## ON THE NATURE OF *PRAMĀŅA*: A DIALOGUE BETWEEN JAYANTABHAŢŢA AND THE VAIBHĀSIKAS AND YOGĀCĀRINS

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#### 0.0 INTRODUCTION

Vātsyāyana, the author of the  $Ny\bar{a}yas\bar{u}trabh\bar{a}sya$  opined under  $Ny\bar{a}yas\bar{u}tra$  (= NS) 1.1.1 that the true nature of a thing is decided on the basis of the four components of the act of knowing, namely, the knower, the knowable, the process of knowing and the resultant knowledge (catasṛṣu evam vidhāsu arthatattvam parisamāpyate). In my opinion, these are the four components of philosophizing. Ancient Indian philosophers had to pay, naturally therefore, a lot of attention to the discussion on the process of knowing (pramāna).

The structural depth of ancient Indian analytical thinking was acquired through a dialogue in which the participants were the orthodox philosophers and logicians like the Naiyāyikas on the one side and the Buddhist philosophers and logicians on the other. The result is the illustrious tradition of analytic philosophy and logic called *Prācīna Nyāya*. Had the Buddhist logicians not participated in this dialogue, *Prācīna Nyāya* which includes *Bauddha Nyāya*, would not have acquired such depth. Although this has been accepted beyond doubt and some scholars have been engaged in highlighting this fact, still a lot remains to be done. What is required is a very close study and analysis of the texts of these traditions with an aim to identify the issues which prompted the dialogue so that we have a clear picture of the development of philosophical thinking in ancient India during the period called golden period of Indian philosophy.

In this paper an attempt is made to present the central issues which led the dialogue on the nature of *pramāṇa*. The text taken for the purpose is a portion of the *Nyāyamañjarī* of Jayantabhatta.

Jayantabhatta is a logician of the 9th century A.D. from Kashmir. Although his Nyāyamañjarī is called a vṛtti on the Nyāyasūtra of Gautama, still it is not a usual commentary on each and every sūtra of Gautama. What he has done is that he has selected some sūtras only in accordance with the issues in his mind and has presented encyclopaedic discussions on them. Thus, the Nyāyamañjarī does not present the view of only one system but it takes into account all the existing view of his time on those particular issues and presents his

own views in conclusion. Thus, it has not remained a text on Nyāya, but has become an encyclopaedia of Indian philosophy.

Here, in this paper, I am going to present Jayanta's definition of *pramāṇa* along with the two views of the two schools of Buddhist philosophy and logic namely, the Vaibhāṣikas and Yogācārins, as presented by Jayanta. The text is being presented here with my own English Translation and Notes.

But before we present the text, let us identify the issues involved behind the notion of  $pram\bar{a}na$ .

#### 0.1 The Issues

The main issues behind the concept of pramāṇa are the following:

- (a) Whether a *pramāṇa* is the producer of *pramā* (a true cognition) or not.
- (b) Whether a producer (karaṇa) is different from its result (phala) or not.
- (c) The basis of distinguishing the knowledge of x from the knowledge of y.
- (d) Whether jñāṇa is sākāra or not.

The settlement of issues (a) is necessary in order to distinguish a true cognition from a false cognition. The answer to the issue (b) is essential for knowing the process of a true cognition and a false cognition.

We behave with the world around us. For a consistent behaviour it is necessary to acquire discrete knowledge of each object of our behaviour. How to distinguish each cognition? This is what is required to be settled in (c). The solution to this problem is provided by the answers to (d).

In this dialogue, the Buddhists have taken the stand that the nature of  $pram\bar{a}na$  is  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  or bodha knowledge or cognition. This has provoked Jayanta to raise the issue whether a karana has to be different from phala. If a  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  is the result of a process, the process  $(pram\bar{a}na)$  has to be different from the result. The Buddhist maintain this by introducing the idea of various aspects of one and the same  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ . The participating Buddhists here are the Vaibhāṣikas and the Yogācārins. The Yogācārins are the  $vij\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ - $v\bar{a}dins$  (Idealists) who think that no knowledge can arise without a form and the form is in the knowledge itself and not outside and hence a knowledge is always  $s\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$ . Not only that, it is because the knowledge is  $s\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$  one can distinguish one knowledge from the other and one can say that this is the knowledge of x and not of y. If knowledge is taken as  $nir\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$  as the Naiyāyikas (Realists) take, such a distinction cannot be made.

Thus, it can be seen that ultimately the dialogues aims at settling the most important issue whether the world of our behaviour is real or not.

Jayanta, first of all, presents his novel idea of a pramāṇa. According to him, a cognition of factors and no factor in isolation can claim to be the most effective means of a valid cognition. It is, therefore, the assemblage or collection of factors of knowledge (sāmagrī) which is fit to be called a pramāṇa. To him prramāṇa is basically a karaṇa and since it produces pramā, the pramā is phala and a karaṇa and pramāṇa have to be different and since pramā is knowledge, its producer (karaṇa) must be different from it.

In this context Jayanta brings views of other systems of Indian philosophy like, *Mīmāmsā*, *Sāmkya* and Buddhism.

Since the *Vijñānavādin* s are the idealists, they have to maintain that the nature of a *pramāṇa* and, that of the *pramā* are *jñāna* itself, although different aspects of knowledge.

We have, therefore, to look at the entire dialogue with these issues in mind. Let us have now a close look at the texts.

# 1.0 JAYANTA'S TEXT, ENGLISH TRANSLATION AND NOTES

The English translation is of the *Nyāyamañjarī* (Āhnika I), Mysore edition, 1969, pp. 31-42. The page numbers and the line numbers put in the brackets in each text refer to those of this edition.

### 1.1 Jayanta's Theory of pramāna

Text 1 (p. 31, 1-3): pramāṇasāmānyalakṣaṇavibhāgasūtram tv avasaraprāptatvād idānīm eva vivriyate --

pratyakṣānumānopamānaśabdāḥ pramāṇāni //1.1.3//

Translation 1: Since it is order, the *sūtra* which deals with the general definition of *pramāṇa* and its division is being explained now. Perception, Inference, Analogy and Words are the *pramāṇas* i.e. the means of valid knowledge.

Note 1: In the Nyāyasūtra (NS) of Gautama there are certain sūtras which present the list of items. The listing or mentioning the items is called uddeśa (nāmnā padārthasamkīrtanam uddeśaḥ). And the sūtras which do such listing are called uddeśa-sūtra. There are some other sūtras which are called lakṣaṇa-sūtras since they contain definitions of the items given in the uddeśa-sūtras. These definitions are of two kinds: (1) general definition (sāmānya-lakṣaṇa) and (2) particular definition (viśeṣa-lakṣaṇa).

There has to be a sequence between a *uddeśa-sūtra* and *lakṣaṇa-sūtras*. An *uddeśa-sūtra* precedes a *lakṣaṇa-sūtra*. Similarly, there has to be a sequence between a *sāmānya-lakṣaṇa-sūtra* and *viśeṣa-lakṣaṇa-sūtra*. The *viśeṣa-lakṣaṇa-sūtra* must follow a *sāmānya-lakṣaṇa-sūtra*.

In other words, the general definition must precede a particular definition.

There are, similarly, some *sūtras* which are called *vibhāga-sūtras* containing division of a particular item.

Thus, for instance, the item  $pram\bar{a}na$  'means of valid cognition' is mentioned in the  $udde \acute{s}a$ - $s\bar{u}tra$  (NS 1.1.1) and the division of this items is presented in NS 1.1.3.

Similarly, there is another category of sūtras in the NS, which is called parīkṣā-sūtra 'an examining rule'. A parīkṣā-sūtra examines whether a definition presented by a lakṣaṇa-sūtra is actually applicable to an item or thing defined or not.

