Can the analysis of adhyasa ever lead to an advaitic conclusion?

That something is taken as something else cannot be a sign of 'unreality' of either, and yet this has been the ground of the rejection of the reality of the 'non-self' by Advaitins since Samkara wrote his famous bhasya on the Brahma Sutra and described the identification of the self with the non-self as the foundational adhyasa on which all other erroneous cognitions are based. But the so-called $adhy\bar{a}sa$, if it is one, proves only that the 'non-self', should not be taken as self, and not that the non-self is 'unreal'. In fact, if the non-self were really unreal the adhyasa could not have arisen. The usual example of "seeing" the rope as snake is given to illustrate such an erroneous identification. But the example, if reflected upon seriously proves just the opposite. Both the snake and the rope are 'real'. It is only the cognition of the 'rope as snake' which is erroneous and needs to be corrected. In fact the rope could not, in principle, have been seen as snake, if there were no snakes in the world. But, if the 'reality' of snake is a pre-condition of the 'seeing' the rope as snake, then the example usually given proves just the opposite of what the advaitins want to prove.

Samkara, of course, has not given the example of "seeing" rope as snake at least in the beginning of his discussion on

adhyasa in his bhasya on the Brahma-Sutra. Instead, the gives two examples: one, referring to the 'seeing' of "Sukti" as "Rajat" and the other as 'seeing' two moons instead of one. The two examples are, however, so radically different that if one is taken as the paradigmatic example of adhyasa, the other can not be so understood. The first example, that is 'seeing' "Sukti" as "Rajat" is similar to that of 'seeing the rope as snake, since both "Sukti" and "Rajat" are present there in the world and are known independently of each other. On the other hand, 'seeing' two moons instead of one usually takes place if one presses the eye-lid and no one is lead to "believe" that there are two moons even when one 'perceives' them to be so. This, perhaps, is due to the reason that one 'knows' that the 'seeing' of two moons is the result of something that has been done by ourself, or even by someone else if the other has pressed one's eye-lid, and that one can easily see the moon as one if the finger is removed from the eye-lid. Here, there is no adhyasa as not only one is not 'identifying' the one moon with the two moons but also "knows" that the two moons that one 'sees' are not "really" two, but that the one moon itself is 'appearing' as two because of a particular pressure one has put on one's eye-lid. In fact, one not only 'knows' that there are not only not two moons in the sky, but also that one can 'see' two moons whenever one likes by just pressing one's eye-lid again. One can play the game as many a time as one likes and it is only because one is not 'deceived' that

no appropriate action relating to the erroneous cognition ever occurs. In fact, there is no erroneous cognition at all, and no "erroneous identification" to deserve a name of *adhyasa* as Samkara seems to have thought.

One may, of course, apply the term $adhy\bar{a}sa$ to both the examples, as Samkara seems to have done. But, then one would how to accept that there can be radically different kinds of $adhy\bar{a}sa$ and not just one as most of the Advaitins seem to have thought up till now. But, in case there can be more than one kind of $adhy\bar{a}sa$, one would have to explore the different types of erroneous cognitions and identifications that take place and delineate the deep, typal differences between them. Unfortunately, as far as of know, no one seems to have attempted to do this up till now.

Perhaps it may be said that the advaitins' contention relates to the cognitive enterprise as whole and contends that no cognition in the ordinary sense is possible without the identification of the 'self' with the 'non-self' at some level. The 'identification with the 'body', for example, is a precondition of all perceptual knowledge, and the one with *buddhi* for all rational knowledge, that is, knowledge based o *anumana* or influence.

But even on such interpretation of the Advaitin's position, the reality of the body and the buddhi will have to be admitted

