I have written over thirty-five forewords to books, but none with the urgency with which I write this one.

Why is that the case? Because this edition of the Gıt¯a looks so daunting that general readers are likely to conclude that it is not the one for them. But that would be a serious mistake, for the truth is that this is a multivalent book—there is something in it that will reward every serious reader.

Christopher Chapple’s admirable preface summarizes the Bhagavad Gı¯t¯a’s plot and positions it in the vast literature of the Vedas. For Sanskrit scholars no stone is left unturned: abbreviations for grammatical usages—active, ablative, accusative, adjective, and adverb—are entered, and both English and Sanskrit grammar is remarked. It would be tedious to argue further the comprehensiveness of the book’s grammatical workout, but scholars can be assured that the coverage is exhaustive. A list of abbreviations that are used in the volume is included, as well as epithets (nicknames) that appear in the Gıt¯a. When we turn to the text proper, for every line the Sanskrit is printed, followed by the transliteration of that line, and finally, the line’s English translation. For those who only want to read the Gıt¯a’s story, therefore, the book is literally a page-turner, for all they need do is to read the verses on the bottom left-hand side of each page. However, should readers want elaboration, they will find it in the right-hand column of the page where, for example, dharma is translated as duty, law, righteousness, virtue, and honor.

So it goes. I am unspeakably grateful to Christopher Chapple for attending to the foregoing material for it frees me to attend to the substance of this classic. What does the Gıt¯a use the foregoing machinery and underpinnings to say? Eager as I am to get to that substance, there is one transitional point that I want to make.

There are some books that will never have definitive editions, and I am not confining myself to translations; I am thinking of the vernacular in which the substance of the texts are cast—idioms, metaphors, analogies, innuendos and their likes. The reason for this is that in a way, these classics are living creatures in at least the sense that they seek out apertures through which to move. It is as if they were intelligent, looking for ingenious ways to get their point across to their readers. There are only a very few books that I know of that can do this, with the Tao Te Ching preeminent among them. Poetry works in this way, as do stories and tales, but not expository prose. The Gıt¯a, however, manages this rare accomplishment, and I will leave it to the reader to figure out how it manages to do so.

The Bhagavad Gita is the summation of the Ved¯anta, and among explicit doctrines the Ved¯anta stands out as one of the most direct formulations possible of what constitutes the very essence of our spirituality. Truth being one, the Gıt¯a’s teachings find their parallels in the other revealed scriptures, but nowhere else are its teachings so succinctly stated.
The Purpose of Life

Happiness derived from the fulfillment of worldly desires does not last. As one grows old, one realizes that everything is transient—wealth, possessions, health, and even life itself. When money and the luxuries it can buy fail to bring lasting happiness, one begins to wonder what the cause of this discontent is. This inquiry leads to the discovery that besides the body and mind, there is another component of the human being that is less apparent and more important because it is more enduring and is always watching our activities. In spiritual texts the body-mind complex is called the Apparent Self and the more enduring component is called the Real Self. Eventually one realizes that the cause of the aforementioned discontent derives from attending to one’s Apparent rather than one’s Real Self, and that the purpose of life is to recognize this distinction and to identify oneself with one’s Real Self (cf. Bhagavad Gītā, chapter 2, verse 66, hereafter BG II:66).

Crisis of Self-Identity

We have arms and legs; our five sense organs (hearing, touch, sight, taste, and smell) are superior to those limbs because they control a wider range of activities. Our minds (which receive and store information) are superior to our sense organs because they generate and retrieve thoughts. Our intellects are superior to our minds because they process information, make decisions. However, superior to all of the foregoing is the soul which is the source of consciousness and life. It is the Real Self that was mentioned in the preceding paragraph (BG IV:242).

Who Am I?

The human soul contains a spark of the Divine, the key attributes of which are indestructibility, indivisibility, and infinity. There is but One Being, and in every human soul this one and the same being permeates fully, not partially, just as the entire sun is reflected in miniature in every dewdrop.

If every human soul has the same Divine spark, then all human beings are endowed with the same potential for goodness. The knowledge, understanding, and abiding awareness of the Divine spark in every human being—the aforementioned Real Self—is the foundation of all of the human virtues (BG XV:7).

The Human Soul

Human beings move tranquilly through childhood, youth, and maturity, but old age is not welcomed, and approaching death is feared. In truth, however, all of these stages should be welcomed equally, for the human soul reincarnates and repeats the same stages until it reaches its release from the physical body. When the soul reincarnates, it carries with it the impressions and inclinations that it has accumulated in its past lives (BG II:2 and II:13).

The Spiritual Quest

The physical world is constantly changing; it is a scene of perpetual perishing. Sages, however, through deep introspection, came to the conclusion that whatever
ceases to exist cannot be the ultimate reality. An all-pervading consciousness, which by its nature is eternal and indestructible, can alone be the ultimate reality. We catch glimpses of this all-pervading consciousness when we encounter people who show tremendous courage, extraordinary creativity, and boundless compassion (BG II:16–17).

Different Ways for Different Temperaments

There are several paths to spiritual realization. People are born with different temperaments and tendencies: some like to be active, others reflective, others affective and engaged with their feelings, and others (the show-me types) favor experiments (let’s see what works). Spiritual paths exist for each of these four types. For the active there is the Way of Work, *karma yoga*; for the reflective there is the Way of Knowledge, *jñāna yoga*; for the affective type in whom sentiments prevail, there is the Way of Devotion, *bhakti yoga*; and for the experimental, let’s-see-what-works type, there is the Way of Meditation, *raja yoga* (BG XIII:24–25).

Work without Attachment

One doesn’t have to renounce the world to advance spiritually—one can remain fully engaged with family, social, and professional responsibilities. All one need do is to shift one’s attention and motivation for what one does. Say one is a business person, attend to the duties of the day with disregard for what they will net one—that’s all that need be done. Both the ignorant and the wise may do the same work, but the ignorant act with a selfish motive, and the wise act without expectation of any material gain (BG II:47 and III:25).