In the preceding section Jayantabhaṭṭa has already explained the meaning of NS 1.1.1 and he has said that he is going to concentrate on the lakṣaṇa-sūtras. The first item of the NS 1.1.1 is pramāṇa. So he wants to discuss the general definition of pramāṇa and its subdivisions such as pratyakṣa, anumāṇa, upamāṇa, and śabda and their particular definitions. Therefore, he thinks that the discussions on the general definition of pramāṇa and its divisions is quite in order. In other words, this is the proper occasion to discuss the general definition of pramāṇa which forms the first item in the uddeśa-sūtra (NS 1.1.1).

Text 2 (p. 31,5-6): atredam tāvad vicāryate -- kim pramāṇam nāma? kim asya svarūpam? kim vā lakṣaṇam iti? tatah sūtram yojayiṣyate.

Translation 2: Here, let us discuss the following questions: What is a means of valid knowledge? What is its nature? What is its definition? And then will follow explanation of the *sūtra*.

Note 2: The NS 1.1.3 is vibhāgasūtra which divides pramāṇa into four. But there is no sūtra which provides the general definition of pramāṇa, which was expected. What is necessary is one should first of all know the general definition of an item and then one can follow its division. Without providing a general definition of a pramāṇa the NS 1.1.3 straight way provides the division of it as pratyakṣa, anumāṇa, upamāṇa and śabda.

In order to know the general notion of pramāṇa, Jayanta formulates three questions. These three questions aim at knowing the general definition of pramāṇa, which should reflect upon two aspects: (1) the nature of pramāṇa and (2) distinguishing features of pramāṇa which characterize and distinguish it from what is not pramāṇa. The word lakṣaṇa has two aspects: (a) surūpa i.e. form and (b) vyāvartakatva 'distinguishing aspect'. Therefore, a pramāṇalakṣaṇa should throw light on these two aspects.

Text 3 (p. 31,8-11): tad ucyate -- avyabhicāriṇīm asandigdhām arthopalabdhim vidadhatī bodhābodhasvabhāvā sāmagrī pramāṇam. bodhābodhasvabhāvā sāmagrī hi tasya svarūpam. avyabhicārādiviśeṣaṇārthopalabdhisādhanatvam lakṣaṇam.

Translation 3: The questions raised above can be answered as follows: A *pramāṇa* is an assemblage of factors which are of the nature of both knowledge and non-knowledge which produce infallible or non-illusive and undoubtful knowledge of things. An assemblage which is of the nature of knowledge and non-knowledge, is the nature of *pramāṇa*. Being the means of infallible and undoubtful knowledge of things is its definition-(part).

Note 3: The nature of *pramāṇa* is such that it consists of knowledge and non-knowledge. In other words, since the collection or assemblage of factors is *pramāṇa*, some of its factors are of the nature of a cognition or knowledge and some others of the nature of non-knowledge. Let us look at the epistemology of a perceptual cognition. As Vātsyāyana, the Bhāṣyakāra of the NS, puts it under NS 1.1.4: ātmā manasā saṃ-yujyate, manaḥ indriyeṇa, indriyam arthena, tataḥ pratyaksam.

When the soul (the cognizer) comes in contact with the mind (the internal sense-organ), and when the mind comes in contact with the external sense-organ (eyes etc.) and when the external sense-organ comes in contact with the object, there arises a perceptual cognition.

In this process of perceiving (say, a pot), before the resultant cognition namely, 'This is a pot' arises, the perceiver must have the knowledge of the qualifier namely 'the potness' before the resultant knowledge. Because without the knowledge of the qualifier the knowledge of the qualified cannot arise. Thus, this knowledge of the qualifier is also a factor for producing the resultant perception. This factor is of the nature of knowledge. Whereas the soul, mind, senseorgan and pot and their contact, all are of the nature of non-knowledge. This is why, Jayanta says that a *pramāṇa* is a collection of factors some of which may be of the nature of knowledge and some others may be of the nature of non-knowledge.

Cakradhara, the author of the commentary called *Nyāyamañjarī-granthibhaṅga* (Edited by Nagin J. Shah, L.D. Institute, Ahmedabad, 1972) comments on the word *bodhābodhasvabhāva* (of the definition of *pramāṇa*) as follows:

bodhābodheti. viśeṣaṇa-jñānāder bodhasvabhāsya tatra anupraveśāt bodhābodhasvabhāvety uktam (page 6), since the knowledge of qualifier is of the factors in the collection of factors and since it is of the nature of knowledge, the definition reads as 'the collection of factors which consists of knowledge and non-knowledge'.

This is the form of *pramāṇa* and the distinguishing feature of *pramāṇa* is this that it produces a true cognition. That which produces a false cognition is, therefore, not *pramāṇa*, but a *pramāṇābhāsa*. This is the implication of adjectives 'non-illusive' and 'undoubtful' of the knowledge. Thus, *pramāṇa* is the means of a valid cognition.

Text 4 (p. 31,13-17): nanu ca pramīyate yena, tat pramāṇam iti karaṇa-sādhano 'yaṃ pramāṇaśabdaḥ. karaṇaṃ ca sādhakatamam. tamab-arthaś cātiśayaḥ. sa cāpekṣikaḥ. sādhakāntarasaṃbhave hi tadape-kṣayā'tiśayayogāt kiñcit sādhakatamam ucyate. sāmagrayāś caikatvāt tadatiriktasādhakāntarānupalambhāt kim apekṣam asyā atiśayaṃ brūmaḥ.

Translation 4: Well, the word pramāṇa is derived as 'that by which something is known.' Thus it has an instrumental derivative structure underlying. The instrumental case is, again, defined as sādhakatama (i.e., that which is the most required in producing the result) and the suffix tama means 'most', 'excellence.' This 'excellence' is, again, relative. If there are other cases (kārakas) in addition to this then alone it can be taken as 'the most helpful' since in that case it can have 'excellence' in comparison to those other cases. But as 'assemblage' is singular in number and- as no other productive factor i.e. additional kāraka is found, in comparison to what its excellence is to be established?

Note 4: The word  $pram\bar{a}na$  is derived by adding the suffix -ana (lyut) to the root pra- $\sqrt{m\bar{a}}$  'to measure, to know' in the sense of an instrument. Thus, the underlying derivative structure of the word  $pram\bar{a}na$  is  $pram\bar{l}yate$  anena 'by which one knows'. Thus, the sense there is instrumental. And the notion of instrumentality is provided by Pāṇini by defining the instrumental case which runs as  $s\bar{a}dhakatamam$  karaṇam 'the instrument is that which is the most effective means'. Here the superlative suffix -tamaP is meaningful only when there are more than two entities. But if an assemblage or collection of factors or  $k\bar{a}rakas$  is considered to be an instrument, then since the collection is only one, how can the meaning of the superlative suffix be applicable there? So, in comparison to what the collection will be called the most excellent factor or  $k\bar{a}raka$  and hence the instrument and hence  $pram\bar{a}na$ ?

The concept of *pramāṇa* as proposed here does not fit into either the common sense view or into the technical notion of an instrumental case of Pāṇini. This is the idea behind the opponent's view.

Text 5 (p. 32,1-4): api ca kasmin viṣaye sāmagryāḥ pramāṇatvam? pramīyamāṇo hi karmabhūto viṣayaḥ sāmagrayantarbhūtatvāt sāmagryeveti karaṇatām eva yāyāt. nirālambanāś cedānīṃ sarvapramitayo bhaveyuḥ, ālambanakārakasya cakṣurādivat pramāṇāntaḥpātitvāt.

Translation 5: Moreover, with respect to what object 'assemblage is to be taken as a means? That which is to be known itself becomes 'assemblage' because it is also included in the 'assemblage.' Thus, object becomes an instrument. In that case every knowledge will be turned objectless, because the object is included in the *pramāṇa* itself like eye etc.

