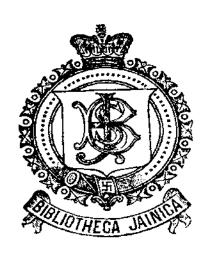


NYAYAVATARA

(THE EARLIEST JAINA WORK ON PURE LOGIC.)



SATIS CHANDRA VIDYABHUSANA.

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NYAYAVATARA:

THE EARLIEST JAINA WORK ON PURE LOGIC

BY

SIDDHA SENA DIVAKARA

(The Celebrated Kṣapaṇaka of Vikramāditya's Court)

WITH SANSKRIT TEXT AND COMMENTARY

EDITED FOR THE FIRST TIME

WITH NOTES AND ENGLISH TRANSLATION

BY

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PREFACE.

(SECOND EDITION.)

The second edition of this treatise on Jaina Logic is intended to be included as a volume of "the Library of Jaina Literature" in the publication of the Sacred Books of the Jaina Society, ARRAH.

I take this opportunity of expressing my sincere thanks to my friend Kumar Devendra Prasad, Managing Director of the said Society, at whose suggestion this edition was undertaken.

I hope the work, which as a treatise on Jaina Logic is unique in its character will in this way obtain a wider circulation.

SATIS CHANDRA VIDYABHUSANA.

SANSKRIT COLLEGE,

CALCUTTA:

December, 1915.

PREFACE.

(First Edition.)

Professor Peterson, in his Fifth Report on the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts in the Bombay Circle, mentions a Jaina Sanskrit work called Nyāyāvatāra by Siddha Sena Divākara. A manuscript of this work, together with a commentary on it called Nyāyāvatāra-vivrti, was kindly procured for me from a private library in Bhavanagara, Bombay, by the well-known Svetāmbara Sādhus, Sastra-visarada Jainacharyya Vijaya Dharma Suri and Upadhyaya Indravijaya.

Seeing that the Nyāyāvatāra is a very important work, being the earliest known Jaina treatise on Pure Logic, I have, in the present volume, attached the text of it with extracts from its verbose commentary. I have also included in the volume an English translation which I prepared for the "Journal" of the Indian Research Society of Calcutta. The notes which I have added to elucidate the translation are based on the commentary already referred to.

I acknowledge with thanks that Mr. C. Russell, M.A., Principal, Patna College, has kindly helped me with a number of suggestions while the translation was passing through the press.

My thanks are also due to Rai Sarat Chandra Das, Bahadur, C.I.E., at whose instance I undertook this work, and who, at the suggestion of the Government of Bengal, forwarded its advance proof to the International Congress of Orientalists held at Copenhagen in August 1908. It was kindly accepted by that learned body as a contribution on the Jaina philosophical literature.

SATIS CHANDRA VIDYABHUSANA.

Presidency College,

CALCUTTA:

February, 1909.

INTRODUCTION.

Logic was mixed up with metaphysics and relisidana Sena Digion in the ancient writing of the vakara, the author of Nyâyâva. Jainas as in those of other sects in târa. India. The first Jaina writer on Pure Logic appears to have been Siddha Sena Divâkara. It was he who, for the first time among the Jainas, distinguished logic from the cognate branches of learning by composing a metrical work called Nyâyâvatâra on Logic in thirty-two stanzas.

Siddha Sena Divâkara is the famous author of the Sammati-tarka—sûtra, which is a Prâkrta work on philosophy, containing an elaborate discussion on the principles of logic. This author, who belonged to the Svetâmbara (the white-robed) sect, has been

A manuscript of the Nyâyâvatâra by Siddha Sena Divâkara, together with its commentary called Nyâyâvatâra-vivṛti, was kindly procured for me from Bhavanagara. Bombay, by Venerable Dharmavijaya and his pupil, Indravijaya. For further information about this work, see a notice of it in Peterson's Fifth Report on Sanskrit MSS., p. 289. The notes, incorporated in this paper for the elucidation of the translation, are all based on the Nyâyâvatâra-vivṛti.

