SECTION 1. EXPOSITION OF THE THEORY OF PERCEPTION

A. k. 1. Saluting Him, who is the personification of the means of cognition, who seeks the benefit of [all] living beings, who is the teacher, the sugata, the protector, I shall, for the purpose of establishing the means of valid cognition, compose the [Pramāṇa-]samuccaya, uniting here under one head my theories scattered [in many treatises].1

At2 the beginning of the treatise, here [in this verse], I express praise in honor of the Worshipful [Buddha] in order to produce in [the hearts of] men faith in Him who, because of His perfection in cause (hetu) and effect (phala), is to be regarded as the personification of the means of cognition (pramāna-bhūta).3 There [in the above statement], "cause" means perfection in intention (āśaya) and perfection in practice (prayoga). Perfection in intention means the [Buddha's] taking as His purpose the benefit of [all] living beings (jagad-dhitaisitā). Perfection in practice means [His] being the [true] teacher (śāstrtva) because He teaches all people. "Effect" means the attainment of His own objectives (svârtha) as well as those of others (parârtha). Attainment of His own objectives is [evidenced] by [His] being sugata in the following three senses: 4 (i) that of being praiseworthy (praśastatva), as is a handsome person (surūpa),5 (ii) the sense of being beyond a return [to samsāra] (apunar-āvrtty-artha), as one who is fully cured of a fever (sunașta-jvara), and (iii) the sense of being complete (nihšeșârtha), as is a jar wholly filled (supūrna-ghata). These three senses of His title "sugata"] distinguish the Buddha's attainment of His own objectives from that of non-Buddhists of subdued passions (vīta-rāga), from the attainment of those who are undergoing religious training (saiksa), and from that of those who are no longer in need of religious training (asaikṣa).6 Attainment of the objectives of others is [seen from His] being a protector (tāyitva) in the sense of [His] saving the world.

Saluting the teacher who is endowed with such merits, the author will compose the *Pramāṇasanuccaya* or the Collected Writings on the Means of Cognition by gathering [passages] from the *Nyāyanukha* and other of his treatises? in order to establish the means of valid cognition. The purpose [of the work] is to reject the theories concerning the means of cognition maintained by others and to

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elucidate the virtues in his own theories concerning the means of cognition,⁸ since there are divergent opinions with regard to [the nature, number, object, and result of] the means of cognition,⁹ on which depends the clear understanding of the object to be cognized.¹⁰

B. Now,

k. $2a-b_1$, the means of cognition are [immediate and mediate, namely,] perception (pratyakṣa) and inference (anumāna).¹¹

They are only two,12 because

k. $2b_2-c_1$, the object to be cognized has [only] two aspects.¹³

Apart from the particular (sva-lakṣaṇa) and the universal (sāmānya-lakṣaṇa) there is no other object to be cognized, and we shall prove that perception has only the particular for its object and inference only the universal.¹⁴

What 15 , then, of those [cognitions] which cognize a thing of color, etc., in such an aspect as evanescent, etc., 16 or which repeatedly (asakrt) cognize one and the same object? 17

Certainly there are such cognitions, but

k. $2c_2-d_1$. there is no [need for admitting an] other separate means of cognition for [cognizing] the combination of the [two] above-mentioned [aspects of the object]; ¹⁸

[In the case of the cognition which cognizes a thing of color, etc., as noneternal, firstly,] one cognizes the inexpressible particularity (avyapade\$ya=svalakṣaṇa) and the universal (sāmānya-lakṣaṇa), color-ness (varṇatva). Then, by means of the operation of the mind (manas), one relates [the color-ness] to [the universal,] noneternity (anityatā), and expresses [the resulting cognition in the judgment] "the thing of color, or the like, is noneternal." ¹⁹ Hence [for this kind of cognition] there is no need of any other means of cognition.

 $k.\ 2d_2$ -3a. nor [is there any need for a separate means of cognition] in the case of recognizing (abhijñāna) [an object] again and again; ²⁰

Although there are cognitions which repeatedly cognize one and the same object, [cognitions of that sort require] no [postulate of a] separate means of cognition.²¹ Why?

 $k.~3b_1$. because [if a separate means of cognition were to be accepted as necessary, then] there would occur the fallacy of infinity (anisthā).²²

If every sort of cognizing were [to involve] a [different] means of valid cognition, the means of valid cognition would have to be infinite in number.

 $k. 3b_2$. for instance, [such mental faculties as] recollection (*smṛta*) and the like [would have to be recognized as separate means of valid cognition].²²

The word "smṛta" [in the verse] has the same meaning as "smṛti" (recollection). 23 Such mental faculties as recollection, desire ($icch\bar{a}$), anger (dvesa), etc., since they operate on an object once cognized, are not independent means of valid cognition. So, here [recognition should not be considered as a separate means of valid cognition]. 24

C. Among these [two means of cognition]

k. 3c. perception (pratyakṣa) is free from conceptual construction (kalpanā); 25

The cognition in which there is no conceptual construction is perception. What, then, is this conceptual construction?

k. 3d. the association of name ($n\bar{a}man$), genus ($j\bar{a}ti$), etc. [with a thing perceived, which results in verbal designation of the thing].²⁶

In the case of arbitrary words (yadrechā-sabda, proper nouns), a thing (artha) distinguished by a name (nāman) is expressed by a word [such as] "Dittha." In the case of genus-words (jāti-śabda, common nouns), a thing distinguished by a genus is expressed by a word [such as] "go" (cow). In the case of quality-words (guṇa-śabda, adjectives), a thing distinguished by a quality is expressed by a word [such as] "śukla" (white). In the case of action-words (kriyā-śabda, verbal nouns), a thing distinguished by an action is expressed by a word [such as] "pācaka" (a cook, to cook). In the case of substance-words (dravya-śabda), a thing distinguished by a substance is expressed by a word [such as] "daṇḍin" (a staff-bearer) or "viṣāṇin" (horned, a horn-bearer).27

Here, [with regard to action-words and substance-words,] some maintain that what is expressed [by the words "pācaka," "dandin," etc.] is [a thing] distinguished by a relationship [such as that of an action to its agent, that of a substance to its possessor, and the like].²⁸

On the other hand, some others hold that what is expressed [in all these cases] is a thing qualified only by words which denote no real entity (artha-sūnya-sabda).²⁹

[In any case,] that which is devoid of such conceptual construction is perception.³⁰

Daa-1. For what reason, then, is it [viz., perception] called "pratyakşa"

[literally, belonging to each sense-organ (akṣa)] and not "prativiṣaya" [literally, belonging to each object], despite the fact that it is dependent on both [the sense-organ and the object]?³¹

k. 4ab. it is named after the sense-organs because they are its specific cause (asādhāraṇa-hetu).³²

[It is] not [named] after the object such as color, etc. The reason is that the object is common (sādhāraṇa) [to many cases], for it is a cause of mental cognition (mano-vijīiāna) and perceptions in other persons (anya-samtānika-vijīiāna) [as well as of one's own perception]. We find that a designation is generally by means of a specific [cause]; for example, [we use expressions like] "the sound of a drum" or "a sprout of barley" [to indicate a certain sound or a certain sprout, instead of calling it "the sound of a stick" or "a sprout of the earth," although the stick or the earth is also a cause].³³

Thus, it is established that perception is free from conceptual construction.³⁴

Daa-2. In an Abhidharma treatise, too, the following is stated: ³⁵ "One who has the ability to perceive perceives something blue (nīlam vijānāti), but does not conceive that 'this is blue' (nīlam iti vijānāti)." ³⁶ "In respect to an object, he has the sense of the object itself (artha-samjñin), but does not possess any notion of its name (dharma-samjñin)." ³⁷

Dab. If perception is absolutely devoid of-conceptual construction, then why is it [stated in the Abhidharma treatise] that "the five kinds of sense-cognition take aggregates [of atoms] as their object"? [An aggregate (samcita) of atoms is cognizable only by the conceptual construction which binds together the perceptions of several individual atoms. It seems, therefore, incongruous to hold that perception is free from conceptual construction and yet cognizes an aggregate of atoms.] Again, it is mentioned [in the Abhidharma treatise] that "these [sense-cognitions] take a particular (svalakṣaṇa) as their object insofar as it is the particular in the form of a [cognizable] sphere (āyatana-svalakṣaṇa) and not in the form of a [component] substance [viz., an atom] (dravya-svalakṣaṇa)." ³⁹ How is this to be understood?

k. 4cd. there [in the above-cited Abhidharma passages], that [perception], being caused by [the sense-organ through its contact with] many objects [in aggregation], takes the whole ($s\bar{a}m$ - $\bar{a}nya$) as its sphere of operation in respect to its own object.⁴⁰

Since it [viz., perception] is caused by [the sense-organ through its contact with] many substances [viz., atoms in aggregation], it is said, in respect to its sphere of operation, that it takes the whole as its object; but [the sense is] not [that it operates] by conceptually constructing a unity within that which is many and

separate.⁴¹ [Therefore, the definition that perception is free from conceptual construction is not inconsistent with the statements in the Abhidharma treatises.]

Dac. Further, we hold:42

k. 5. a thing possessing many properties cannot be cognized in all its aspects by the sense. The object of the sense is the form which is to be cognized [simply] as it is and which is inexpressible.⁴³

Thus, in any case, perception caused by the five kinds of sense-organs is devoid of conceptual construction (avikalpaka).

Here our distinguishing [various kinds of perception] is in response to the view of others. However, all [kinds of perception] are indeed free from conceptual construction.⁴⁴

Db. k. 6ab. there is also mental [perception, which is of two kinds:] awareness of an [external] object and self-awareness of [such subordinate mental activities as] desire and the like, [both of which are] free from conceptual construction.⁴⁵

The mental [perception] which, taking a thing of color, etc., for its object, occurs in the form of immediate experience (anubhava) is also free from conceptual construction. 46 The self-awareness (sva-sarivedana) of desire, anger, ignorance, pleasure, pain, etc., is [also recognized as] mental perception because it is not dependent on any sense-organ. 47

Dc. Likewise,

k. 6cd. the yogin's intuition of a thing in itself unassociated (avyatibhima) with the teacher's instruction [is also a type of perception].⁴⁸

The yogin's intuition which is not associated (avyavakīrṇa) with any conceptual construction of the āgama (the authoritative words of the teachers) and which apprehends only a thing in itself is also perception.⁴⁹

Dd. If the self-awareness of desire, etc., is perception, then even the awareness of conceptual construction ($kalpan\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$) should be considered as perception. ⁵⁰ Indeed it is so.

k. 7ab. even conceptual construction, when it is brought to internal awareness, is admitted [as a type of perception]. However, with regard to the [external] object, [the conceptual construction is] not [admissible as perception], because it conceptualizes [the object].⁵¹

When it [viz., conceptual construction] is directed toward an object, it is not perception, any more than desire or the like.⁵² However, the internal awareness [of conceptual construction] is not [itself a conceptual construction], and hence there is no harm [in admitting it as a type of perception].

E. k. 7cd-8ab. erroneous cognition, cognition of empirical reality, inference, its result, recollection, and desire are not true perceptions and are accompanied by obscurity (sataimira).⁵³

Erroneous cognition (bhrānti-jāāna) is not a true perception because it arises conceptually constructing, for example, water, etc., out of such things as vapor floating over sand. Cognition of empirical reality (samvṛti-saj-jāāna) is not a true perception because it superimposes something extraneous upon things which are only empirically true (samvṛti-sat), and thus functions through the conceptualization of forms of these [extraneous things]. Inference and [the cognition which is] its result, etc., are not perceptions because they arise through the conceptualization of what formerly has been perceived.⁵⁴

F. And

k. 8cd. [we call the cognition itself] "pramāṇa" [literally, a means of cognizing], because it is [usually] conceived to include the act [of cognizing], although primarily it is a result.⁵⁵

Here we do not admit, as the realists do, that the resulting cognition (pramāṇa-phala) differs from the means of cognition (pramāṇa). 56 The resulting cognition arises bearing in itself the form of the cognized object and [thus] is understood to include the act [of cognizing] (savyāpāra). For this reason, it is metaphorically called pramāṇa, the means of cognition, 57 although it is [ultimately speaking] devoid of activity (vyāpāra). 58 For instance, an effect is said to assume the form of its cause when it arises in conformity with its cause, although [in fact] it is devoid of the act [of assuming the form of its cause]. 59 Similar is the case with this [resulting cognition].

G. k. 9a. or [it can be maintained that] the self-cognition or the cognition cognizing itself (svasamvitti) is here the result [of the act of cognizing]—60

Every cognition is produced with a twofold appearance, namely, that of itself [as subject] (svābhāsa) and that of the object (viṣayābhasa). The cognizing of itself as [possessing] these two appearances or the self-cognition (svasamvitti) is the result [of the cognitive act].⁶¹ Why?

k. 9b. because the determination of the object (artha-niścaya) conforms with it [viz., with the self-cognition]. 62

When a cognition possessing [the form of] an object (savişayam jñānam) is itself the object to be cognized, then, in accordance with the nature of the self-cognition, one conceives that [secondary] object (artha) as something either desirable or undesirable.⁶³

When, on the other hand, only an external thing is [considered to be] the object, then

k. $9c-d_1$. the means of cognizing it is simply [the cognition's] having the form of the object;

For, in this case, we overlook the true nature of the cognition as that which is to be cognized by itself, and [claim that] its having the form of a thing is our means of knowing that [thing]. Why? Because [we may say of] the thing [that]

k. $9d_2$. it is known only through this [viz., through the cognition's having the form of it].

Whatever form of a thing appears in the cognition, as, for example, something white or non-white, it is an object in that form which is cognized.⁶⁴

Thus, [it should be understood that] the roles of the means of cognition (pramāṇa) and of the object to be cognized (prameya), corresponding to differences of [aspect of] the cognition, are [only] metaphorically attributed (upacaryate) to the respective [distinctive] factor in each case, 65 because [in their ultimate nature] all elements of existence, [being instantaneous,] are devoid of function (nirvyāpāra).66

The same idea is stated [in the following verse].

k. 10. whatever the form in which it [viz., a cognition] appears, that [form] is [recognized as] the object of cognition (prameya). The means of cognition (pramāṇa) and [the cognition which is] its result (phala) are respectively the form of subject [in the cognition] and the cognition cognizing itself. Therefore, these three [factors of cognition] are not separate from one another. 67

Ha. How, then, is it understood that cognition has two forms? 68

k. 11ab. that cognition has two forms is [known] from the difference between the cognition of the object and the cognition of that [cognition]; 69

The cognition which cognizes the object, a thing of color, etc., has [a twofold appearance, namely,] the appearance of the object and the appearance of itself [as subject]. But the cognition which cognizes this cognition of the object has [on the one hand] the appearance of that cognition which is in conformity with

the object and [on the other hand] the appearance of itself. Otherwise, if the cognition of the object had only the form of the object, or if it had only the form of itself, then the cognition of cognition would be indistinguishable from the cognition of the object.⁷⁰

Hb. Further, [if the cognition had only one form, either that of the object or of itself,] then the object which was cognized by a preceding cognition could not appear in a succeeding cognition. Why? Because that [object of the preceding cognition does not exist when the succeeding cognition arises and] could not be the object of the latter.⁷¹ Hence it is proved that cognition has two forms.

Hc-1. [That cognition has two forms follows]

k. 11c. later also from [the fact of] recollection-72

This [expression] "later also from [the fact of] recollection" (in k. IIc) refers back to "cognition has two forms" (in k. IIab). Some time after [we have perceived a certain object], there occurs [to our mind] the recollection of our cognition as well as the recollection of the object. So it stands that cognition is of two forms.⁷³ Self-cognition is also [thus established].⁷⁴ Why?

k. 11d. because it [viz., recollection] is never of that which has not been [previously] experienced.⁷⁵

It is unheard of to have a recollection of something without having experienced [it before]. For instance, the recollection of a thing of color, etc. [does not arise unless the thing of color or the like has been experienced].

Hc.2. Some may hold that cognition also, like a thing of color, etc., is cognized by means of a separate cognition.⁷⁶ This is not true because

k. 12a- b_1 . if a cognition were cognized by a separate cognition, there would be an infinite regression—77

An infinite regression would result if a cognition were to be cognized by a separate cognition.⁷⁸ Why?

 $k.~12b_2$, because there is a recollection of this [separate cognition] too.⁷⁹

It must be admitted that this cognition by which the [previous] cognition is cognized is [also] later recollected. [The later recollection of this separate cognition does not arise unless it is experienced.] So, if it should be that this [separate] cognition is experienced by the third cognition [so that it may be recollected], there would be an infinite regression.

He-3. k. 12cd. [further,] in such a case, there could be no motion [of cognition] from one object to another. But actually such [a movement of cognition] is accepted.⁸⁰

Therefore, self-cognition must be admitted. It itself is a result [of the act of cognizing].

In this way it is established that perception is free from conceptual construction.

NOTES

Section 1. Exposition of the Theory of Perception

1.1. Vibhūti, p. 518.26–27 (cf. p. 1081):

pramāṇa-bhūtäya jagad-dhitaiṣiṇe

praṇamya śāstre sugatāya tāyine

pramāṇa-siddhyai sva-matāt samuccayaḥ

kariṣyate viprasṛtād ihaikatah.

PVBh, p. 3.6 and AKV, p. 7.5-6 quote the first half of this verse.

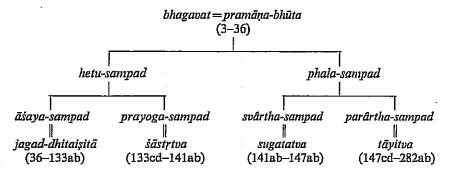
Dignāga and his successors are generally called the Vijnānavādins of the logical tradition (nyāyânusāriņo vijnānavādinah), as distinguished from the Vijnānavādins of the Scriptural tradition (āgamânusāriņo vijnānavādinah), by which appellation the older teachers of the Yogācāra-Vijnānavāda school are called; see Obermiller, The Sublime Science of the Great Vehicle to Salvation, p. 99. Unlike his predecessors, Dignāga does not accept the unconditional authority of Scripture. According to him, the words of the Buddha must be subjected to critical test before they are accepted as valid. This critical attitude he inherited from the Buddha, who used to exhort His disciples not to accept any of His words merely out of reverence but to examine them carefully, just as people examine the purity of gold by burning it in fire, cutting it, and testing it on a touchstone; see TSP, p. 12.19-20:

tāpāc chedāc ca nikaṣāt suvarņam iva paṇḍitaiḥ parīkṣya bhikṣavo grāhyam mad-vaco na tu gauravāt.

See also Stcherbatsky, Bud. Log., I, 77; Mookerjee, The Buddhist Philosophy of Universal Flux, pp. xl ff. Dignāga is convinced that he is following the teaching of the Buddha in expounding the theory of knowledge. He begins his treatise with a salutation to the Buddha who "is to be recognized as the personification of the means of valid cognition (pramāna-bhūta)"; see below, n. 1.3. It is reported by Bu-ston that Dignāga inscribed this verse on a rock in a cavern. As he recorded his praise of the Buddha and his determination to establish the true theory of knowledge, various omens are said to have appeared; see Obermiller. History of Buddhism (Chos-hbyun) by Bu-ston, part II, p. 150. No inscription, however, has so far been discovered to attest to the authenticity of this report. Dharmakīrti attaches great importance to this verse, by which, he thinks, the essential standpoint of the Bauddha Logicians is made clear. In PV, he gives a detailed explanation of each epithet of the Buddha mentioned in Dignaga's verse (see n. 1.2). In consequence, the verses discussing the pramāna-siddhi (establishment of the means of valid cognition) form a separate chapter independent of the Pratyaksapariccheda in PV.