Note 5: After having raised the objection that since nothing is left out of a collection in comparison of which one may call the collection 'most excellent means', the opponent is now showing one by one how the accusative case (karmakāraka) is also included in the body of the karanakāraka. Here, ālambana means a karmakāraka. In this way nothing is left to be known. As Varadācārya puts it in his commentary on the Nyāyamañjarī called Nyāyasaurabha (edited by K.S. Varadacharya, Oriental Research Institute, Mysore, 1969): nirālambanā iti karmakārakasyāpi sāmagrīgosthīnivistatvena sāmagryāh karanatve karmano 'pi karanatva-prāptyā katham jñānam karana-visayakam syāt iti jñānam nirālambanam prasajyeta ityarthah. i.e. if the accusative case also is included in the collection of kārakas, and if the collection (sāmagrī) is treated as an instrument, the accusative case also becomes an instrumental case, how can there be a cognition in which an instrumental case is an objective case? And since it is not possible, a cognition will have no content and as result a cognition will become contentless or objectless.

The term *ālambana* is a Buddhist term.

Text 6 (p. 32,5): kaś ca sāmagrayā prameyam pramimīte? pramātā 'pi tasyām eva līnaḥ.

Translation 6: Who will cognize the object through assemblage? Even the knower is included in that (assemblage).

Note 6: Here it is shown that if the concept of pramāṇa is the collection of all kārakas, then even the knower is included in the pramāṇa and in that case who remains to know? Text 5 said that there would be no karma-kārakas and this text says that likewise there will be no kartr-kāraka (agent) also, since everything is included in the assemblage itself. As Varadācārya puts it: Tathā ca pramātuḥ api karaṇatvam eva, na kartrtvam iti bhāvaḥ 'thus, a knower too will become an instrument, he will no longer remain as an agent'.

Text 7 (p. 32,6-7): evañ ca yad ucyate 'pramātā pramāṇaṃ prameyaṃ pramitir iti catasṛṣu vidhāsu tattvaṃ parisamāpyate' iti, tad vyāhanyate.

Translation 7: Thus, the statement (of Vātsyāyana) that "the real nature of things is concluded on the basis of the four components such as the knower, the instrument of knowing, the object (which is to be cognized) and the cognition" is hereby contradicted.

Note 7: This text has a direct reference to the *Bhāṣya* of Vātsyāyana. Although it is not a quotation verbatim, still in essence it is a quotation.

The Bhāsya actually read as follows:

Arthavati ca pramāņe pramātā prameyam pramitir ity arthavanti bhavanti. kasmāt? anyatamāpāye arthasya anupapatteh. tatra yasya ipsājihāsāprayuktasya pravṛttih sa pramātā. sa yena artham pramiņoti tat pramāṇam. yo 'rthah pramīyatie tat prameyam. yad arthavijāānam

sā pramitih. catasṛṣu evaṁ vidhāsu arthatattvam parisamāpyati. kim punaḥ tattvam? sataḥ ca sad-bhāvaḥ asatś ca asadbhāvaḥ. sad iti gṛhyamāṇam yathābhūtam aviparītam tattvam bhavanti. asacca asad iti gṛhyamāṇam yathābhūtam aviparītaṁ tattvam bhavanti (Gaṅgānātha Jha Edn., Chowkhamba Series, 1925, pp.8-11).

That is, once the *pramāṇa* gets associated with the object, the other elements like, the knower, the knowable, and the knowledge also get associated with the object. How? Because in the absence of the most prominent the object cannot be explained. There, one who acts being prompted by the desire to get something or by the desire to get rid of something is called the knower; by what he measures or knows is the instrument of knowing; that which is known is called object of knowledge and the resultant cognition of the knowable is called the knowledge. In this way, the real nature of a thing is decided on the basis of there four components. What is the real nature of a thing? Being positive of what is positive and being negative of what is negative. When a positive is known as positive not otherwise (i.e. not as negative) it is called real and when a negative is known as negative not otherwise (i.e. not as positive) it is called real.

This text provides a frame-work to know something and also decide whether what is known is real or not.

The Granthibhanga interprets the text of Jayanta as follows: catasṛṣu vidhāsu iti - tattvam parisamāpyate arthaḥ parisamāpto bhavanti, nādhikāpekṣā upayujyate, i.e. tattvam parisamāpyate means '(the knowing the real nature of) a thing is completed and nothing additional is required'.

In the act of knowing these are the only four components and the act of knowing is complete once the reality of a positive and negative entities is known or arrived at. As a matter of fact, these may be considered as the four components of philosophizing.

Thus, if all the components are reduced to only one i.e.to *pramāṇa*, it will go against the above frame-work suggested by Vātsyāyana. This is the tone of text 7.

Text 8 (p. 32,7-10): na ca loko 'pi sāmagrayāḥ karaṇabhāvam anumanyate tasyāṃ karaṇavibhaktim aprayuñjānaḥ. na hy evaṃ vaktāro bhavanti laukikāḥ, sāmagrayā paśyāma iti; kin tu dīpena paśyāmaḥ cakṣuṣā nirīkṣāmaha ity ācakṣate.

Translation 8: Nor do the people approve the instrumentality of 'assemblage,' without the instrumental case-ending added to it. Nor do we meet ordinary people saying we see with 'assemblage,' on the contrary they say 'we see with a lamp,' 'we see with eyes.'

Note 8: After having shown that if  $s\bar{a}magr\bar{i}$  is treated as  $pram\bar{a}na$ , all  $k\bar{a}raka$  s will become  $karanak\bar{a}raka$  and not only that there will be no knowledge and thereby the reality can also not be decided, the

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opponent shows in the present text that even the language of common people do not support this view of Jayanta. Had samagrī been pramāṇa, the word sāmagrī would have been treated as karaṇakāraka and people would have used it in instrumental form like sāmagryā. But no one uses it like this. On the other hand, they use instrumental caseending after a word denoting single factor and not the collection of factors. Thus, the common men's notion also does not support Jayanta.

Text 9 (p. 32,10-11): tasmān na sāmagrī karaņam, akaraņatvāc ca na pramāṇam iti nedam sādhu pramāṇasvarūpam.

Translation 9: Therefore, 'assemblage' is not the instrument and since it is not the instrument it cannot be the means of a valid knowledge and thus it is not the actual nature of the means of valid knowledge.

Note 9: This is the conclusion of the *pūrvapakṣa*. The notion of *pramāṇa* involved the notion of instrument and the notion of an instrument cannot be a collection of factors, but only one factor out of many, which may be the most effective means. Therefore, since Jayanta's notion of *karaṇa* is not acceptable, his notion of *pramāṇa* is also not acceptable. His notion is also against all authorities like Pāṇini, Vātsyāyana and common usage. This is what the opponent concluded.

Text 10 (pp. 32,13-33,3): atrocyate -- yata eva sādhakatamam karanam, karanasādhanaś ca pramāṇaśabdaḥ, tata eva sāmagrayāḥ pramāṇatvam yuktam; tadvyatirekeṇa kārakāntare kvacid api tamabarthasaṃsparśānupapatteḥ. anekakārakasannidhāne kāryaṃ ghaṭamānam anyataravyapagame ca vighaṭamānam kasmai atiśayaṃ prayacchet? na cātiśayaḥ kāryajanmani kasyacid avadhāryate, sarveṣāṃ tatra vyāpriyamānatvāt.

Translation 10: We meet the above objections as follows: Because of the very fact that an instrumental case is defined as 'the most helpful case in producing the result' and because of the fact that the word *pramāṇa* is of instrumental derivation, it is but proper to take 'assemblage' alone as the means of valid knowledge. In no other case excepting that (= assemblage) there is any possibility of fitting in of the meaning of the suffix *tamap*. Moreover, when this is the situation that if all the cases are present the result occurs, but the result does not occur even if only one of them is removed to which excellence' can be given? The 'excellence' cannot be given to one when all are equally engaged in producing the result.