Unselfish Work—a Mind Purifier

Imagine a boy playing with his dog that has a curly tail. He tries to straighten the tail, but as soon as he lets go of it, it curls up again. The parts of our lives seem to behave like that—we straighten out one component, but then a curly tail takes it place. But take heart.

Mahatma Gandhi used nonviolent means to win India’s independence from British rule. At his cottage in Sevagram a prayer meeting was held at which a verse of the Bhagavad Gītā a was read. After the meetings, Gandhi would sit quietly for a few minutes with closed eyes, contemplating the verse. Many who attended those meetings were astonished to see the transformation in Gandhi’s expression. His face often wore a look of pain that reflected the sufferings of his countrymen because of the cruelty of the rulers’ deeds. After meditating on the Gītāa, however, his face glowed with love and compassion for all. The secret of Gandhi’s cour-age, calmness, and wisdom was his ability to reconnect his consciousness with the Divine—the source of infinite strength, infinite compassion, and infinite wisdom (BG II:48 and XII:13).
When Work Becomes Worship

Constant awareness of the presence of the Universal Spirit in everything can transform all work into worship. The mind becomes agitated and restless only when one works with a selfish motive. Work performed in the attitude of worship of the Universal Spirit purifies and calms the mind. It is a simple way to obtain peace of mind and enduring happiness (BG XVIII:46).

The Way of Knowledge

There are many kinds of knowledge. Secular knowledge does not take us beyond the material world—the world where everything is subject to change. It is impossible to find lasting happiness in things that are impermanent.

Deep introspection reveals that there is correspondence between the human being (the microcosm) and the universe (the macrocosm). One discovers that the spiritual component in human beings is identical with the Universal Spirit that pervades the phenomenal world.

As bliss is a primary attribute of the Universal Spirit, there must be a corresponding reservoir of happiness within all human beings. Those who seek enduring happiness must therefore guide their actions in the light of constant awareness of the divine presence in everything.

The journey toward spiritual realization is beset with hindrances as well as helps, and an uncontrolled mind is one of the major hindrances. It is not easy to discipline an unsteady mind, but constant awareness of one’s identity with the Supreme Spirit is a tremendous source of strength, wisdom, and perseverance (BG XVIII:20 and XVIII:37).

Imprisoned in a Cage

Some desires must be met to keep us alive—the desires for food, water, and clothing. But our desires do not stop there, and striving for these additional desires does not bring us closer to lasting contentment. Superfluous desires are better called cravings. We become angry when our cravings are not fulfilled. Greed is the food that sustains cravings and feeds the ego. The ego is the cheerleader of cravings—it enshrines self-conceit, possessiveness, and jealousy (BG XVI:12–16).

The Anatomy of Human Descent

An uncontrolled mind, always craving gratification of sense pleasures, leads to disastrous consequences. Imagine a sense object that comes to one’s attention. A desire arises to possess and enjoy that object. These thoughts create attachments and eventually craving. If the craving is not fulfilled, one becomes frustrated and angry, and angry people lose the capacity to discriminate between right and wrong, which in turn leads to a ruined life.
Spirituality begins with controlling one’s desires and anger, which requires rigorous vigilance. Imagine that two notorious burglars, Desire and Anger, succeed in sneaking into a house—the burglars are adept at stealing the jewels of peace and happiness. The task of protecting those jewels which are within each one of us begins with control of the mind (BG II:62–63).

*Intellect over Mind*

The mind is inherently extroverted. The five sense organs continuously bombard the mind with messages from the outer world, and these messages create an uninterrupted flow of thought waves. This is the reason why an uncontrolled mind is never free from the propensities of desire, aversion, and anger. However, these propensities are obstructions for the ripening of wisdom; so it is essential to learn to interrupt this flow of thoughts by withdrawing the sense organs at will from their sense objects. To achieve the capacity to do this, the intellect must learn to exercise its supremacy over the mind.

Withdrawing the senses from sense objects enables the intellect to withhold identification with the mind’s activities. This is how spiritual aspirants develop the art of noncooperation with the mind. When the mind counsels returning injury with injury, the intellect exercises its veto power and recommends returning injury with pardon. When the mind advises returning hatred with hatred, the intellect can decide to return wrongdoings with love and compassion.

However, even though withdrawing the senses from sense desires frees one from those desires, the taste for them lingers. Even the taste for worldly desires drops away when one directly experiences the Divine (BG II:58–59).

*From Knowledge to Wisdom*

Theoretical knowledge of the nature of the mind and how to control the mind is not enough. The spiritual path is slippery, and it does no good simply to carry the staff of knowledge-that-leads-to-wisdom—one must use that staff to steady oneself.

To change the analogy, the journey from knowledge to wisdom can be compared to the flight of a jet plane that struggles through thunderstorms at lower altitudes before reaching clear blue skies, where it flies smoothly and seemingly effortlessly (BG II:56).

*From Wisdom to Peace*

The attainment of wisdom is the hardest part of the spiritual journey. When that is accomplished, spiritual realization is very near.

A wise person is like an ocean that remains unmoved when rivers, even mighty one likes the Amazon, enter it. Having brought the mind under control, the wise person remains absorbed in the realm of spiritual consciousness where worldly desires knock but cannot enter. They are unswervingly aware of the fact that indestructibility, undivided consciousness, and bliss are the attributes of the Supreme Spirit (BG II:64 and II:70).
Which Is the Better Way?

Looking at a necklace of pearls, the eyes of the ignorant see pearls of different sizes and shapes, but they do not see the string that holds the pearls together. Something similar to that happens to a beginner who is seeking knowledge of the existence of the Supreme Spirit. The spiritual search leads to the discovery that actually there is no place in the universe where the Supreme Spirit is absent. In fact, like pearls of a necklace, the whole universe is pervaded and held together by the indwelling presence of one and the same Spirit.

It is possible but extremely difficult to comprehend the Divine Reality through knowledge alone. The prerequisite for attaining steady wisdom is a pure mind; but purification of the mind is a slow and arduous task, requiring virtues like truthfulness, honesty, and compassion.