as without it, no identification would be possible. Not only this, the occurrence of adhyasa implies that both the objects are already "known" to one as, in case one of the objects is totally unknown that can not be "superimposed" on the one that is being experienced. Samkara seems to be aware of the problem as he suggests that the self or the atman is not completely avisaya that is something which is not an "object" at all for, if it were to be so then how could the not-self be superimpsoed on it. This, perhaps, is not the exact reason why Samkara makes the self or the atman as the referrent or the "object" designated by "I" or what he calls the "asmad-pratyaya". [न तावदयमेकान्तेनाविषयः, अरमत्प्रत्ययविषयत्वात्] The reason, more probably, is to emphasize the "experiencial imigiacy" with which the self is experienced and which is radically different from the way all other objects are experienced even at the perceptual-sensuas level. The reference to "asmad pratyaya" seems unfortunate and even misleading as the "I", or the sense of the "I", that is being referred to, has nothing "linguistic" about it. Instead it is the existencially experienced sense of "I-ness" which is being talked about and which is perhaps better conveyed by the term aham-kara used in the Samkhyan sense. In fact, Samkara seems to have been mislead by the terms "yusmad and asmad", forgetting that the former, in its ordinary usage, does not refer to object in "general" but objects of a certain type only, that is those that may be regarded as another human being. But in case this is

correct what is referred to by the term yuṣmad is not "ekāntenaviṣayah" as Samkara seems to think, but also "aviṣayah" in the sense that it too has the sense of "I-ness" or thinks of itself, as the "object" of "asmad-pratyaya" to use Samkara's language. Not only this, for the other human being I am a yuṣmad that is, someone who is an "object" though not completely an object in the sense in which inanimate objects of nature are.

Surprisingly, Samkara himself questions the necessity, of the immegiacy or aparoksatva for the objects between which the adhyāsa is supposed to occur. He had himself said that the self is not एकान्तेन अविषयः, but later on questions the necessity of this by pointing out that there is no such Law or Niyama that both the objects between which the adhyāsa occurs have to be immeidate objects of consciousness [नचायमस्ति नियमः-पुरोऽवस्थित एव विषये विषयान्तरमध्यसितव्यमिति] as is usually the case with the objects of perception. He gives, in this connection, the example of Ākāsa which is not perceived by anybody and yet on which the adhyāsa of colour etc. is super-imposed. [अप्रत्येक्षऽपि ह्याकारो बलास्तेलमिलनताद्यध्यस्यन्ति] The example is strange indeed, for as Dr. Mukund Lath has pointed out in a discussion on the issue it will make akāsa an aviṣayaḥ like the self and there would be the problem of distinguishing the different types of avisayah.

Morever, $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ is not an object of perception than it must be an object of inferences. But what is the *hetu* of this $s\bar{a}dhya$. In other words, what is the ground for believing that there is such a thing as $\bar{A}k\bar{a}sa$ and that even if there is such a thing it cannot have the quality of colour in it.

The so-called superimposition of qualities such as colour or to use Samkara's own term "malinta", that is, tarnished or of a dark colour, do not seem any different from the quality of sound which is usually ascribed to it. The only reason that appears to have been given in the tradition for the postulation of $\overline{A}k\overline{a}sa$ seems to be that it is the substance in which sound inheres. However $\overline{A}k\overline{a}sa$ unlike all the other four elemental substances [all the other pancmahabhutas], that is, earth, air, fire and water is not, as $\overline{S}amkara$ has pointed out, object of perception. But in case the only reason for the postulation of $\overline{a}k\overline{a}sa$ as an independent $\overline{mahabhuta}$ is that we need a substratum for sound, then sound or $\overline{S}abda$ will have to eternal for, if it were to be non-eternal, then it will have no quality whatsoever when the sound is absent and thus become like nirguna brahaman which will obviously not be acceptable for the advaitins.

There is another problem with Samkara's use of the term बाल: "Balah" raises and which, as far as I know, has not been noticed. According to Samkara it seems that only the ignorant suffer from adhyāsa as they alone superimpose "malintā" on

Takāsa but, those who "know" the truth in this matter also "see" the ākāsa as malīna, though they are not "deceived" by the appearance as was the case with those who were ignorant. The correction, however, even in their case, is only "theoretical" as it does not effect their perceptual experience in any way, whatsoever. We had drawn attention to this fundamental difference between the two types of adhyases in our paper entitled "Two types of appearance and two types of reality" published long ago in Revue Internationale de Philosophie Belgium (Oct., 1957). The advaitin however would scarcely be satisfied with a "theoretic" correction only as it would make the whole process of Sādhanā which is supposed to lead to the self realization unnecessary.

