1. The Concept of Human Nature (मानव स्वरूप)

- Self-Knowledge as the Core: The sources suggest that "self-knowledge" (स्वयं का बोध) is the key to understanding everything. The Atharvaveda implies that "knowing oneself" or "self-reflection" is how one knows all.
- Self-Conscious Being: Humans are distinct from animals due to their self-consciousness (आत्म-चेतना). While animals are merely 'conscious' and react passively to their environment, humans possess a conscious control over themselves and their surroundings. This self-consciousness creates the duality of "I" (मैं) and "You" (त्र). Understanding the "You" (the entire animate and inanimate world) helps in shaping and clarifying the "I".

• Material vs. Self-Conscious Existence:

- o If one perceives oneself merely as a material entity (भौतिक सत्ता), behaviour will be limited to physical desires and sensory gratification, with pleasure (प्रेयस) becoming the ultimate value. This is often called crude hedonism (स्थूल सुखवाद), prioritising physical over intellectual or mental pleasure, and immediate pleasure over future gratification.
- o Conversely, if one accepts oneself as a **self-conscious entity** (आत्म-चेतन सत्ता), one transcends the limitations of the body

and senses, seeking what is beneficial for all (श्रेयस). श्रेयस is linked to one's resolve and originates from the self-conscious intellect, making objects desirable and binding. Such an individual seeks complete freedom, guided by intellect (बुद्धि) rather than sensory feelings, finding meaning in that.

- Traditional View of the Soul (आत्मा): Traditionally, the "self" or "I" has been understood as the Soul (आत्मा), which possesses the ability to control its circumstances. Idealist thinkers consider the soul to be the fundamental essence of human nature, which is conscious and self-luminous, illuminating the entire world.
- Modern Objections to the Soul: In the modern era, many thinkers object to the idea of a pre-determined, autonomous soul, arguing that social and psychological factors contribute to the formation of human nature. They believe that human nature is not pre-ordained or transcendent of space and time, but is instead influenced by external factors.
- Complexity and Multi-dimensionality: Human nature is exceedingly complex and cannot be easily predicted or explained based on cause-and-effect relationships like scientific facts. It is a complex totality (जटिल पूर्णत्व) formed by the interaction of numerous elements.

- **Key Dimensions of Human Nature**: The sources identify eight fundamental and universal dimensions of human nature:
 - 1. **Progressive nature (प्रगतिशील प्रकृति**): Reflects continuous development and cognitive growth.
 - 2. Social nature (सामाजिक प्रकृति): The natural need to form social organisations and be a member.
 - 3. **Hedonistic nature** (सुखवादी प्रकृति): The pursuit of happiness.
 - 4. Nature of desire (काम की प्रकृति): A fundamental bodily need, influencing how individuals behave and adapt to their environment.
 - 5. Economic nature (आर्थिक प्रकृति).
 - 6. **Self-preservation** (आत्म-संरक्षण की प्रकृति): The nature of preserving one's self.
 - 7. Competitive nature (प्रतियोगिता की प्रकृति): Leads individuals to control profitable resources.
 - 8. Individual personality (एक व्यक्तित्व). These dimensions are considered fundamental and universal, influencing the nature of every individual across different times, places, and cultures.
- Materialistic Explanation of Human Nature: This view sees human nature as the result of a long evolutionary process, rooted in

the development of the central nervous system, from primitive organisms to the modern human brain. Early humans were limited to bodily needs, similar to animals, lacking language to express emotions. Through development, humans could change nature and their own nature. This perspective attempts to explain human nature based on its physical form and circumstances, rejecting the idea of understanding humans in terms of any transcendental, experiential entity as flawed.

- Idealistic/Spiritualistic Views (Indian Philosophies):
 - Upanishads: Knowledge of Brahman (the power enabling karmendriyas and gyanendriyas to function) is difficult for the intellect to grasp, as the intellect itself originates from it.
 - chhandogya Upanishad's States: Human nature is explored through waking, dream, and deep sleep states. The ultimate reality (Atman) transcends these states, being self-luminous, eternal, pure, and free, the substratum of all existence.
 - Mandukya Upanishad: Describes waking state (Vishva) as external consciousness focused on sensory experiences, dream state (Taijas) as internal consciousness creating imaginary objects, and deep sleep state (Prajna) as transcending dualities, characterised by absence of pain or desire. The Turiya state (transcending all three) is mentioned