The Way of Unselfish Work and the Way of Knowledge are two of the four ways for purifying the mind. The Way of Meditation and the Way of Devotion are the other two. Each of the ways enables the aspirant to realize the Spiritual Unity behind the apparent diversity in the universe. They are four paths to the same summit (BG V:1 and V:4).

The Way of Meditation

Those who are following either the Way of Knowledge or the Way of Unselfish Work soon discover that cravings of the mind for worldly pleasures are the greatest obstacle to spiritual realization. It is the habit of the mind to wander around in the outside world all the time. That habit can be broken by shifting the mind to the indwelling consciousness whose bliss can be attained by deep contemplation, succinctly known as meditation.

Spiritual bliss is far superior to the transient pleasures of everyday life, and meditation is the gate that opens that bliss to us. The indwelling Spirit can be experienced by cutting the chains that bind us to the world of matter, and it is meditation that does the cutting.

To change the analogy, the mind is like a lake, and stones that are dropped into it raise waves. Those waves do not let us see who we are. A full moon may be reflected in the water of the lake, but if the lake’s surface is troubled we do not see the moon clearly. The waters must be calmed. If one remains quiet, eventually the winds that ruffle the water will give up, and then one knows who one is. God is constantly within us, but the mind obscures that fact with agitated waves of worldly desires. Meditation quiets those waves (BG V:28).

Preparation for Meditation

The powers of the human mind tend to be dissipated like rays of light. Scientists have shown us that it is possible to unlock the secrets of nature by the powers of concentrated minds. Likewise, by using the mind as a powerful instrument mystics have been able to discover profound spiritual truths. As we have seen, meditation is the
method by which human beings can learn how to control and empower their minds for
the spiritual journey.

The prerequisite for meditation is a firm resolve to adhere to moral values that help
to purify the mind—truthfulness, noninjury, and noncovetousness. This resolve
prepares one to mount the steps that ascend toward meditation. The first of these is
purity, internal and external. The second step involves relaxing the mind by breath-ing
rhythmically, prānaḥ, aum. The final step is to withdraw the mind from the senses
that monitor the external world and turn it toward the object of one’s concentration
(BG VI:12).

Meditation—the Method

Meditation needs something to focus on. It can be the manifestation of Divinity in
religious symbol, in a human form, or in nature, such as a snow-covered mountain, a
serene lake in moonlight, or a colorful horizon at sunrise or sunset. The focus can also
be holy words or syllables that are intoned as mantras and rhythmically repeated—
the repetitions can be audible, inaudible (lips move but no sound is uttered), or mental
(contemplation on the meaning of the mantra).

In the state of deep meditation the mind is completely detached from the outgoing
senses and is fully submerged in the indwelling Divine Spirit, which in full glory is
reflected in the mind only when it is totally free of all disturbances. When the mind
loses all sense of being a separate identity, it enters into samadhi, a superconscious
state where one savors bliss that endures. Success in reaching this state and making it
endure can be achieved with practice (BG VI:18–19 and VI:21–22).

The Way of Devotion

Whether one follows the path of knowledge, or unselfish work, or meditation, the
spiritual journey is difficult—it is like crossing mountain ranges by driving a car over
a zigzagging road with numerous curves and many ups and downs.

But if one is impatient to complete the journey, there is another way. In this
analogy there is a shortcut, a tunnel that cuts through the base of the mountain. In the
spiritual journey this shortcut is called the Way of Devotion. Before one enters this
tunnel the wayfarer must have faith that there will be light at its end. This way is for
those who have emotional temperaments suitable for developing intense love and deep
yearning (BG VIII:22; IX:31 and IX:34).

Love and Devotion

The spiritualized mind, also known as the pure heart, is the seat of Divine emo-
tions. Spiritual seekers of emotional temperament adore Divinity and seek heart unity
with their chosen Divine ideal. Only a devotee with a pure heart can achieve it. Un-
conditional love is a potent purifier of the heart’s emotions because it washes away the
desire for trivial and transient objects.
Emotional devotees water the plant of devotion with tears of love. In true love, every act of the devotee becomes an act of worship (BG IX:26).

The Merging of the Ways

When one sees the entire universe as pervaded by the single Universal Spirit, one contemplates, marvels, and falls in love with its amazing glory. This love eventu-ally turns into deep devotion and an intense yearning for direct knowledge of the Supreme Reality.

Moved by the intensity of one’s devotion, one’s chosen ideal will at last grant one a direct experience of the Supreme Reality, which is likewise the Supreme Truth. Having experienced that Truth oneself, all doubts are dispelled. This is how the flower of devotion evolves into the fruit of knowledge. When the paths of knowledge and devotion come together, they intermingle and strengthen each other. True devotion merges with true knowledge. Actually, one cannot truly know anything that one does not truly love (BG X:10–11).

The Power of Maya

Imagine a child playing by the side of a pond that is covered by algae. He pushes the algae aside to see the water beneath it. As soon as he glimpses the water, a puff of wind covers the water with algae again. He repeats his act again and again with the same result. Finally he tires of the game and turns away. The spiritual aspirant who wants to climb to the top of the mountain of self-realization without help will have a similar experience.

The truth of the matter is that one’s own efforts are not sufficient to keep the mind in a steady state. Work without attachment to results can protect the mind from sensory distractions, but the imagined desires will still arise in the mind and disturb its tranquility. Even these imagined desires however, subside when the mind tastes the Divine bliss.

One seems to be caught in a vicious circle—without the Divine nectar, minds do not become completely pure, and without completely purified minds, the reservoir of Divine nectar is inaccessible. One waits, hoping that at some point success will be attained (BG VII:14).

Overcoming Hurdles

Self-effort is not enough to overcome all the hurdles that arise in the spiritual journey. Who would dare to leap across deep chasms, wade through rushing torrents, and climb across razor-sharp cliffs without help from others?