Note 10: Here Jayanta begins replying the objections raised in the pūrva-pakṣa. Text 10 is a reply to the text 4. Jayanta says that his notion of karaṇa is in conforming with that of Pāṇini. He suggests the interpretation of the rule sādhakatamam karaṇam in the light of his notion of karaṇa as sāmagrī. He wants to show that 'that' after which a

result follows and in the absence of 'that' the result does not follow is a karaṇakāraka. And it is everybody's experience that a result follows only when all the factors required for that result are present and such a result does not follow even if one of those factors is absent. Therefore, the collection of factors alone can be the karaṇa to produce that result. No one factor can be singled out to attribute 'excellence' which is the meaning of the superlative suffix -tama(p). Therefore, Pāṇini rule sādhakatamari karaṇanm will make sense only if the meaning of the superlative suffix -tama(s) is attributed to the collection of kāraka s and not to any single kāraka. Thus, Jayanta's notion is not against the notion of Pāṇini.

Varadācārya also rightly says: Pratyekam kārakāņi kāraṇāṇi, tat-smudāyaś ca karaṇam iti tu sāram, i.e. each kāraka is merely a factor and the collection of all factors is indeed the karaṇakāraka. This is the gist of the argument (of Jayanta).

Text 11 (p. 33,4): sannipattyajanakatvam atiśaya iti cet?

Translation 11: One may hold the view that being the product (or a result) being very close to it (i.e., directly without any intervention) is what is called *atisaya* 'excellence'.

Note 11: The *Granthibhanga* paraphrases the text as follows: *anya-kārakavyāpārāvyavadhīyamānavyāpāratvam sannipatyājanakatvam* (p. 7) 'being the producer (of a result) being very close to it' means 'being the function which is not being intervened by the function of any other *kāraka*'.

But unless the causal complex acquires the nature of being invariably related to the production of the result how can it be called a producer. This nature is obtained only through the collection of factors and not by any one particular factor. This is what Cakradhara says: phalotpādā-vinābhāvisvabhāvo yāvan na bhavati tāvat katham avaśyatayā kārya-janako bhavet? tadrūpam ca sāmagrito nānyasya iti.

Text 12 (p. 33,4-6): na -- ārād upakārakāṇām api kārakatvānapāyāt. jñāne ca janye kim asannipatyajanakam? sarveṣām indriyamano'rthādīnām itaretarasamsarge sati jñānanispatteh.

Translation 12: No. He is mistaken; because those which help the bringing out of the result remaining indirectly connected with the object do remain cases (*kāraka*). Moreover, in generating knowledge, being away from the result which can be a productive factor without being connected (i.e. not being closely connected) because knowledge is produced at the mutual contact of all, the sense-organ, the mind, the object etc.

Note 12: It is not the case that every factor directly produces a result. Some may be directly doing so, some other many be indirectly doing so. In the case of, for example, the perception of a jar, the soul is at a distance in comparison to the sense-object contact, still soul is a

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necessary factor and hence a  $k\bar{a}raka$ . The main point, therefore, is this that when all the necessary factors assemble together the result comes into existence and hence the assemblage is the only thing that can be called  $pram\bar{a}na$ .

Text 13 (p. 33,7): atha sahasaiva kāryajananam atiśayaḥ;

Translation 13: Now, if producing the result all at once is taken as 'the excellence.'

Note 13: This refers to the factor at the final stage of a process after which all at once the result emerges. That final factor may be said to possess 'excellence'. For example, suppose, the person is there in the room, he has good eyes, the book is also there, but the room is dark and so after one puts the light one can see the book. In this case, the putting on the light is the final stage of the result of seeing and hence the light may be said to have the 'excellence' and in this situation one may say, dīpena paśyāmi 'I see with the light'.

Text 14 (p. 33,7-13): so 'pi kasyāñcid avasthāyām karaṇasyeva karmaṇo 'pi śakyate vaktuṃ -- yathā aviralajaladharadhārāprabandhavaddhāndhakāranivahe bahulanisīthe sahasaiva sphuratā vidyullatālokena kāminījñānam ādadhānena taj janmani sātiśayatvam avāpyate, evam itarakārakakadambasannidhāne saty api sīmantinīm antareṇa taddarśanaṃ na saṃpadyate, āgatamātrāyām eva tasyāṃ bhavatīti tad api karmakārakam atiśayayogitvāt karanam syāt.

Translation 14: The same can be attributed like Instrumental to objective case also. Thus, the sudden flash of the lightning in the night of amāvāsyā having huge darkness due to the layers of series of dense clouds produces the knowledge of a beautiful woman (i.e. makes her visible) and thereby gets 'the excellence' in producing such a knowledge; but to see her is not possible if the woman is not there even though all other kārakas are present there. If she comes then alone seeing (her) is possible. In this way the object (= the woman) will become the instrumental since it possesses 'the excellence.'

Note 14: So all the factors or  $k\bar{a}rakas$  are equally important. An accusative case also is as important as what is normally known as an instrumental case.

Text 15 (p. 34,1-4): tasmāt phalotpādāvinābhāvisvabhāvatvam avaśyatayā kāryajanakatvam atiśyaḥ. sa ca sāmagrayantargatasya na kasyacid ekasya kārakasya kathayitum pāryate. sāmagryās tu so 'tiśayaḥ suvacaḥ. sannihitā cet sāmagrī saṃpannam eva phalam iti saivātiśyavatī.

Translation 15: Therefore, excellence is that which invariably produces the result and which is of the nature of that without which the result cannot be produced. One of the *kārakas* constituting, the assemblage cannot be said to have that excellence. But this

excellence can be easily attributed to 'the assemblage.' In other words, if the assemblage is present the result is as good as accomplished. Therefore, that (assemblage) alone has the excellence.

Note 15: Therefore, excellence has to be seen in terms of production of the result. And a result is never produced by a single  $k\bar{a}raka$ . Therefore, the producer of the result is always a collection of factors and hence the collection alone can have the excellence, and not any single  $k\bar{a}raka$  in isolation.

Text 16 (p. 34,6-7): nanu mukhyayoh pramātṛprameyayor api tadavinābhāvitvam atiśayo 'sty eva.

Translation 16: Well, the main factors like the knower and knowable too have the excellence of being that without which the result (*pramiti*) cannot be produced.

Note 16: Therefore, the agent and the object will become the instrument if atisaya is defined as phalotpādāvinābhāvisvabhāvatvam. This is the implication of the objection.

Text 17 (p. 34,7): pramitisambandham antarena tayos tathātvābhāvāt. Translation 17: But without the association with the resultant knowledge they (the agent and the object) cannot be called important or prominent.

Note 17: So, first knowledge should arise and then the role of agent and object may be decided, not before that.

Text 18 (p. 34,7-8): praminotīti pramātā bhavati, pramīyata iti ca prameyam

Translation 18: (But the derivative meaning of) the word *pramātā* is one who knows and what is known is called *prameya*.

Note 18: So, before the knowledge arises he is called the knower and the object is called knowable. Thus they are prominent and hence an instrument only.

Text 19 (p. 34,8-13): satyam etat kintu sākalyaprasādalabdhapramitisambandhanibandhanaḥ pramātṛprameyayor mukhyasvarūpalābhaḥ. sākalyāpacaye pramityabhāvāt gauņe pramātṛprameye saṃpadyete. evañ ca sākalyam antareṇa yadi pramitir avakalpeta bhaved vyabhicāraḥ:, na tv asau tathā dṛśyate iti pramityavyabhicārāt sākalyam eva sātiśayam iti tamabarthayogāt tad eva karanam.

Translation 19 (Reply): What you say is true. But the knower and the knowable get prominence when they are related to *pramiti* got through assemblage, and if the assemblage is not there, there is no *pramiti* and therefore, the knower and the knowable become secondary. Thus, without assemblage if *pramiti* were there, your objection would have held water, but such is not the case.

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Therefore, since the assemblage is invariably related with the *pramiti*, it alone has excellence and so assemblage alone can be *karana* since it alone has excellence.

Note 19: Here, there is no over-application of the definition of atisaya...