1.2. For this passage of the Vrtti, see PVBh, p. 3.12–18: atra bhagavato hetuphala-sampattyā pramāṇa-bhūtatvena stotrābhidhānam śāstrādau...tatra hetur āśaya-prayoga-sampat...āśayo jagad-dhitaisitā. prayogo jagac chāsanāt śāstrīvam. phalam sva-parārtha-sampat. svārtha-sampat sugatatvena trividham artham upādāya, praśastatvam surūpavat [text: svarūpavat], apunarāvṛtty-artham sunaṣṭa-jvaravat, niḥśeṣārtham supūrṇa-ghaṭavat. parārtha-sampat jagat-tāraṇāt tāyitvam...evam-bhūtam bhagavantam praṇamya...pramāṇādhīno hi prameyādhigamo... See also ibid., pp. 115.31–32, 116.5–6.

The following table sums up Dignaga's praise of the Buddha as expressed in k. I and its Vrtti. The figures in parentheses indicate the verses of PV, II, dealing with the same topic.



See M. Nagatomi, "The Framework of the Pramāṇavārttika, Book I," JAOS, 79, 266; E. Frauwallner, "Die Reihenfolge und Entstehung der Werke Dharmakīrti's," Asiatica: Festschrift Friedrich Weller, Leipzig, 1954, p. 143.

1.3. The term "pramāna-bhūta" is used in a double sense. First, it means "authoritative" or "standard," and in this sense the Buddha (Bodhisattya Siddhārtha) is called "pramāna-bhūta" in the Lalitavistara, ed. Lefmann, pp. 319.3 ff.: atha khalu...sthävarä-näma mahā-pṛthivī-devatā...bodhisattvam etad avocat...tvam eva sadevakasva lokasva parama-sāksī-bhūtah pramānabhūtas cêti. Dignāga characterizes the authoritativeness of the Buddha as hetuphala-sampad. Second, it has the more technical meaning, "to have come into existence" (bhūta) as a "means of valid cognition" (pramāna). According to Jinendrabuddhi, the Buddha has a similarity (sādharmya) to pramāna, since he is avisamvāda and has made known the truth of catur-ārya-satya which was not known, just as pramānas are avisamvāda and make known an unknown object (anadhigatartha-gantr). He further remarks that "-bhūta" affixed to "pramāna" is meant to reject *Iśvara* and other *pramāna*s which are maintained by others to be eternal (abhūta=nitya); see PST, 2a.3 ff. (2b.4 ff.). See also PVV, p. 9.11 ff.: "tadvat pramānam bhagavān" (PV, II, 9a), tadvat bhagavān pramānam, yathābhihitasya satya-catustayasyāvisamvādanāt tasyaiva parair ajñātasya prakāśanāc ca. yady evam namaskāra-śloke pramānāyêty evâstu "pramāna-bhūtāya" iti kim artham ity āha, "abhūta-vinivrttaye bhūtôktih" (PV, II, 9b-c). bhūtaśabda-nirdeśo 'bhūtasya nitvasya nivrtty-artham nityam pramāṇam nāstīty arthah;

Vibhūti, p. 10²: nityam īśvaram Naiyāyikāḥ āhuḥ, āsamsāram ekam pratisattvam buddhim pramāṇam āhuḥ Sāmkhyāḥ.

- 1.4. Sugata (lit., well-gone) is counted among the ten titles of the Buddha in the sense that He has well attained the enlightenment; see Mvv., 1–10. This title of the Buddha is explained here as implying His three merits—praśastatā, apunarāvṛttiva, and niḥśeṣatā—which are, respectively, the attributes of surūpa, sunaṣṭa-jvara, and supūrṇa-ghaṭa, each of which contains the prefix "su-" as in "su-gata." See PVV, p. 59.7–8: su-śabdasya trividho 'rthaḥ, praśastatā surūpavat, apunarāvṛttiḥ sunaṣṭa-jvaravat [text: anaṣṭa-o], niḥśeṣatā ca supūrṇa-ghaṭavat [text: apūrṇa-o]; DhP, p. 3.11 ff. See also PV, II, 141cd–147ab. Manorathanandin explains that praśastatā distinguishes the Buddha from bāḥya-vīta-rāgaṣ, apunarāvṛttiva from śaikṣas, and niḥśeṣatā from aśaikṣas; see PVV, p. 107.5–8: ye laukika-bhāvanā-mārgeṇa vīta-rāgā bāḥyā atattva-darśinas tebhyaḥ tattva-darśitvād adhikaḥ. ye śaikṣā abāhyāḥ parihāṇi-dharmāṇas tebhyo 'punarāvṛttyā. ye câśaikṣāḥ śrāvakā aprahṇa-kleśa-vāsanā asākṣāt-kṛta-sarvūkāra-vastavas tebhyo niḥśeṣa-pratītyā.
- 1.5. Mahāvastu, I, 92, 13, and Avadānaśataka, I, 188, 1 ff., relate the story of Surūpa, a legendary king, who, in exchange for religious instruction, gave up his son, his wife, and himself to be eaten by an ogre. His religious ardor is praiseworthy. However, here "surūpa" is to be taken as a common noun according to Durvekamiśra, who states, in explaining "praśastatā," that those who make a living by their beauty of form are called surūpa; see DhP, p. 3.15: surūpā rūpā-jīvāh. Dharmakīrti explains the meaning of "praśasta" (<pra- \sqrt{sans} , to praise) by the word "śasta" (< \sqrt{sas} , to destroy) in PV, II, 142ab:

duḥkhasya śastam nairātmya-dṛṣṭeś ca yuktito 'pi vā.

- 1.6. There are eight classes of "sage" (ārya-pudgala) among the Buddhist disciples (śrāvaka), namely, srotāpatti-pratipannaka, "-phalaka, sakṛdāgami-pratipannaka, "-phalaka, anāgami-pratipannaka, "-phalaka, arhat-pratipannaka, and arhat. Of these, arhat is called aśaikṣa, because he has extinguished the influence of passions (āsrava-kṣaya) and no longer needs religious training. The other seven, who are to study further in order to attain arhathood, are called śaikṣa; AK(Bh), ch. VI.
- 1.7. Among Dignāga's works now available (see my Introduction), the same theories expounded in PS(V) are found in Abhidharmakosa-Marmadipa (see below, nn. 1.31–33, 39, passim), Alambanap. (see below, nn. 1.61, 2.17), Hetucakradamaru (see PS(V), III, K 131a.5–132a.2, V 45b.5–46a.7=48b.5–49b.1), and NMukh. As will be noted, many verses and passages of NMukh are found rearranged in PS(V); see Tucci, The Nyāyamukha of Dignāga.
- 1.8. In each chapter of this treatise, Dignāga, after elucidating his own theory, refutes the views of the *Vādavidhi* and those of the Naiyāyikas, Vaišeṣikas, Sāmkhyas, and Mīmāmsakas.
- 1.9. The theories maintained by other schools contradict one another in their discussion of the number ($samkhy\bar{a}$), the nature ($svar\bar{u}pa$), the object (viṣaya, go-cara), and the result (phala) of the means of cognition; see PST, 11b.1 (13a.4–5):

"hgal bahi rtogs pa (=viruddha-pratipatti) ni log par rtogs pa (=vipratipatti) rnams te, phan tshun hgal bahi mtshan ñid byed paḥi phyir ro"; ibid., 11b.7 (13b.4): "de la hbras bu dan ran gi no bo dan yul dan grans la log par rtogs pa bsi rnams te." See also TSP, p. 366.14: tatra pramāņe svarūpa-phala-gocarasamkhvāsu paresām vipratipattis catur-vidhā; PVV, p. 110.6; NBT, p. 35.1 ff. Dignāga's theory is unique on each of these four points: (1) He recognizes perception (pratyaksa) and inference (anumana) as the only two means of cognition, and does not admit verbal testimony (sabda), identification (upamāna), etc. as independent means of cognition; see below, n. 1.11. (2) He characterizes perception as "being free from conceptual construction" (kalpanapodha), and does not recognize determinate perception (savikalpaka-pratyaksa) as a kind of perception: see below, n. 1.25. (3) He sharply distinguishes the particular (svalaksana) and the universal (sāmānya-laksana), which are respectively the objects of perception and inference. He denies the reality either of the universal as an independent entity or of the particular as qualified by the universal; see below, n. 1.14. (4) Rejecting the realist's distinction between the means and the result of cognition, he establishes the theory of nondistinction between the two; see below, n. 1.55.

1.10. Dignäga's statement that a clear understanding of prameya (=artha) depends upon pramāna (pramānādhīnah prameyādhigamah) has an affinity with the opening statement of NBh: pramānato 'rtha-pratipattau pravṛtti-sāmarthyād arthavat pramāņam. However, Dignāga differs radically from the Naiyāyikas in his understanding of the nature of pramāna and prameya. While the Naiyāvikas hold the view that pramana and prameya are real entities (padartha), Dignāga shares the Vijjānavāda view that they are of ideated character; see below, n. 1.61. The possibility of apprehending prameva by means of pramana is denied by Nāgāriuna on the ground that both, being mutually conditioned, lack independent substantiality; see Vigrahavyavartani, kk. 31-33; Vaidalvaprakarana, Peking ed., 114b.4-6. Nāgārjuna's argument is intended to reveal the transcendental truth of universal emptiness (sūnyatā). The Vijnānavādins, however, stress that the intuition of transcendental truth (nirvikalpa-jñāna, lokôttara-") is reflected in empirical knowledge which apprehends wordly phenomena (savikalpa-jñāna, laukika-"). In such knowledge concerning wordly phenomena, pramāna and prameya must be postulated. On the basis of this Vijnānavāda doctrine, Dignāga establishes his theory of knowledge which asserts that both pramāna and prameya are factors immanent in knowledge itself; see below, n. 1.61. Accordingly, his theory does not conflict with Nagariuna's argument against the substantiality of pramana and prameya. A later extreme transcendentalist, Candrakirti, makes an attack on Dignāga's proposition "pramānādhīnah prameyâdhigamah," asserting that there is nothing to be apprehended in the ultimate sense; see Prasannap., p. 58.14 ff., but this criticism does not fundamentally affect Dignāga's standpoint.

1.11. PVBh, p. 169.3; Vibhūti, p. 140²; NC(V), p. 88.3 (18): pratyakṣam anumānam ca pramāne Dignāga gives the etymological explanation of pratyakṣa in NMukh as follows:

akşam akşam praiti vartata iti pratyakşam (pratyakşa is so named because it occurs in close connection with [prati] each sense faculty [aksa]); cf. NMukh. p. 3b.17: 現現別轉故名現量, cited in TSP, p. 373.26; DhP, p. 38.26; Prasannap... p. 72.1 ff. This etymology is repudiated by Candrakirti on the ground that it could yield the absurd conclusion that cognition which has a sense-organ (aksa) for its object (prati) is pratyaksa; see Prasannap., p. 72.1-3; yas tv aksam aksam prati vartata iti pratyaksa-sabdam vyutpādavati tasva jūānasvendrivāvisayatvād visaya-visayatvāc ca na yuktā vyutpattih. (Stcherbatsky wrongly attributes Candrakīrti's citation to Prasastapāda, in The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāna, p. 159, n. 4. His definition of pratyaksa differs slightly from that above; see PBh, p. 552.28: aksam aksam pratityôtpadvata iti pratyaksam.) The following Nyāya etymology might meet Candrakīrti's criticism; aksasyāksasya prativisayam vrttih pratyaksam (pratyaksa is the function of each sense-organ [aksa] toward [prati] its object). Actually Dignaga bases his etymological explanation upon the Abhidharmic doctrine that perception, although caused by sense and object, is named after the sense, which is its specific cause (asadharana-hetu). but not after the object. The above-cited etymology in NMukh is preceded by "asādhāraņa-kāraņatvāt" (TSP, p. 373.26); and Dignāga expresses the same thought in PS(V); see below, Section 1, nn. 1.32, 1.33, and Section 6, Db. Besides asādhārana-kāranatva of the sense, another reason for naming perception after the sense, viz., āśrayatva of the sense, is mentioned by Vasubandhu in AK, I, 45:

tad-vikāra-vikāritvād āsrayās cakşur-ādayaļ ato 'sādhāraṇatvāc ca vijītānam tair nirucyate.

The idea that the sense is the basis (āśraya) of perception is noticed in Dharmottara's etymology of pratyakṣa; see NBT, p. 38.1; pratyakṣam iti pratigatam āśritam akṣam (pratyakṣa means that [cognition] which belongs to or rests on a sense). However, the etymologies given by Dignāga and Dharmottara cannot include such cases as mānasa-pratyakṣa, yogi-pratyakṣa, and svasamvedana, which are independent of the sense. Hence Dharmottara distinguishes between the etymological origin and the actual meaning. After offering his etymology of the term "pratyakṣa," he states that all sorts of direct awareness (sākṣātkāri-jāāna) are actually implied by the word "pratyakṣa"; see NBT, p. 38.3–6: akṣâśritatvam ca vyutpatti-nimittam śabdasya, na tu pravṛtti-nimittam. anena tv akṣâśritatvanaikârtha-samavetam artha-sākṣātkāritvam lakṣyate. tad eva śabdasya pravṛtti-nimittam. tataś ca yat kimcid arthasya sākṣātkāri-jāānam tat pratyakṣam ucyate; and DhP, p. 39.7–8: atha pratigatam āśritam akṣam ity asyām api vyutpattau mānasa-svasamvedana-yogi-pratyakṣānām na syāt pratyakṣa-śabda-vācyatêty āha "akṣâśritatvam"."

Anumāna (anu-\sqrt mā+ana) literally means a means of cognition which is preceded by some other cognition. According to the Naiyāyikas, that which precedes anumāna is perception of a mark (linga) and of the invariable connection between this mark and its possessor (lingin); see NBh, ad I, i, 5: linga-linginoh sambandha-darśanam linga-darśanam ca. Thus, the prefix "anu-" is taken by the Naiyāyikas to mean "paścāt" (afterwards) or "-pūrvaka" (preceded by); see NS, I, i, 5: tat-pūrvakam trividham anumānam; and NBh, ad I, i, 3: mitena

lingenârthasya paścān mānam anumānam. Dignāga, however, interprets differently the meaning of "anu-." His definition of anumāna for one's own self (svârthânumāna) is: "tshul gsum paḥi rtags las rjes su dpag par bya baḥi don (K: rjes su dpag paḥi don) mthon ba gan yin pa de ni ran gi don gyi rjes su dpag paḥo" (That apprehension of an object which is based upon the triple-conditioned inferential mark is svârthânumāna); PSV, II, K 109a.2-3, V 27a.5 (27b.7); see NB, II, 3: tatra svârtham (anumānam) tri-rūpāl lingād yad anumeye jñānam tad anumānam. The prefix "anu-" is thus replaced by the ablative case-ending and is taken as implying a logical ground.

Since Dignāga regards determinate perception (savikalpaka-pratyakṣa), which perceives a thing as associated with a universal (jāti-višiṣṭa-vyakti), as a kind of anumāna, the terms "pratyakṣa" and "anumāna" in this treatise are to be understood as standing respectively for direct, unmediated cognition or immediate awareness and indirect, mediated cognition. In translating, for the sake of convenience, I employ the term "perception" as an equivalent for pratyakṣa, and "inference" for anumāna.

1.12. The number and kinds of means of cognition recognized by different schools of Indian philosophy are as follows: the Carvakas, one means: perception (pratvaksa); the Vaisesikas, two means; perception and inference (anumana); the Sāmkhyas and a branch of the Naiyāyikas, three means: verbal testimony (sabda), in addition to the above two; the Naiyāyikas, four means: identification (upamana), together with the above three; the Prabhakara-Mimamsakas, five means: implication (arthapatti), in addition to the above four; the Bhatta-Mīmāmsakas and the Vedāntins, six means: negation (abhāva), together with the above five; the Pauranikas, eight means; possibility (sambhava) and tradition (aitihya), together with the above six; see Randle, Ind. Log., p. 305. The doctrines recognizing aitihya, arthāpatti, sambhava, and abhāva as independent means of cognition had been criticized in NS, II, ii, 1 ff., and in Dignāga's day, the Nyāya theory of four means of cognition was the most authoritative. Among the Bauddhas, the author of the Fang pien hsin ltn (T. 1632, Upāyahrdaya or Prayogasāra), a Hīnayānist preceding Nāgārjuna, admits four means as maintained by the Naiyāyikas, and the older school of the Yogācāras excludes upamāna therefrom, without mentioning any reason.

Dignāga does not recognize śabda as an independent means of cognition. According to him, the cognition derived from śabda indicates its own object through the "exclusion of other objects" (anyāpoha). This process of excluding other objects is the function of anumāna; see PS, V, k. I (cited in TSP, p. 441.6-7, trans. in Bud. Log., I, 459):

na pramāṇântaram śābdam anumānāt tathā hi tat kriakatvâdivat svârtham anvânohena bhāsate.

As regards upamāna, Dignāga gives the following arguments: If the cognition identifying an object with its name is derived from hearsay, as, for example, from hearing the words "a gavaya is similar to a cow," then the process of cognizing is just the same as in the case of śābda. If, on the other hand, the identification of the object with its name is made by the cognizant himself, then it must be admitted that he relates two things separately perceived through the operation

of the mind. This process of cognizing through the operation of the mind is anumāna. Hence upamāna cannot be recognized as an independent means of valid cognition; see PSV, V, K 169b.4-5, V 78a.5-6 (84a.2-3): "re ṣig ñe bar ḥjal ba ni ba lan dan ba min dag ḥdra bar rtogs paḥi don can yin na, de la gṣan las thos nas rtogs na sgra las byun ba yin la, ran ñid kyis yin na ni don gñis tshad ma gṣan gyis rtogs na, yid kyis ḥdra bar rtog par byed pa yin la, de yan tshad ma gṣan ma yin no." In this way, Dignāga includes śabda and upamāna in anumāna, and admits pratyakṣa and anumāna as the only two means of valid cognition; see NMukh, p. 3b.10-11: 唯有現量及與比重. 彼聲喻等攝在此中. 故唯二量.

In respect to the number of pramāṇas, the Vaiśeṣikas are in accord with Dignāga. However, it should be noted that there is an inconsistency in the Vaiśeṣika theory of two pramāṇas. The Vaiśeṣikas claim that determinate perception (savikalpaka-pratyakṣa in later terminology), which results from the association of a determinant with an immediate sense-datum, is a kind of pratyakṣa (VS, VIII, 6-7). On the other hand, they regard śabda, the apprehension of an object by means of words, as a kind of anumāṇa (VS, IX, 18-19). Dignāga bases his theory of two pramāṇas on a radical distinction between two pramēyas (see below, n. 1.14). His theory which is consistently logical may be clearly distinguished from the Vaiśeṣika theory.

1.13. Vibhūti, p. 140²; PVBh, p. 213.6; NC(V), p. 88.3 (20): lakṣaṇa-dvayam

prameyam . . .

See also PV, III, la-b₁: mānam dvividham vişaya-dvaividhyāt and PV, III, 63: na pratyakṣa-parokṣābhyām meyasyānyasya sambhavaḥ tasmāt prameya-dvitvena pramāṇa-dvitvam iṣyate.

1.14. PVV, p. 132.7–8; PVBh, p. 169.9: na hi sva-sāmānya-lakṣaṇābhyām anyat [aparam in PVBh] prameyam asti. PVBh, p. 169.9–10: sva-lakṣaṇa-viṣayam hi pratyakṣaṁ sāmānya-lakṣaṇa-viṣayam anumānam iti pratipādayiṣyāmaḥ. I have inserted the particle "hi" on the authority of PST, 14b.2–3 (16b.6–7): "raṅ gi mtshan ñid kyi yul can ni ṣes pa la sogs pas te, niḥi sgra ni nes par gzuṁ baḥi don can no. raṅ gi mtshan ñid kyi yul can mnon sum kho na daṅ spyiḥi mtshan ñid kyi yul can rjes su dpag pa kho na ste." Cf. NC(V), p. 88.3–89.1 (p. 88.18–24): na hi sva-sāmānya-lakṣaṇābhyām anyat prameyam asti. sva-lakṣaṇa-viṣaya-niyatam pratyakṣam, sāmānya-lakṣaṇa-viṣaya-niyatam anumānam. By the expression "pratipādayiṣyāmaḥ," Dignāga means that he will deal with the distinction between sva-lakṣaṇa and sāmānya-lakṣaṇa at the beginning of PS(V), ch. II; cf. K 109a.4–109b.5, V 27a.7–27b.7 (27b.8–28b.2).