- as a positive experience of bliss, unlike the mere negative absence of pain in deep sleep.
- Kathopanishad's Chariot Analogy: Compares the body to a chariot, senses to horses, mind to reins, intellect to the charioteer, and the "I" (ego) to the enjoyer, but the true owner is the one riding the chariot (the self).
- Nyaya and Vaisheshika: These schools discuss human nature through various categories (16 in Nyaya, 7 in Vaisheshika) to achieve liberation from suffering.
- Mimamsa: Believes consciousness is an acquired quality of the soul, appearing when the soul connects with the mind and body. It sees the soul as a knower, not an object of knowledge.
- Samkhya: Distinguishes Purusha (pure consciousness, the seer, unaffected by actions) from Prakriti (matter, responsible for mind, intellect, senses, body). Purusha is the basis of knowledge and the witness of all states.
- Advaita Vedanta: Aligns with Upanishadic principles, positing Atman as the sole reality, identical with Brahman. The individual soul (Jiva) appears to be a doer/enjoyer due to limitations (Upadhis), but Atman itself is self-luminous, eternally pure, enlightened, and free. Sensory pleasures are

- merely a shadow of true bliss, which is found by turning inward.
- o Charvaka: A materialistic philosophy that identifies human nature solely with the **body** (शरीरात्मवाद), stating that consciousness is merely a product of the four elements (earth, water, fire, air) that constitute the body and senses. They accept only direct perception as valid proof and thus reject a universal soul. For them, pleasure derived from the body and senses is the ultimate good.
- Jainism: Rejects the Charvaka view, affirming the distinct existence of both body and soul. The soul's existence is proven by qualities like consciousness, happiness, and memory.
- Buddhism: Advocates Anatmavada (no-self doctrine), rejecting a permanent, unchanging soul. Instead, a person is seen as a collection of five aggregates (skandhas): form, sensation, perception, mental formations, and consciousness, all of which are momentary and constantly changing. Buddha focused on alleviating suffering rather than metaphysical speculation.
- o **Interdependence** (परस्पर-तंत्रता): The fundamental understanding of human nature and existence is that of

interdependence, meaning neither dependence nor independence, but an inherent connection among all beings.

2. Values (मूल्य) and Ethics (नीतिशास्त्र)

- **Definition of Value**: The term 'value' (মূখে) in Hindi comes from the Sanskrit root 'ম্ল' (mul), meaning 'to establish' or 'foundation'. It refers to qualities or mental states that satisfy human needs, desires, or wishes. Values are principles of conduct that uphold social ideals and individual excellence. They are indispensable for a meaningful life.
- Human vs. Animal Values: The sources explicitly state that there are "human values" but no "animal values". This is because humans, unlike animals, possess knowledge (বান) that distinguishes them. While animals also possess some form of knowledge, human knowledge is superior and allows for the establishment of values. Values are a collection of conductoriented principles based on knowledge.

Types of Values:

o Instrumental Values (साधन मूल्य): These are things that are good not in themselves but as means to achieve something else (e.g., food, clothing, housing, wealth). They are also called extrinsic values (परतः मूल्य) or physical/economic values (शारीरिक/आर्थिक मूल्य).

- o Intrinsic Values (साध्य मूल्य): These are mental states that are good in themselves and are desirable without further consequence (e.g., philosophical knowledge/contemplation for Plato/Aristotle, happiness/pleasure for Bentham/Mill, good will for Kant, beauty, mutual friendship). They are also called inherent values (स्वतः मूल्य). Indian thinkers consider Truth, Goodness, and Beauty (सत्यम्, शिवम्, सुन्दरम्) as intrinsic values.
- Purusharthas (पुरुषार्थ): The four aims of human life in Indian tradition:
 - 1. **Dharma** (धर्म): Righteous conduct, adherence to duty, moral and ethical living. It's the foundation for action, balancing life, and guiding towards liberation. It involves self-control, truth, non-violence, purity, generosity, penance, continence, forgiveness, knowledge, and patience.
 - 2. Artha (अर्थ): Wealth and material prosperity. It's considered essential for fulfilling duties and achieving religious acts, seen as the root of the world. However, wealth acquired through unrighteous means or used against Dharma is condemned.
 - 3. **Kama** (काम): Desire, pleasure, and emotional fulfillment. It refers to the satisfaction of desires, including procreation.