The prominence or subordinateness of a factor should be decide by observing whether the factor is actually involved in producing the knowledge or not. The *Granthibhanga* puts it as follows: tat-kālam pramām akurvannapi yogyatayā yaḥ pramātā iti bhanyate sa gauṇaḥ, yastu tat-kālam evapramā-janmani vyāpriyate sa mukhyaḥ. evam prameyam api.

Text 20 (p. 35,2-4): yat tu kim apekṣaṃ sāmāgrayāḥ karaṇatvam iti tat antargatakāra-kāpekṣam iti brūmaḥ. kārakāṇāṃ dharmaḥ sāmagrī na svarūpahānāya teṣāṃ kalpate; sākalyadaśāyām api tatsvarūpa-pratyabhijñanāt.

Translation 20: To the objection that with reference to what 'assemblage' is an instrument, our answer would be: with reference to all  $k\bar{a}raka$  cases included in the assemblage. Assemblage is a property of cases. It never destroys their (= of the cases) casehood because even at the time of assemblage we recognize their nature (of being a  $k\bar{a}raka$ ).

Note 20: This is the answer to text 4. A collection is a property of the collected and at the same time it does not replace the collected.

Text 21 (p. 35,6-8): nanu samagrebhyaḥ sāmagrī bhinnā cet kathaṃ pṛthannopalabhyate? abhede tu sarvakārakāṇi karaṇībhūtāny eveti kartṛkarmavyavahārocchedaprasangaḥ

Translation 21: Well, if this assemblage is different from all the cases how is it that it is not congnized separately? And if it is identical with the cases, there is then the contingency of putting an end to the usage of nominative, accusative etc. because, in that case, all the cases would become Instrumental case only.

Note 21: If the collection is a property of the cases as held in text No.20, then one should know whether it is a different from the cases or identical with them. If different, then why should it not be cognized differently? And if identical then all cases turn to be Instrumental cases only, which is an absurdity. This is the purpose of the objection.

Text 22 (pp. 35,8-36,7): maivam samagrasannidhānākhyadharmasya pratyakṣam upalambhāt. pṛthag avasthiteṣu hi sthālījalajvalanataṇḍulādiṣu na samagratāpratyayaḥ; samuditeṣu tu bhavatīty ataḥ tantupaṭalaparighaṭitapaṭādyavayavivat kārakakalāpaniṣpādyadravyāntarābhāve 'pi samudāyātmikā sāmagrī vidyata eveti samudāyyapekṣayā karaṇatāṃ pratipadyate. tasmān na paricodanīyam idaṃ kasmin karmaṇi sāmagrī karanam iti. samudāyinām sāmagryava-

sthāyām api svarūpānapāyāt samudāyiviśeṣe karmaṇi sāmagrī karaṇam. ata eva pramiter na nirālambanatvam.

Translation 22: What you have said is not true because the property such as closeness of all the participating cases (i.e. the assemblage) is directly cognized. If the cooking pot, water, fuel, rice etc. are kept in different places hardly one can have the knowledge of assemblage, but one can certainly have that when they (i.e. pot, water, etc.) are assembled together. Therefore, although the assemblage does not produce any other result than the result produced by the group of cases as the threads produce a cloth, still there is certainly the assemblage which is of the nature of collection or group, or totality. Hence it (= assemblage) has the instrumentality in comparison to the cases. Therefore, there is no point in asking with reference to what (prameya) assemblage is the instrument. Since the cases involved do not lose their forms even at the time of assemblage, the assemblage is the instrument with reference to a particular object which is one amongst the cases. Therefore, the *pramiti* (valid knowledge) is not without an object.

Note 22: The property of being together is  $s\bar{a}magr\bar{i}$  which is experienced by all when the cases come together. Thus,  $s\bar{a}magr\bar{i}$  is not a ficticious thing. Nor is it identical with the cases. Therefore, all the usages of all cases will continue.

Text 23 (p. 35,8-9): etena pramātrādih pṛthg upadarśita iti vidhā-catuṣṭayam api samāhitam.

Translation 23: In this way, the knower etc. are shown separately. Thus, all the four aspects are hereby maintained.

Note 23: Thus, the basic frame-work of philosophizing is not disturbed.

Text 24 (p. 35,10-12): yat tv abhyadhāyi sāmagrayāḥ karaṇavibhaktinirdeśo na dṛśyata iti tatrocyate - sāmagrī hi saṃhatiḥ. sā hi saṃhanyamānavyatirekeṇa na vyavahārapadavīm avatarati tena sāmagryā paśyāmīti na vyapadeśaḥ.

Translation 24: To the objection that none uses instrumental case-ending with sāmagrī (assemblage), the following is the answer: The word rī sāmagrī means collection or assemblage. That (assem-blage) never becomes the object of usage without those cases which are being assembled. Therefore, no such usage such as sāmagryā paśyāmi (I see with the assemblage) is found.

Note 24: This is an answer to text 8.

Text 25 (p. 36,2-3): yas tu dīpendiyāṇāṃ tṛtīyānirdeśaḥ, sa phalopajananāvinābhāvisvabhāvatvākhyasāmagrīsarūpasamāropaṇanibandhanaḥ. anyatrāpi ca tadrūpasamāropeṇa sthālyā pacatīti vyapadeśo dṛśyate eva. tasmād antargatakārakāpekṣayā labdhakaraṇabhāvā sāmagrī pramāṇam.

Translation 25: But that we find instrumental case-ending added to  $d\bar{\imath}pa$  (lamp), sense-organ (eye etc.) is due to the imposition of the nature of the assemblage namely the nature of being invariably productive of the result. Similarly, in other cases (i.e. in the case of Locative) by the imposition of its nature to the assemblage) we get the usage  $sth\bar{\imath}aly\bar{\imath}$  pacati (he cooks by the pot). Therefore, in comparison to the participating cases the assemblage becomes the Instrument and it is the means of valid knowledge.

Note 25: The usage of language is prompted by the intention of a speaker. It is as per that intention a particular role is assigned to an entity. Thus, the role of instrument is assigned to *sthālī* which is in reality a locative case.

Here this has happened due to the superimposition of the notion of instrumentality on a locative. This is a universal phenomenon in language.

After this Jayantabhaṭṭa discusses some other view according to which a kāraka other than nominative and accusative which produce the knowledge of a thin, which is neither doubtful nor erroneous is called karaṇa-kāraka. But we are not going to discuss it here. Because our aim is to present the Nyāya-Buddhist-controversy on the nature of a pramāṇa. Therefore, I present the following texts which present two stand-points of the Buddhist logicians and which have been taken for examination by Jayanta.

#### 1.2 Buddhist Views and Their Refutation

Text 26 (pp. 38,13-39,6): ye tu bodhasyaiva pramāṇatvam ācakṣate - na sūkṣmadarśinas te. bodhaḥ khalu pramāṇasya phalam, na sākṣāt-pramāṇam. karaṇārthābhidhāno hi pramāṇaśabdaḥ, pramīyate aneneti pramāṇam. pramīyata iti ko 'rthaḥ? pramā janyata iti. pramāṇād avagacchāma iti vadanto laukikāḥ karaṇasyaiva pramāṇyam anumanyate. yas tu pramā pramāṇam iti pramāṇaśabdaḥ, sa pramāṇaphale draṣṭavyaḥ. tathā ca saṃśayaviparyayātmakaṃ apramāṇaphalam api jñānaṃ ātmamano 'numāne tad viśeṣaṇārthaparicchede vā viśiṣṭapramājananāt pramāṇatāṃ pratipadyate. avyabhicārādiviśeṣeṇopapannam api jñānam aphalajanakaṃ apramāṇam eva. kevalapramāsvabhāvaṃ pramāṇād vibhinnaṃ phalam iti pratyakṣalakṣaṇe vakṣyāmaḥ.