According to the Vaiseşikas and the Naiyāyikas, every existing thing, with the exception of the extreme universal (para-sāmānya) and the extreme individual (antya-višeşa), possesses both generality (jāti=sāmānya) and individuality (vyakti). In perceiving a thing, one perceives it, at the first moment, vaguely, without differentiating jāti and vyakti [nirvikalpaka-pratyakṣa], but later on, determinately, conjoining differentiated jāti and vyakti [savikalpaka-pratyakṣa]. Dignāga does not assent to this view. He makes an essential distinction between

sva-lakṣaṇa and sāmānya-lakṣaṇa, the former being the particular individuality which can never be generalized or conceptualized and the latter being the universal which is conceptually constructed by the mind through generalizing from many individuals without regard for their particularity. The former is real, while the latter lacks reality. As each is incompatible with the other, there cannot be anything which possesses both sva-lakṣaṇa and sāmānya-lakṣaṇa at the same time. Corresponding to this essential distinction between two kinds of prameya, there is a radical distinction between the two means of cognition (pramāṇa-vyavasthā): pratyakṣa which grasps sva-lakṣaṇa exclusively and anumāna which grasps sāmānya-lakṣaṇa exclusively. This theory is evidently set up in opposition to the Nyāya view of the coalescence of different means of cognition (pramāṇa-samplava), i.e., the view that the same object can be cognized by any of the four kinds of pramāṇa; see NBh, ad I, i, 3. The elaborate arguments made by Uddyotakara and Vācaspatimiśra on this point are precisely traced by Stcherbatsky, and no further remark is necessary here; see Bud. Log., II, 301 ff.

Dharmakirti sets up the following criteria to distinguish sva-lakṣaṇa and sāmānya-lakṣaṇa: sva-lakṣaṇa (a) has a power to produce effects (artha-kriyā-śakti), (b) is specific (asadṛśa), (c) is not denotable by a word (śabdasyāviṣayaḥ), and (d) is apprehensible without depending upon other factors such as verbal conventions, while sāmānya-lakṣaṇa (a) has no power to produce effects, (b) is common to many things, (c) is denotable by a word, and (d) is not apprehensible without depending upon other factors such as verbal conventions; see PV, III, 1-2. The concept of artha-kriyā is unfamiliar to Dignāga. Dharmakīrti adds further detailed discussions to prove the unreality of sāmānya, and states that sva-lakṣaṇa alone is the object to be cognized in the ultimate sense; see ibid., III, 53d: meyam tv ekam sva-lakṣaṇam. That there are two sorts of prameya implies that sva-lakṣaṇa is apprehended in two ways, as it is (sva-rūpeṇa) and as something other than itself (para-rūpeṇa), but not that there is real sāmānya apart from sva-lakṣaṇa. Thus, the distinction between sva-lakṣaṇa and sāmānya-lakṣaṇa is the result of a changed perspective; see ibid., III, 54cd:

tasya sva-para-rūpābhyām gater meya-dvayam matam.

1.15. For this passage of the Vrtti, see PVBh, p. 227.8: yat tarhîdam anityâ-dibhir ākārair varnādi grhyetaitat katham; Vibhūti, p. 140²: yat tarhîdam... grhyate 'sakrd vā; ibid., p. 139³: asakrd vā. On the basis of these fragments, the original may be reconstructed as: yat tarhîdam... grhyate 'sakrd vā tat katham.

1.16. The meaning of the question raised here is as follows: In seeing a patch of color which exists momentarily and then disappears, one has a cognition of the noneternity of color (varnasyânityatā). Similarly, in hearing a fading sound, one has a cognition of the noneternity of sound (śabdasyânityatā). Cognitions of this sort cannot be pratyakṣa, because sāmānya-lakṣaṇa, i.e., noneternity, is cognized. Nor can they be anumāna, because there is no inferential mark (linga) from which the noneternity of color, sound, etc. is to be inferred. Hence the need for admitting the third prameya, in which sva-lakṣaṇa and sāmānya-lakṣaṇa are combined. Cf. PV, III, 76:

prameya-niyame varņānityatā na pratīyate pramāṇam anyat tad-buddhir vinā lingena sambhavāt.

1.17. This question refers to the case in which a man who has perceived a fire before, upon perceiving its smoke, has re-cognition (pratvabhijnana) of the same fire. This process of re-cognizing the same fire is not pratyaksa, since the recognition is produced by perceiving the mark (linga), smoke. But it is not anumana either, because what is re-cognized is the particular fire, and not fire in general, as inferable from the mark, smoke. In this regard, the Sāmkhyas set forth the theory of visesa-drstam anumanam, and say that the particular is inferable from its likeness (sāmya) to the particular (višesa) perceived before (drsta); cf. PST, 17a.3 (19b.6); "gan gi phyir grans can pas khyad par mthon ba rjes su dpag pahi mtshan ñid du brjod de"; ibid., Peking ed., 141b.7-8: "rjes su dpag pa rnams pa gñis ses pa ste, de la khyad par mthon ba ni, gan gi tshe me dan du ba hbrel pa mthon nas, du ba de kho nas me de kho nahi yan dan yan du me de kho na hdiho ses yod pa nid du rtogs par byed paho": Frauwallner, "Klass. Sāmkh.," p. 90. This type of anumāna is called by Sabarasvāmin pratyaksato dṛṣṭa-sambandham anumānam as distinguished from sāmānyato drsta-sambandham anumānam (see SBh, p. 10.11-15), and, according to Kumātila, it was expounded by Vindhyayāsin (\acute{SV} , Anumāna, 141–143, quoted in TSP, ad TS, 1443-1445). Dignāga's theory of a sharp distinction between the objects of pratyaksa and anumana is hardly applicable to the case of re-cognition. Cf. PST, 15a.1-3 (17a.6-17b.1); PV, III, 77a-c:

višeṣa-dṛṣṭe lingasya sambandhasyâpratītitah tat pramāṇântaram...

1.18. Vibhūti, p. 140²:

... tasya samdhāne na [text: samdhānena] pramāṇântaram ...

1.19. PVBh, p. 236.13–14: sva-sāmānya-lakṣanābhyām hy avyapadeśya-varnatvābhyām varnādi grhītvânityatayā cânityam varnādīti manasā samdhatte. Cf. PVV, p. 140.9–12: "yojanād varņa-sāmānye nâyam doṣaḥ prasajyate" (PV, III, 79cd). vikalpakena jāānenânityatāyā "varņa-sāmānye yojanād ayam" sāmānya-višeṣātmaka-prameya-grāhaka-pramāṇântarâbhyupagama-lakṣano "do-so na prasajyate." na hi višeso 'nityatayā yojyate...

1.20. Vibhūti, p. 1402; PVBh, p. 242.29:

...na ca

punaḥ punar abhijñāne.

See TAV, p. 56.9:... punaḥ punar abhijñānaṁ [text: abhidhānaṁ jñānaṁ] na pramāṇam.

1.21. Dharmakirti denies the possibility of re-cognizing the particular viśesa on the ground that it is in a state of flux. Further, he points out that the object of viśeṣa-dṛṣṭam anumānam is not viśeṣa, inasmuch as it is grasped through dṛṣṭa-sāmya; see PV, III, 118:

višesa-pratyabhijāānam na pratiksaņa-bhedataļ

na vā višeṣa-viṣayaṁ dṛṣṭa-sāmyena tad-grahāt.

and III, 119-122; PST, 17b.1 ff. (20a.5 ff.). The Naiyāyikas do not admit recognition as valid knowledge, since, like recollection (smrti), it is produced only

by an impression (samskara) of past experience, and is not dependent upon any pramāņa.

1.22. Vibhūti, p. 1402; PVBh, p. 242.29: anisthâsakteh smrtâdivat.

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1.23. PST, 17a.7 (20a.3): "dran pa kho na dran paho ses pa dnos po la kta byas paḥi phyir ro." According to a rule of Pāṇini, participles in "-ta," when used in the neuter gender, are admitted as nouns of action; Pān., III, iii 114: napumsake bhave ktah (ex., hasitam, jalpitam). Metri causa, "smrta" is used instead of "smrti" in the verse.

1.24. See TAV, p. 56.8-9: yad uktam "smṛticchā-dveṣâdivat pūrvâdhigataviṣayatvāt punah punar abhijñānam [text: abhidhānam jñānam] na pramāṇam" iti . . .

The Bauddhas are in concert with the Mīmāmsakas in defining pramāņa as anadhigatārtha-gantr pramānam [pramāna is the agent of apprehension of an object which is not yet apprehended]; see PST, 17a.5 (20a.1): "ma rtogs pahi don rtogs par byed pa po tshad maho"; NBT, p. 19.2: ata eva cânadhigatavişayam pramāņam. This definition is criticized by Akalanka as follows: A lamp at the moment of being lit possesses the same capacity to illuminate objects as the lamp at a later moment. Likewise, the capacity of a cognition to apprehend an object is the same, whether it be the first moment of the cognition or a later moment. Just as the lamps at different moments are equally called "lamp," so the cognitions apprehending the same object at different moments should be equally recognized as "pramana." Had the Bauddhas' statement that the object, being in a state of flux, is renewed in each moment successfully vindicated their definition of pramāņa as "anadhigatārtha-gantr pramāņam," Dignāga's statement that the re-cognition of the same object is not pramana would have proved improper; see TAV, p. 56.1-9. Vācaspatimišra also rejects the above definition of pramana for the reason that it cannot include a case in which a stable object is cognized by a series of perceptions (dhārāvāhika-vijīšāna); see NVTT, p. 21.6 ff.

1.25. Vibhūti, p. 1741; TAV, p. 53.29: pratyaksam kalpanâpodham.

Cf. NMukh, p. 3b.14: 現量除分別; NV, p. 41.19: apare tu manyante "pratyakṣam kalpanāpodham" iti; NVTT, p. 153.20: samprati Dignāgasya laksaņam upanyasyati—apara iti; NC(V), p. 59.2 (15-16): ghaṭādi-kalpanāpodham pratyakṣam; Yuktidīpikā, p. 39.19.

Dignāga is not the first to describe pratyakşa as free from kalpanā=vikalpa. Vindhyavāsin, an elder contemporary of Vasubandhu, for example, defines pratyakşa as śrotrādi-vrttir avikalpikā; see Sammatitarkap., p. 533.2; Pramāņamīmāmsā, p. 24.13; Chakravarti, Origin and Development of Sāmkhya System of Thought, pp. 145, 149, and his definition is regarded by Jayanta Bhatta as virtually identical with the Bauddha definition, cf. NMañj, p. 93.10-11. Dignāga, however, provides a logical basis for this definition by sharply distinguishing sva-lakṣaṇa from sāmānya-lakṣaṇa; see above, n. 1.14. He does not approve of adding any superfluous terms to kalpanapodha in defining pratyakşa; see below, Section 3. B.

The characteristic feature of kalpanä, as will be noted below (n. 1.27), consists in the association of an immediate awareness with a word. Pratyakşa which is free from kalpanā is inexpressible by a word. Uddyotakara objects to the defining of pratyaksa, which should be inexpressible, by the words "pratyaksam kalpanapodham." He points out that neither the words "pratyaksa" and "kalpanâpodha" nor the sentence "pratyakṣam kalpanâpodham" can denote pratvaksa: if pratyaksa could be denoted by either of these words or by the sentence, it could not be free from kalpanā. He further observes that, if the word "kalpanâpodha" were held to mean "inexpressible in its specific feature" (svarūpato na vyapadesyam), then everything would be regarded as pratyaksa, because a word expresses only the general feature (sāmānyākāra) of a thing and not its specific feature (višesākāra = svarūpa). However, it would not be proper to say that a thing is "inexpressible" because its specific feature is inexpressible. A brāhmana may be spoken of by the word "man," although this word does not express his specific feature. On the other hand, it would be self-contradictory to assert that the specific feature of pratyaksa is expressed by the word "kalpanapodha," since "kalpanâpodha" signifies that the specific feature of pratyakşa is inexpressible. Lastly, if the word "kalpanapodha" were understood to express nothing, the definition would have to be regarded as utterly useless; see NV, pp. 41.22-43.5. To this objection Santaraksita and Kamalasila give the answer: by defining pratvaksa as "kalpanapodha" it is implied that pratyaksa is avikalpaka, but not that it is anabhidheya; therefore, there is no fault in describing pratyaksa by the word "kalpanâpodha"; cf. TS(P), 1239-1242.

Dharmakirti follows Dignāga in defining pratyakşa as kalpanapodha in PV, III, 123a, but he adds the term "abhranta" to this definition in NB, I, 4, and PVin, 252b.3.

1.26. TSP, p. 368.23; NV, p. 41.19; TAV, p. 53.29: . . . nāma-jāty-ādi-yojanā.

Cf. NC, p. 59.2-60.1: atha kā kalpanā. nāma-jāti-guņa-kriyā-dravya-svarūpâpanna-vastv-antara-nirūpanānusmarana-vikalpanā.

1.27. TSP, p. 369.23-25; NVTT, p. 153.22-154.3: yadrcchā-śabdeṣu hi nāmnā višisto 'rtha ucyate ditthêti, jāti-sabdesu jātyā gaur iti, guna-sabdesu gunena śukla iti, kriyā-śabdeşu kriyayā pācaka iti, dravya-śabdeşu dravyeņa daņdī vişäntti.

According to Dignaga, a thing, which in itself is essentially inexpressible, comes to be expressed by a word only when it is associated with a name (nāman) and other factors. Conceptual construction (kalpanā) means nothing other than this process of associating a name, etc., with a thing. Dignaga classifies the factors to be associated with a thing for the sake of verbal designation into five categories: nāman, jāti, guņa, kriyā, and dravya, which respectively function in producing yadrechā-śabda, jāti-ś., guṇa-ś., kriyā-ś., and dravya-ś. His classification of śabda seems to have been adopted from the Vaiyākaranas, who classify sabda into four categories; cf. MBh, p. 19.20-21 (ad Pān, I, i, 2, Vārt. 1):

catuṣṭayī śabdānām pravṛttih, jāti-śabdā guṇa-śabdāh kriyā-śabdā yadṛcchāśabdāś caturthāḥ. As regards "dravya-śabda," we do not find the term in MBh,
but Dignāga's identifying viṣāṇin as a dravya shows that he bases his explanation
upon MBh, p. 1.6 ff., where Patañjali asks the question "atha gaur ity atra kaḥ
śabdaḥ?" and then rejects a pūrvapakṣa as follows: kim yat tat sāsnā-lāngūlakakuda-khura-viṣāny-artha-rūpam sa śabdaḥ? nêty āha, dravyam nāma tat.
Patañjali proceeds to reject some other views: yat tarhi tad ingitam ceṣṭitam
nimiṣitam sa śabdaḥ? nêty āha, kriyā nāma sā. yat tarhi tac chuklo nīlaḥ kṛṣṇaḥ
kapilaḥ kapota iti sa śabdaḥ? nêty āha, guṇo nāma saḥ. yat tarhi tad bhinneṣv
abhinnam chinneṣv acchinnam sāmānya-bhūtam sa śabdaḥ? nêty āha, ākṛtir nāma
sā. Here Dignāga follows the pattern of MBh in his use of the terms "kriyā,"
"guṇa," and "jati" (=ākṛti). As a kriyā-śabda, "pācaka" is used in a verbal
sense, as an infinitive, through application of Pān, III, iii, 10: tumun-nvulau
kriyāyām kriyârthāyām [ex. bhoktum vrajati = bhojako vrajati].

Šāntarakṣita argues that from the viewpoint of the Bauddhas, who deny the reality of such categories as dravya, all words are to be regarded either as arbitrary words inasmuch as they are simply products of the desire to communicate (vivalçā), or as genus-words inasmuch as they stand for what is common to many individual moments or entities: even in the case of applying the name "Dittha" to an object, the object itself is associated with the genus "ditthatva," which is a generalization of the innumerable moments that constitute the series of the individual Dittha; see TSP, ad 1226. Thus Šāntarakṣita says that Dignāga is only following the general usage of words in classifying sabda into five categories; see TS, 1227–1228. Praśastapāda also classifies the qualifiers or distinguishers (viśeṣaṇa) of savikalpaka-pratyakṣa into five categories, but his categories differ from those employed by Dignāga, inasmuch as they are based upon Vaiśeṣika doctrine; see PBh, p. 553.2-5; Randle, Ind. Log., pp. 107ff.

Dignāga is close to the Vaiyākaraṇas in maintaining that conceptual construction is inseparable from verbal expression. The Vaiyākaraṇa theory of the inseparable relation between conception and word is clearly set forth in Vālcyap., I, 124:

na so'sti pratyayo loke yaḥ śabdânugamād rte anuviddham iva jñānam sarvam śabdena gamyate,

Kamalasīla, in explaining Sāntarakṣita's definition of kalpanā as "abhilāpiņī pratītiḥ" (TS, 1214), quotes Vākyap., I, 122:

itikartavyatā loke sarvā šabda-vyapāšrayā yām pūrvāhita-samskāro bālo 'pi pratipadyate.

This shows the affinity between the Vaiyākaraṇas and Dignāga's school in regard to the theory concerning the relation of *kalpanā* and verbal expression. In this respect, Dignāga differs from Vātsyāyana who distinguishes knowledge itself from the verbal designation of the object; see Randle, *Ind. Log.*, pp. 119–120.

Santarakṣita and Kamalaśila lay importance on the expression "ucyate" [(a thing...) is expressed (by a word)] in the above passage of PSV, and consider it as evidence for Dignāga's understanding of kalpanā as being inseparably related to word ($n\bar{a}man = sabda$), and not to genus, etc. ($j\bar{a}ty-\bar{a}di$); see TS(P), 1233.

According to their interpretation, "nāman" in Dignāga's definition of kalpanā must be distinguished from "jāty-ādi." They say that jāty-ādi-yojanā is a heretical theory which should be discarded, because jāti, etc., were not recognized by Dignāga as real entities. Thus they consider that Dignāga's own interpretation of kalpanā is nāma-yojanā; ibid., 1219-1221. Or, even if jāti, etc., were admitted provisionally as entities, it must be noted that these are related to a thing only through the medium of nāman; ibid., 1224-1225. After elaborating these arguments, Šāntarakṣita and Kamalaṣīla conclude that the association with word (nāman) is the distinctive feature of Dignāga's definition of kalpanā. These arguments, however, even if they are not actually false in their conclusion, seem not to be faithful to the original thought of the above passage.

Dharmakīrti is more cautious than Dignāga in defining kalpanā as "a cognition of representation which is capable of being associated with a verbal designation"—which definition also includes the conceptual construction of infants and dumb persons who have the potentiality of verbal expression although they do not utter an actual word; cf. NB, I, 5: "abhilāpa-samsarga-yogya-pratibhāsa-pratītiḥ kalpanā"; PVin, 252b.4: "rtog pa ni brjod pa dan ḥdrer run ba snan baḥi ses pa ste." Jinendrabuddhi, taking Dharmakīrti's definition into consideration, explains as follows: "ḥdir yan sbyor bar byas zin pa kho naḥi ses pa rtog pa brjod par ḥdod pa ma yin gyi, ḥo na ci se na, gan yan sbyor bar byas zin pa ma yin pa de la yan run bar snan ba de yan yin no"; PST, 18a.8-18b.1 (21a.6).