- 4. Moksha (मोक्ष): Liberation or freedom from the cycle of birth and rebirth. It is the ultimate spiritual goal, achieved through spiritual and religious living, leading to the unity of Atman and Paramatman, and ultimate bliss. *Dharma, Artha, and Kama are known as Trivarga (त्रिवर्ग), and together with Moksha, they form Chaturvarga (चतुर्वर्ग).
- Varna-Ashrama System: This system organised society and individual life stages:
 - o Varnas (वर्ण): Social classes based on occupation or chosen profession.
 - Brahmin (ब्राह्मण): Highest status, involved in studying/teaching Vedas, performing/officiating sacrifices, giving/receiving charity. They were spiritual and intellectual guides.
 - **Kshatriya** (क्षत्रिय): Warriors and rulers, responsible for protection and governance.
 - Vaishya (वैश्य): Merchants and farmers, responsible for economy.
 - Shudra (মুব্র): Servants, labourers, artisans, engaged in various crafts and services. They had rights to study non-Vedic knowledge and perform donation-based rituals.

- o Ashramas (आश्रम): Four stages of life:
 - Brahmacharya (ब्रह्मचर्य): Student life (typically 12 years from Upanayana to 25 years old). Focused on education, discipline, continence, and service to Guru.
 - Grihastha (गृहस्प): Householder life (married life).
 Fulfilled social duties, debts to gods, sages, and ancestors, and performed five great sacrifices.
 Considered the most important Ashrama.
 - Vanaprastha (বান্যংখ): Forest dweller, retirement.

 Focus on spiritual elevation, detachment from material desires, and austerities.
 - Sanyasa (संन्यास): Renunciation, complete detachment for ultimate liberation (Moksha).

• Western Ethical Theories:

- o Ethical Egoism (नैतिक स्वार्थवाद): Actions are right if they benefit the individual, even if it involves helping others for one's own gain. This is distinct from Psychological Egoism (मनोवैज्ञानिक स्वार्थवाद), which claims humans are inherently selfish.
- Hedonism (सुखाद): Pleasure is the sole intrinsic good.
 Happiness is seen as the absence of physical pain and mental suffering.

- Utilitarianism (उपयोगितावाद): Actions are right if they promote the greatest happiness for the greatest number.
 Jeremy Bentham emphasised the quantity of pleasure (hedonic calculus). John Stuart Mill developed this, also focusing on quality of pleasure.
- o Perfectionism (पूर्णतावाद) or Self-Perfectionism
 (आत्मपूर्णतावाद): Focuses on the development of human potential and virtues, harmonising desires with intellect.
- Kantian Ethics (Duty-based): Rejects consequences as the basis of morality, emphasising duty (कर्तव्य) and good will (शुभ संकल्प) as intrinsically good, universally applicable, and independent of circumstance or desire.
- essence," meaning humans define their own nature through choices and actions, without a pre-determined essence. It rejects both idealist (Hegelian) and materialistic views that subordinate individual freedom to universal principles or mechanical systems.

3. Moral Decline (मूल्य ह्रास) and its Remedies (निदान)

• Causes of Moral Decline: Moral decline is understood as a decline of Dharma (धर्म की ग्लानि). It is not merely a modern phenomenon but a permanent part of the cosmic cycle, similar to

the fading of light leading to darkness. The Mahabharata extensively describes this decline. The root of immorality is the **absence of Dharma** (धर्म का अभाव). Ignorance (अज्ञान) is a major cause of delusion (मोह) and attachment.

- Thirteen Major Vices (प्रमुख दोष): According to Bhishma in the Mahabharata's Shanti Parva, these are powerful enemies of living beings, leading to suffering and evil deeds:
 - 1. Anger (ক্লাই): Born from greed (লী) and fuelled by observing others' faults. Remedy: Forgiveness (क्षिमा), which brings peace and uproots anger. Forgiveness arises from compassion (ক্ষণা) for the ignorant.
 - 2. **Lust** (**काम**): Excessive desire leading to indulgence and downfall. If uncontrolled, it leads to suffering.
 - 3. **Sorrow** (शोक): Arises from separation from loved ones. Remedy: Realising the futility and impermanence of sorrow.
 - 4. **Delusion** (**मोह**): Born from ignorance (अज्ञान) and strengthened by sinful practices. Remedy: Association with the wise (विद्वान) and **Tattva Jnana** (**तत्त्वज्ञान**), which destroys ignorance and enables seeing things as they truly are.