Translation 26: Those who take knowledge itself as the means of valid knowledge do not have a critical mind or outlook. Knowledge, in fact, is the result of the means of valid knowledge and not the means itself. The word *pramāṇa* means instrument since it is derived as *pramīyate anena iti* 'by which something is known'. *Pramīyate*, again, means 'knowledge is produced'. Moreover,

people do use such sentences as pramānād avagacchāmah 'we know by the means of valid knowledge'. Thus, they too accept instrument only as pramāna. When, however, the word pramā (knowledge) is paraphrased as pramāna, it (i.e. the word pramāna) means 'the result of pramāna (i.e. the means of valid knowledge)'. Moreover, even the knowledge which is the result of defective means and even which is the nature of doubt or misapprehension does become the means of valid knowledge with reference to inferring the soul and mind or with reference to determining the qualification of the soul because it produces the knowledge of the qualified object. On the other hand, if a knowledge, which is, although an invariable (i.e. undoubtful) knowledge, does not produce any result, it never becomes the means (of valid knowledge). That the result is different from the means and that it can be of the nature of a valid knowledge also, will be explained when we will discuss the definition of perception.

Note 26: The main issue is this that a valid cognition is produced by a means of valid cognition. In this process, the process or *pramāṇa* has to be different from the result (*phala*) namely, the valid cognition. This is the view of Jayanta. The Buddhists, however, argue that the result itself is *pramāṇa*.

Cakradhara puts it as follows: yadā karaṇasādhanena pramāṇaśabdena loke vyavahāraḥ, evaṁ sati phalasya pramārūpasya aprāmānyam sidhyati. phala-pramāṇa-pakṣe punaḥ saṁśayajñānasya pramāṇa-lakṣaṇa-virahāt yat kvacit siddham prāmāṇyam saṁśayito 'yam arthaḥ. ityādau viśeṣaṇatvena tad hīyate. phalāntarā-janakatvena ca yad aprāmāṇyam akārakasya phalasya tadapi na parigṛhītam bhavati iti tātparyam.

În other words, we can distinguish a true or a false cognition, if the instrument is treated as different from the result. For the Buddhists' view cf. *Pramāṇasamuccaya* (1.8) and the *Vṛtti* thereon, *Nyāyapraveśa* 7 (Baroda edn.) p. 7; *Nyāyabindu* 1.18.21.

Text 27 (p. 39,7): atha vyatiriktaphalajanakam api bodharūpam eva pramānam ucyate

Translation 27: Even if it is accepted that a means must produce a result which should be different from the means, still *pramāṇa* remains 'of the nature of knowledge' only.

Notes 27: Let the nature of *pramāṇa* remain of the nature of knowledge still one can show the difference by pointing at different aspects of knowledge. Thus, the aspect of revealing the *ākāra* of *jñāna* may be called *phala* and the act of revealing that *ākāra* by the same knowledge may be called *pramāṇa*. Thus, it is said under the *Tattvasaṅgraha* (kārikā 1344): *jñāṇasya adhigatirūpatvāt sādhyatva*-

pratītir iti phala-tvam upa-caryate. tasyaiva ca viṣayākāra-parigrahakarmaṇā vyāpāreṇa ca saha pratītir iti pramāṇatvam upacaryate.

Text 28 (p. 39,8-9): tad ayuktam - sakalajagadviditabodhetarasvabhā-vaśabdalingadīpendriyādiparihāraprasangāt.

Translation 28: This is incorrect. If this nature (i.e. the nature of knowledge alone) of *prāmāna* is accepted, there would arise a contingency of rejecting the (Instrumentality of) words, probans, lamp, sense-organs etc. which are of the nature of non-knowledge and which are known as Instruments by the whole world.

Note 28: This text presents contradiction of the Buddhist concept of *pramāṇa* with that of common people.

Text 29 (pp.39,9-40,2): tasmāt sāmagryanupravistobodhaḥ viśeṣaṇa-jñānam iva kvacit pratyakṣe, liṅgajñānam iva liṅgipramitau, sārūpya-darśanam ivopamāne, śabdaśravaṇam iva tadarthajñāne pramāṇatāṃ pratipadyate. ata eva bodhābodhasvabhāvāsāmagrī pramāṇam ity uktam.

Translation 29: Therefore, a knowledge when included in the assemblage does become a *pramāṇa* as the knowledge of adjunct in the case of the perception of some possessed of that adjunct, as the knowledge of probans in the case of inferring the probandum, as the observing (knowledge) of similarity in the case of analogy, as the hearing (knowledge) of words in the case of knowing the meaning of those words. That is why, we have said that *pramāṇa* is the assemblage which consists of knowledge and non-knowledge.

Note 29: In all the four processes of knowing some factors involved are of the nature of knowledge and some others of the nature of non-knowledge. For instance, in the process of perception of pot the nirvikalpaka-jñāna preceding the savikalpaka-jñāna of pot is a factor which is of the nature of knowledge.

Similarly, the process of inferring starts from the knowledge of probans (*hetu*) and so this factor is of the nature of knowledge.

Likewise, the analogical cognition of the relationship between the word *gavaya* and the animal *gavaya* results from the knowledge of similarity and so the factor may be of the nature of knowledge.

Similarly, in the process of verbal understanding the starting point is the perception of a linguistic expression and it is no doubt of the nature of knowledge.

But all the factors involved in the process of knowing are not knowledge. Hence the nature of *pramāṇa* cannot be of the nature of knowledge only. This is the view of Jayantabhaṭṭa.

Text 30 (p. 40,4-10): anye tulyasāmagrayadhīnayoh jñānārthayoh grāhyagāhakabhāvam vadantah bodham pramānam abhyupāgaman kṣaṇabhaṅgiṣu padārtheṣu sahakāryupādānakāraṇāpekṣakṣaṇāntara-santatijananena ca lokayātrām udvahatsu jñānajanmani jñānam upādānakāraṇam, arthaḥ sahakārikāraṇam; arthajanmani ca arthaḥ upādānakāraṇam, jñānam ca sahakārikāraṇam iti - jñānam ca jñānārthajanyam, arthaś ca arthajñānajanyo bhavatīty evam ekasāmagraya-dhīnatayā tam artham avyabhicarato jñānasya tatra prāmāṇyam iti.

Translation 30: Some others, again, accept that knowledge and object which depend upon the same assemblage, (means) are mutually related as *grāhya* (which is to be known, the object) and *grāhaka* (which is the means of knowledge) and therefore, knowledge itself is the means (of valid knowledge). (They further elaborate this as follows).

Objects are momentary. They help the activities of this world by producing a chain of momentary (objects and knowledge) depending on material cause as well as the auxiliary cause. When knowledge is produced, knowledge is the material cause and the object is the auxiliary cause; when object is produced (in the next moment) object is the material cause, knowledge is the auxiliary one. Knowledge is produced by both knowledge as well as object. Similarly, object is produced by both object as well as knowledge. Therefore, knowledge alone is *pramāna* there because it is always with the object since it depends on the same assemblage (i.e. means such as knowledge and object).

Note 30: According to Cakradhara, this view refers to the Vaibhāṣika school of Buddhist philosophy. According to the Vaibhāṣikas a knowledge is without any form (nirākāra). As Cakradhara puts it: ajanako 'pi arthaḥ sahabhāvi-jñānena gṛḥyate iti nirākāra-jñāna-vādinām vaibhāṣikāṇām darśanam (p.8) i.e. 'Although an object is not the direct producer of its knowledge, it is cognized by the knowledge which arises along with it - this is the view of the Vaibhāṣika-philosophy which holds that knowledge is without a form'.

Now the question arises, if a knowledge has no form and if it is also not caused by its object, then how to decide that this is the knowledge of x and not of y? In order to account for this difficulty, they hold that both, the knowledge and its object depend on both of the previous moment. Since x has taken part in the production of its knowledge of the subsequent moment, one can say this is the knowledge of x. In the words of Cakradhara, eka- $s\bar{a}magry$ -utpannatvena tasyaiva tad  $gr\bar{a}ha$ -kam  $n\bar{a}nyasya$  (p.8).