1.28. When the kriyā-śabda "pācaka" or the dravya-śabda "dandin" is applied to a certain thing, the thing is distinguished by the relationship as indicated by the suffix nvul (-aka) or ini (-in). Jinendrabuddhi seems to push the analysis further by introducing the concept of "sabda-pravrtti-nimitta" (efficient cause of verbal expression). His explanation may be summarized as follows: (1) The bhāva-pratyaya suffixed to samāsa, kṛt, and taddhita implies kriyā-kārakasambandha (the relation of action to a factor of action), and other relations. Cf. Tattvabodhinī ad Siddhāntakaumudī 1781 (=MBh, V, i, 119): . . . Hari-ṭīkāyām yad uktam "samāsa-kṛt-taddhitesu sambandhâbhidhānam bhāva-pratyayena" iti. (2) pācaka=pac+nvul is krt, and dandin=danda+ini is taddhita. (3) The bhava-pratvava. when suffixed to any word, expresses the efficient cause of the application of that word to a certain thing. In support of (3), Jinendrabuddhi auotes MBh, V. i. 199: yasya gunasya bhāvād dravye sabda-nivesah tad-abhidhāne tva-talau. Thus, his contention is that the bhava-pratyaya "-tva" suffixed to pācaka or dandin expresses the above-mentioned relation and at the same time is deemed to be the efficient cause of the application of the word "pācaka" or "dandin" to a thing distinguished by that relation; cf. PST, 18b.5-19a.1 (21b.4-7).

1.29. TSP, p. 371.11-12: "anye tv artha-śūnyaih śabdair eva viśisto 'rtha ucyate." Although the text begins with "anye tu," it is evident that Dignāga introduced this sentence here with the intention of making his own point clear. The Naiyāyikas and other realists are of the opinion that genus, quality, etc., which, in the preceding passage (see n. 1.27), are considered to be the factors of verbal designation, are padârthas or real entities. But, according to Dignāga,

they are simply conceptual constructions denoting no real entities: what is denoted by the genus-word "cow" is not any real entity "cowness," but really the "exclusion of non-cows" (anya-vyāvrtti). This point is discussed in detail in PS(V), ch. V. Cf. TS(P), 1229:

te tu jāty-ādayo nêha lokavad vyatirekiņaņ

ity etat pratipatty-artham "anye tv" ity-adi varnitam.

... anya iti bauddhāḥ. artha-śūnyair iti jāty-ādi-nirapekṣair apoha-mātra-gocaraiḥ śabdaiḥ. Cf. also PST, 19a.1 (21b.7-8): "gṣan rnams ni don gyis ston pa rnams kyis ṣes pa raṅ gi lugs bzaṅ po ston te, don de rigs la sogs paḥi khyad par daṅ bral ba rnams kyis ṣes paḥi don to."

1.30. TSP, p. 373.26: yatraiṣā kalpanā nāsti tat pratyakṣam. Cf. Vibhūti, p. 1741.

1.31. Vibhūti, p. 175⁵; PVBh, p. 277.24: atha kasmād dvayâdhīnāyām utpattau pratyakṣam ucyate na prativiṣayam. (The reading given in the text of PVBh: (vi)ṣayâdhīnāyam is incorrect.)

It is generally accepted by the Bauddhas that vijītāna (consciousness, cognition) is dependent for its production upon the sense-organ (indriva) and the object (visaya); cf. Samyutta Nikāya, II, 72 ff.; ibid., IV, 33, 67, 86, passim: cakkhuri ca paticca rūpe ca uppajjati cakkhu-viñilānam, quoted in Alambanap. ad k. 7cd; NC, p. 82.2-5; Prasannap., pp. 6.3, 567.7-8, passim. In AKBh, Vasubandhu asks why vijitāna is called caksur-vijitāna, etc., in accordance with the name of the sense and not with that of the object—cf. AKBh. p. 12b.18 ff: 何因識起俱託二緣. 得所依名在根非境. —and gives the following answers: (1) According as the sense is strong or weak, viiñāna becomes clear or dim. Therefore the sense should be regarded as the basis (āśraya) of vijñāna. (2) The sense is the specific cause (asadharana-hetu) of vijnana. For example, when a man experiences a visual perception (caksur-vijñāna), its specific cause must be his own visual sense (caksur-indriva), since the object, rūpa, etc., is the cause of visual perception in other persons too, as well as of mental perceptions (mano-vijītāna) in himself and others. For these two reasons, vijītāna is named after the sense and not after the object; cf. AK. I. 45:

tad-vikāra-vikāritvād āśrayāś cakşur-ādayaḥ ato 'sādhāraṇatvāc ca vijñānam tair nirucyate.

The question raised in the above passage is concerned with the name given to perception in general, and not with that of individual *vijňāna*. However, from k. 4ab and its V_Itti, it is obvious that Dignāga here makes reference to AK(Bh). Cf. PV, III, 191:

sākṣād vijñāna-janane samartho viṣayo 'kṣavat atha kasmād dvayâdhīna-janma tat tena nôcyate.

PVV, p. 176.4-6 (ad PV, III, 191cd): "atha dvayâdhīna-janma" vişayêndriyô-tpattī "tad" indriya-jñānam indriyenôcyate vyapadisyate pratyakṣam iti. pratigatam akṣam pratyakṣam indriyâsritam ity arthah. "kasmāt" punar viṣayeṇa "nôcyate" prativiṣayam iti. See also Section 6, Db.

1.32. Vibhūti, p. 17710; TAV, p. 53.30:

asādhāraņa-hetutvād akşais tad vyapadišyate.

Of the two reasons given by Vasubandhu for naming vijnāna after the sense, the second one, asādhāraṇa-hetutva, is mentioned by Dignāga in the above verse. In NMukh, too, Dignāga says: asādhāraṇa-kāraṇatvād akṣam akṣam pratī vartata iti pratyakṣam; cf. n. 1.11.

Dharmakirti states that the name of a thing should be taken from its indicator (gamaka). For example, if a sprout is named "a sprout of barley" (yavānkura), no one would mistake it for a sprout of rice. If, on the other hand, it were named "a sprout of earth" (prthivy-ankura), then this name could be just as easily understood to refer to a sprout of rice as to a sprout of barley. Thus, it is the asādhārana-hetu, that is to be regarded as the "indicator." Following Dignāga, Dharmakīrti considers that the sense (akṣa) is the "indicator" of a perception; cf. PV, III, 192:

samīkṣya gamakatvam hi vyapadešo niyujyate tac câkṣa-vyapadeše 'sti tad-dharmas' ca niyogyatām.

1.33. PVBh, p. 278.18: viṣayo hi mano-vijiānānya-samtānika-vijiāna-hetutvāt sādhāraṇam; ibid., p. 278.12: asādhāraṇena [text: sādhāraṇena] vyapadeśo dṛṣṭo bheri-śabdo yavânkura iti. Cf. AKBh, p. 12b.26–12c.2 (AKV, p. 87.20 丘): 彼及不共因 故随根說識(AK, I, 45cd, cf. n. 31)...及不共者謂限唯自限識所依。色亦通為他身限識 (anya-cakṣur-vijiānasyâpi) 及通自他意識所取... 識得名随根非境。如 故學及麥芽等 (yathā bheri-śabdo yavânkuraḥ).

Candrakirti, directly after quoting Dignāga's etymology of pratyakşa (see above n. 1.11), refers to the following argument: atha svät, vathôbhavâdhīnāvām api vijitāna-pravrttāv āsravasva patu-mandatānuvidhānād vijitānānām tad-vikāravikāritvād āśrayenaiva vyapadeśo bhavati, caksur-vijāānam iti. evam yady apy artham artham prati vartate tathâpy akşam akşam āśritya vartamānam vijnānam āśrayena vyapadeśāt pratyakṣam iti bhaviṣyati, dṛṣṭo hy asādhāraṇena vyapadeśo bheri-sabdo yavânkura iti; Prasannap., p. 72.4-7. In the last sentence ("dṛṣṭo hi...") Candrakirti is following Dignāga's words very closely, like him citing "bheri-sabda" and "yavankura" as examples of "asadharanena vyapadesah." However, in the preceding lines he does not explain that the sense is asādhāranahetu of perception. He only makes reference to AK(Bh), I, 45ab, where Vasubandhu states that vijñāna, which changes (vikāra) as the sense grows stronger or weaker (patu-mandatânuvidhāt), is named after the sense as cakṣur-vijñāna, etc. Of the two reasons mentioned by Vasubandhu for naming vijitana after the sense (cf. n. 1.31), Dignāga bases his argument on the second one, whereas Candrakīrti, in criticizing Dignāga's theory, quotes the first one. Thus, Candrakīrti's use of the examples is inappropriate. Uddyotakara also uses the example of "yavânkura" in his explanation of the contact of sense and object (indrivarthasamnikarsa, NS, I, i, 4) as asādhārana-kārana of perception; see NV, p. 32.22: rtv-ādi-kārana-samnidhānāt prādurbhāvann ankuro na rtv-ādibhir vyapadišyate 'pi tv asādhāranena bījena vyapadišvate vavānkura iti. See also AKV, p. 87.23-28; Nyāyapraveśavrtti (G.O.S. No. 38), p. 35.19 ff.

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1.34. That pratyakşa is free from conceptual construction is proved by pratyakşa itself, that is to say, by svasamvedana. See PV, III, 123ab:

pratyakşam kalpanâpodham pratyakşenaiva sidhyati.

Dharmakirti gives the following illustration: A man may have perception of a thing of color even when his mind is drawn from all external objects and remains inactive; from this fact it is self-evident that *pratyakṣa* is free from conceptual construction by the mind; *ibid.*, III, 124:

samhṛtya sarvatas cintām stimitenântarâtmanā sthito pi cakṣuṣā rūpam īkṣate sākṣajā matih. See also PST, 19b.6 ff. (22b.7 ff.); TS(P), 1243; Bud. Log., I, 151–152.

- 1.35. Jinendrabuddhi says here that *kalpanāpodhatva* of *pratyakṣa* can be established not only by *pratyakṣa* itself but also by *āgama*; *PST*, 21a.1 (24a.3). This, however, does not mean that *āgama* is an independent means of cognition.
- 1.36. AKV, p. 64.22-23; Prasannap., p. 74.7-8; NC, pp. 60.3-61.1; NCV, p. 81.20: cakṣur-vijiāna-samaṅgī nīlaṁ vijānāti no tu nīlam iti [nohati instead of no tu in AKV, Wogihara ed., but AKV, N. N. Law ed. (Calcutta Oriental Series, No. 31) p. 74.23 reads no tu].

The expression "nilam vijanāti" implies that one has an immediate awareness of the object itself. On the other hand, "nīlam iti vijānāti" implies that one forms a percentual judgement by associating a name with the object perceived. Thus, the above Abhidharma passage expresses the thought that perception is free from conceptual construction (kalpanapodha). Kamalasila claims that the expressions "nīlam vijānāti" and "no tu nīlam iti (vijānāti)" imply respectively that perception is nonerroneous (abhrānta) and that it is free from conceptual construction (kalpanâpodha); see TSP, p. 12.21-24: tatra pratyaksasya laksanam bhrānti-kalpanābhyām rahitatvam, tac ca bhagavatôktam eva. vad āha---" caksurvijfiāna-samangī [text: "-sangī]..." tathā hi nīlam vijānātīty anenāviparītavisavatva-khyāpanād abhrāntatvam uktam, no tu nīlam ity anena nāmânuviddhârtha-grahana-pratiksepāt kalpanā-rahitatvam. It is obvious that he hopes by this interpretation to find support in the Abhidharma passage for the definition of pratyakşa given in NB, I, 4: pratyakşam kalpanâpodham abhrāntam, which he adopts, following Santaraksita, cf. TS(P), 1214. The same interpretation is given in NB-Pürvapaksasamksepa; see La Vallée Poussin, Prasannap., p. 74, n. 6.

1.37. NC(V), p. 61.4 (19-20): arthe 'rtha-samjñī, na tv arthe dharma-samjñī. The term "dharma" implies particular citta-viprayukta-samskāra-dharmas, namely, nāman, pada, and vyañjana; NC(V), p. 62.3 (18-25): evam abhidharme uktam "dharmo nāmôcyate nāma-kāyaḥ pada-kāyo vyañjana-kāyaḥ"; PST, 21a.2-4 (24a.4-6). To have dharma-samjñā in respect to an object means to apprehend the object by its name. On the other hand, artha-samjñā means artha-svarūpa-samjñā. Thus, the distinction between artha-samjñā and dharma-samjñā corresponds to the distinction between "nīlam jānāti" and "nīlam iti jānāti."

1.38. NCV, p. 79.15–16: yat tarhîdam "samcitâlambanāḥ pañca vijñāna-kāyā" iti tat katham yadi tad ekato na vikalpayati. Cf. PVV, p. 176.20: nanu "samcitâ-

lambanāḥ pañca vijñāna-kāyā" iti siddhāntaḥ; NC(V), p. 64.1 (13–14): uktam vo 'bhidharma eva "samcitālambanāḥ pañca vijñāna-kāyāḥ." Cf. also NCV, pp. 65.18, 80.27, 102.5.

In Ālambanap., kk. 1–5, as well as in Vims, k. 11 and Vrtti, and TrimsBh, ad k. 1, realists are divided into three groups according to their theories concerning the object of cognition (ālambana). The first group maintains that the object of cognition is a dravya (substance), viz., an individual atom (paramânu) or an avayavin (a substance possessing parts), the second that it is the aggregate (samcita) of atoms, and the third that it is the gathering (samghāta) of atoms. It is obvious that the theory here referred to is that of the second group, which is reported by Kuei-chi to be the Vaibhāṣikas; see Wei shih êrh shih lum shu chi, T. 1834, p. 992c.8–10. In explaining the theory of the second group, Sthiramati (TrimsBh, p. 16.20–21) and Vinītadeva (Tīkā on Vims, Peking ed., Tīb. Trip., no. 5566, 219b.1) quote the sentence "samcitālambanāh..." The same siddhānta is referred to as follows in AKBh p. 12a.26–28: 傳說... 五識決定稅集多徵方成所依 所緣性故 (samcitāśrayālambanatvāt, AKV, p. 86.9–10).

1.39. AKBh, ad I, 10 (quoted in NC, p. 78, n. 5 from a yet unpublished manuscript, which is being deciphered by P. Pradhan. Chinese version, p. 3a.9-11); AKV, p. 28.10-16; PVBh, p. 280.7-8; NC, pp. 86.2, 93.3; NCV, p. 79.18: āyatana-svalakṣaṇam praty ete svalakṣaṇa-viṣayā na dravya-svalakṣaṇam prati.

In this sentence, āyatana stands for bāhyâyatana, i.e., a gross form which is perceivable by the sense-organ, while dravya stands for an individual atomic element. See PST, 21a.7–21b.1 (24b.2–3); Vibhūti, p. 1764: yac ca Vasubandhunôktam āyatana-svalakṣaṇam cakṣur-grāhyatvâdi tat prati jñānāni svalakṣaṇaviṣayāṇi, na dravya-svalakṣaṇam [text: dravyam sva°] praty eka-paramāṇu(m).

In AKBh, after enumerating the varieties of rūpa, Vasubandhu says that eyeperception is caused sometimes by a single dravya (here dravya does not mean an atom, since a single atom is invisible), as in the case of perceiving something blue, and sometimes by many dravyas, as in the cases of perceiving from a distance a military array, a collection of jewels, etc.; see AKBh, ad I, 10 (Chinese version, p. 3a.3-6): yad etad bahu-vidham rūpam uktam tatra kadācid ekena dravyena cakṣur-vijñānam utpadyate yadā tat-prakāra-vyavacchedo bhavati, kadācid bahubhir yadā na vyavacchedah tadyathā senā-vyūham aneka-varņa-samsthānam maṇi-vyūham vā dūrāt paṣyatah. It may be argued that, inasmuch as sense-cognitions are caused by many objects, they could be considered to take sāmānya for their object and not svalakṣaṇa; ibid. (Chinese version, p. 3a.9-10): nanu caivam samastālambanatvāt sāmānya-viṣayāḥ pañca vijñāna-kāyāḥ prāpnu-vanti, na svalakṣaṇa-viṣayāḥ. Thus, Vasubandhu claims in the above-cited passage that the object of sense-cognition is to be regarded as svalakṣaṇa, even when it is formed by many elements.

1.40. *PVBh*, p. 279.10; *PVV*, p. 176.20–21; *NC*, p. 93.5; *NCV* (p. 86.9), 89.27 (p. 94.12), pp. 97.26–27, 99.26–27, 102.24–25:

tatrânekârtha-janyatvāt svârthe sāmānya-gocaram.

In this verse, "anekārtha" means the atoms in aggregation or the things forming a group, which are called samcita or āyatana-svalakṣaṇa in the

preceding Abhidharma passages. The sense-organ does not take a single atom nor a single member of the group for its object, but grasps many atoms or things simultaneously. Thus, the object of the sense is the totality of individual atoms or things. The word "sāmānya" in this verse implies this totality, but not the sāmānya which is assumed by the Naiyāyikas and others to exist over and beyond the individuals.

This idea of Dignāga's is fully elaborated by Dharmakīrti in PV, III, 194-230, on the basis of the Sautrāntika theory that individual atoms, which are imperceptible, come to possess, when they gather together, a pre-eminent quality (atisaya), which enables them to present a certain form in a cognition. See also AbhD, k. 317.

1.41. NC, pp. 86.10, 93.6; NCV, p. 91.9-10: aneka-dravyôtpadyatvāt tat svâyatane sāmānya-gocaram ity ucyate, na tu bhinneşv abheda-kalpanāt.

Mallavadin vehemently attacks the thought that the sense-cognition is caused by "anekârtha" or that it takes "sāmānva" for its object; see NC, p. 86.6 ff. The main points of his arguments are as follows: (1) The cognition which takes sāmānya for its object is not pratyaksa. If it were admitted as pratyaksa, then it would follow that anumana also would be a type of pratyaksa, since it has sāmānya for its object. (2) The expression "svârthe sāmānya-gocaram" incurs a self-contradiction, like the expression "my father is a pure celibate," because "spartha" of the sense-organ is svalaksana which is perceived immediately, whereas "sāmānya" is to be cognized only through an inferential mark. (3) If "sāmānya" were held as the object of pratyaksa, then there would be no svalaksana. Thus the theory of the radical distinction between the two pramānas would become baseless. Two pramānas would apprehend the same prameya, or pratyaksa would be regarded as a kind of anumāna. (4) When we perceive "anekartha," for example, many leaves on a tree, they are perceived as individuals, each possessing its own color and shape, but not as a "sāmānya" different from individual leaves. There is no such "sāmānya" that is distinct from individuals (svalakṣaṇa) and might be called "samghāta," "avayavin," etc. Therefore, it is unreasonable to say that "sāmānya" becomes the object of pratyakṣa. (5) "Sāmānya" as the aggregate (samcaya) of atoms is unable to produce a cognition, since the aggregate of atoms, according to Dignaga, is an empirical reality (samurti-sat) distinct from a real entity (dravva=paramarthasat), which alone has the faculty of producing a cognition. (6) Granted that a - cognition takes the aggregate of atoms for its object, that cognition cannot be recognized as pratyaksa, because a cognition of an empirical reality (samortisai-iñāna) is a kind of pratyakṣâbhāsa; see below n. 1.53. (7) If pratyakṣa were caused by "anekârtha," then it would be indistinguishable from anumāna, since the latter is also produced from "anekârtha," that is to say, from an inferential mark, etc. After raising these objections to k. 4cd, Mallavadin proceeds to criticize Dignaga's examinations of the theories concerning the object of cognition. In Section 2 as well as in *Ālambanap*.. Dignāga repudiates the theories (1) that the object of cognition is the aggregate (samcita) of atoms, (2) that it is the gathering (samehāta) of atoms, and (3) that it is a single atom; see Section 2, D-Dc and n. 2.17. Mallavadin points out the inconsistency of Dignaga's views

set forth here in k. 4cd and in Section 2. The thought expressed in k. 4cd is that many atoms in aggregation or things forming a group are perceived at once as a variegated whole, but not as a single entity distinct from individuals. This thought is close to the theory (2) repudiated in Section 2 and in Alambanap., which is called "anekākārārtha-vāda" by Jinendrabuddhi; see Section 2, n. 2.20.