- 5. Indecision/Doubt (विधित्सा): Arises from conflicting scriptures or advice. Remedy: Tattva Jnana (तत्त्वज्ञान) gained through adherence to Dharma.
- 6. Malice/Animosity (पारासुता / पर असूया): Originates from anger, greed, and habit. Remedy: Compassion (दया) towards all beings and detachment (वैराग्य).
- 7. **Arrogance/Intoxication (甲戌)**: Arises from pride in one's family, knowledge, or wealth. Remedy: True knowledge of their impermanent and external nature, realising they are gifts of Prakriti or Maya.
- 8. **Greed** (लोभ): Observed in all beings, stemming from ignorance. Remedy: Understanding the transient nature of enjoyments.
- 9. **Envy** (**मात्सर्य**): Arises from abandoning truth and associating with evil. Remedy: Association with noble people (साधु-संतों की संगत).
- 10. **Censorship/Blaming** (**The Second Problem 1**): The habit of finding fault in others, especially those from outside one's social circle. Remedy: Associating with noble people, which helps to abandon this habit.

- 11. **Jealousy/Malice** (**উন্ন্যা**): Intense malice towards those who have harmed one but are beyond revenge. Remedy:

 Development of **compassion** (**কংणা**), realising all are suffering.
- 12. Fault-finding (दोष-दृष्टि).
- 13. Meanness/Cowardice (दैन्य).
- Path to Transformation (रूपांतरण का मार्ग):
 - o Knowledge (ज्ञान मार्ग): Both Indian and Western philosophies agree that ignorance is the root of character flaws. Knowledge provides the clarity to distinguish right from wrong. Philosophers like Socrates, Plato, and the Stoics emphasised the pursuit of knowledge and wisdom to overcome vices and achieve virtue.
 - Devotion/Love (भिक्ति / प्रेम मार्ग): St. Augustine and St.

 Thomas Aquinas advocated that the ultimate goal is the attainment of God through love and divine grace. The Indian Bhakti tradition, exemplified by Tulsidas, Rumi, Kabir, Raidas, and Nanak, stresses the importance of love and devotion to God, and the grace of God or Guru, for liberation from the cycle of suffering and self-centeredness. This path prioritises inner purity and compassion.

- o Renunciation (त्याग): Giving up unnecessary possessions and attachments for spiritual freedom.
- Role of Great Personalities: The lives and teachings of Mahapurush (great personalities) serve as practical examples and guides for embodying values and achieving transformation. Their lives demonstrate the practical application of values in action.

4. Major Philosophical Schools and Thinkers

4.1. Indian Philosophical Traditions:

- Vedas and Upanishads: Emphasise self-knowledge (Atman) as the ultimate reality, transcending physical and mental states.
- **Nyaya Darshana**: Focuses on logic and epistemology, outlining 16 categories of existence (including proofs, objects of knowledge, doubt, purpose, etc.) to achieve liberation from suffering and attain true knowledge.
- Vaisheshika Darshana: Describes seven categories of existence (substance, quality, action, generality, particularity, inherence, non-existence) to understand human nature.
- **Mimamsa Darshana**: Regards the soul as an inert substance, and consciousness as an adventitious quality that arises when the soul interacts with the mind.
- Samkhya Darshana: Explains human nature through Purusha (consciousness, the witness) and Prakriti (matter). Purusha is seen

- as pure consciousness, transcending qualities and actions, being the observer of all states (waking, dream, deep sleep).
- Yoga Darshana: Through the Ashtanga Marga (eight-limbed path: Yama, Niyama, Asana, Pranayama, Pratyahara, Dharana, Dhyana, Samadhi), it aims to control mental modifications (Chitta Vritti Nirodha) and attain knowledge of one's true self, leading to freedom from suffering.
- Advaita Vedanta: Proposes non-duality, stating that the individual Atman (soul) is identical with the ultimate reality, Brahman (universal consciousness). The soul is knowledge itself, universal consciousness, eternally pure, enlightened, and free. The illusion of doership or enjoyership is due to bodily limitations.
- Charvaka Darshana: A materialistic school that identifies the human being solely with the conscious body. They accept only direct perception as valid proof and thus reject a universal soul. For them, the purpose of life is sensory pleasure (प्रेयस).
- Jaina Darshana: Acknowledges the distinct existence of both body and soul. It asserts the soul's existence based on qualities like consciousness, happiness, and memory, and rejects the Charvaka idea of body and consciousness unity.
- **Buddhist Darshana**: Focuses on **Anatmavada** (**no-self**), rejecting a permanent, unchanging soul. It views an individual as a composite of five impermanent and changing aggregates (form,