Similarly, since y has not played any part with regard to the production of the knowledge in the subsequent moment, this knowledge cannot be the knowledge of y. As the Granthibhanga puts it: yathā etad-grahane tulya-sāmagry-adhīnatvam tasya niyāmakam asti, tathā anya-grahane na kiñcit asti (p.8).

Cakradhara defines the term upādāna-kāraṇa as follows: pūrvabhāvī svasantānagatasadṛśakṣaṇaḥ upādānakāraṇam (p.8) i.e. 'the moment-

entity which precedes the effect and which is a moment-entity similar to the moment-entity of its series is a material cause'.

In support of this definition he quotes Abhidharmakośa 2.52ab. Then he defines sahakāri-kāraṇa as tad-anyaḥ sahakāri-kāraṇam 'Other than the upādāna-kāraṇa is an auxiliary cause'. In support of this he further quotes Abhidharmakośa 2.50. [P. Pradān's edition reads svato 'nye ... in the place of tato 'nye ...]

Cakradhara also reads another definition of  $up\bar{a}d\bar{a}nak\bar{a}rana$  of the same school which runs as under: yad-utpattau yat- $sant\bar{a}na$ -nivrttih tat tasya  $up\bar{a}d\bar{a}nak\bar{a}ranam$  i.e. 'if after the production of y the series of x has terminated, then x is the material cause of y.'

But this definition does not work in the present cases because here what is explained is the next member of the same series i.e. the series of knowledge and the series of objects. Thus, the second definition of material cause refers to the case where the effect belongs to the series of another class. Therefore, Cakradhara comments: tad visadṛśotpādā-bhiprāyam, and gives an example to illustrate the point: tathā hi ghaṭotpatau mṛt-piṇḍa-santāna-nivṛttiḥ, anutpanne hi ghaṭe mṛt-piṇḍa-kṣaṇā eva santānena utpadyante, ghaṭe tu utpanne ghaṭa-kṣanā iti.

In this context one may also compare the *Pramāṇavārttika* of Dharmakīrti. Jñānaśrīmitra points out: *ekasāmagrījanyatve tu jadānubhavayoḥ pratiniyatam vedyatvam vedakatvam ca syāt. tatpratibandhāt ca nātiprasaṅgaḥ* (p.421) 'i.e. if both are produced by both, then they will be always i.e. at every moment 'a revealer and revealed'. Since difference is introduced in the material and auxiliary causes, such a contingency will not arise'.

Text 31 (p. 40,11-12): tad idam anupapannam - aphalajanakasya pramāṇatvānupapatter ity uktatvāt.

Translation 31: What you say is uncogent, because (if your view that knowledge alone is the means is accepted then) there will arise a contingency of taking even that knowledge as *pramāna* which does not produce any result. We have already pointed out this before.

Note 31: Jayanta points to his argument in text No.26.

Text 32 (p. 40,12-16): api ca karmaņi jñānam pramāņam iṣyate. yathoktam - 'savyāpāram ivābhāti vyāpāreņa svakarmaņi' iti. sa cāyam arthakṣaṇo jñānasamakālaḥ tataḥ pūrvābhyām jñānārthalakṣaṇābhyām upajanita iti tatkarmatām pratipadyatām, na punaḥ svasamānakālaprasūtajñānaksanakarmatām iti.

Translation 32: Moreover, with reference to an object you want to take (mere) knowledge is the means, as you, yourself, have said in the *Pramānavārtika* that knowledge (which is of the form of reflection of an object) by intermediate course (i.e. by invariably revealing the objects) appears to be as if it has function with

reference to its own object. Therefore, as this (second) momentary object which is the first knowledge is produced by the immediately preceding momentary knowledge and object, but it (the second arthakṣaṇa) be the object of the first momentary knowledge and not (of that which has come into existence simultaneously with it).

Note 32: Jayanta points out that if the Buddhist view is accepted then the *visaya-visayi-bhāva* between an object and its knowledge is difficult to be shown. Every thing is momentary so if a thing has to be object of a cognition it requires at least two moments: coming into existence in the first moment and then becoming the object in the second moments. How can it be accepted by the *ksanabhangavādin*?

The Granthibhanga points out another difficulty. It says that the question by Jayanta is from the Pramāṇavārttika in the context of arguing in favour of sākāra-jñāna and hence it may not apply to them. To this Cakradhara thinks that even the nirākāra-jñānavādin Vaibhāṣika will have to accept that there is grāhya-grāhaka-bhāva relation between an object and its cognition. If they do not accept this position, they will have to give up their own theory nirākāra-jñāna-vāda and will have to adopt the yogācāra-position of sākārajñānavāda. In the words of Cakra-dhara, evam ca vaibhāṣika-mata idaṁ dūṣaṇaṁ kathaṁ saṅgacchate? satyam kintu svasmin viṣaye jñānasya prāmāṇyam tair api iṣyate, ata eva tan-mata-saṁvādina eva ślokākārasya upanyāsaḥ kṛtaḥ. athavā vaibhāṣikair aniṣyāmāṇam api balād etad aṅgīkāryam, anyathā nir-viṣatve jñānasya yogācāra-darśanāpatti-prasaṅgāt. (p. 9)

Text 33 (p. 40,17-18): nanu ca tulyasāmagrayadhīnastayā samānakālatayā ca tadavyabhicārasiddhau satyām kva karmatvam upayujyate?

Translation 33: Well, where does the question of its (= of the second momentary object) objectness come when it is invariably associated with the knowledge by their being simultaneously produced and by their being produced, by the same causes?

Note 33: Even if *grāhya-grāhaka-bhāva* is not there, still the one-is to-one relationship is mainted because both the cognition and its objects are producing each simultaneously?

Text 34 (p. 40,18-19): hanta tarhi sahotpannayoh samānasāmagrīkayoh grāhyagrāhakaniyamah kim krta iti vaktavyam?

Translation 34: Funny indeed is your view! Then you should tell me what is the cause of the rule regarding the revealable and the revealer of two things having the same causes for their production and which have come into existence simultaneously?

Note 34: If two things x and y are produced by the same causal complex how is it that one of these is called a revealer and the other the revealed?

Text 35 (p. 41,1-2): jñānam svaprakāśasvabhāvam iti grāhakam, artho jadātmeti grāhyam - iti cet

Translation 35: Knowledge is of the nature of illumination and therefore, it is *grāhaka* whereas object is of the form of inanimate things and therefore, it is *grāhya*.

Note 35: Thus, *svabhāva* of knowledge and that of knowable are such that there subsists the relationship of *grāhya-grāhaka-bhāva*.

Text 36 (p. 41,2): ayam api visesas tulyakālayoh kutastyah?

Translation 36: Wherefrom do they (knowledge and object) get their distinctness (i.e. one is *prakāśasvabhāva* and the other is *jadasvabhāva*) when both have the same causes?

Note 36: What is source of the respective *svabhāva* of things? When the causes remain the same and they occur at one and the same time how to distinguish them?

Text 37 (p. 41,2-3): upādānasahakāśrikāraṇabhedād iti cet,

Translation 37: Since there is a difference in the material cause and the auxiliary cause (they acquire *svabhāvas*).

Note 37: See text 30.

Text 38 (p. 41,3-4): na - tasya kṣaṇabhaṅgabhaṅge nirākāriṣyamāṇa-tvāt.

Translation 38: No. That will be refuted in the *kṣaṇabhṅga-bhaṅga*-section.

Note 38: The refutation of the theory of momentariness of things is presented by Jayanta in the seventh  $\bar{A}hnika$  of the  $Ny\bar{a}yama\bar{n}jar\bar{i}$ .

Text 39 (p.41,6-11): ye 'pi nirākārasya bodhasvarūpasya nīlapītādy-anekaviṣayasādhāraṇatvāt, janakatvasya ca cakṣurādāv api bhāvenāti-prasaṅgāt, tadākāratvakṛtam eva jñānakarmaniyamam avagacchantaḥ sākāraṃ jñānaṃ pramāṇam iti pratipedire te 'pi vijñānādvaitasiṣādha-yiṣayaivam abhidadhānāḥ tannirāsaprasaṅga eva nirasiṣyante. na hy ekam eva sākāraṃ jñānaṃ grāhyaṃ grāhakaṃ ca bhabitum arhatīti vaksyate.