mentioned by Pradyumna Sûri (1000 A. D.) in his Vicâra-sâra-prakaraṇa.¹

This famous logician, who was a pupil of Vrddhavâdi Sûri, received the name of Kumuda-candra² at the time of his ordination. He is said to have split, by the efficacy of his prayers, the Linga (Brâhmanical symbol) of Rudra in the temple of Mahâkala at Ujjaini, and to have called forth an image of Pârsvanâtha by reciting his Kalyâṇa-mandira-stava. He is believed to have converted king Vikramâditya to Jainism, 470 years after the Nirvâṇa of Mahâvira.³ The Jainas believe that he was the spiritual tutor of that famous king, as is evident from the Kumâra-pâla-caritra and other works.

It may be noted here that Vikramâditya of Ujjaini has been considered by scholars to be identical with Yasodharma Deva, king of Malwa, who, according to Alberuni, defeated the Huns at Korur, in 533 A. D. The Chinese pilgrim, Hwen-tshang, who came to India in 629 A. D., says that a very powerful king [presumably Vikramâditya] reigned 60

पंचेव य वारिससए सिद्धसेण दिवायरी य जयपयड़ो । छुचसए वीसहिए सक्क्युङ अञ्जरिक्ख पहु ॥ २६ ॥

(Vicâra-sâra-prakaraṇa, noticed by Peterson in his Third Report, p. 272.)

Cf. Prabhâvakacaritra VIII, V. 57.

^{*} See Klatt's Paţţâvalî of the Kharatara Gaccha in the Indian Antiquary, Vol. XI, Sept. 1882, p. 247.

years¹ before his arrival there. From these it appears that Siddha Sena Divâkara, who was a contemporary of Vikramâditya, must have lived at Ujjainî about 550 A. D.

Legends and historical accounts show that Siddha Sena was the well-known Kṣapaṇaka² (the Jaina sage), who adorned the court of Vikramâditya and was one of the Nine Gems (Nava Ratna). Varâhamihira, the famous astronomer, who was another of the Nine Gems of the court of Vikramâditya, lived between A D. 505³ and A.D. 587. We are told that Kṣapaṇaka, alias Siddha Sena, was a contemporary of Varâhamihira; so he must have flourished about the middle of the 6th century.

सप्ताश्विवेद-संख्यं शककालमपास्य चैत्रशुक्कादी । श्रद्धांस्तमिते भाना यवनपुरे साम्य दिवसाद्ये ॥ ८ ॥

(Pañcasiddhântikâ, Chap. 1, edited by Dr. G. Thibaut and Sudhâkara Dvivedi.)

¹ Vide Beal's Buddhistic Records of the Western World, Vol. II, p. 26.

धन्वन्तिरः चपणकोऽमरिसंहशङ्कुर्वेतालभट्टघटखर्परकालिदासाः। ख्याते। वराहमिहिरो नृपतेः संभायां रत्नानि वै वरहचिनैव विक्रमस्य॥ (Jyotirvidabharana).

³ Vide Dr. Thibaut's Introduction to Pañcasiddhântikâ, p. XXX. Varâhamihira chose Śaka 427 or A. D. 505 as the abdapinda of his astronomical calculation, showing thereby that he lived about that time. So—

There is an excellent commentary on the Nyâyâvatâra, called the Nyâyâvatâra-vivrti Candra-prabha Sûri, author of by Candra-prabha Sûri, who also Nyâyâvatâravivrti (?) belonged to the Svetâmbara sect and founded the Purnimâ Gaccha 3 in Samvat 1159 or A.D. 1102. He was a pupil of Jayasimha Sûri, and preceptor of Dharamaghosa. He wrote another logical treatise, called Prameya-ratna-koşa,² and a philosophical treatise called Darsana-suddhi, otherwise called Samyaktva-prakarana. He was a great logician, and in controversy appeared as a lion before opponents, who resembled elephants.4 In the introduction to his Nyâyâvatâra-vivrti he has quoted the Buddhist logicians, Dharmottara and Arcata, and in the concluding lines has craved the mercy of Jina.