Like fast-moving clouds covering the sun, agitations of the mind are always ready to disturb the intellect. Delusions of the mind cannot be completely overcome by self-effort. The only way to overcome those delusions is to seek refuge in the Supreme Spirit with unyielding faith. It is important not to let one’s pride and egotism bar one from the total surrender to the Supreme (BG XVIII:58 and XVIII: 66).
Self-Surrender and Divine Grace

A camel eats thorny brambles and its mouth bleeds. This does not keep him away from those brambles because the camel cannot control its nature. Bound by their nature, human beings likewise suffer innumerable sorrows, and no matter how hard they try, they are unable to free themselves from the shackles of the world. The only way out is to seek Divine help and surrender oneself to its ministrations (BG XVIII:62).

Arriving at the Destination

Spiritual life is about the spiritualizing of knowledge, love, and work. It proceeds through human effort supported by Divine grace. As a familiar Hindu adage has it, the winds of God’s love are constantly blowing, but one must raise one’s sail. Still, the question remains: to reach what destination?

Destinations are the termini of journeys that have starting points. Physicists think that the universe began with the Big Bang, but what caused that Bang? Mystics say that it was God, the heart that beats in the body of the universe. In “East Coker,” T. S. Eliot notes that “our end is in our beginning,” and sages in India coined a composite word to describe the end that is also the beginning, sat-chit-ananda: Truth, Consciousness, and Bliss. It is important to keep in mind that these are not three things; they are three attributes of the single Reality. And thus the conclusion of this journey through the Bhagavad Gītā is Truth, Consciousness, and Bliss (BG XVIII:65).
EDITOR’S PREFACE

with a User’s Guide to the Word-by-Word Analysis of the Bhagavad Gītā

The Bhagavad Gītā is one of the most studied and most translated texts in the history of world literature. Emerging from post-Vedic India, it has made its mark as a standard, almost universal work of the Hindu tradition. It also has intrigued and eluded interpreters outside India for over two centuries. Some are fascinated by its linguistic contribution; others are interested in sorting out the many philosophical and religious implications of the text. Part of the appeal of the Gītā, both at home in India and abroad, lies in its multivalent quality: it explicitly advances numerous teachings, some of them seemingly contradictory, and has been used in support of various others that have arisen since its composition. As Gerald Larson has noted, “The Gītā has been construed in all sorts of interpretive modalities, most of which can be argued to be more or less authentic and legitimate.” In this brief introduction, a sketch of the story line is given, followed by an assessment of how the many possible construals of the text in fact reflect the uniquely Hindu worldview that tolerates and in some cases requires holding together multiple positions simultaneously.

The Bhagavad Gītā tells a story of great crisis, a crisis that is solved through the interaction between Arjuna, a Pāṇḍava warrior hesitating before battle, and Krishna, his charioteer and teacher. The Gītā is included in the sixth book (Bhiṣmaparvan) of the Mahâbhârata and documents one tiny event in a gargantuan epic tale. The main plot of the larger work involves a dispute between cousins over rulership of the Kurukṣetra kingdom in north central India. The kingdom had been lost by five brothers, the Pāṇḍavas, during a dice game and ceded to their cousins, the hundred sons of the blind king Dhrūtaras. By prearranged agreement, the latter group was due to give back rulership to the five Pāṇḍava brothers, but refused to abide by the contract. The Pāṇḍavas are forced to wage war in order to regain their rightful territory. However, these two sets of cousins were raised together and shared the same teachers. The prospect of war between the two camps is especially repugnant because so many good friends and close relatives must be killed. Thus, we arrive at the opening of the Bhagavad Gītā, the moment just before the battle begins. Arjuna is thrust into crisis; he must face the anguish of killing his relatives and friends or allow himself to be killed.

The text begins with the blind king Dhrūtaras asking his minister Samjaya to tell him what is happening on the field of the Kurus, the battlefield. Samjaya proceeds to list the principal warriors on the field and then directs his focus to Arjuna and his
charioteer Krishna. Arjuna asks Krishna to place the chariot in the center of the field and then sees arrayed before him his teachers, uncles, brothers, sons, grandsons, and friends. The sight overwhelms him; it is clear that all will be slain. Thinking that if all is destroyed then kingdom and pleasure would be of no use, he throws down his bow, refusing to fight, his mind overcome with grief. In the chapters that follow, Krishna takes Arjuna on a philosophical journey, bringing into question Arjuna’s attachment to both himself and others. The dialogue builds until Arjuna receives from Krishna a vision of totality that liberates him from his prior self-preoccupied identity. This experience prompts Arjuna to seek new answers from Krishna, answers that explain how to live with an understanding in which action becomes purposeful and liberating.

How does Krishna exact the transformation of Arjuna from a man filled with doubt to a man of great knowledge and resolve? He begins in chapter 2 by explaining the Yoga of Knowledge, recounting to Arjuna the insights to be gained from Sāµkhya philosophy. He reminds him that although contact with the objects of sense produces pleasure and pain, both are not lasting (II:14). He speaks of that which is beyond all change: weapons do not cut it; fire does not burn it; water does not wet it; winds do not dry it (II:23). He tells Arjuna that as a warrior his duty is to fight. If he wins, he gains the earth, if he loses, he gains heaven (II:37). Krishna urges Arjuna to ready himself for battle, to regard pleasure and pain, gain and loss, victory and failure as the same. Only when Arjuna has renounced interest in the fruits of his action can he find true peace.

These sage words, however, are not enough to prompt Arjuna into action. As will happen again and again over several more chapters, Arjuna asserts to Krishna that this teaching is not enough, that his mind is still confused, that he needs to hear a better path. Although the reasons provided by Krishna are certainly sufficient for Arjuna to move into battle, they remain empty theories; Arjuna is unable to act. So Krishna persists. In the third chapter, the Yoga of Action, Arjuna is advised to perform the action that has to be done, staying always free from attachment (III:19). Krishna points out that it was by action alone that Janaka, the philosopher-king, attained perfection and tells Arjuna that he should act, attending to the holding together of the world (loka-samgraha) (III:20). Bringing to mind the Sāµkhya system, he reiterates that actions are done by the guṇas of prakṛti alone; it is only the deluded one who thinks “I am the doer” (III:27). By knowing that all this is only the guṇas, one becomes free from attachment. When asked by Arjuna why a man is impelled to do evil, Krishna responds that desire and anger, born of passion (rajas), conceal true knowledge and fuel the senses. Only by subduing the senses and controlling the mind can desire be overcome.