The larger problem that Samkara's example opens relates to the question as to how purely theoretical entities which are based only on anumana can have perceptual qualities superimposed on them because of adhyasa. The other possibility opened up by the example is the one where a theoretical postulated entity based on some inferential necessity has purely theoretical qualities ascribed to it which, later on, are found to be erroneous and hence which retrospectively are ascribed the character of adhyasa. Also if once such

^{1.} Also included in Daya Krishna, The art of the conceptual, Delhi, ICPR and Munshiram Manoharlal Publishers Pvt. Ltd., 1989.

possibilities are admitted, the "self" itself may be seen as not something which is directly experienced but theoretically postulated to understand on account for the experience one have. If so, the so-called superimposition on it may be as theoretical as the self itself and may, later on, found to be correct or incorrect depending upon the exigencies of the theoretical requirement concerned.

The deeper contention, perhaps, is that the 'objectivating act' of consciousness itself is the root cause of the foundational mistake as it makes the 'self' think of itself as an 'object' which it can never be. But why should it be so, is never made clear.

There is also the other problem as to why a knowledge based on erroneous identification need itself be necessarily wrong. The body may be 'perceived' correctly, even if the self's identification with the body is wrong. The perception of objects through the body senses is not affected in any way by the identification of the 'self' with the body. Similarly the 'correctness' or the 'incorrectness' of any inference has nothing to do with the supposedly "false" indentication of the 'self' with buddhi or the rational faculty in man. The perceptual or the inferential cognition may not occur without the identification, at least at the human level, but such a non-occurrence has to do with the validity or invalidity of the cognition concerned.

At a still deeper level the advaitin may be said to be objecting to the 'objectivating' function of consciousness itself and pointing out that what is 'constituted' by this act is taken to be 'real' as is obviously supposed to be true in the case of drama and it may be said that all that is apprehended as 'object' shares this characteristic. Madhusudana Saraswati, the well known advaitin, is supposed to have said something to this effect. But, firstly, there is no identification of the 'self' with the 'not-self' here and if that is the essence of adhyāsa, then this can not be regarded as adhyāsa in the accepted sense of the term. Secondly, if consciousness has this capacity of 'objectivating' within itself, then the exercise of that capacity could not be a mistake except when one regards the object as having an independent reality of its own without reference to the consciousness that bring it into being.

It may be urged that the problem is not so much with the 'objectivating' function of consciousness as with its 'identification' with what it 'objectivates', particularly if it begins to 'see' itself as an object because of this act of 'objectification' through which it brings the object into being. But this is only another name for 'self-consciousness' through which or in which alone the 'self' become aware of itself. At the level of consciousness, one is aware *only* of object and not of the fact that one is aware of it. Animals are generally supposed to have only this kind of awareness, even though the higher ones among

them show many of the emotions that man possesses. Human beings, on the other hand are supposed to be distinguished by the further fact that they are not only aware of objects as the animals are, but also aware of the fact that they are aware of the objects. This 'second-order awareness' gives rise to a whole new set of phenomena amongst which the most interesting and intriguing is the 'idea' of the 'self' itself. This gives rise to the notion of the 'ideal self' or the 'self-as-it-ought-to-be' as distinct from the 'self-as-it-is' and makes one strives to be that which one ought-to-be.

The achievement of self-consciousness thus, leads not only to the awareness of the 'self' as 'object', but also to a dissatisfaction with what one finds oneself to be. In fact, the 'ideality' of any 'object', whether it be the self-seen-as-object or something else, is always a function of self-consciousness, as consciousness only apprehends the object in its 'facticity' and the pleasure or pain that it might cause or occasion. Psychological hedonism, thus, is the natural attitude of consciousness. It turns into ethical hedonism only when self-consciousness reflects on it and treats it as the norm for itself. But if it were to reflect on its own reality, it would see that it can never accept 'hedonism' as a norm for itself, as it has already introduced on element of questioning into everything it apprehends in terms of an ideality which it knows only roughly. This knowledge is mainly negative in character as it is generally

sure that what obtains should not be, but seldom as to what it should be.