¹ See Peterson's Fourth Report. p. xxvii. and Peterson 3, xvi. In the Nyâyâvatâra-vivṛti itself there is no mention of Candra-prabha Sûri. I found somewhere that he was the author of it. The authorship of the Nyâyâvatâra-vivṛti must, however, for the present remain an open question.

² See Dr. R. G. Bhandarkar's Report, 1883-84, p. 147.

⁹ Vide Jainagama List, Bombay, p. 77, and Peterson's Third Report on Sanskrit MSS., Appendix, p. 9.

^{&#}x27;तीर्थे वीरविभोः सुधर्मगणभृत् सन्तानलब्धोन्नति-श्रारित्रोज्जवलचन्द्रगच्छजलिधप्रोक्षासशीतधुतिः । साहित्यागमतर्कलचणा महाविद्यापगा सागरः श्रीचन्द्रप्रभ सुरिरद्धतमतिर्वादीभ सिंहोऽभवत् ॥ १ ॥

⁽Dasavaikâlika-ţîkâ by Tilakâcârya, noticed in Peterson's Fifth Report, p. 65.)

AN OBSERVATION.

[Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana maintains here that Siddha Sena Divakara was identical with the well-known Ksapanaka. This view perfectly commends itself to me.—There is proof enough that Siddha Sena was a Jaina sage and lived in the court of Vikramaditya. That Ksapanaka was one of the Nine Gems of the court of Vikarmaditya is also very widely known, and it remains only to prove that he was a Jaina sage. We have instances enough in the Pancatantra where the Jaina ascetics are nicknamed as Ksapanaka. The following instances from the Avadanakalpalata will show that the Buddhists also designated the Jaina ascetics as Ksapanaka:—

भगवद्भाषितं तत्तु सुभद्रेण निवेदितम्। श्रुत्वा क्षपणकः क्षिप्रमभूद् द्वेषविषाकुरुः॥९॥ तस्य सर्वे न्नतां वेत्ति सुभद्रो यदि मद्गिरा। तदेष क्षपणश्रद्धां त्यक्ष्यति श्रमणाद्रात्॥ १२॥ मूर्वे क्षपणभक्तेन तद्गिरा हतयोषिता। त्वया त्यक्तस्वपुत्रेण किं नाम सुकृता कृतम्॥ ४०॥

> (Jyotiskavadana). SARAT CH. DAS.]

न्यायावतार

NYAYAVATARA.

TEXT AND TRANSLATION, WITH NOTES.

प्रमाणं स्वपराभाति ज्ञानं बाधविवर्क्कितम्। प्रत्यक्षं च परोक्षं च द्विधा मेयविनिश्चयात्॥१॥

1. Pramâna (valid knowledge) is the knowledge which illumines itself and other things without any obstruction: it is divided as pratyakṣa (direct knowledge or perception) and parokṣa (indirect knowledge) as knowables are ascertained in two ways.

This definition sets aside the view of those Buddhists [Yogâcâras] who maintain that knowledge illumines itself alone, inasmuch as there is, according to them, no external object beyond it. The same definition is also in direct opposition to the doctrine of the Naiyâyika, Mîmâmsaka and others, who hold that knowledge illumines the external object alone, as it cannot illumine itself. The Jainas maintain that it is only when knowledge illumines itself that it can take cognizance of the external object. So according to them knowledge, like a lamp, illumines itself as well as the object lying outside it.

Those whose sight has been obscured by darkness often see many false images, such as two moons, etc.; men bewildered by sophism are found to believe that every thing is momentary, or the like. With a view to differentiate such kinds of false knowledge from pramana (valid knowledge), the phrase "without obstruction" has been used.

Pramâna (valid knowledge) is divided here into pratyakţa (direct knowledge) and parokṣâ (indirect knowledge), including in the latter anumâna (inference) and śabda (the verbal testimony). This division contravenes the conclusion of Cârvâka that there is only one pramâṇa, viz., pratyakṣa (perception or direct knowledge), for, pratyakṣa cannot be established as a pramâṇa, except through the medium of the parokṣa (indirect knowledge). It also sets aside the view of the Saugatas (Buddhists) who divide pramâṇa into pratyakṣa (direct knowledge or perception) and anumâna (inference), without any notice of śabda (the verbal testimony).