In a discourse on the Yoga of Renunciation of Action in Knowledge in the fourth chapter, Krishna provides yet another teaching. He explains that one must see action in inaction and inaction in action; only then can one be free of compulsive desire. This is accomplished by renouncing the fruit of action (karma-phala-asanga), leading to constant satisfaction and independence. Such a one is said to do nothing, even though engaged in action (IV:20). Sacrifice is cited as the model for proper action; the sacrifice of knowledge (jñāna-yajña) is said to bring the completion of all action (IV:33). In the fifth chapter, the Yoga of Renunciation, Krishna further articulates...
the need for the relinquishment of attachment, saying that the wise ones see a cow, an elephant, a dog, an outcaste, and even a learned and wise Brahmin as the same (V:18). He describes the sage intent on release as one whose senses, mind, and intelligence are controlled, who has overcome desire, fear, and anger; such a one is forever liberated (V:28). The means to achieve this are described in yet another teaching, the Yoga of Meditation. To gain **yoga**, Krishna advises “Abandoning those desires whose origins lie in one’s intention, all of them without exception, and completely restraining the multitude of senses with the mind; little by little he should come to rest, with the intelligence firmly grasped. His mind having been fixed in the self, he should not think of anything” (VI:24–25). Krishna assures Arjuna that even a small amount of practice will be beneficial.

As before, none of these teachings resolves Arjuna’s crisis. Hence, Krishna continues. In the next four chapters, Krishna tells Arjuna of the highest self, attainable through Krishna himself. In the Yoga of Knowledge and Discrimination, Krishna distinguishes between the lower **prakr̥ti**, which is the world of the senses and the mind, and the higher **prakr̥ti**, from which all life emerges. Both are said to have their origin in Krishna, who is the “seed of all beings.” He declares that even those who sacrifice to lesser gods in fact sacrifice to Krishna, but their fruit is of little consequence. “To the gods the god-worshipping go; My worshippers go surely to me” (VII:23). In the Yoga of Imperishable Brahman, Krishna explains **purus̐a** as the support of things, the vision to be attained, “within which all beings stand, by which all this universe is pervaded” (VIII:22). In knowing this, all fruits of action are transcended and peace is attained. In the Yoga of Royal Knowledge and of Royal Mystery, the ninth chapter, Krishna speaks of the **prakr̥ti** that he issues forth. Those who see the higher **prakr̥ti** through sacrifice and devotion make their offerings to Krishna: he is witness, the final shelter; the origin, dissolution, and foundation; immortality; existence and nonexistence; the enjoyer of all sacrifices. In chapter 10, the Yoga of Manifestation, Krishna explains the nature of his compassion: by appearing as so many gods, sages, trees, horses, weapons, demons, mantras, warriors, rivers, victories, Vedic hymns, and more, he has proven to be the manifestation of all that is worthy of worship, all that inspires ascension to the true self. At the end, he declares, “I support this entire universe constantly with a single fraction of Myself” (X:42).

Finally, after so much preparation and so many discourses, Arjuna asks Krishna in chapter 11 to reveal the form that is described as Lord and Highest Self. He asks for a direct experience, a showing (**dars̐a**): “If Thou thinkest it possible for me to see this, O Lord, Prince of Yoga, then to me cause to be seen Thyself, the Imperish-able” (XI:4). In response, Krishna reveals to Arjuna the vision that he has requested. “If there should be in the sky a thousand suns risen all at once, such splendor would be of the splendor of that Great Being” (XI:12). The vision is without beginning or end; all worlds are pervaded by it. The gods stand in amazement, singing praise. Into Krishna’s many mouths, studded with terrible tusks “glowing like the fires of universal destruction,” are cast all the players on the battlefield: the sons of Dhr̥tarṣas⁴ta,” the sage Bhūṣma, the teacher Drona, and all the others. Having revealed what time will bring, Krishna tells Arjuna to stand up, to conquer his enemies. “By Me these have already been struck down; be the mere instrument” (XI:33). Overwhelmed
by Krishna’s powers, Arjuna praises him as the first of gods, the primal purus, a, the knower and what is to be known. After expressing homage and obeisance, he asks Krishna to return to his human form, and the dialogue once more resumes, but with a difference.

Arjuna has now had direct experience of what has been so lavishly praised and described by Krishna. The true self is no longer a theoretical abstraction but has been revealed in embodied form. From chapters 12 through 18, Arjuna no longer implores Krishna for definite answers about what he should or should not do. Rather than focusing on his own selfish concerns, Arjuna asks for further explanations on the nature of the devotion by which he has been given his vision. He asks Krishna to talk more about the difference between purus, a, the knower of the field, and prakrti, the field of change. He asks more about the three gunas and how they function within prakrti; he finds out how the yogins see the highest self through the eye of wisdom. Krishna elucidates the distinction between liberating and binding conditions and then, in the concluding chapter, explains the Yoga of Freedom by Renunciation. The contents of the chapter reflect concerns that Krishna has addressed consistently since the second chapter: sacrifice of the fruits of action, the distinctions of the gunas, the cultivation of equanimity, the importance of non-doership.

The pivotal verse of the last chapter, indicating that Krishna’s task as teacher has been completed, is as follows: “Thus to thee by Me has been expounded the knowledge that is more secret than secret. Having reflected on this fully, do as thou desirest” (XVIII:63). Until this point, even after receiving the vision of totality, Arjuna has regarded Krishna as his teacher and relied utterly on him for guidance and instruction. Krishna’s command “Do as thou desirest!” signals that Arjuna’s knowledge has now been fully embodied, that he has reached the point where he can in full conscience act without hesitation. His decisions become his own. Arjuna’s final statement, notable for its first resolve in contrast to his lack of nerve in the first chapter, is this: “Delusion is lost and wisdom gained, through Thy grace, by me, Unchanging One. I stand with doubt dispelled. I shall do as Thy command” (XVIII:73). Arjuna, at the conclusion of the Gita, is free to act.