1.42. I have emended K to conform to PST, 22b.2 (25b.6-7): "smras pahan (āha ca) ses pa..." K is close to V, which may be reconstructed as "tam evārtham āha." But k. 5 does not express exactly the same thought as that of the preceding passages. Jinendrabuddhi states: setting aside the wrong views in respect to the object [of perception], [the author] concludes that [perception is] avilcalpa [in the following verse], PST, 22a.2-3 (25b.7): "spyod yul las log par rtogs pa bsel sin rnam par rtog pa med pa nid de kho na gṣun hdsugs te."

1.43. PVBh, p. 298.1:

dharmino 'neka-rūpasya nêndriyāt sarvathā gatiḥ svasamvedvam anirdeśyam rūpam indriya-gocarah.

Vibhūti, p. 189¹: naika-rūpasya instead of aneka-rūpasya, inserts tu after svasamvedyam. The latter half is quoted in TSP, p. 293.1–2, and also in NCV, p. 669.23, where the reading is svalakṣaṇam instead of svasamvedyam. This verse is identical with NMukh, p. 3b.18–19: 有法非一相 根非一切行 唯內證離言 是色根境界, and Dignāga repeats the latter half in Section 6, Dc.

When one cognizes a pot possessing blue color (varna), round shape (samsthāna), and other properties (dharma), this cognition is not produced directly by his sense-organ. The properties of an object are to be admitted as the products of conceptual construction. An object comes to be recognized as being of blue color only when it is excluded (vyāvṛtta) from non-blue things, and this process of the exclusion from other things is nothing other than conceptual construction. In the same manner, that object comes to be recognized as being of round shape, or as possessing the properties P, Q, etc., according to whether it is excluded from non-round-shaped things, or non-Ps, non-Qs, etc. Thus, many different properties of the object are mentally constructed through these exclusions from other things, and consequently the object comes to be conceived as the possessor of many properties. By the sense-organ, however, one perceives the object in itself (svasamvedya) and not in all its aspects (na sarvathā), i.e., as a possessor of such and such properties.

Dharmakirti sets forth the same idea in PV, III, 231:

sarvato vinivṛttasya vinivṛttir yato yataḥ tad-bhedônnīta-bhedo sā dharmiṇo 'neka-rūpatā. and III, 232—238. See also ibid., III, 108: vyāvṛtteḥ sarvatas tasmin vyāvṛtti-vinibandhanāḥ buddhayo 'rthe pravartante 'bhinne bhinnāṣrayā iva.

1.44. See PVBh, pp. 252.24, 335.15: "višeṣaṇam lakṣaṇe para-matāpekṣaṃ, sarve tv avikalpakā eva." K, V, and PST, 24a.3 (27b.1) have no equivalent for lakṣaṇe, but all have "ḥdir" (=atra) instead. Thus, originally this passage must have been: "atra višeṣaṇaṃ para-"..." Perhaps lakṣaṇe is, as will be seen below, Prajñākaragupta's or his predecessor's interpretation of "atra."

Jinendrabuddhi takes the term "višesana" as synonymous with višesa (distinction) or bheda (division) (khyad par dan bye brag dan bye ba ses pa ni rnam grans so) and gives the following explanation: Since pratyaksa has been defined above in k. 3c as being free from conceptual construction, it is not strictly necessary to state anew the natures of each particular sort of pratvaksa. However, since wrong views are held respecting each, Dignaga has deliberately made separate mention of each with the intention of removing these wrong views; see PST, 24a.1-6 (27a.7-27b.5). Jinendrabuddhi also alludes to another interpretation, according to which "visesana" refers to the qualifier of pañcêndriyapratyakşa, i.e., avikalpaka, "being devoid of conceptual construction." There are some who maintain that indriva-pratyaksa in certain cases is savikalpaka. It was with the view to setting aside this mistaken theory that Dignaga stated that pañcêndriya-pratyaksa is avikalpaka. However, Jinendrabuddhi does not accept this interpretation. He says that if the qualifier "avikalpaka" were understood to refer to para-mata, then the definition of pratyaksa in k. 3c would also be understood to refer to para-mata [kalpanâpodha=avikalpaka], and the statement of sva-mata could be found nowhere; ibid., 24a.6-24b.2 (27b.5-28a.1).

Prajñākaragupta understands that atra refers to the definition (laksana) of pratyaksa (see the above-cited passage in PVBh), and that visesana refers to the qualifier "abhrānta." Thus, his construction of this passage is as follows: the qualifier ["abhranta" (nonerroneous)] in the definition [of pratyaksa] is [employed] in response to the views of others, but all nonerroneous cognitions (sarve 'bhrāntāh pratyayāh) are, indeed, free from conceptual construction. He alternatively construes the latter half as: all cognitions which operate in the form of immediate awareness (sarve sākṣātkaraṇâkāra-pravṛttāh pratyayāh) are . . . or. all cognitions caused by the senses (sarve 'kṣa-jāḥ pratyayāḥ) are . . ., PVBh, p. 252.21-28. As errors (bhrānti) occur only in conceptually constructed (savikalpaka) cognitions, "being free from conceptual construction" (kalpanapodha) is enough to define pratyaksa, from the viewpoint of sva-mata. But, the term "abhrānta" is also adopted in the definition in order to remove the prevailing wrong view that considers some savikalpaka cognitions as pratyaksa. This interpretation by Prajñākaragupta, however, is irrelevant, since Dignāga defined pratyaksa simply as kalpanapodha and did not recognize the necessity for adding any other qualifier to it; see above, n. 1.21, and below, Section 3, B ff. Prajnākaragupta seems to have regarded Dharmakirti's definition in NB. I. 4 (PVin. 252b.3)—pratyaksam kalpanapodham abhrantam—as the standard definition of pratyaksa; see PVBh, p. 245.13.

1.45. PVBh, p. 303.23; Vibhūti, p. 191³: mānasam cârtha-rāgādi-sva-samvittir akalpikā.

According to Jinendrabuddhi, the compound artha-rāgâdi-sva-samvitti should be analyzed into artha-samvitti and rāgâdi-sva-samvitti; see PST, 24b.4-5 (28a.3-4): "don gyi sgra hdi ni ses byahi rnam grans so. hdod chags la sogs pa rnams kyi ran ni chags la sogs ran no.... don dan chags la sogs ran no de rig pa ni don dan chags la sogs ran rig pa ste." On the other hand, Prajnākaragupta takes "sva-" as meaning "svarūpa," and writes as follows: mānasam apy artha-rāgâdi-svarūpa-samvedanam akalpakatvāt pratyaksam, anubhavâkāra-pravrtteh;

PVBh, p. 303.24. Cf. NMukh, p. 3b.20-21: 意地亦有離諸分別唯證行轉. 又於貪等 諧自證分...皆是現量. Dharmakirti distinguishes svasamvedana of rāga, etc., from mānasa-pratyakṣa in his classification of pratyakṣa; see NB, I, 7-11: tat (=pratyakṣam) caturvidham: indriya-jñānam: ... mano-vijñānam: sarva-citta-caittānām ātma-samvedanam: ... yogi-jñānam cêti.

1.46. Vibhūti, p. 1913: mānasam api rūpâdi-viṣayâlambanam [text: °-viṣayam] avikalpakam anubhavâkāra-pravṛtam. The presence of "ālambana" is evidenced by K, V, and PST. According to Jinendrabuddhi, the compound rūpâdi-viṣayâlambanam is a bahuvrīhi of which the prior portion (rūpâdi-viṣaya) is a genitive of material (vikāra-ṣaṣṭhī); see MBh, II, ii, 24 (ex., suvarṇa-vikāro 'lamkāro yasya suvarṇâlamkāraḥ). Thus, he analyzes it as: yasyâlambanam rūpâdi-viṣaya-vikāraḥ (rūpâdi-viṣayānām vikāraḥ); see PST, 25a.2-4 (28b.2-3). Following this interpretation, we may translate the above passage as follows: The mental perception whose object is a derivative from the object [of the immediately preceding sense-perception, viz.,] a thing of color, etc., and which operates in the form of immediate experience is also free from conceptual construction.

It is obvious that, in giving the above explanation, Jinendrabuddhi is influenced by Dharmakirti's treatment of the problems of mental perception. Two problems respecting mental perception of objects are: (1) If the mind perceives the same object that had been perceived by the immediately preceding sense, this mental perception could not be recognized as pramāna, because pramāna is defined as anadhigatartha-gantr; see above, n. 1.20. (2) If, on the other hand, the object of the mental perception were absolutely different from that of the senseperception, then even blind and deaf persons would be able to perceive color and sound, for their minds are not defective like their senses. It is not clear whether Dignāga was aware of these two problems, but they are mentioned in Dharmapāla's commentary on Alambanap.; see Kuan so yuan yuan lun shih, T. 1625, p. 889b.4-8. Dharmakīrti solves these difficulties in the following way: (1) What is perceived by means of mental perception is the object in the moment that immediately follows the moment of sense-perception. Therefore mental perception is held to be anadhigatârtha-gantr. (2) Mental perception is conditioned by the immediately preceding sense-perception as its samanantara-pratyaya. Accordingly, blind and deaf persons who have no sense-perception are unable to have mental perception; see PV, III, 243-244; NB, I, 9; PVin, 256a.8-256b.2. See also PV, III, 239-248; Bud. Log., Π, 311 ff.

The reason for postulating mental perception of external objects is variously discussed by post-Dharmakirti scholars. (1) Some accept it only because it is canonically established. The following āgama is quoted in justification of mental perception: dvābhyām bhikṣavo rūpam grhyate, kadācit cakṣuṣā tad-ākṛṣṭena manasā ca; see NBT-Tippanī (Bibliotheca Buddhica, XI), p. 26.10-11; Tarka-bhāṣā, p. 9.17-18. Dharmottara clearly states that there is no means to prove mental perception. He accepts it simply because he sees no harm in admitting it, insofar as it is of such nature as is explained by Dharmakīrti; see NBT, p. 63.1-2: etac ca siddhānta-prasiddham mānasam pratyakṣam, na tv asya prasādhakam asti pramānam. evam-jātīyakam tad yadi syāt na kascid doṣah syād iti vaktum

laksanam ākhvātam asvēti. Jitāri omits mental perception in his classification of perception; see Hetutattvanirdesa, p. 273. (2) Some maintain that mental perception is a process intermediate between sense-perception and conceptual construction. According to the pramāṇa-vyavasthā theory (see above n. 1.14). sense-perception and mental construction are two radically different means of cognition. However, if mental perception, which is perceptual on the one hand and mental on the other, were not postulated, sense-data could never have been combined with mental construction, with the consequence that human activities based upon verbal expressions in respect to objects could never have taken place; see DhP, p. 62.29-31: iha pūrvaih—bāhyārthālambanam evam-vidham mano-vijitānam astīti kuto 'vaseyam ity āsankya, tad-abhāve tad-balotpannānām vikalpānām abhāvād rūpādau visaye vyavahārābhāva-prasangah syād ity uktam. This view was held by Jñānagarbha, etc.; ibid., p. 266 (notes on p. 62): "iha pūrvaih"—tad astīti kuto 'dhigatam ity āśankya vikalpôdayād iti sādhanam Jñānagarbheņôktam; . . . ācārya-Jñānagarbha-prabhṛtīnām mānasa-siddhave vat pramāņam upanyastam vikalpôdayād iti . . . (3) Some consider that mental perception is the intellectual intuition of persons who, by repeated practice of meditation upon the true state of all things (samasta-vastu-sambaddha-tattvâbhyāsa), have attained omniscience (sarva-jñatva); TS(P), 3381-3389. Such mental perception may be regarded as identical with yogi-jñāna; see TSP, p. 396.1. However, according to Dharmottara, there is a difference between mental perception and the yogin's perception. The former is conditioned by the preceding sense-perception whereas the latter is unconditioned. Sense-perception is the samanantara-pratyaya in the case of mental perception, but it is the alambanapratyaya in the case of yogin's perception, for a yogin has insight into what other persons perceive. See NBT, p. 59.2-3: īdrsenêndriya-vijītānenâlambana-bhūtenâni yogi-jiianam janyate, tan nirasartham samanantara-pratyaya-grahanam krtam. It is hard to determine which of the above three interpretations is most faithful to Dignāga's thought.

1.47. PVBh, p. 305.17–18: rāga-dveṣa-moha-sukha-duḥkhâdiṣu ca [text omits ca] sva-samvedanam indriyânapekṣatvān mānasam pratyakṣam. See PST, 25b.3 (29a.3): "ḥdod chags la sogs pa rnams la yan ran rig paḥo"; Vibhūti, p. 229¹: rāgâdiṣu ca . . .; ibid., p. 194¹: rāgâdi-sukhâdiṣu . . .

See also PV, III, 249-280.

1.48. Vibhūti, p. 191³; TAV, p. 54.14-15: yoginām guru-nirdeśâvyatibhinnârtha-mātra-dṛk. Cf. NMukh, p. 3b.21; 諸修定者離教分別...是現景.

1.49. Vibhūti, p. 2031: yoginām apy āgama-vikalpāvyavakīrņam artha-mātra-daršanam pratyakṣam.

The cognition derived from the $\bar{a}gama$ (= $\dot{s}abda$) is a kind of $anum\bar{a}na$; see above n. 1.12. Akalanka points out that Dignāga, who states that pratyakṣa functions in close connection with the senses (akṣam akṣam prati vartate) (see n. 1.11), has no right to regard the yogin's intuition as a kind of pratyakṣa, since it has nothing to do with the senses, TAV, p. 54.13-14: $sy\bar{a}n matam—yogino$

'tindriya-pratyakṣam jñānam asty āgama-vikalpâtītam, tenâsau sarvârthān prat-yakṣam vetti. uktam ca "yoginām..." (PS, I, 6cd) iti. tan na. kim kāraṇam. arthābhāvat. "akṣam akṣam prati vartate" iti pratyakṣam, na câyam artho yogini vidyate akṣâbhāvāt. To meet this objection, Dharmottara distinguishes the actual meaning of pratyakṣa from its etymological meaning; see above n. 1.11. See also PV, III, 281–287.

1.50. In introspection, one becomes aware of one's own cognition. This internal awareness of cognition is similar in nature to the internal awareness of desire, etc.

1.51. PVV, p. 204.15; PVBh, p. 331.19; ŚVK, pt. I, p. 258.11; NR, p. 131.18: kalpanâpi svasamvittāv iṣṭā nârthe vikalpanāt.

Dignāga expounds the theory that each cognition has a twofold appearance: the appearance of an object (arthābhāsa) and that of itself as subject (svābhāsa). As such, cognition cognizes itself while cognizing an object; see below n. 1.61. Kalpanā means the association of a word with a thing perceived; see above n. 1.26. The cognizing of an object through kalpanā is anumāna, and not pratyakṣa. But, whether it is anumāna or pratyakṣa, the essential nature of the cognition is the same, that is, it is self-cognized; see PS, ch. II, k. 1c (cited in Vibhūti, p. 524.2): pūrvavat (=pratyakṣavat) phalam. In this process of self-cognition, there is no kalpanā. Cf. NMukh, p. 3b.23-26.

Dharmakīrti expounds the same thought in PV, III, 287: sabdartha-grāhi yad yatra taj jñānam tatra kalpanā svarūpam ca na sabdarthas tatrādhyakṣam ato 'khilam.

1.52. Desire for an object which was formerly experienced as pleasurable is not perception, whereas our internal awareness of desire is perception; see n. 1.47.

1.53. PVBh, p. 332.20; NCV, p. 64.9-10:

bhränti-samorti-saj-jñänam anumänânumänikam smärtâbhiläsikam cêti pratyaksâbham sataimiram.

Vibhūti, p. 205¹: ābhilāpikam instead of ābhilāşikam; Sammatitarkap.; p. 527.1-2; samvṛti-samjītānam instead of °-saj-jītānam. Cf. TSP, p. 394.20-21: "bhrānti(li) samvṛti(h)sājītānam anumāna-" ity ādinā pratyakṣābhāsa-nirdesād... (This reading must be corrected to conform to the above-cited verse.)

Jinendrabuddhi explains that four kinds of pratyakṣâbhāsa are mentioned in this verse: (1) bhrānti, (2) samvṛti-saj-jñāna, (3) anumāna, ānumānika, smārta, ābhilāṣika, and (4) sataimira; see PST, 27b.2-28b.2 (31a.5-32a.8). The word "sataimira" is interpreted by him as meaning cognitions caused by the defect of sense-organ, such as timira (eye-disease); ibid., 28b.2 (32a.7-8): "rab rib bcas (sataimira) ṣes pa ḥdis dban po la ñe bar gnod pa las skyes pa rab rib la sogs paḥi śes pa (indriyôpaghāta-jam timirâdi-jñānam) mnon sum ltar snan ba bṣi pa gsuns so." However, in the Vṛtti on this verse, Dignāga does not mention "sataimira" as a kind of pratyakṣâbhāsa. He explains only (1), (2), and (3), all of which are produced by kalpanā. Dignāga defines pratyakṣa as kalpanâpoḍha and in the preceding passages he has mentioned various types of pratyakṣa. In enumerating here three kinds of pratyakṣâbhāsa, he seems to have followed the Vādavidhi, in

which it is stated that the definition of pratyaksa given therein effectively rules out bhrānti-jñāna, samvṛti-jñāna, and anumāna-jñāna; see Section 2, n. 2,8. Thus, I take the word "sataimiram" as an adjective modifying "pratyaksābham," but not as mentioning a separate kind of pratyaksābhāsa.

The above explanation of Jinendrabuddhi is based upon Dharmakīrti's interpretation of this verse as developed in PV, III, 288-300. Dharmakīrti clearly states that there are four kinds of pratyakṣābhāsa, three produced by $kalpan\bar{a}$ and one produced by the defect of sense-organ; see PV, III, 288:

tri-vidham kalpanā-jñānam āsrayôpaplavôdbhavam avikalpam ekam ca pratyakṣâbham catur-vidham.

According to him, the word "sataimira" is mentioned by Dignāga in order to make an exception (apavāda) to his definition of pratyakṣa as kalpanāpoḍha, since cognitions produced by the defect of sense-organ are kalpanāpoḍha and yet are not true pratyakṣa. Thus, "sataimira" is taken as meaning "indriyôpaghāta-jam jīnānam"; ibid., 293:

apavādas caturtho 'tra tenôktam upaghāta-jam kevalam tatra timiram upaghātôpalakṣaṇam.

When examining the Nyāya definition of pratyakṣa "indriyārtha-samnikarṣō-tpamam jñānam...avyabhicāri...," Dignāga states that the qualifier "avyabhicārin" is unnecessary for the reason that the cognition produced by indriyārtha-samnikarṣa is free of vyabhicāra which is caused by taking the illusion produced by manas for the object; see Section 3, Bb. This statement of Dignāga's inclines us to believe that Dignāga attributed errors only to manas and that he admitted indriya-jñāna as absolutely free from error. However, Dharmakirti argues that Dignāga was aware of the pratyakṣābhāsa caused by the defect of sense-organ, referring to a passage (see Section 2, Dd) wherein Dignāga states that indriya is the cause of cognitions of nīla, dvi-candra, etc.; see PV, III, 294:

mānasam tad apīty eke teşām grantho virudhyate nīla-dvi-candrādi-dhiyām hetur akṣāny apīty ayam.