प्रसिद्धानि प्रमाणानि व्यवहारश्च तत्कृतः। प्रमाणलक्षणस्योक्ती ज्ञायते न प्रयोजनम्॥ २॥

2. Pramânas and the practical use made of them are well known: there appears no necessity for giving any definition of the pramânas.

There was never a time when the acts of seeing, inferring, etc., were not performed. The use of these acts is also well known, for it is through them that we can choose one thing and reject another thing. So it appears superfluous to explain the nature of pramana (valid knowledge).

प्रसिद्धानां प्रमाणानां लक्ष्योक्तौ प्रयोजनम् । तद्यामाहनिवृत्तिः स्याद् यामूढ्मनसामिह ॥ ३॥

3. The necessity here for giving the definition of the well-known pramânas is to remove the stupidity from the mind of stupid people.

Pramâna (valid knowledge), though well-known, is explained here to warn the foolish people from taking false knowledge as true.

ग्रपरेक्षितयार्थस्य ग्राहकं ज्ञानमीहराम् । प्रत्यक्षमितरद् ज्ञेयं परोक्षं ग्रहणेक्षया ॥ ४॥

4. Such knowledge that takes cognizance of objects, not beyond the range of the senses, is pratyakşa (direct knowledge or perception); the other is known as parokṣa (indirect knowledge), in reference to the manner of taking the cognizance.

The words pratyaksa (direct knowledge) and paroksa (indirect knowledge) have been used here in their ordinary acceptations, namely, the first for sense-perceptions, and the second for inference and verbal testimony. In the ancient Jaina scriptures, however, pratyaksa (direct knowledge) signified perfect knowledge acquired by the soul direct through meditation and not through the channels of the senses, while paroksa (indirect knowledge) signified knowledge derived through the medium of the senses or signs comprising perception, inference and the verbal testimony.

साध्याविनाभुने। लिङ्गात् साध्यनिश्चायकं स्मृतम् । ग्रनुमानं तदभ्रान्तं प्रमाणत्वात् समक्षवत् ॥ ५॥

5. The knowledge determinant of that which is to be proved (i.e., the major term, called in Sanskrit sâdhya), derived through the mark (i.e., the middle term called in Sanskrit linga) which is inseparably connected with the same, is known as anumâna (inference): being a pramâna it is free from invalidity like perception (pratyakşa).

Inference is of two kinds: (1) svarthanumana, inference for one's own self, and (2) pararthanumanu, inference for the sake of others. The first kind is the inference drawn in one's own mind after having made repeated observations. Suppose that

having repeatedly seen in the kitchen and other places, that where there is smoke there is fire, and having realised in his mind that there is a universal antecedence of fire in respect of smoke, a man afterwards goes to a hill and entertains a doubt as to whether or not there is fire in it. Instantly, when he observes smoke on it, he recollects the inseparable connection between fire and smoke, and concludes in his mind that the hill has fire in it, as it has smoke on it. This is an inference for one's own self. The inference for the sake of others will be defined later on.

This definition of inference, says the commentator, sets aside the view of certain writers [such as Dharmakîrti, the Buddhist] who maintain that non-perception (anupalabdhi), identity (svabhāva) and causality (kārya) are the marks or grounds of inference, or of certain other writers who hold the effect (kārya), cause (kāraṇa), conjunction (saṃyoga), coexistence (saṃavāya), and opposition (virodha) to be such marks or grounds. The division of inference as (1) à priori (purvavat, from cause to effect), (2) à posteriori (śeṣavat, from effect to cause) and (3) from analogy (sâmānyato-dṛṣṭa, perception of homogeneousness, that is, the recognition of the subject as being referrable to some class, and as being thence liable to have predicated of it whatever may be predicable of the class) [as given in the Nyāya-sūtra of Akṣapāda Gautama] is also hereby set aside.

न प्रत्यक्षमपि भ्रान्तं प्रमाणत्वविनिश्चयात्। भ्रान्तं प्रमाणमित्येतद् विरुद्धवचनं यतः॥६॥

6. Since it is a pramána, pratyaksa (perception), too, is not invalid, for, "a pramána, is invalid" is an absurd expression.