In our brief overview of the Bhagavad Gita, we have encountered a multiplicity of teaching. Arjuna stated his anguish in chapter 1 and, for the next nine chapters, received plausible advice from Krishna. Considered separately, it might even seem that any one of the nine yogas prescribed in those chapters by Krishna would be sufficient for Arjuna to solve his dilemma. However, all these yogas as well as everything else are ultimately negated by the vision of the True Self provided in chapter 11. In the final chapters, these teachings, and in fact the world itself, are resurrected in service of an enlightened way of detached action.

The unfolding of the Gita may be summarized in four movements: the crisis of Arjuna in chapter 1, his instruction by Krishna in chapters 2 through 10, the revelation of chapter 11, and then continued instruction in chapters 12 through 18. It might be supposed that the enlightenment experience of chapter 11 would be for Arjuna an eschatological event, that his vision of Krishna as Lord would utterly transform his relationship with the world, thus putting an end to any need for further teaching. But this is simply not the case: the vision is followed by further affirmation of what
Krishna has taught, a sequence of chapters “which show the ‘rehabilitation’ process of a man who has seen the emptiness beyond his own old structures of meaning and does not know yet how to proceed in the interpretation of the new” (de Nicolás, 273). Furthermore, if we look at the larger story of Arjuna as it unfolds in the great epic, even the autonomy that Arjuna achieves in chapter 18 does not help him when he attempts to enter heaven; the lessons of the Čhīr-tā must be repeated again and again, as new circumstances, new worlds, arise and fall.

Herein lies one of the special contributions of the Bhagavad Čhīr-tā: the religious vision, like the Hindu conception of life itself, is a forever repeating experience. The instruction Arjuna received before his enlightening vision remains essential following this experience, and is also deemed helpful for all who heed it. This is illustrated in the final verse of the text, in which Samjaya poetically proclaims: “Wherever there is Krishna, Lord of Yoga, wherever there is the Son of Prthvī, the archer (Arjuna), there, there will surely be splendor, victory, wealth, and righteousness; this is my thought” (XVIII:78).

Theologically, the approach presented in the Čhīr-tā differs from generally accepted notions about mokṣa as requiring the renunciation of the world and of sāmādhi as trance-like obliteration of all things and thoughts. The Čhīr-tā presents a view of religious practice at variance with the classical tradition as found in the Dharmasāstra, a view that Madeleine Biardeau attributes to a more open conception of liberation characteristic of the later sections of the Mahābhārata. She writes that this new approach gave every svadharma (one’s own duty) religious content and an access to ultimate salvation. The Brahmanic model was not lost sight of, but was generalized so as to fit all other categories of Hindu society, including Sudras, women, and all impure castes. Once the ksatriya gained access to salvation through his . . . activities, the generalization became easy. . . . Nothing was outside the realm of ultimate values, though at the same time the status of the Brahmans remains unimpaired.(77)

As Biardeau points out, it is no longer one path, the path leading from studentship to householding to renunciation to blessedness that enables one to lead a full religious life. In the model presented by the Bhagavad Čhīr-tā, every aspect of life is in fact a way of salvation. Krishna tells Arjuna of innumerable ways to achieve peace of mind, to resolve his dilemma, and it is clear that the answers are provided not only for Arjuna but are paradigmatic for people of virtually any walk of life. The Čhīr-tā becomes a text appropriate to all persons of all castes or no caste; its message transcends the limits of classical Hinduism.

It is interesting to note that just as Krishna presented many perspectives to Arjuna, so have many scholars, both traditional and modern, held many perspectives on the Bhagavad Čhīr-tā. Robert N. Minor, whose own position is that “the Čhīr-tā proclaims as its highest message the lordship of Kṛṣṇa and the highest response of the human being to that lordship is devotion, bhakti” (xvi), notes several different usages of the text. For Samkara (AD 788–820), the message is the “end of the world and its accompanying activity.” Madhusudana and Venkatārāṇa, while not rejecting Samkara’s view, place more emphasis on devotion, as does Jñānesvāra, the Marathi commentator. Bhāskara
takes issue with Samkara’s interpretation, asserting that the world is a real aspect of Brahman. Ramanuja used the Gita in support of his position that “the true self is not divine and not one with the other selves.” Nimbarka, a twelfth-century thinker, prompted interpretations that see Krishna as teaching “innate nonidentity in identity.” Madhva (1238–1317), the famous dualist, “radically reinterprets the text so that it asserts an eternal and complete distinction between the Supreme, the many souls, and matter and its divisions.” Minor also cites modern interpretations by Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Mohandas K. Gandhi, who used the text to help inspire the independence movement, and Sri Aurobindo, Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan, and Swami Vivekananda, who took a syncretistic approach to the text (xvi–xix).

Few of the scholars cited here seem to agree on the meaning of the text, yet none of them can be said to be incorrect. It may be argued that this utter contextualization of the text causes it to fall into a fatal relativism; that the text, because it is open to so many interpretations and has been used to confirm opposing positions ranging from Samkara’s monism to Madhva’s dualism, is trivial and perhaps meaningless. But how, then, could such a text survive? How can one account for or even describe a text that includes and is used to support a virtual cacophony of traditions and positions? Setting aside even the interpretations of the aforementioned later commentators, how can the explicitly nontheistic Samskaya appear alongside with the thoroughly theistic bhakti approach also taught by Krishna?