He further proceeds to disprove the notion that an error is caused only by manas, in the following manner: If the erroneous perception of dvi-candra were held to be caused by manas, this would involve the following absurd conclusions: (1) It would be removed even when the defect of the indriya is not cured, as the erroneous mental cognition of a snake for what is really a rope is removed simply by the close examination of the object; (2) It would not be removed even when the defect of the indriya is cured; (3) A man whose indriya is sound would also perceive a dvi-candra if he were to hear about it from a man who had a defective indriya; (4) It would not be immediate to indriya but would be mediated by remembrance; (5) The image of dvi-candra would not be clear; cf. ibid., 297-298:

sarpādi-bhrāntivac cāsyāḥ syād akṣa-vikṛtāv api nivṛttir na nivartteta nivṛtte 'py akṣa-viplave kadācid anya-samtāne tathaivārpyeta vācakaiḥ dṛṣṭa-smṛtim apekṣeta na bhāseta parisphuṭam.

In defining pratyakṣa in NB as well as in PVin, Dharmakirti employs the term "abhrānta" besides "kalpanâpoḍha" in order to rule out erroneous cogni-

tions caused by timira, etc.; see NB, I, 4; PVin, 252b.3-4; Nyāyakaņikā, p. 192.16-21 (see Stcherbatsky, Bud, Log., II, 17, n. 3, 18, n. 1), and post-Dharmakīrti scholars follow him; see PVBh, p. 245.13; TS, 1214, 1312, etc. However, as mentioned above, Dignāga defines pratyaksa simply as kalpanāpodha and regards the qualifier "avyabhicārin" in the Nyāya definition of pratyakṣa as unnecessary. As I see it. Dignaga did not take into consideration errors caused by defective sense-organs when he defined pratyaksa and when he mentioned pratyaksābhāsa in the above verse. Perhaps later on Dignāga's definition was subjected to criticism which recognized that manas is not the only cause of erroneous cognitions, and this criticism propelled Dharmakīrti into making an extended interpretation of Dignaga's thought. This may be clear from the fact that some commentators did not follow Dharmakirti and put a different interpretation on Dignäga's thought. As to why Dignāga did not use the term "abhrānta" in his definition of pratyaksa, they urged the following explanation: Even erroneous cognitions, such as the cognition of a yellow conch-shell for what is really a white conch-shell, are to be recognized as pratyaksa inasmuch as they are not inconsistent in producing effects (artha-kriyavisamvada). Thus, they take the word "sataimira" in the above verse of Dignaga's as derived from timira in the sense of "ajñāna," but not as meaning "indriyôpaghāta-jam iñānam"; see TS and TSP, 1324:

pīta-śaṅkhâdi-buddhīnām vibhrame 'pi pramāṇatām artha-kriyâvisamvādād apare sampracakṣate.

kecit tu sva-yūthyā evâbhrānta-grahanam nêcchanti, bhrāntasyâpi pīta-šankhâdijñānasya pratyakṣatvāt. ata evâcārya-Dignāgena lakṣane na kṛtam abhrāntagrahaṇam. "bhrānti-..." ity-ādinā pratyakṣâbhāsa-nirdeśād avisamvādi-kalpanâpoḍham ity evenvidham iṣṭam ācāryasya lakṣaṇam. "sataimiram" iti tu timira-śabdo 'yam ajñāna-paryāyaḥ.... timire bhavam taimiram visamvādakam ity arthah. See also PVBh, pp. 252.29—253.2; Stcherbatsky, Bud. Log., I, 153—161.

1.54. PVBh, p. 332.25-27: tatra bhrānti-jñānam mṛga-tṛṣṇādiṣu toyādi-kalpanā-pravṛttatvāt pratyakṣābhāsam. samvṛti-saj-jñānam¹ samvṛti-satsv arthân-tarāropāt tad-rūpa-kalpanā-pravṛttatvāt pratyakṣābhāsam.² anumāna-tat-phalādi-jñānam pūrvānubhūta-kalpanayêti na pratyakṣam. [I have inserted¹ and². K and V have², but not¹. Without these, the passage is liable to be construed as: bhrānti-jñāna is pratyakṣābhāsa, because (1) mṛga-tṛṣṇādiṣu... pravṛttatvāt, (2) samvṛti-satsu... pravṛttatvāt. This construction is not appropriate.]

Jinendrabuddhi explains the distinction between bhrānti-jñāna and samurti-saj-jñāna as follows: the former is produced by the superimposition upon the object of a thing which one has seen before, whereas the latter is produced by the superimposition of what is unreal upon the object; see PST, 28a.4-6 (31b.8-32a.3). For "samurti-sat," see below, n. 2.17. See also NMukh, p. 3b.26-3c.1.

1.55. Vibhūti, p. 221¹; PVBh, p. 349.5; NMañj, p. 66.20; ŚVV, p. 138.17; Sammatitarkap., p. 529.12:

savyāpāra-pratītatvāt pramāņam phalam eva sat.

Cf. NMukh, p. 3b.21-23: 又於此中無別量果. 以卽此體似義生故似有用故假設爲量.

In asserting the identity of pramāna-phala and pramāna in this verse, Dignāga is basing his thought upon sākāra-jījāna-vāda, the theory that the cognition possesses the form (ālcāra) of the object within itself. The cognition as pramānaphala is the apprehension of an object (visayadhigati). If, as maintained by the anākāra (or nirākāra)-iñāna-vādins, the cognition were formless (nirākāra) while the object had form (ākāra), then the cognition itself (anubhava-mātra), as distinguished from the object, would remain the same whether it cognized something blue or something yellow or any other object. Accordingly, the cognition as the apprehension of an object must be admitted to be sākāra; it has assumed the form of an object (visayākārāpanna). The sākāra cognition is thus understood to possess the function (vyāpāra) of assuming the form of an object. For this reason Dignaga considers it as pramāna, although primarily it is phala in its aspect as the "apprehension" (adhigati) of an object. See TSP, p. 399.13-16: jfiānam hi visayākāram utpadyamānam vişayam paricchindad iva savyāpāram ivâbhāti, ayam evârthaprāpaņa-vyāpāro jñānasya . . . tasmāt sākāram eva jñānam pramāņam na nirākāram iti . . .

Dharmakīrti, in a detailed commentary on the above verse (PV, III, 301–319), disproves the theories which hold that the sense-organ, the contact of sense and object, or the simple reflection of an object (ālocana) is pramāṇa. The suffix "-ana" of the word "pramāṇa" signifies "karaṇa," the instrument or, according to Pāṇini, the predominant cause; see Pāṇ., I, iv, 42: sādhakatamam karaṇam. (The Bauddhas follow this definition; see PV, III, 311; PVBh, p. 344.29; NBT, p. 84.6-7.) Dharmakīrti states that, among the various causes which contribute to a result, the latest one is the predominant cause. The sense-organ, etc. is related to the resulting cognition only mediately (vyavadhānena). Thus, Dharmakīrti, in support of Dignāga's theory, concludes that the latest and the predominant cause of the resulting apprehension of an object is nothing other than the fact that the cognition possesses the form of an object (meya-rūpatā). He also criticizes the view which holds višeṣaṇa-jñāna to be the pramāṇa of the resulting višeṣya-jñāna. This same view is attacked by Dignāga himself in Section 3, Eb-1.

The theory that the cognition is sākāra is held by the Sautrāntikas and some Yogācāras. (The Yogācāras are divided into sākāra-vijnāna-vādins and nirākāravijītāna-vādins.) Šāntaraksita and Kamalasīla distinguish the views of the two schools concerning pramāna and pramāna-phala. The Sautrāntikas admit the existence of an external object (bāhyârtha). Thus, the similarity (sārūpya) of the form represented in a cognition to that of the object is held to be pramāna of the resulting visayâdhigati. The Yogācāras, on the other hand, maintain that the object is merely the appearance of an object (visayabhāsa) in the cognition. Accordingly, visavâdhigati is nothing other than the cognition of the cognition itself, i.e., self-cognition (svasamvitti). This ability (vogvatā) of the cognition to cognize itself is considered as pramāņa of the resulting self-cognition, because it is the predominant cause of the latter; see TS(P), 1344. The difference between the views of the two schools is discussed by Dignaga in the following passages of the text. However, the theory set forth here that the sākāra cognition is both pramāna-phala and pramāna is amenable to both schools (ubhaya-naya). See also NB, I, 18-19; Yuktidipikā, p. 40.12-15.

- 1.56. Dignāga criticizes the view recognizing pramāna as distinct from pramāna-phala in Section 3, Ea-Ee, and in Section 6, Da. In NBh, introd. to I, i, 1, Vātsyāyana distinguishes the four factors of cognition, namely, pramātr, pramāna, prameya, and pramiti (pramāna-phala). Further, in NBh, ad I, i, 3, after explaining that pratyakṣa(-pramāna) is the operation (vrtti) of each sense-organ upon its own object, he states that, according as the operation is in the form of contact (saimikarṣa) or of cognition (jñāna), the result (pramiti) is cognition or the mental attitude to discard or accept or disregard the object (hānôpādānôpe-kṣā-buddhi). Thus, it is clear that Vātsyāyana considered pramāṇa-phala to be distinct from pramāṇa. But, in view of the fact that Uddyotakara gives no answer to Dignāga's criticism while Kumārila makes a counter attack, it is supposed that the distinction between pramāṇa and pramāṇa-phala was originally discussed by the Mīmāmsakas. Vācaspatimiśra does not make any particular remark on this problem in NVTT, but he takes it up in his Nyāyakanikā, a commentary on the Vidhiviveka of the Mīmāmsakas; see below, n. 1.57.
- 1.57. Kumārila objects to this theory of nondistinction between pramāna and pramāna-phala. He cites the instance of cutting down a tree with an axe. The instrument, axe, is distinct from the resulting cutting down $(chid\bar{a})$ of the tree. The distinction between instrument and result is thus universally accepted. Likewise, Kumārila observes, pramāna, the instrument of cognition, must be distinguished from the cognition produced by means of it; see SV, IV, 74, 75 (TSP, p. 399.4-6):

viṣayaikatvam icchams tu yaḥ pramāṇam phalam vadet sādhya-sādhanayor bhedo laukikas tena bādhitaḥ. chedane khadira-prāpte palāse na chidā yathā tathaiva parasor loke chidayā saha naikatā.

The same objection is made by Akalanka in TAV, p. 56.12-14: loke pramānāt phalam arthântara-bhūtam upalabhyate, tadyathā chetr-chettavya-chedanasamnidhāne dvaidhi-bhāvah phalam, na ca tathā svasamvedanam arthântarabhūtam asti, tasmād asva phalatvam nopapadvate. Jayanta Bhatta also reproaches Dignaga as follows, for his confusion of the instrument and the result: When we say that Caitra mows rice with a scythe or that a man perceives a pot with his eyes, the subject, the object, and the instrument are presented to our consciousness as distinct from the action itself. Actually the word "pramāṇa" is sometimes used in the sense of "pramā," and "karana" in the sense of "krti." However, it is not admissible to regard "pramāna" and "pramā" or "karana" and "krti" as one and the same thing: the instrument and the result reside always in different loci (adhikarana); see NMañi, p. 66.20 ff. References to the theory in question made by Vācaspatimiśra in Nyāyakanikā, pp. 254.12-260.22. and by Udayana in NVT-Parisuddhi, pp. 152-155, are studied by Stcherbatsky, Bud. Log., II, app. IV, 352 ff. The Bauddhas are ready to answer the above objections as follows: Since all entities are, absolutely speaking, instantaneous, the relation of the producer and the produced (utpādyôtpādaka-bhāva) cannot be established between two entities. It, therefore, is not proper to consider the instrument of cognition as an entity distinct from and producing the resulting cognition. The relation of pramāna and phala is to be understood as that of the

determiner and the determined (vyavasthāpya-vyavasthāpaka-bhāva). When we have a distinct cognition of something blue, this cognition is recognized as being determined—the cognition of something blue and not of something yellow (nīlasyēdam samvedanam na pītasyēti)—and this determination is made by the appearance (ākāra) of something blue in the cognition itself; see TS(P), 1346; PV, III, 315; NBT, ad I, 18-19.

1.58. Both K and V read "bya ba med paḥan ma yin no" (na tu vyāpārâbhāve 'pi: but not when it is devoid of activity). However, we read in PV, III, 307cd, 308, as follows:

dadhānam tac ca tām (=meya-rūpatām) ātmany arthâdhigamanâtmanā savyāpāram ivābhāti vyāpāreņa sva-karmaņi

tad-vašāt tad vyavasthānād akārakam api svayam.

According to the Bauddhas, all entities (dharma) are ultimately devoid of function (vyāpāra), since they are in a state of flux. Thus, the cognition is akāraka or nirvyāpāra in its essential nature. But, inasmuch as the cognition arises in the form of an object, the function of taking (upā-\sqrt dā) that form and discarding (pari-\sqrt tyai) another form can be secondarily attributed to the cognition. It is through this function that a cognition is determined as the cognition of something blue and not of something yellow; see above, nn. 1.55, 57. In the light of Dharmakīrti's interpretation, we understand Dignāga's statement as meaning that the resulting cognition is metaphorically called the means of cognition, because it appears as if it had a function, although it is devoid of function in its ultimate nature. Thus, the Tibetan text had better be corrected to read "bya ba med par yan yin no" (vyāpārābhāve 'pi). This emendation may be supported by PST, 31b.4-5 (35b.7): "ji Ita baḥi bya ba med kyan de dan Idan pa ñid du snan bar hgyur ba ci Itar se na . .," and also by Prajñākaragupta's commentary on PS, III, 309; cf. n. 59.

Two seven-syllable sentences—"tshad ma \tilde{n} id du hdogs pa ste" and "bya ba med pahan ma yin no"—are included in both Kk and Vk. It seems likely that they have been wrongly regarded as forming part of the Kārikās, since they simply express in different wording the same idea as that stated in k. 8cd.

1.59. Here again the reading given by both K and V is "bya ba med pa(r) yan ma yin pa." Dharmakirti expresses the same thought in PV, III, 309, as follows: yathā phalasya hetūnāri sadršātmatavôdbhavād

hetu-rūpa-graho loke 'kriyāvattve 'pi kathyate.

Prajňākaragupta makes clear the meaning of this verse by the example of the newborn child, who, showing similarity to his father (pitr-sadrša), is said to have taken the form of his father (pitr-rūpam grhnāti), although, in fact, he has no such function as taking (his father's form) (vināpi grahaṇa-vyāpāreṇa); PVBh, p. 344.11-12. The same illustration is given by Manorathanandin too; PVV, p. 211.10: "hetu-rūpa-graho kathyate" pitū rūpam grhītam sutenētyādi. Thus, the Tibetan text must be corrected to read "bya ba med par yan yin pa . . . (vyāpā-rābhāve 'pi)."

1.60. *Vibhūti*, p. 221¹:

sva-samvittih phalam vätra.

PVBh, p. 349.7; Vibhūti, p. 2151; ŚVK, pt. I, p. 237.22: ca instead of vā. NR, p.

158.17: câsya instead of vâtra. It is worth noting that both ŚVK and NR reverse the order of k. 9ab and k. 9cd. PVV, p. 228.12-13: sva-samvittiḥ phalam vâti sūtre . . . In k. 8cd and the Vṛtti thereon, the cognition possessing the form of an object, i.e., the apprehension of an object (viṣayâdhigati), has been regarded as phala. Since an alternative view recognizing sva-samvitti as phala is put forward here, the reading "vā" is preferable to "ca." Although the Tibetan "yan" is used as an equivalent for both "vā" and "ca," the following statement of Jinendrabuddhi seems to support the reading "vā": "sna mar yul rig pa ḥbras bur gsuns te, deḥi phyir yan naḥi sgra ni rnam par brtag paḥi don can no"; PST, 32a.5 (36a.8).

The word "sva-samvitti" (self-cognition: sva-samvid, "-samvedana, ātma-") is expressive of the thought that a cognition is cognized by itself and does not need another cognition to cognize itself. When a man has the cognition of something blue (nīla), he has at the same time the awareness of the cognition of something blue (nīla-dhī). This awareness is caused by nothing other than the cognition itself. Thus, the cognition, while cognizing an object, cognizes itself, as a lamp illuminates itself (sva-prakāśa) while illuminating an object. The definition of sva-samvittī is given in TS, 2012:

svarūpa-vedanāyânyad vedakam na vyapekṣate na câviditam astidam ity artho 'yan sva-samvidah.

There are divergent views regarding how a cognition is cognized; see Stcherbatsky, Bud. Log., I, 164-166; Sinha, Indian Psychology, Cognition, pp. 199-221. The Sāmkhyas maintain that the cognition is a function of buddhi, which, evolving from prakṛti (primordial matter), is of material nature. As such the cognition is unconscious in itself. It is illumined by purusa, which alone is selfconscious. The Naiyāyikas put forward the theory of anuvyavasāya. When the external sense-organ comes into contact with an object, there arises the apprehension (vvavasava) of the object. This apprehension is unconscious of itself. The awareness of this apprehension is produced as the "subsequent apprehension" (anuvyavasāya) through the medium of the internal sense-organ or the mind (manas) which takes the first apprehension for its object; see NBh, ad I. i. 4: sarvatra pratyaksa-visaye iñātur indrivena vyavasāyah, paścān manasânuvyavasāyah. Thus, according to the Naiyāyikas, a cognition is cognized by another cognition. Kumārila expounds a different view. According to him, a cognition is known not directly, but through inference. When an object is cognized, a peculiar property, namely, "cognizedness" (jñātatā), is produced in the object as a result of cognition. As the cognition is an action (kriyā), it is not known directly. Thus, Kumārila holds, the cognition is inferred from "cognizedness." The theory of sva-samvitti is maintained by the Sautrantikas and the Yogacaras. It is also shared by the Jainas, the Prabhākara-Mimārisakas, and the Advaita-Vedāntins, although it is modified by each.

1.61. TAV, p. 56.10-11: dvy-ābhāsam hi jñānam utpadyate, svâbhāsam viṣa-yâbhāsam ca. tasyōbhayâbhāsasya yat sva-samvedanam [text: samvedanam] tat phalam. Cf. PVV, p. 228.13-14: svâbhāsam viṣayâbhāsam ca jñānam utpadyate, tatra yat sva-samvedanam tat phalam; PVBh, p. 349.7: ubhayâbhāsasya vijñānasya sva-samvedanam eva phalam.

That the consciousness (vijīāna) itself appears (ābhāti, pratibhāti, avabhāti, khyāti) as subject (svābhāsa=grāhakāmśa, °-ākāra) and object (arthābhāsa, viṣayā°=grāhyāmśa, °-ākāra) is a principal doctrine of the Yogācāras; see Madhyāntav., I, k. 3; Mahāy. Sūtrālam., ad XI, k. 32, etc. The above passage shows that, in considering sva-samvitti as pramāṇa-phala, Dignāga takes the Yogācāra doctrine for his theoretical basis. See Vibhūti, p. 215¹: Sautrāntika-pramāṇam sārūpyam bāhyo 'rthaḥ prameyo 'dhigatiḥ phalam vyavasthāpyādhmā vijīaptau pramāṇa-phala-vyavasthām nirdidikṣuḥ "sva-samvittiḥ..." iti...

In Alambanap., Dignāga examines the theories concerning the object of cognition (ālambana), and proves that nothing existing in the external world, whether it be a single atom (anu) or the aggregate (samcita) of atoms or the gathering (samghāta) of atoms, can satisfy the necessary conditions that the object of cognition must fulfill; see below, n. 2.17. In conclusion, he supports the Yogācāra doctrine that the object of cognition is nothing other than the appearance of an object in the cognition itself; Ālambanap., k. 6a-c (cited in TSP, p. 582.11-12):

yad antar-jijeya-rūpam tu bahirvad avabhāsate so 'rthah.