The element of 'ideality', thus, is a result of selfconsciousness and is, in fact, an imposition on consciousness. Consciousness functions, by its very nature, at the hedonistic level, but when it becomes an 'object' of self-consciousness, it acquires an 'ideal' dimension which is in conflict with the way it naturally functions. This is the root cause of conflict in man, as he finds himself not to be what he should be. The 'ideality of consciousness like that of all other 'objects' is, thus, a function of self-consciousness. But if self-consciousness itself is the foundation of Adhyasa or 'objectification' and the identification with it, then the 'ideality' of the self along with that of all 'objects' will also be mistaken. But the 'ideality' of consciousness is the same as Atman and if both the 'idea' and the 'ideal' of atman are the result of the fundamental illusion which self-consciousness projects through its objectivating function, then what will happen to the whole enterprise of "ātmānam Viddhī" on which the whole advatic enterprise is based. The realms of both dharma and adhyatma arise because of the distinction between 'what is' and 'what should be', a distinction which would not have been there but for the fact of self-consciousness which introduces it in the realm of 'fact' itself.

The 'fact' of self-consciousness, thus, has a double aspect, as though it happens to be a 'fact' it introduces the distinction of 'fact' and 'ideality within the realm of 'fact' itself. Paradoxically, it does not remain untouched by this distinction as, reflexively, it can turn on itself and find it *not* to be what it should be.

The advaitins, strangely, finds fault not with this or that characteristic of self-consciousness, but with the very fact of self-consciousness, itself. But this is to strike at the very roots of that which makes the reality of adhyatma and dharma possible.

The ultra-radical advaitin accepts the suicidal consequences of his relentless logic and banishes the 'seeking' for the realisation of atman to the realm of 'illusion' as, according to him, the atman is nityasiddha and not sādhanasiddha, as the deluded 'seeker' thinks. Also, if the whole activity of Sadhna belongs to the realm of illusion, then does the argument of the advaitin not belong to the same category?

In fact, the Advaitin has to accept a distinction between the atman when it is realised and the situation when, according to him, it is not realised, that is, one does not "realise" oneself to be the atman. This distinction has to be admitted even if the atman is supposed to be nityasiddha and not sadhanasiddha.

The distinction, however, can not be made intelligible, especially if the very procedure or processes by which one comes to the awareness of the idea of atman are regarded as based on a fundamental error, as the advaitin tends to do.

The advaitin faces the dilemma in another form, when he discuss the problem of Jivanmukti, that is, whether one "lives" even after one has realised the atman. For, if one allows for the fact of Jivanmukti, then one will have to admit some sort of an identification with the body and the mind, as without such an identification, one can not conceive of "living" in the usual sense of world. The ambiguous, puzzling and paradoxical nature of the idea of Jivanmukti, in the context of the ideas of "sublation" and "identification" does not seem to have been the subject of critical attention except perhaps in the work of Srinivas Rao on the subject.

The Jivanmukta's identification with the psycho-physical complex, it may be said, is not the same as the one that occurs in those who have not "realised" the atman or achieved liberation. But, then, identification need not necessarily be erroneous or be of such a nature as to lead to bondage. It may be of a different type and hence need to be distinguished for purposes of analysis, a task that the advaitin does not seem to have performed.

One need not, however, go to the exemplars of Jivanmukti to find examples of 'identification' that are harmless. Nāţya provides a superb example of it at the ordinary day-to-day level of living and has been the subject of reflection since at least the time of Bharata onwards in the Indian tradition. It is surprising, therefore, to find that the advaitin has taken no serious note of it, or tried to meet the challenge it poses for his theory of identification. There seems no prima-facie reason why the snake-rope or sukti-rajat illustration of adhyāsa be taken as a paradigmatic example of it and not the nāṭya.

The identification of Jivanmukta with the psycho-physical complex, however, is only because of the necessity of "living" and does not achieve any positive purpose except perhaps when he or she guides others on the path of adhyatma, or the realisation of the self. The characters in a play, on the other hand, play a positive role as without it one can neither understand nor appreciate. The identification with the play thus, is a necessary condition here for the revelation of the "reality" embodied and evoked in the play. The "identification", of course, is not a total identification as it is supposed to be in the case of the "rope-snake". It is more of an imagined, or "assumed" identification, an "as if" attitude where one "knows" that it is not "really" so, but still behaves as if it were what one knows, it is not. This willed suspension of what one knows to be true is shared with the one that is found in the Jivanmukta's

attitude. But while the latter is a burden which one carries on due to the exigencies of "living" or because one has to exhaust the *karma* whose effect has already been set in motion, in the case of the former it is a "free" act of imagination which gives access to a world which brings *joy*. And in some cases, it gives not only joy but also insightful understanding of the human situation if the play is really great and is acted well.