Max Mueller addressed a similar issue when trying to cope with the multiplicity of gods in the Rig Veda and invented a term to describe it:

To identify Indra, Agni, and Varuna is one thing, it is syncretism; to address either Indra or Agni or Varuna, as for the time being the only god in existence with an entire forgetfulness of all other gods, is quite another; it was this phase, so fully developed in the hymns of the Veda which I wished to mark definitely by a name of its own, calling it henotheism. (40)

The Vedic method which extols different gods within the same text is similar to that employed in the Bhagavad Gita, in which each time Arjuna asks Krishna for one truth, again and again Krishna offers Arjuna yet another perspective, another chapter, another yoga. Each view, whether that of a god being sacrificed to or a yogic discipline being practiced, is given life as long as it proves effective. Multiplicity is the rule, with one god, one perspective gaining and holding ascendency as long as it, he, or she proves efficacious. That one is then swept from its elevated position as new situations, new questions emerge: and yet, if pressed, a Hindu will always admit, of course, Indra is best; of course, Agni is best; of course, Varuna is best; of course, Karma Yoga is best; of course, Bhakti Yoga is best.

Paul Hacker has referred to the accommodation of multiple teachings within one tradition as “inclusivism.” Antonio T. de Nicolás has explained this phenomenon philosophically as

a systematic and methodic effort to save rationality in its plural manifestations through an activity of embodiment that emancipates man from any form of
identification, allowing him the freedom to act efficiently in any one identifiable field in the social fabric. (164)

Just as the many gods of the Vedas are effective in different situations, so the many yo-gas are prescribed in the Gı¯ t¯a without compromising or subordinating one to another. Mutual paths are allowed to exist in complementarity.

In a sense, the Gı¯ t¯a is composed in the spirit of the Jaina approach to truth. The Jainas assert that every statement is an utterance of partial truth; all postulation is rendered senseless by the ultimate postulate that no words are ever totally adequate to experience (avaktavya eva). Similarly, Krishna painstakingly guides Arjuna through many yogas, yet, the entire problematic is obliterated when Krishna reveals his true form to Arjuna. All the words, all the individual personalities and collective armies are swallowed up by the gaping mouth of Krishna, the origin and dissolution of all things. The net result is that all possibilities are present for Arjuna when he gains the knowledge that all are impermanent.

The Bhagavad Gı¯ t¯a sets forth a multiplicity of possible paths. A panoply of perspectives is offered to the reader in a nonjudgmental way; the many positions proposed by Krishna do not necessarily compete with one another but rather complete one another. If one needs to act, one uses Karma Yoga; if one needs to meditate, one uses Dhy¯ana Yoga. This “henocretic” text is written with a gentle tolerance, allowing various practices and positions to be pursued.

In a manner true to the construction of the text itself, the present rendition by Winthrop Sargeant does the least violence to the original of all the translations of the Gı¯ t¯a with which I am familiar. He shows the reader the possibilities offered by the text, setting out in menu form variant English-language samplings for each of the Sanskrit terms. His work makes a unique contribution, inviting the reader to sample the translation he serves up, but also inviting the reader to experiment with creating his or her own delicacy.

USER’S GUIDE FOR THE WORD-BY-WORD ANALYSIS OF THE BHAGAVAD GITA

Reaching into another culture, whether the ancient phase of one’s own people or the heritage of ancestors other than one’s own, requires a spirit of adventure and inquiry. Texts, whether the Bible or the Confucian Analects or the Bhagavad Gı¯ t¯a, often serve as the portal or entry point for engaging and comprehending a worldview. However, any attempt to understand a text carries the risk of missing the mark. To know the meanings of the words of any book does not guarantee understanding of authorial in-tent or how others following the author have interpreted the text. As we reach back in history the context can easily shift. For religious texts even one simple turn of phrase can generate multiple redactions.

The Bhagavad Gı¯ t¯a, as noted in the translator’s preface to this book, has given rise to nearly countless interpretations, from A. C. Bhaktivedanta Swami Prabhupada’s assertion of the primacy of Lord Krishna rooted in the Dvaita theology of Madhva to Antonio T.
de Nicolás’s perspectival reading of the text based on the existential insights of Spanish philosopher Jose Ortega y Gasset. For Mahatma Gandhi, the text designed to gird the warrior Arjuna for battle became an inspiration for India’s nonviolent revolution. Reader, take your place, perhaps take sides, and take heart that this book can serve many people in many ways.

Sargeant situates the place of the Gī ṭa within the context of Sanskrit literary history, indicating its use of participles, finite conjugated verbs, rules of euphonic or sound combination (sam dhi), and the complex systems of noun endings (declensions) and compounds (pages 3–8). In the very first edition of this book, Sargeant provided a simple word equivalent for each Sanskrit term with some identification of the grammatical part of speech. In the editions of 1984 and 1994, I provided a deeper analysis of each term, locating its verbal root origin where possible. I also expanded the range of possible meanings for each word, following a convention also observed in translating Patañjali’s Yoga Sūtra (see my Yoga and the Luminous, 143–215). This approach gives the reader the toolbox of approaches available to the translator and provides an opportunity for the reader to develop his or her own rendering of the text within a range of reasonable possibilities.

Each translator brings a distinct methodology to the task. One of my favorite translations of the Bhagavad Gī ṭa is perhaps also the most inscrutable. Franklin Edgerton not only translates every single term, including the now widely accepted and understood terms karma and dharma, but he also retained Sanskrit word order, stretching the English language into amazing contortions that rival the most advanced yoga poses. Christopher Isherwood and Swami Prabhavananda alternate between prose and verse renderings, utterly at variance with the original cadence and word order. George Thompson surmises that the text was primarily recited or sung and chooses a simplified word flow that sounds melodious and clear in the English language. My own training in classical yoga included the memorization of the 1943 Gita Press translation of the second chapter of the Gī ṭa, replete with such neologisms as “car-warriors” for what Thompson renders “great chariot warriors” (35) and “self-controlled practicant” for what Patton renders as “that person whose thought is placid” (65). In an attempt to capture a hint of the cadence of the original lokas construction, a lilting, symmetrical play of four sets of eight syllables in each verse, Laurie Patton stretches each verse into eight lines.