He further remarks that what is called the sense (indriya) in relation to the object is not the physical organ, but the ability (sakti) to produce a cognition (ibid., 7cd) or the ability to cognize the appearance of the object. This ability is considered to be cognition's appearance as itself (svābhāsa) in contrast with its appearance as an object (visayābhāsa). When sva-samvitti is regarded as pramāna-phala, the role of pramāna, which takes the cognition for its prameya, must be attributed to the svābhāsa of the cognition itself.

Although Dignaga bases the theory of sva-samvitti on the Yogacara doctrine. he believes that even the Sautrantikas will accept the theory that sva-samvitti is the pramana-phala. In his own commentary on k. 9b, which follows the above passage, he refers to two different theories: the one recognizing the object as saviṣaya-jñāna, and the other as bāhyârtha. Evidently, they are respectively the theories of the Yogācāras and the Sautrāntikas. The Sautrāntikas admit that when an external object (bāhyārtha) is brought to the cognition (buddhy-ārūdha) and the cognition comes to possess similarity (sārūpya) to the form of the object. there arises the awareness of this cognition, viz., sva-samvitti. Inasmuch as this awareness is held to be pramana-phala, the Sautrantikas should admit that the prameya in this case is the cognition itself, and not the external object. However, Dignāga justifies the Sautrāntika view by regarding sārūpya (=viṣayâkāratā) as the pramāna by means of which an external object is cognized. The difference between the views of the Sautrantikas and the Yogacaras is described in SVV as follows: ye 'pi Sautrāntika-pakṣam evam vyācakṣate—bāhyo 'rthah prameyam, viiñānasya visayâkāratā pramānam sva-samvittih phalam iti ... [p, 139.11-12], idanim Yogācāra-pakse 'pi . . . tesām caitad daršanam—bāhyartho nāsti, vijnānasya visayâkāratā prameyā, svâkāratā pramānam, sva-samvittiļi phalam iti [p. 139.19-21]. See also SVK, part I, pp. 237.18-22, 238.10-14; NR, pp. 158.13-17, 159.7-11. The ability to cognize itself or svåbhāsa (=grāhakākāra) of the cognition is disregarded by the Sautrantikas, and svabhasa and sva-samvitti are understood by them as bearing the same meaning. Therefore the Sautrāntika view is referred to in SVK, part I, p. 237.18–20 as follows: yadi tücyate . . . dvi-rūpam ekam eva jītānam sva-samvittyā viṣayākāreņa ca. tad atra sva-samvittih phalam viṣayākārah pramāṇam . . . Both SVK and NR regard k. 9 as expressing the Sautrāntika thought and k. 10 the Yogācāra view. (As noted above, they reverse the order of k. 9ab and k. 9cd.) This interpretation, it seems to me, is irrelevant, since in the above passage Dignāga mentions "svābhāsa," "viṣayābhāsa," and "ubhayābhāsasya sva-samvedanam."

Dharmakirti criticizes the Sauträntika theory of artha-samvedana in PV, III, 320-337, and concludes his arguments with the following verse:

tasmād dvi-rūpam asty ekam yad evam anubhūyate

smaryate côbhayasyâsya samvedanam phalam.

The word "dvi-rūpa" means "bodha-rūpa" and "nīlâdi-rūpa"; see PVBh, p. 391.29; PVV, p. 220.24-25, i.e., svābhāsa and viṣayābhāsa.

Kumārila objects to the theory of "sva-samvitti" as follows: The cognition, while functioning to illumine an object, cannot also function to illumine itself, as one thing cannot possess two functions $(vy\bar{a}p\bar{a}ra)$ at the same time; see SV, $S\bar{u}$ nyavāda, 184–187; TS(P), 2013–2016. However, this objection does not damage the position of the Yogācāras, since they do not admit the object independent of the cognition itself.

1.62. Vibhūti, pp. 2151, 2211; TS, 1328d; ŚVK, part I, p. 237.22: tad-rūpo hy artha-niścayah.

NR, p. 158.17: tad-dvaye instead of tad-rūpo.

It is evident from the *Vrtti* on this *pāda* that "tad-rūpa" means "svasamvitti-rūpa." Quoting this *pāda*, Śāntarakṣita and Kamalaśīla construe "tad-rūpa" as meaning "viṣayâkāra" in the cognition; see TS, 1328, 1329ab:

yady ākāram anādrtya prāmānyam ca prakalpyate artha-kriyavisamvādāt "tad-rūpo hy artha-niscayah" ityādi gaditam sarvam katham na vyāhatam bhavet.

on which TSP explains "tad-rūpa" as "jāāna-sthābhāsa-rūpaḥ." This interpretation shows the Sautrāntika tendency. In fact, Kamalaśila quotes from the Vrtti the passage explaining the Sautrāntika thought, without referring to Dignāga's explanation of the Yogācāra view; TSP, ad 1329: "ādi-śabdena 'yathā yathā hy arthasyâkāraḥ śubhrâditvena...' ityādikam ācāryīyam vacanam virudhyata iti darśayati"; cf. n. 1.64.

The term "niscaya" is often used in the sense of "adhyavasāya" (judgment), which involves conceptual construction (vikalpa, kalpanā); see Bud. Log., vol. II, indices. However, here artha-niscaya means not arthādhyavasāya but artha-vyavasthāpana, the determination or the establishment of the object. The realist view is that a cognition is determined as the cognition of x or that of y according as the object is x or y, whereas Dignāga holds the view that an object is determined as x or y according as sva-sanvitti is x or y.

1.63. The reading of both K and V: "de dan rjes su mthun pahi ran rig pa... (tad-anurūpa-svasamvittih... = saviṣaya-jñānānurūpa-svasamvittih...)" is not acceptable, because k. 9b is intended to show that the object conforms to svasamvitti, but not that sva-samvitti conforms to the object. The translation is

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based upon the reading given in PST, 32b.4 (36b.7), 33a.2 (37a.5-6), 33a.3 (37a.7-8), 33a.6 (37b.2): "ran rig pa dan rjes su mthun par (paḥi) hdod paḥam mi hdod paḥi don rtogs par byed do (svasamvitty-anurūpa isto 'nisto vārthaḥ pratīyate)."

This passage is understood as proving that sva-samvitti is phala from the Yogācāra viewpoint. The Yogācāras do not admit the existence of the external object. They note that the object of the cognition in a dream has no corresponding reality, that one and the same object is variously cognized by different persons, etc., and they assert that the object is essentially immanent in the cognition. Here Dignāga observes that when a man is aware that something blue appears in his cognition, this thing of blue in the cognition is conceived as the object. As there is no object, for the Yogācāras, apart from this appearance of something blue in the cognition, it is established that the awareness of the cognition of something blue, i.e., sva-samvitti, is the result of the act of cognizing the object.

The same argument is set forth by Dharmakirti in PV, III, 339-340:

yadā savişayam jñānam jñānāmse 'rtha-vyavasthiteḥ

tadā ya ātmânubhavaḥ sa evârtha-viniścayaḥ

yadîştâkāra ātmā syād anyathā vânubhūyate

işto 'nişto 'pi vā tena bhavaty arthah praveditah.

It is evident, from comparison with Dignāga's explanation, that these two verses refer to the Yogācāra view. Both Prajñākaragupta and Manorathanandin state that k. 340 would be acceptable to the Sautrāntīkas, who diverge from the Yogācāras in not admitting the saviṣayatā of jñāna as mentioned in k. 339; see PVBh, p. 392.13 ff.: api ca bāhyam artham abhyupagacchatām api sva-samvedanam eva phalam. yatah "yadiṣṭākāra... praveditah"...; PVV, p. 222.1 ff.: bahir-arthanaye 'pi buddhi-vedanasyaivārtha-vedanatvāt tathā "yadiṣṭākāra..."

1.64. PVBh, p. 393.27-30: yadā tu bāhya evarthah prameyas tadā visayākārataivāsya pramānam

tadā hi jūānam svasamvedyam api svarūpam anapekṣyârthâbhāsataivâsya pramāṇam, yasmāt so 'rthaḥ

tena mīyate

yathā yathā hy arthasyâkārah subhâditvena jñāne pratibhāti (nivisate) tat-tadrūpah sa visayah prativate.

[viṣayâkārataivâsya pramāṇaṁ tena mīyate: quoted in ŚVK, I, 237.21; NR, p. 158.16. tadā: text, tathā; PVBhT (Tibetan version of PVBh, Peking ed., Tib. Trip. No. 5719, 70b.5), ḥdi ltar; K, V, PST, 33b.2 (37b.7): deḥi tshe. yathā yathā: text, yathā; PVBhT, ji ltar; K, V, PST, 33b.5 (38a.2), ji lta ji ltar. jñāne: text, PVBhT, omit; K, V, PST, 33b.7 (38a.4), ses pa la. nivisate: K, V, omit; PST, 33b.7 (38a.4), nes par gnas pa; PVBhT, gnas pa. tat-tad-rūpaḥ: text, tad-rūpaḥ; PVBhT, deḥi ran bṣin du: K, V, de dan deḥi no boḥi. sa viṣayaḥ: K, V, yul dan bcas pa (=saviṣayaḥ).]

Cf. Vibhūti, p. 224², 236¹: yadā tu bāhya evârthah prameyah...; TSP, p. 395.18–19: yathā yathā hy arthasyâkārah subhrâditvena samnivisate tad-rūpah sa viṣayah pramiyate.

In the above passage Dignāga refers to the views of the Sautrāntikas, who hold that the object of cognition exists in the external world. Inasmuch as the cognition is held to take an external thing for its object, it is improper to say that sva-samvitti is the result of the cognitive process, since sva-samvitti signifies that the cognition itself is the object of cognition. But Dignāga believes that the cognition is self-cognized even in that case. Jinendrabuddhi explains Dignāga's position as follows: Even if there is an external object, it is thought to exist only in conformity to the cognition, and not by its own nature. It is not that the cognition conforms to the object which exists by itself prior to the cognition; PST, 33a.2 (37a.5): "phyi rol gyi phyogs la yan myon ba ji lta ba bṣin kho nar don rtogs kyi don ji lta ba bṣin myon ba ni ma yin no ṣes snar [cf. 32a.2] kho nar bṣad zin to." This observation is very close to the Yogācāra theory in denying the independence of the object from the cognition. Similarity to the Yogācāra theory is even more notable in PV, III, 341:

vidyamāne 'pi bāhye 'rthe yathânubhava eva saḥ niścitâtmā svarūpeṇa nânekâtmatva-dosatah.

The meaning of "svarūpena na..." is understood as follows: If the object exists by itself, the absurdity would be implied that a single object has various natures (anekātmatva-doṣa), since it is cognized variously by different persons. This is exactly the reasoning advanced by the Yogācāras in proof of their theory of the non-existence of the external object (anartha); see Mahāy. Samgr., p. 148.1-2 (Lamotte, La Somme, II, 250-251), quoted in Upādāyap., p. 887b.4, but it is here adopted to prove that sva-samvitti is pramāṇa-phala from the Sautrāntika viewpoint. To conclude, when a man is aware of a pot in his cognition, it is the cognition of a pot that is cognized, and not a pot as an external object; but, insofar as there is such awareness, a pot is thought to exist in the external world. That artha-niścaya is in accordance with sva-samvitti (k. 9b) is thus established even when prameya is considered to be bāhyārtha; see PV, III, 346:

tasmāt prameye bāhye 'pi yuktam svānubhavah phalam yatah svabhāvo 'sya yathā tathaivārtha-viniscayah.

If it is the case that the cognition of a pot is cognized, then there must be, immanent in the cognition, the self-cognizing faculty, which functions as pramāna, taking the pot-formed cognition for prameya and producing sva-sanvedana as phala. This is how the Yogācāras explain the theory of sva-sanvitti. However, the Sautrāntikas have a limitation: they uphold the doctrine that prameya is an external thing. If the Sautrāntikas, in concert with the Yogācāras, had recognized the self-cognizing faculty, i.e., svābhāsa = grāhakākāra, as pramāṇa, their doctrine would have been violated, because grāhakākāra does not take the external thing for prameya. Accordingly, within the doctrinal limitation of the Sautrāntikas, Dignāga considers that the cognition's taking the form of an object (viṣayākāratā) should be regarded as pramāṇa, the external object being cognized by means of it and it being self-cognized. However, Dignāga remarks that the essential nature of the self-cognizing cognition is disregarded in the justification of the Sautrāntika doctrine.

Dharmakirti sets forth the same argument in PV, III, 347: tadârthâbhāsataivāsya pramāṇam na tu sann api grāhakātmāparārthatvād bāhyeşv arthesv apekṣate.

He further argues that, since we have awareness of the external object only when its form appears in the cognition, there is no apprehension of the external object (artha-sanwedana) apart from the cognition of the cognition itself (sva-sanwedana); ibid., III, 348-350. Touching on the same topic, Kamalaśila states that viṣayâdhigama = artha-sanwedana is pramāṇa-phala from the Sautrāntika viewpoint; see TSP, p. 398.19-20: bāhye 'rthe prameye viṣayâdhigamaḥ pramāṇa-phalam, sārūpyam tu pramāṇam. sva-sanwittāv api satyām yathâkāram asya prathanāt.

The above justification of the Sautrāntika theory has a weakness which is pointed out by Kumārila in SV. IV. 79ab:

pramāņe vişayākāre bhinnarthatvān na yujyate.

If it is held that pramāna is viṣayākāra while phala is sva-samvitti, then it would follow that pramāna and phala take different things for their respective objects (bhimārtha): the former would take an external thing for its object, whereas the latter would take the cognition. In Section 3, Dignāga himself criticizes the Naiyāyika view that pramāna and phala are bhimārtha, saying that the axe aimed at a khadira tree does not produce the cutting down of a palāša tree as a result. Kumārila employs the same criticism against Dignāga's justification of the Sautrāntika theory.

1.65. See PVBh, p. 393.30-31:...-ākāra-bhedena pramāṇa-prameyatvam upacaryate.

For Dignāga, there is only the one fact of sva-samvitti: this cognitive phenomenon itself is not differentiated into subject and object nor into act and result. His belief is based upon the vijñapti-mātra theory of the Yogācāras, according to whom, such expressions as ātman, dharma, and the like, which are supposed to denote the subject and the object, are mere metaphors (upacāra) applied to the transformation of the consciousness (vijñāna-parināma); cf. Trimś, k. 1a-c:

ātma-dharmôpacāro hi vividho yaḥ pravartate

vijñāna-pariņāme 'sau.

In reality, they maintain, there is neither subject not object: these are products of the imagination (parikalpita, utprekṣita). By attaining (pariniṣpanna) detachment from the imaginary subject and object (grāhya-grāhaka-rahita), a man comes to realize the state of pure consciousness (vijñapti-mātra), in which there is no differentiation between subject and object; see Trims, k. 20 ff., etc. The state of pure consciousness has no duration, as it is not an entity existing by its own nature. One state exists under certain conditions (paratantra) and in the next moment is replaced by another; see n. 1.66. With this theory of vijñaptimātra as background, Dignāga considers that the undifferentiated fact of svasamvitti is metaphorically differentiated into pramāna and prameya.

Kamalaśila ascribes the following statement to "ācārya," i.e., Dignāga: "tatrāpi hi pratyakṣôpacāro viruddhaś cakṣur-ādiṣu tat-kāraneṣu." Neither K nor V has the corresponding passage. According to Kamalaśīla, this statement expresses the thought that, after one has understood the relation between pramāṇa and phala as that of the determiner and the determined (vyavasthāpya-vyavasthāpaka-bhāva); see above, n. 1.56, he may metaphorically call the sense-organ a pramāṇa, although it is generally known as the cause (kāraṇa) or the producer (utpādaka) of the resulting cognition; cf. TSP, ad k. 1349.

1.66. PVBh, p. 366.7: nirvyāpārāḥ sarva-dharmāḥ.

The fundamental teaching of the Buddha that all existent things are non-eternal (aniccā sabbe sankhārā, Samyutta Nikāya, IX, 6, 6, etc.) is developed by the Sautrāntikas and the Yogācāras into the theory of universal momentariness (kṣanikatva), the theory that everything is liable to destruction at the very moment of its origination; see Mahāy. Sūtrālam., XVIII, 82-91, etc. Being in a state of flux, a thing cannot possess any function (vyāpāra). Cf. TSP, p. 399.12-13: yasmān na pāramārthikah kartṛ-karaṇādi-bhāvo 'sti, kṣaṇikatvena nirvyāpāratvāt sarva-dharmāṇām. Similar expressions are often found in TSP; naiva tu kaścit kamcid yojayati, nirvyāpāratvāt sarva-dharmāṇām (p. 369.11-12); nirvyāpāratvāt sarva-dharmāṇām na paramārthatah kasyacit kenacid grahaṇam (p. 570.15).

1.67. NMafij, p. 67.30–31; ŚVK, part I, p. 238.13–14: yad-ābhāsan prameyan tat pramāņa-phalate punaķ grāhakâkāra-sanvittī trayan nâtah prthak-krtam.

Vibhūti, p. 2211: grāhya-grāhaka-sam instead of grāhyakāra-sam (cf. ibid., p. 2291). ŠVV, p. 139.22-23; NR, p. 159.9-10: "-samvittyos instead of "-samvittī.

In this verse the Yogācāra view is clearly expounded. "Yad-ābhāsam" means that a cognition has "viṣayābhāsa=grāhyākāra," and "samvitti" implies "svasamvitti." In his commentary on Trims, Dharmapāla cites this verse as evidence of Dignāga's theory of the triple division of vijñāna, viz., grāhyākāra, grāhakā', and sva-samvitti, which Dharmapāla criticizes while presenting his own fourfold division theory (證自證分 svasamvit-samvedana? besides the above three); cf. Cheng wei shih lun, p. 10b.13–16: 如集量論伽他中說 似境相所量 能取相自證 即能置及果 此三體無別 ; La Vallée Poussin, Vijñaptimātratāsiddhi, La Siddhi de Hsüan-tsang, I, 131. This fourfold division theory is not referred to in later Sanskrit sources. Dharmakīrti treats the problem of the distinction between pramāṇa, prameya, and phala from the Yogācāra viewpoint in PV, III, 354–367. The following verse in which the triple division of vijñāna is clearly established, is cited with particular frequency:

avibhāgo 'pi buddhy-ātmā viparyāsita-darśanaih grāhva-grāhaka-samvitti-bhedavān iva laksyate. (354)

Cf. PVin, 263a.5-6; ŠVV, pp. 243.21-22, 269.18-19; NR, p. 272.14-15; ŠVK, part II, p. 98.18-19; Yogabhāṣyaṭīkā (Tattvavaiśāradī), ad IV, 23 (Ānandāśrama Skt. Ser., p. 198.23-24); Sānikhyapravacanabhāṣya, ad I, 20 (H. O. S. 2, p. 15.16-17); Sarvadarśanasangraha (Govt. Oriental Ser., Poona), II, 206-207, etc.

Kumārila attacks the above verse of Dignāga. One cannot assume that there is svākāra without ascertaining it, he says. However, in order to ascertain svākāra, it would be necessary to postulate another svākāra and so forth ad infinitum. His conclusion is that there is no svākāra apart from sva-samvitti; ŚV, IV, 80-82. Akalanka also gives a criticism of the same verse. According to him, the theory that one thing has many appearances (ākāra) is maintainable only by the Jainas who hold the anekānta-vāda; see TAV, p. 56.19-21: syād etat—grāhaka-viṣayābhāsa-samvitti-šakti-trayākāra-bhedāt pramāṇa-prameya-phala-kalpanā-bheda iti. tan na. kim kāraṇam. ekānta-vāda-tyāgāt. "ekam anekā-kāram" ity etaj jainendram daršanam, tat katham ekānta-vāde yujyate.

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1.68. PVBh, p. 425.13; katham punar jñāyate [text: jāyate] dvi-rūpam vijñānam iti. [jñāyate: PVBhT, 105a.4: śes; K, V: rtogs par bya.]