sensation, perception, mental formations, consciousness). The emphasis is on overcoming suffering rather than metaphysical truths.

4.2. Western Philosophical Traditions:

- Ancient Greek Philosophy:
 - Democritus (c. 460-370 BCE): Believed the ultimate goal of life is the attainment of happiness or bliss, achieved through balance and harmony, not wealth.
 - o Socrates (c. 470-399 BCE): Asserted that knowledge (রান) is the highest human action. Virtue (ম্বাবার) and happiness are inseparable, and evil results from ignorance. True knowledge allows distinguishing between truth and untruth.
 - o Plato (c. 428-348 BCE): Human nature is understood through the three parts of the soul: reason (बुद्धि), physical appetites (शारीरिक प्रवृत्तियां), and will/spirit (संकल्प).

 Reason should control appetites and will. He believed in a higher realm of unchanging forms, with the physical world being a fleeting shadow, and the body as a prison for the soul.
 - o Aristotle (c. 384-322 BCE): The highest good for humans is self-realisation (आत्मबोध) and virtue. He distinguished between matter and form, believing that forms exist within

- objects, giving them structure and existence. Human purpose is revealed through one's unique characteristics and role in society.
- Stoics (c. 3rd C BCE 3rd C CE): Emphasised living in harmony with the universal order through reason and inner peace, as creation is purposeful and divinely guided.

Medieval Philosophy:

- St. Augustine (354-430 CE): Shifted the focus from knowledge to the attainment of God through love. Earthly life is a pilgrimage towards God, and love is the highest duty.
- St. Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274 CE): Reiterated that the ultimate goal is knowing God, achieving complete intellectual perfection, which brings bliss. He also emphasised love and divine grace for obtaining virtues.

Modern Philosophy:

- Rationalism (Descartes, Spinoza, Leibniz): Prioritised reason as the primary source of knowledge. Descartes' "I think, therefore I am" is a key example of knowledge derived from pure reason. Spinoza focused on self-preservation as a central drive.
- Empiricism (Locke, Hume, Berkeley): Stressed experience
 as the source of knowledge. John Locke (1632-1704 CE)
 believed pleasure is good and pain is evil, making them

- teachers of morality. **David Hume** (1711-1776 CE) challenged the existence of a permanent, eternal soul, arguing it cannot be known through reason or experience, viewing the self as a collection of momentary perceptions.
- o Immanuel Kant (1724-1804 CE): Sought to synthesize rationalism and empiricism, stating that human knowledge comes from both sensations and reason. He developed a duty-based ethics (कर्तव्यमूलक सिद्धांत), asserting that only a "good will" (शुभ संकल्प) is unconditionally good, regardless of its consequences. Actions are moral if performed purely out of duty and respect for the moral law.
- o Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel (1770-1831 CE): An absolute idealist, who believed that reality is a manifestation of consciousness and that philosophy is a study of the evolution of this consciousness. Marx critiqued Hegel for elevating self-consciousness above real human beings.
- Karl Marx (1818-1883 CE): Rejected idealism, arguing that human nature is shaped by material conditions and social structures. Philosophy, for Marx, is a tool to understand and transform material conditions and social structures, not just to interpret existence.
- Arthur Schopenhauer (1788-1860 CE): Believed that
 suffering arises from the ceaseless "will" or desire. Liberation

- is achieved by suppressing this will, similar to the practices of Christian ascetics and Buddhist monks.
- Existentialism (Sartre): Human existence precedes essence. Individuals are radically free and responsible for creating their own values and meaning in a meaningless world. It criticises previous philosophies for defining human essence beforehand, thereby limiting human freedom.
- Moses' Ten Commandments: These are presented as essential guidelines for ethical living, emphasising the singularity of God, prohibition of idol worship, respectful use of God's name, observance of the Sabbath, honouring parents, and prohibitions against murder, adultery, theft, false witness, and covetousness. They are considered a simple yet profound moral lesson for humanity.