Some [Buddhists] who maintain that the world is true only from the practical or illusory point of view (lokasamerti), but false from the transcendental or absolute standpoint

(pāramārthika), consider perception (pratyakṣa) to be merely illusory, and consequently invalid from the absolute standard of truth. But this view is opposed by the Jainas, who maintain that the world is real from all standpoints, and consequently perception is not invalid.

सकलप्रतिभासस्य भ्रान्तत्वासिद्धितः स्फुटम्। प्रमाणं स्वान्यनिश्चायि द्वयसिद्धौ प्रसिद्ध्यति ॥ ७॥

7. Owing to the impossibility of all phenomena (external objects) being invalid, pramana is evidently a determinant of self and other things, and serves to establish both.

The world is not an illusion: knowledge and its objects are all real.

हृष्टेष्टाव्याहतत्वाद्वाक्यात् परमार्थाभिधायिनः। तत्त्वप्राहितयात्पन्नमानं शाब्दं प्रकीर्त्तितम्॥८॥

8. Knowledge arising from words, which taken in their proper acceptance express real objects not inconsistent with what are established by perception, is known as \hat{sabda} (the verbal testimony).

Sábda (the word or verbal testimony) is of two kinds, viz., (1) laukika (the knowledge derived from a reliable person), and (2) śástraja (the knowledge derived from scripture).

त्राप्तोपज्ञमनुहङ्कायमहष्टेष्टविरोधकम् । तस्त्वोपदेशकृत् सार्वे शास्त्रं कापथघट्टनम् ॥ ९ ॥

9. The scripture (śâstra) is that which was invented (or first known) by a competent person, which is not such as to be passed over by others, which is not incompatible with the truths derived

from perception, which imparts true instructions and which is profitable to all men and is preventive of the evil path.

This definition sets aside the view of those [Mimâmsakas] who maintain that the scripture [such as the Veda] is eternal and was not composed by any human being. The scripture could not have been called a verbal testimony (śābda or word), unless it embodied the words of any particular person or persons.

स्वनिश्चयवदन्येषां निश्चयात्पादनं बुधैः । परार्थं मानमाख्यातं वाक्यं तदुपचारतः ॥ १० ॥

10. Like the decision for oneself, the production of a decision in others is called by the learned 'knowledge for the sake of others' (parârthamâna): speech is designated as such by metaphor.

Knowledge is of two kinds: (1) knowledge for one's own self (svārtha māna), and (2) knowledge for the sake of others (parārtha māna). The second is defined as that which produces decision or belief (niścaya) in others, i.e., which enables others to ascertain the nature of things. The "word" or "speech" (śabda or vākya) comes under this class, that is, it is knowledge for the sake of others, for it produces decision in others. It is true the "word" itself is not knowledge, but being the medium through which knowledge is conveyed to others, it is figuratively identified with knowledge.

प्रत्यक्षेणानुमानेन प्रसिद्धार्थप्रकाशनात्। परस्य तदुपायत्वात् परार्थत्वं द्वयारिप ॥ ११ ॥

11. Perception and inference having disclosed objects with which we are familiar, and they being the means of communication to other people, both of them are knowledge for the sake of others.

Perception and inference are as much knowledge for one's own self (svârtha mâna) as for the sake of others (parârtha mâna). They are called "knowledge for the sake of others," because the results of perception and inference arrived at by one's own self can be communicated to others through words.

प्रत्यक्षप्रतिपन्नार्थप्रतिपादि च यद्वचः । प्रत्यक्षं प्रतिभासस्य निमित्तत्वात्तदुच्यते ॥ १२ ॥

12. A statement expressive of the object ascertained by perception is also called perception: it is so called being the cause of the object's manifestation.

As the result of perception can be communicated to others through the word, the word itself is figuratively called perception. For instance, the deposition of a witness is taken by the judge as equivalent to perception, though in truth the judge has not perceived the fact deposed to.