The "identifications" with the characters in a dramatic representation or novel is well known and has provided material for the construction of various theories amongst those who are interested in the subject. But little distinction has been made between the "identification" of the spectator or the reader and the one that happens in the case of the actors or the writers or the director. As for the problem of "identification" in other arts such as architecture and music, as far as I know, no one has ever discussed it. Both Bharat and Aristotle concentrate on the drama for building their theories about art and as the Indian and the western tradition have generally followed their formulation of the subject, the portrayal of human situations and the identification on the part of the spectator with them resulting in the experience and enjoyment of 'virtual' emotions has continued to be the paradigmatic example of what identification means in the context of art.

The "active identification" in the moral realm where it is a precondition of concern, care and sympathy for the "other" has hardly engaged the attention of thinkers. Besides this, there are other "real" meaningful realms "constituted by conflicting "identifications" such as that of sport or patriotism or membership of a class, caste, varna, region, language, or sampradāya or āsrama. One cannot call oneself a sanyāsin, a Bhikśu or even an advaitin without some of identification.

Ultimately, then, the question is not of erroneous identification or superimposition or adhyasa as the advaitin has thought but whether it occurs in consciousness or rather at the self conscious level and whether it is "free" in the sense that one can withdraw from it and is not too much affected by it. The Gita and propounded some such idea, but the advaitin seems to have missed it. The Gita's contention that one cannot live even for a moment without action and hence the idea that one can "live" without any "identification' at all is a contradiction-interms. Its own solution of the problem is to suggest that one can have an "identification" which does not lead to bondage, as it is not "real" identification resting on the error which both the advaitin and the Samkhyan thinkers have emphasized. Rather, it is an 'assumed" identification knowing fully that it is wrong. Still, one does so for certain purposes as is the case with the witnesses of a dramatic performance or when one engages in moral action. In the later case the "identification" is only implicit

while, in the former case it is self consciously explicit as without it one can not 'understand" the act of going to witness the performance. The non-attachment preached by the $G\bar{i}t\bar{a}$ is only another name for this. In fact, the ideal advocated by the $G\bar{i}t\bar{a}$ is fu9lly embodied in Krsna himself who continuously exemplifies throughout his behaviour what this ideal of "identification-without-identification" is.

In fact, the idea of avatāra itself implies this, as the Lord who incarnates himself cannot do so without assuming this seemingly incompatible duality involved in the very notion of the "embodyied self". The Lord himself as Kṛṣṇa, it should be remembered, uses the term "aham" to refer to himself. The term indicates the embodied self or the "ego" or the jiva in the advaitic vocabulary and that Kṛṣṇa should be constrained to use it suggests that the "identification" involved need not necessarily be based on avidyā or ignorance.

"Identification", thus, may be of many kinds and what is called adhyāsa by the advaitins and illustrated by the paradigmatic example of the rope-snake or the Sukti-Rajat illusion is only one of them. It is also the least important as it can only lead to fear and flight or greed and delight. It may, on the other hand, give rise to doubt as one may begin to wonder that the thing does not move at all and hence could hardly be snake or the "shine" that one is seeing is not exactly the one

which is usually given by silver. The point is that the example on which the advaitin has built his whole edifice is so weak that it can hardly support his case. He has not even thought of the other possibility that one may mistake the snake for a rope and the fatal consequences that may follow on this type of wrong identification. Will the Brahman, then, be like the rope and the world like a snake or conversely. The whole thing is so "childish" that one wonders how so many intelligent people could have been taken in by it for so many years.

There is another aspect of the rope-snake illusion, which has not been taken notice of. This relates to the fact there are some 'identifications' which are involuntary in the sense that one is born with them while the others are voluntary or acquired.

The identification with the body is perhaps the most involuntary identification that we know of. It is also the most foundational, primal and natural identification as it is not only the seat of pleasure and pain, but also responsive to our acts of will and thus the main centre through which we "act" on the world. Others too identify us primarily through our bodies and even in it mainly through the face as becomes evident when one has to identify a dead body. In fact, there is a radical distinction between the identification of the "self" with the body and the identification of the "others" with his or her body. The former,

though involuntary and natural, is always secondary while the latter is almost always primary. K.C. Bhattacarya has drawn attention to this fact in his remarkable work entitled "Subject as Freedom" wherein he had built his whole philosophical edifice upon the notions of "identification" and "de-identification" and suggested that when one has de-identified one realises that the "identification" must have been "voluntary" in the sense that it need not have been there as there was no "necessity" about it. But he has not seen that the "de-identification" does not set one "free" as one relapses into the identification once more. The "freedom" was only momentary and even illusory as one does not become "free" of the identification and relapses into it again and again. In fact, it is an "identification" one cannot do without as it is the very condition of one's being alive and living in the world.

