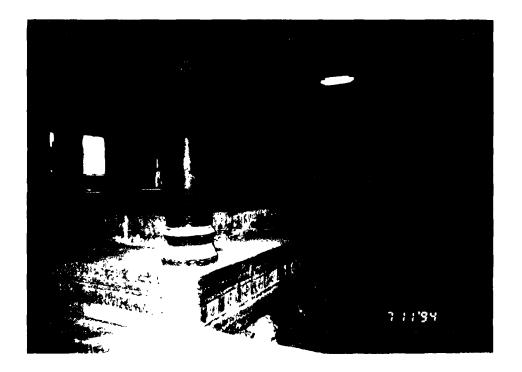
[and] the moon in the great sky becomes hot,
when the gossipping women speak harsh words amongst themselves,
in order to remove the unbearable afflicting infatuation
of the girl living on the mountain among the Kuravars,
come and draw near giving the cool evening flower garland which removes the want.

- O Knowledgeable One whom the God holding the young deer rejoicingly worshipped.
- O Great warrior who threw the spear in order to split the mountain while the wavy ocean was afraid!
- O Remover of the trouble of knowledgeable devotees who worship your two feet!
- O Lord who was pleased in Alaivay reposing on the beautiful red golden peacock!

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Photo 1: Hundred Pillared Hall, Mīnāţci-Cuntarēcuvarar Temple



Note: Location of Segment II.2 of the "Tiruvempāvai" Festival:

During the festival, Māṇikkavācakar is placed on the raised stage in the foreground facing Naṭarācar. An image of Naṭarācar is visible in the background (centre, behind the tube light). The ōtuvārs stand on the raised platform extending out from the image of Naṭarācar. This photo was taken from the basic position of the female audience members (bottom right). Male audience members stand on the opposite side of this platform (far left). Audience members are not allowed to stand between the two platforms.

Photo 2: View of Citti Vināyakar Temple, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai



Photo 3: Main Deity, Citti Vināyakar Temple, Nākamalai Putukkōtṭai



Photo 4: View of Nākamalai Murukan Temple, Nākamalai Putukkōttai



Photo 5: Main Deity, Nākamalai Murukan Temple, Nākamalai Putukkōṭṭai







Note: This picture was taken during the *abhiṣekam* on the last day of *Mārkali*. The sun has not yet arisen. The lady singers are sitting directly in front of Citti Viṇāyakar. The men, as usual, have positioned themselves apart from the female singers. The audience has not yet arrived in significant numbers, however the group of singers is a bit larger today because it is the last day of *Mārkali*. By the time of the final *tīpārātaṇai* the audience will extend along the specially installed bamboo railings far into the street. In photo 7, the priest can be seen performing the *abhiṣekam* in the background. Photo 8 of the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple was taken at approximately the same time as photos 6 and 7. The *abhiṣekam* has not yet started at the Nākamalai Murukaṇ Temple, however, the singers have begun singing. (The pictures show January 12 rather than 13 because the camera clock was set to North American time rather than Indian time).

Photo 7: Close up of "Pāvai Singing", Citti Vināyakar Temple



Photo 8: Close up of "Pāvai Singing", Nākamalai Murukan Temple



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