4.3. Great Personalities (महापुरुष) and their Contributions:

- Rumi (1207-1273 CE): A Sufi saint who believed in monism (सर्वात्मवाद) and unity of all religions (सर्वधर्म एकता). His poetry, like "Masnavi" and "Divan-e Shams-e Tabrizi," expresses the oneness of God and humanity, encouraging love, faith, and transcendence of worldly attachments. He emphasised looking inward for love and overcoming self-created obstacles.
- Kabir (1398-1518 CE): A Nirguna (formless God) Bhakti poetsaint. He rejected external rituals, caste discrimination, and

religious sectarianism, promoting the unity and equality of all human beings. He valued **self-experienced knowledge** (स्वानुभूत) over scriptural knowledge and bridged the gap between Hindu and Muslim minds through his message of humanism.

- Raidas (1388-1488 CE): A shoemaker by profession, he fearlessly addressed caste-based discrimination, advocating for human equality and the importance of inner purity over lineage or social status. His simple and heartfelt devotional poetry (in "Barna" and "Guru Granth Sahib") focuses on easy devotion to God and the unity of all humans.
- Guru Nanak (1469-1539 CE): Founder of Sikhism, he dedicated his life to spirituality and community. He believed in inner knowledge but stressed social engagement. His teachings condemned religious hypocrisy and rituals, promoting Nirguna Brahman (formless God) while also appreciating the vastness of Saguna (with form). His works, collected in the Guru Granth Sahib, emphasise the importance of the Guru for gaining knowledge and achieving liberation, promoting collective emancipation.
- Mahatma Gandhi (1869-1948 CE): India's "Father of the Nation," known for his philosophy of Truth (सत्य), Non-violence (अहिंसा), and Satyagraha (civil disobedience). He sought

spiritual power through self-realisation. He believed God is truth and is found through love and non-violence in thought, word, and deed. He opposed untouchability and the caste system, advocating for the upliftment of all. Gandhi stressed self-reliance, village importance, and education for holistic development (physical, mental, spiritual), with mother tongue as the medium.

- Swami Vivekananda (1863-1902 CE): A monastic disciple of Ramakrishna Paramahamsa, who revitalised Indian national consciousness and introduced Vedanta to the West. He inspired youth with messages of self-confidence, courage, and spiritual awakening. He emphasised concentration (又中以刊) through meditation, believing it is the key to developing mental power and overcoming vices. For Vivekananda, education is the manifestation of perfection already within a person, building character and promoting social service. He advocated for women's education, seeing the divine Atman in all.
- Sri Aurobindo (1872-1950 CE): A philosopher and yogi who synthesised Western and Indian thought. His work focused on Integral Yoga, aiming for the transformation of earthly life and the manifestation of the Divine in the material world. He rejected paths of world-denial (like Shankara's Mayavada or Buddha's Shunyata) and instead affirmed that the entire creation is a manifestation of Brahman. His path involves an "ascent" to higher

- consciousness and a "descent" to transform the physical, vital, and mental aspects of being. He saw an evolutionary purpose in creation, from lower to higher forms of consciousness.
- known for his compassion and dedication to serving the poor and sick, particularly lepers. He renounced wealth and worldly pleasures, adopting a life of extreme poverty and celibacy. He loved all creatures and nature, becoming a patron saint of ecology. His life exemplifies complete surrender to God and adherence to simplicity and truthfulness.
- Martin Luther King Jr. (1929-1968 CE): An American civil rights leader deeply influenced by Mahatma Gandhi's principles of non-violence and civil disobedience. He led numerous movements against racial segregation and discrimination in the United States, advocating for equality and justice for African Americans. His "I Have a Dream" speech is a testament to his vision of a society free from racial prejudice.
- Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882 CE): An American

 Transcendentalist thinker, often called the "Sage of Concord". He advocated self-reliance (आत्म-निर्भरता), urging individuals to trust their inner intuition and follow their own voice rather than societal expectations or institutional religion. His philosophy, influenced by Vedanta, emphasised a higher spiritual reality

beyond the observable world, which guides and operates the material universe. He believed in individual progress and the development of one's own culture at home.