The "free" identification in most cases, thus, is not free at all. And, this is the case not only with the body but also with the gender, language and memory. The case of gender and language is peculiar as one can, at least these days, get one's sex changed through operation and one can learn another language sometimes with greater facility than one's own. There are also persons who are bi-lingual just as we are told that there are those who are bi-sexual. Such cases, however, have not been studied in depth to find what exactly happens to one's identification in their case. As for the cases in which the change

in one's sex occurs naturally, the identification with the past of one's earlier bodily self must present intriguing problems which, as far as we know, have not been investigated. The detailed study by Garfinkal is of one such case deal with the problem.

In any case, the problem of identification with and through memory, is even more complex as even in ordinary, normal cases there is a large part of one's life of which one has probably no memory. No one remembers about one's life in the womb or the experience of being born or the hundred and one things that happened to one in one's childhood. Yet, one not only believes that it was the same 'self' which was there in all these experiences but also celebrates one's birthday. There is also the problem of false memories, suppressed memories and memories "edifying" for purpose of self-adulation or oneself-adoration. Yet, it is *only* through memories and the "owning" of them by the self that one gets an identity.

Identification may, of course, be correct and the notion of "erroneous identification" presupposes this. There is, for example, nothing wrong in identifying a rope as a rope, or a snake as a snake. But the advaitic theory of adhyasa and in a sense, the Samkhya theory also, implies just this. This is because, as we pointed out earlier, the so-called "correct identification" would not be possible without the erroneous identification of consciousness with something that is not

consciousness. Thus, even if one grants that the foundational identification of the self with the not-self is a mistake, it does not follow that all identifications in the realm of the not-self are bound to be "incorrect" because of this. The criterion of a "correct" identification in the realm of the not-self is not dependent on the fact whether the whole realm of the not self is itself the result of a "wrong" identification.

The relegation of the whole world to the status of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ in advaita vedanta seems to be based on this fundamental mistake as even within the " $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ " there remain the distinctions between the true and the false, good and the evil and the beautiful and the ugly.

The situation in Samkhya seems to be similar to that of Advaita Vedanta, even though it has not been described in the same way, and appears to rest on the same mistake. The whole "world", in Samkhya, is a 'creation' of the "identification" of purusa with ahamkara or buddhi or manas or the senses including both the jnanendriyas and the karmendriyas. But this does not, and can not render this whole world "unreal"-just as the whole world of not-self can not be considered as Maya only because it presupposes the identification, in some sense or other, of the self with the not-self.

The Samkhyan-advaintic interpretation of the phenomenon designated as *adhyasa* seems untenable on all counts and it is

surprising that thinker after thinker have repeated the interpretation as if it were a self-evident truth. But no example of erroneous cognition, particularly if it be perceptual in character, can ever establish the "unreality" of either of the objects which are said to be "erroneously" identified with each other.

It is, of course, true that only the advaitin draws this conclusion. None of the other vedantins do this. As for the sankhyans, it is true that they accept the independent reality of prakṛti, but it is not clear what do they exactly mean by this as the whole world of Vyakta or manifest prkrti from ahamkara to the five gross elements, according to them, is due to the erroneous identification of purusa or the pure consciousness with that which it is not, that is, the non-self or the "object" or the prakrti, The more than two thousand years old contention taken by many to be the most distinctive contribution of Indian philosophy, thus, is non-sequitor, a fallacy which should have been known as such long ago. It is time that the adhyasa, if we may be so allured to call it, is realised for what it is and laid to rest and buried for ever so that the Indian mind is freed of the maya by which lit has been entranced all the years. It is time to get liberated from the adhyasa that the advaitic analysis of adhyasa has imposed on a large part of the philosophical intellect of India. But perhaps it has been bewitched by it too long to want to be liberated from it. The "bondage" of love an be more entrancing than the desire for liberation. Did not the Gopis tell Uddhav this?