The term "dvi-rūpa" means svābhāsa and viṣayābhāsa mentioned in the Vṛtti on k. 9a. The Naiyāyikas, the Mīmāmsakas and the Vaibhāṣikas are unanimous in holding that the cognition simply represents the form (ākāra) of an external object but does not in itself possess any form (nirākāra). The cognition, as such, has only svābhāsa, which remains the same regardless of the variety of the objects to be cognized. Or, the cognition, in which an object is represented, has only arthākāra, for it has no ākāra of its own. Thus, for those nirākāra-jāāna-vādīns, the cognition is "eka-rūpa," of one form. In the following passages Dignāga advances some reasonings to prove that the cognition is "dvi-rūpa" and thus to establish the theory of sva-samvitti. Cf. PV, III, 368-425.

1.69. PVBh, pp. 403.17, 425.12; Vibhūti, p. 234² (cf. p. 244⁶): viṣaya-jñāna-taj-jñāna-viśeṣāt tu dvi-rūpatā. ŚVV, p. 267.14; NR, p. 299.11: ghaṭa-jñāna-° instead of viṣaya-jñāna-°. Cf. Vāk-yap., III, i, 105.

1.70 PVBh, p. 403.18–20: vişaye rūpādau yaj jñānam tad artha-svābhāsam. vişaya-jñāne tu yaj jñānam tad arthânurūpa-jñānābhāsam svābhāsam ca. anyathā yadi vişaya-jñānam arthākāram eva syāt svākāram eva vā viṣaya-jñāna-jñānam [text: viṣaya-jñānam; PVBhT, 80b.8: yul ses paḥi ses pa; K, V: ses pa ses pa; PST, 36b.2 (41a.4): ses paḥi ses pa] api tad-avisiṣṭam syāt.

To make clear the meaning of this passage, I use the following symbols:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \textit{viṣaya-jñāna} = C_1 & \textit{viṣaya-jñāna} = C_2 \\ \textit{svâbhāsa} \text{ in } C_1 = S_1 & \textit{svâbhāsa} \text{ in } C_2 = S_2 \\ \textit{arthâbhāsa} \text{ in } C_1 = O_1 & \textit{arthâbhāsa} \text{ in } C_2 = O_2 \end{array}$

According to Dignāga, $C_1=(S_1-O_1)$, $C_2=(S_2-O_2)$. [— indicates relation] Since C_2 takes C_1 for its object, $O_2=(S_1-O_1)$. Therefore, $C_2=(S_2-(S_1-O_1))$. Thus, C_2 is distinguishable from C_1 .

Now, in case the cognition had only $arth\hat{a}k\bar{a}ra$ (=° $\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sa$), then $C_1=O_1$, and $C_2=O_2$. Since C_2 takes C_1 for its object, $O_2=O_1$. Therefore, $C_2=C_1$. Thus, $vişaya-jii\bar{a}na-jii\bar{a}na$ would be indistinguishable from $vişaya-jii\bar{a}na$. If, on the other hand, the cognition had only $sv\hat{a}k\bar{a}ra$ (=° $\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sa$), then $C_1=S_1$, and $C_2=S_2$. However, since the cognition which does not possess the form of an object within itself remains the same at all time, $S_2=S_1$. Therefore, $C_2=C_1$. See PV, III, 385–386:

ādyānubhava-rūpatve hy eka-rūpam vyavasthitam dvitīyam vyatiricyeta na parāmarša-cetasā artha-samkalanâśleṣā dhīr dvitīyāvalambate nīlâdi-rūpeṇa dhiyam bhāsamānam puras tatah.

See also ŚV, Śūnyavāda, 111, 112ab:

ekâkāram kila jñānam prathamam yadi kalpyate
tatas tad-viṣayâpy anyā tad-rūpaiva matir bhavet
ghaṭa-vijñāna-taj-jñāna-višeso 'to na sidhyati.

In the same manner, the third and the succeeding cognitions C_3 , $C_4 cdots C_n$ are distinguishable from the preceding ones only when they are acknowledged to possess "dvi- $r\bar{u}pa$." The formulas are as follows:

$$C_3 = (S_3 - O_3) = (S_3 - (S_2 - O_2))$$

 \cdots
 $C_n = (S_n - O_n) = (S_n - (S_{n-1} - O_{n-1}))$

 $(S_3 ... S_n$ and $O_3 ... O_n$ respectively stand for svåbhäsa and arthåbhäsa in $C_3 ... C_n$.) $C_2, C_3 ... C_n$ are constituted by adding another äkāra to the preceding $C_1, C_2 ... C_{n-1}$. This is clearly expressed by Dharmakīrti in PV, III, 379–380:

tac cânubhava-vijñānenôbhayâmsâvalambinā ekâkāra-viseşeṇa taj-jñānenânubadhyate anyathā hy atathā-rūpam katham jñāne 'dhirohati ekâkārôttaram jñānam tathā hy uttaram uttaram.

Cf. PVBh, p. 407.7–9 (ad PV, III, 380): tathā hy uttaram uttaram ekaikenâkāreņādhikam adhikam bhavati nânyathā. tathā hi pūrvakeņa nīlam grhītam taduttareņa nīla-jñānam tad-uttareņa nīla-jñāna-jñānam tad-uttareņâpi tad-adhikam iti niscinoti. tad etad anyathā na syāt.

This theory of the "accumulation of $\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$ " ($\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$ -pracaya) is referred to by Kumārila in SV, Sūnyavāda, 112cd-114ab:

grāhakākāra-samvittau tv ākāra-pracayo bhavet jāyate pūrva-vijfiānam dvy-ākāram yatra tat punaļ tasyātmīyas ca pūrvau ca viṣaya-sthāv upaplutau pareṣv ākāra-vṛddhyaivam pūrvebhyo bhimatā (tathā).

Kumārila, who holds that the difference between cognitions is due to the difference between objects (grāhya-bheda-nibandhanaḥ sanivitti-bhedaḥ), does not recognize the necessity for admitting the accumulation of ākāra; ibid., 115–117.

1.71. PVBh, p. 409.1-2: na côttarôttarāṇi jāānāni pūrva-pūrva-jāāna-viṣayâ-bhāsāni [K, V: sṅar rin du ḥdas paḥi yul snaṅ ba (=pūrva-viprakṛṣṭa-viṣayâ°); PST, 37a.4-5 (41b.8): sṅa ma . . . rin ba yin] spus tasyâviṣayatvāt."

According to the Bauddhas, nothing has stability or duration. A thing cognized by a cognition ceases to exist before the succeeding cognition arises. Hence, on the assumption that an external object is represented in the nirākāra cognition, the form of the object in the preceding cognition would never appear in the succeeding cognition. This, however, is contrary to our experience. When it is admitted that the cognition is "dvi-rūpa," the structures of the succeeding cognitions can be shown by the following formulas. (The symbols are the same as those used in n. 1.70.)

$$C_2 = (S_2 - O_2) = (S_2 - (S_1 - O_1))$$

$$C_3 = (S_3 - O_3) = (S_3 - (S_2 - (S_1 - O_1)))$$

$$...$$

$$C_n = (S_n - O_n) = (S_n - (S_{n-1} - (S_{n-2} - ... (S_1 - O_1))))$$

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It is thus clear that O_1 , the appearance of an object in C_1 , appears in $C_2, C_3, \ldots C_n$.

1.72. *PVBh*, p. 425.5; ŚV, Śūnyavāda, 118a; ŚVV, p. 267.15; ŚVK, part II, p. 144.18; *NR*, pp. 209.12, 301.13–14:

smṛter uttara-kālaṁ ca.

1.73. Vibhūti, p. 2444: yasmāc cânubhavôttara-kālam viṣaya iva jūāne smṛtir utpadyate tasmād asti dvi-rūpatā jūānasya.

The argument advanced in Hb was primarily intended to prove that the cognition has arthâkāra within itself. Here, by the fact of the recollection of a past cognition, Dignāga proves that the cognition has svâkāra along with arthâkāra. The recollection is caused by the impression (samskāra) of previous experience. The nirākāra-jñāna-vādins, who hold that an external object is experienced by the cognition which is in itself unconscious of itself, must find it difficult to explain the fact of recollection of a past cognition in the form "I remember that I cognized this object." As the cognition, according to them, has not been experienced before, it cannot have left an impression able to give rise to recollection. The recollection of a past cognition is explainable only by admitting that the cognition is cognized by itself. From this it necessarily follows that the cognition has svâkāra.

This reasoning is referred to by Kumārila in SV, Sūnyavāda, 114cd, and refuted, *ibid.*, 118:

smṛter uttara-kālam cêty etan mithyaiva gīyate tadaiva lıy asya samvittir arthāpattyôpajāyate.

For Kumārila, the recollection is of the object only and not of the cognition. The past cognition is merely inferred from the recollection of the object by means of arthāpatti (hypothetical inference); see below, n. 1.79.

1.74. PVBh, p. 425.20, 426.18: svasamvedyatā ca.

That the cognition has svåkāra along with arthâkāra implies that the cognition is cognized by itself. Thus the fact of recollection of a previous cognition is proof also of self-cognition; see PST, 38b.3 (43a.8): "dus physis dran pa las ses pahi tshul gñis pa ñid grub pa hbah sig tu mzad kyi, hon kyan ran rig pa yan ste..."; PV, III, 426:

dvairūpya-sādhanenāpi prāyaḥ siddharh svavedanam svarūpa-bhūtābhāsasya tadā samvedanēksanāt:

ibid., III, 485a-b₁: smrter apy ātma-vit siddhā jītānasya. See also Madhya-makāvatāra (ed. by De la Vallée Poussin, Bib. Bud., IX), pp. 167-168.

1.75. PVBh, p. 425.5; ŚVV, p. 267.15; NR, p. 299.12: na hy asāv avibhāvite.

ŚVK, part II, p. 144.18: avibhāvitah instead of avibhāvite.

This statement may also be put thus: Whatsoever is recollected has been experienced before. The recollection is an effect (kārya) of the previous experience

(anubhava). Thus the reason "smṛteḥ" (k. 11c) is kārya-hetu (cf. NB, II, 15; Bud. Log., II, 67), and effectively proves that the cognition itself has been experienced or self-cognized before; PST, 38b.4-5 (43b.2).

In Vims, ad k. 17, the Sautrāntikas criticize the vijāapti-mātra doctrine which denies the existence of external objects, arguing that the fact of recollection of an object proves the existence of the external object, which one has experienced before. In reply to this criticism, Vasubandhu states that the vijāapti which has the appearance of the object within itself is later recollected by mano-vijāāna; see Vims, p. 9.1-8.

1.76. The Naiyāyikas hold that a cognition is not self-luminous but illuminated by another cognition; see n. 1.60. The example of the lamp, which the Bauddhas cite to illustrate the self-luminous nature of cognition, is used by them to explain their theory that a cognition is cognized by another cognition; see NBh, II, i, 18: yathā pradīpa-prakāšah pratyakṣângatvād dṛṣya-darṣane pramāṇam, sa ca pratyakṣântareṇa cakṣuṣah saṇnikarṣeṇa gṛhyate, pradīpa-bhāvâbhāvayor darṣanasya tathā-bhāvād darṣana-hetur anumīyate, tamasi pradīpam upādadīthā ity āptôpadeṣenâpi pratipadyate, evam pratyakṣâdīnām yathā-darṣanam pratyakṣâdībhir evôpalabdhih. The use of the lamp metaphor as an illustration of the sva-prakāṣa theory (cf. NS and NBh, II, i, 20) is not authorized in the Nyāya school; see NVTT, p. 371.5–7: ye tu—pradīpa-prakāṣo yathā na prakāṣântaram apekṣate evam pramāṇāny api pramāṇântaram anapekṣamāṇāny api santi bhaviṣyantīty ācārya-deṣīyā manyante.

1.77. Vibhūti, p. 2715; ŚVV, p. 247.23, 284.20:

jñānântareṇânubhave 'niṣṭhā.

ŚVK, part II, p. 103.18-19; NR, p. 277.15: hiṣṭā instead of aniṣṭhā. NR, p. 321.9: anubhāvo instead of anubhave; aniṣṭas instead of aniṣṭhā.

Inasmuch as there is a later recollection of C_1 (C stands for cognition), it must be admitted that C_1 is cognized in some way. If it is held that C_1 is cognized by C_2 , then it necessarily follows that C_2 is cognized by C_3 , and C_3 by C_4 , and so forth. Because C_2 , C_3 , ... are also later recollected (k. $12b_2$). Thus the Naiyāyikas are inevitably led to the absurd conclusion that an endless series of cognitions follow from a single cognition of an object. See PV, III, 513, 514ab:

jfiānāntareņānubhave bhavet tatrāpi ca smṛtiḥ dṛṣṭā tad-vedanaṁ kena tasyāpy anyena cet imām

mālām jñāna-vidām ko 'yam janayaty anubandhinīm.

TSP, p. 565.13–17: kim ca yadi jñānântarenânubhavo 'ngīkriyate tadā tatrāpi jñānântare smṛtir utpadyata eva jñāna-jñānam mamôtpannam iti, tasyâpy aparenânubhavo vaktavyah, na hy ananubhūte smṛtir yuktā, tataś cêmā jñāna-mālāh ko 'nanya-karmā janayatīti vaktavyam na tāvad arthas tasya mūla-jñāna-viṣayatvāt. nâpindriyâlokau tayoś cakṣur-jñāna evôpayogāt. nâpi nirnimittā, sadā sattvâdiprasaṅgāt; ŚV, Śūnyavāda, 187cd, 188 (see also ibid., 27):

anyena vânubhave [texts: anubhāve] 'sāv anavasthā prasajyate tatra tatra smṛtim dṛṣṭvā sarvânubhava-kalpanā ekena tv anubhūtatve sarvam tatraiva sambhavet.

1.78. The Naiyāyikas are often charged with this absurdity; see Yogabhāṣya, ad IV, 21: "cittântara-dṛṣye buddhi-buddher atiprasangaḥ..." (Sūtra). atha cittam cec cittântarena gṛhyeta buddhi-buddhiḥ kena gṛhyate, sāpy anyayā sāpy anyayêty atiprasangaḥ. The same criticism of the Nyāya theory offered in Prameyakamalamārtaṇḍa and Vedāntaparibhāṣā is explained in Sinha, Indian Psychology, Cognition, pp. 214–220.

1.79. Vibhūti, pp. 261⁵, 271⁵; ŠVV, pp. 247.23, 284.20, 286.11; NR, pp. 277.15, 321,17;

tatrâpi hi smrtih.

SVK, part II, p. 103.22: ca instead of hi; ibid., p. 168.16 omits hi.

Kumārila vehemently attacks this argument in SV, Sūnyayāda, 189-196. He observes that it is contrary to the experience of an ordinary person to argue that an endless series of cognitions, C1, C2, C3, . . . are recollected. He explains the cause of the recollection of the cognition by his theory that a cognition is inferred from its result, i.e., iñātatā (cognizedness); see above, n. 1.60. Immediately after an object has been cognized, the cognition is inferred from jāātatā by means of arthapatti (hypothetical inference): if there had been no cognition, there could not be jñātatā. C_1 is thus cognized by C_2 , that is to say, jñātatā is produced on C₁. Again from this jñātatā, C₂ is inferred by means of arthāpatti. In this way there arise a certain number of cognitions, each cognizing the preceding one, so long as the cognizer attempts to apprehend the cognition. As many cognitions as are thus cognized may be recollected later, but not an endless series; see SVK, part II, p. 168.11-13 (ad k. 191): yadi tv artha-jñātatânyathânupapattyā jñānam avagamya punas taj-jñātatā-vasena tad-visayam jñānantaram kalpayati, punas cânenaiva kramena yāvac-chramam jītānāni jītātāni, tato yāvaj-jītāta-smaranād nânavasthā. Kumārila also disagrees with the view that there is a recollection of the cognition itself similar to the recollection of the object. According to him, what is recollected is always the object and never the cognition. From the recollection of the object, the previous cognition is inferred by means of arthapatti: if this object had not been cognized before, there could be no recollection of it. It is through this process that the past cognition comes to be recollected; see ibid. p. 168.17-18 (ad k. 192) artho hi smaryate. tat-smaranânyathânupapattyā ca tasya prāg jñātatvam eva kalpyate, tato 'pi prācīna-jñāna-kalpanā.

1.80. ŚVV, p. 247.24; ŚVK, part II, p. 103.25; NR, p. 277.16, 322.20: viṣayântara-saṁcāras tathā na syāt sa cêṣyate.

Vibhūti, p. 2615: cêkṣate instead of cêṣyate; TS, 206ab: gocarâ° instead of viṣayā°; ŠVV, p. 285.20: tadā instead of tathā. Cf. Vibhūti, p. 2715.

Cf. PV, III, 514cd:

pūrvā dhiḥ saiva cen na syāt samcāro viṣayântare.

TSP, p. 565.17–27: saiva pūrva-dhīr uttarottarām buddhim janayatīti ced āha—"gocarântara-samcāras..." (TS, 2026ab). evam hi viṣayântara-samcāro na prāpnoti. tathā hi pūrva-pūrvā buddhir uttarôttarasya jñānasya viṣaya-bhāvenāvasthitā pratyāsannā côpādāna-kāraṇatayā tām tādṛšīm antar-aṅgikām tyaktvā katham ca bahir-aṅgam artham gṛḥṇīyāt.

Dharmakirti develops the discussion as follows: Inasmuch as we admit the movement of the cognition from one object to another, the series of cognitions must be broken at a certain point. If this is the case, the last in the series of cognitions is not cognized by any other cognition. But this conclusion is untenable. Since all cognitions are of the same nature, the last one must also be cognized, so that it may be recollected. If the opponents insist that the last one is not cognized, then they must admit that no cognition is ever cognized by another cognition and, in consequence, deny the fact of the recollection of the cognition. If, on the other hand, they state that the last cognition is cognized by itself, then they have to accept the theory of self-cognition; see PV, III, 539-540:

vişayântara-samcāre yady antyam nânubhūyate parânubhūtavat sarvânanubhūtih prasajyate ātmânubhūtam pratyakṣam nânubhūtam paraih yadi ātmânubhūtih sā siddhā kuto yenaivam ucyate.

See also TS, 2026cd-2028:

gocarântara-samcāre yad antyam tat svato 'nyataḥ na siddhyet tasya câsiddhau sarveṣām apy asiddhatā atas cândhyam aseṣasya jagataḥ samprasajyate antyasya tu svataḥ siddhāv anyeṣām api sā dhruvam jñānatvād anyathā naiṣām jñānatvam syād ghaṭâdivat.

TSP, p. 566.17—22: athâpi syād ekam antyam jñānam ananubhūtam asmṛtam câstām ko doṣaḥ syād ity āha—"gocarântara—..." (TS, 2026cd—2028) iti. svasamvitter anabhyupagamān na svatah siddhatā, nāpi parataḥ, anavasthā-doṣāt, tasyântasyâsiddhau satyām pūrvakasyâpy asiddhih, apratyakṣôpalambhakatvāt. tataś cârthasyâpy asiddhir iti na kadācit kimcid upalabhyeta. tataś cândhyam āyātam aṣeṣasya jagataḥ. athântasya yathôkta-doṣa-bhayāt svasamvittyā svata eva siddhir abhyupagamyate tadā tadvad eva sarvasya jñānatvâviṣeṣāt svasamvid astu.

As noted above (n. 1.79), Kumārila considers that the series of cognitions is finite. The successive cognitions arise not spontaneously but by man's exertion, and hence the series may be broken. As one ceases to see an object when one's eyes tire of looking at it or when they turn to another object, so one ceases to apprehend the cognition when one tires of this exertion or when one cognizes another object. Hence the cognition surely moves from one object to another; SV, Sūnyavāda, 193:

yāvac-chramam ca tad-buddhis tat-prabandhe mahaty api śramād rucyânya-samparkād vicchedo viṣayeṣv iva.