As one example of choices made by three translators, we will consider verse II:49. This verse includes a key technical term employed in the original, buddhi-yoga, indicating the importance of the first emanation of prakṛti (the creative matrix), which is the buddhi. Buddhi, related to the word Buddha or Awakened One, is often translated as the “intellect.” In Sāṁkhya philosophy, the buddhi also carries the residues of all past karma in the form of enduring inclinations or the state of being known as the bhāvas. It determines the state or mood into which one awakens. In Sāṁkhya, as in the second chapter of the Gī ṭa, the modality of knowledge (jñāna) within the buddhi guarantees freedom.

Sargeant renders this verse:

Action is inferior by far
To the Yoga of intuitive determination,
Conqueror of Wealth (Arjuna).
Seek refuge in intuitive determination!
Despicable are those whose motives
are based on the fruit of action.

Sargeant attempts to retain vestiges of the 'lokas form by dividing the verse into four lines. He also retains the epithet for Arjuna while also making clear to the reader that Krishna is addressing Arjuna, who has many nicknames.
Thompson does not attempt to retain the versification in a literal sense, but divides his translation into three discrete sentences:

Arjuna, action is far inferior to the yoga of insight. Seek refuge in insight. Those whose goal is the fruits of their actions wind up miserable.

Thompson, for the sake of clarity, eliminates all of Arjuna’s variant names and makes a very different word choice for the term buddhi.
Patton agrees with the usage of the term insight for buddhi and retains the epithet for Arjuna. She stretches out the versification:

Winner of Wealth,
action is far inferior
to the yoga of insight.
Look for refuge
in insight;
for those who are
motivated by fruits
are to be pitied.

Her choice of the term pitied stays closer to the original than either despicable or miserable. From all three translations, we get the sense that thinking or reflection is better than acting on one’s first impulse for the sake of greed or desire or selfishness.

If we turn to the Sanskrit analysis, the original grouping of the terms can be clearly discerned:

du¨ren,a hyavaram karma
buddhiyog"ad dhanam jaya
buddhau saranam anviccha
kr,pan,"ah, phalhetavah,

As previously noted, the buddhi holds the history of one’s past actions. Without using insight or intuitive determination, one might plunge headlong into the performance of actions motivated solely by yearning for its fruits (phalhetu) rather than taking into account the larger picture. By seeing the prominence of the term buddhi at the start of the second and third lines, and by feeling the impact of the imperative verbs “seek! wish for! desire!” at the end of the second line, scrutiny of the Sanskrit can help deepen the understanding.
of the reader. Additionally, the reader can see the framing of ideas contained within
the verse. The opening and closing lines refer to the problem to be overcome:
attachment to the fruits of action. The middle two lines exhort the reader to recognize
the solution: applying and taking refuge in a disciplined (yoga) intellect (buddhi).

Through a careful and creative scanning of the Sanskrit terms provided by
Sargeant, variants of key terms such as yoga, karma, and jñ¯ ana will be easily
discerned. These include yoked (yukta), origin or cause of action (k¯ aran), and
knower (jn¯ a). The lilt, appeal, and genius of the Gī¯ t¯ a’s composer lie in the
gentle word play of the text. By examining the text repeatedly at a leisurely pace, one
can gain a friendly familiarity with this classic of world religious literature.

Mahatma Gandhi, according to his secretary Narayan Desai, committed to mem-
ory and recited daily the last nineteen verses of the second chapter, using them as a
companion in his quest for social justice (lecture presented at Loyola Marymount
University, October 9, 2008). Similarly, one might develop a favorite section of the
text for deeper study and reflection.

To fully utilize the tools set forth in this edition, the reader might want to apply the
following steps:

Sound out the words from the transliterated Sanskrit, following the pronun-
ciation guide on pages 5–8.

Make note of words that seem familiar, such as prakr, ti, purus, a, duh, kha, 
karma, dharma, yoga, jñ¯ ana, and so forth.

Scan the English paraphrase directly beneath the Sanskrit text, taking notice of
words that seem important or intriguing. The paraphrase follows the San-
skrit word order.

Consult the detailed assessment in the right-hand column for words of inter-
est. Over the course of several verses, some of the words will repeat and
become familiar.

Read with greater understanding the Sargeant translation. Pay attention to
his final word choice in light of various options. For instance, the word vega in
VI:23 can be translated as “agitation, impetus, shock, momentum, onset, or-
gasm.” Sargeant chooses the word agitation for his translation. Patton chooses
shock. The Gita Press version selects the word urges. De Nicolás translates
vega as force, while van Buitenen uses driving force. Which do you prefer?

Go a step further. Can you find the word vega in your own experience?
Which emotion do you find lying behind or associated with desire and an-
ger? Use this technique with other passages.

Find a verse or set of verses that hold your interest or attention. Scan the
words as suggested here. Compare Sargeant’s translation with one or two
others. Use the word analysis section in Sargeant’s translation to understand
the word choices made by the other translator(s). Decide upon your own
preference.

Develop a collection of verses from the Bhagavad Gī¯ t¯ a that you find
particu-larly important. Use the ample white space on each page to copy
alternate translations and to develop your own translation and commentary.

Search out a study group on the Bhagavad Gī¯ t¯ a. Consider enrolling in a
Sanskrit language class at a nearby college, university, or yoga center.
Winthrop Sargeant (1903–1986) served for many decades as the premier music writer for *The New Yorker*. His personal fascination with Indian philosophy, not related in any way to his livelihood, resulted in this labor of love. Sargeant’s *Gītā* was created by a nonspecialist for all persons interested in this classic book. Tens of thousands of people throughout the world have benefited from his careful rendering and analysis of the text. Through his efforts, the elite and arcane world of complex Sanskrit grammar has been made accessible to a wide audience. A classic work of world literature has found new expression, with tools to facilitate greater understanding. By reaching deeply into this text, we extend ourselves back through history into an appreciation of the path trod by our civilizational ancestors in India and perhaps into a deeper sense of self-understanding.

It has been an honor working with this edition of the book. My sole contribution has been editing the grammatical analysis for consistency and completeness; any errors or omissions that occur are my own.

Christopher Key Chapple  
Doshi Professor of Indic and Comparative Theology  
Loyola Marymount University