Translation 39: Those (Yogācāras) who took knowledge of the form of the object to be the *pramāṇa* (means of valid knowledge) think that the invariable association between knowledge and the object is feasible only when the knowledge (i.e. the *pramāṇa*) has in it a reflection of that (object). Because, if the nature of knowledge is taken as having no particular form then-since it (*nirākārajñāna*) is common to all sorts of knowledge such as that of a blue thing or

of a yellow thing etc. and since productive nature is also there in eyes etc.-there is the contingency of its over-application.

They (Yogācāras) being desirous of establishing identity with the knowledge speak in the above manner. They too will be refuted when we will be refuting their *Vijñānādvaita*-theory. It will also be shown later that knowledge of form of the object cannot be both *grāhya* (revealed) and *grāhaka* (revealer).

Note 39: This text presents the view of the Yogācāra-school. According to this school of thought the knowledge is always  $s\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$ . Since the  $\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$  is in the knowledge, there is no  $\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$  (thing of this world) outside. What appears as being outside is mere projection of one's mind.

Text 40 (p. 41,12-15): arthas tu sākārajñānavādino na samasty eva. sa hy anumeyo vā syāt? pratyakṣo vā? nānumeyah; sambandhagrahaṇā-bhāvāt.

arthe hi sati sākāram nirākāram tadatyaye / nityānumeyavāhyārthavādī jñānam kva drstavān. //38//

Translation 40: Moreover, for these Buddhists who are the propagators of knowledge having a particular form of object as the means) the object itself does not probably exist If it is positive it should be either inferred or perceived?

(We say:) it cannot be inferred because there is no invariable concomitance between the object which is outside and the *sākāra*-knowledge which is inside the mind.

(We ask:) Where did the Buddhists for whom the wordly objects are always inferable and never perceivable) see or realize the knowledge of invariable concomitance such as if there is an object there is the knowledge of the form of that object and if that object is removed the knowledge has no form?

Note 40: If an existence of a thing is to be established it should be by some *pramāṇa*. The Buddhists accept only two *pramāṇa* s: *pratyakṣa* and *anumāṇa*. First, Jayanta shows that inference is not capable of establishing the existence of an object of knowledge.

Text 41 (p. 42,1-4): nāpi pratyakṣo 'rthaḥ ākāradvayānupalambhāt. abhyupagame cānavasthāprasaṅgāt. arthākāro hi nirākārajñānagamyo na bhavatīti jñānenākāravatā gṛḥyate; so 'yam idānīm jñānākāro 'pi grāhyatvāt anyenākāravatā gṛḥyate, so 'py anyeneti.

Translation 41: Nor, the objects can be perceived according to their theory because no body realizes two forms at a time (one of the sākāra knowledge which is the means and the other of the object). If it (i.e. realization of two forms of knowledge) is accepted there would arise the contingency of the fallacy known as anavasthā. Thus, since the form of an object cannot be realized by the knowledge (the means) which has no form or reflection of

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that object), it (the object) is realized by the knowledge having the form or reflected of that object. Now, that form of knowledge (of that object) also becomes an object of some other knowledge and as such it is to be realized by some other knowledge having the form of reflection of that, earlier knowledge. This knowledge of the earlier knowledge also requires some other knowledge having a particular form for its realization or knowledge, and so on and so forth. Thus, the fault of the *anavasthā*.

Note 41: Once one accepts the view that an object is to be revealed by only that knowledge which has the form of that object, this fault of anavasth $\bar{a}$  is unavoidable. So, one can never perceive the object if it is of the form of  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}n\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$  only.

Text 42 (p. 42,5-9): atha vā artho nirākārajñānagrāhyatām nopayātīti svagrāhake jñānātmani samarpitātmā bhavatīti sākāram jñānam evedam sampannam iti punar artho 'nyaḥ kalpanīyaḥ, so 'pi grāhyatvāt svagrāhakasya sākāratvasiddhaye tatraiva līyata iti sākāram jñānam evāvasisyata iti punar anyo 'rtha iti ittham anavasthā.

Translation 42: The anavasthā can be shown in another way also. As an object cannot be realized by a knowledge having no form, it (the object) offers itself to the knowledge which will reveal it and thereby becomes one with knowledge. (In that case there is no object left outside.) Therefore, another object is to be postulated or inferred. That too, being an object, becomes one with the means (knowledge) in order to make it (knowledge) sākāra. Therefore, what remains even at this step is simply a knowledge having a particular form. It again requires an object and therefore another object is to be inferred and so on and so forth. Thus the fault of anāvasthā.

Note 42: There is a step-by-step explanation of the fault of anavasthā presented by the *Granthibhanga*(p.10). Since the artha has to be only one, since without the arthākāra, the knowledge cannot be the revealer pramāṇa, the arthākāra will keep on making the pramāṇa sākārā and it will never stop. The result is this that one can never know the object.

Thus, if one holds the Yogācāra-view, one cannot establish the existence of an object of knowledge.

Text 43 (p. 42,9-13): pratikarmavyavasthā tu janakatvanibandhanā bhavisyati, vastusvabhāvasyāparyanuyojyatvāt. sākārapakṣe 'pi paryanuyogasāmyamityādi sarvam upariṣṭāt savistaram abhidhāsyate. sākārapakṣe 'pi ca na pramāṇāt vyatiriktam phalam upadarśitam ity asatpakṣa evāyam.

Translation 43: The settlement namely, this is the knowledge of x and this is the knowledge of y is possible (according to our doctrine) because the object is considered as the producer of the knowledge.

[On this you argued that as object is a *janaka*, eyes etc. are also *janakas* and therefore, they (eyes etc.) should also be revealed by the knowledge.] To this we say it is the nature of the knowledge which reveals only the object and not the *karana* (i.e. eyes etc.).

We can as well ask you on this point that even in your case of  $s\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$  knowledge how is it that the knowledge gets the form of the object and not of the eyes etc. which are auxiliary means according to you? Therefore, your objection and your own position both are similar. All this will be discussed in detail later.

As in the theory of *sākāra*-knowledge also a *pramāna* is not different from the result, it is not a good theory.

Note 43: The Granthibhanga clarifies vastu-svabhāvasya aparyanyojyatvāt as follows: - yadi brūyāt - tulye kārakatve katham arthasyaiva pratibhāsyatvam na cakṣurāder iti? tatra uttaramvastusvabhāvo 'yam iti tathā ca bhavadbhir api paryanuyuktaiḥ 'tulye janakatve katham arthasyaiva ākāragrāhi jñānam na akṣāṇām' iti vastusvabhāvapatha ity eva uttaram deyam. (p.10)

#### 2.0 CONCLUSION

Following conclusions emerge from the understanding of the above dialogue:

- (1) It is the basic philosophical frame-works of both, the Indian Realists and the Indian Idealists, which prompt their respective arguments. In Indian Idealism of the type of the *Vijñānavāda*, since a thing can exist only in the form of a cognition, how can they accept non-knowledge as the nature of *pramāṇa*? Similarly, according to the Indian Realism of the type of *nirākara-jñāna-vāda* of the Naiyayikas, when the thing has a separate existence independent of its cognition what is the necessity to disturb the common-sense view of a process and its result?
- (2) While the Indian Realists base these argument on the basis of producer and produced pramāṇa, the producer and pramā, the produced the Indian Idealists depend on the notion of revealer and revealed, pramāṇa being 'the revealer' and the pramā, being 'the revealed'. It is this reason that Jayantabhaṭṭa's concept of pramāṇa was criticized by the Jaina logician Prabhācandra Sūri (11th Century A.D.) in his Prameyakamalamārtaṇda (Edited by Pdt Mahendrakumar Shastri, Nirnaya Sagar Press, 1941, pp.7-13).

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