साध्याविनाभुवे। हेतार्वचा यत् प्रतिपादकम् । परार्थमनुमानं तत् पक्षादिवचनात्मकम् ॥ १३ ॥

13. A statement expressive of the reason (i.e., mark or the middle term, called hetu) which is inseparably connected with that which is to be proved (i.e., the major term, called sâdhya) having been composed of the minor term (called pakṣa, signifying a side or place), etc., is called an inference for the sake of others (parârthânumâna).

In an "inference for the sake of others" the minor term (pakṣa), etc., must be explicitly set forth. The major term or "proven" (sādhya) is that which is to be proved. The middle term or reason (hetu, linga or sādhana) is that which cannot

exist, except in connection with the major term or "proven" (sâdhya or lingi). The minor term or abode (pakṣa) is that with which the reason or middle term (hetu) is connected, and whose connection with the major term (sâdhya) is to be proved. In a proposition, the subject is the minor term (pakṣa), and the predicate the major term (sâdhya). The following is an "inference for the sake of others":—

- (1) This hill (minor term) is full of fire (major term)—proposition (prati $\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$);
 - (2) because it is full of smoke (middle term);
- (3) whatever is full of smoke is full of fire, just as the kitchen (example, dṛṣṭânta);
 - (4) so is this hill full of smoke (application, upanaya):
 - (5) therefore, this hill is full of fire (conclusion, nigamana).

The above is a mediocre (madhyama) form of an "inference for the sake of others." Here the minor term (pakṣa), the major term (sādhya), the middle term (hetu) and example (dṛṣṭānta) have been used. The worst (jaghanya) form of an "inference for the sake of others" consists in a mere statement of the reason or middle term (hetu), besides the major term (sādhya) and the minor term (pakṣa), thus:—

- (1) This hill (minor term) is full of fire (major term);
- (2) because it is full of smoke (middle term).

The best (uttama) form of an inference for the sake of others consists in the statement of the following ten parts or members (dasåvayava): (1) proposition (pratijña); (2) correction of the proposition (pratijña-śuddhi); (3) reason or middle term (hetu); (4) correction of the reason or middle term (hetu-śuddhi); (5) example (dṛṣṭānta); (6) correction of the example (dṛṣṭānta-śuddhi); (7) application (upanaya); (8) correction of the application (upanaya-śuddhi); (9) conclusion (nigamana), and (10) correction of the conclusion (nigamana-śuddhi).

Any form containing less than ten members, down to five, is called mediocre (madhyama).

साध्याभ्युपगमः पक्षः प्रत्यक्षाद्यनिराकृतः । तत्प्रयोगोऽत्र कर्त्तव्यो हेतार्गोचरदीपकः ॥ १४ ॥

14. Pakṣa (the minor term) is that which is asserted to be connected with the (major term or) sâdhya, and is not excluded by perception, etc.; it is to be used here (in an inference for the sake of others) as exhibiting an abode of the reason (i.e., the middle term, called hetu).

Some philosophers hold that the minor term (pakṣa) is not an essential part of an inference. But this view, according to the Jainas, is untenable, it being absolutely necessary to state the minor term (pakṣa) in an inference.

ग्रन्यथा वाद्यभिप्रेतहेतुगोचरमोहितः। प्रत्यायस्य भवेद्धेतुर्विरुद्धारेकिते। यथा॥ १५॥

15. Otherwise, owing to a misconception as to the abode of the reason (i.e., pakṣa or minor term) as intended by the disputant, his reason (hetu or middle term) may appear to his opponent as absurd.

If any disputant does not explicitly state the minor term (paksa), his reason might be misunderstood by his opponent, e.g.:—

- (1) This hill (minor term) is full of fire (major term);
- (2) because it is full of smoke (middle term).

The above inference, if the minor term is omitted, will assume the following form:—

- (1) Full of fire (major term);
- (2) because full of smoke (middle term).

Here the opponent might not at once recollect any abode or place (minor term, paksa) in which the fire and smoke abide in

union, and might mistake a lake for such an abode. In such a case, the whole argument will be misunderstood.

धानुष्कगुणसंप्रेक्षि जनस्य परिविध्यतः । धानुष्कस्य विना लक्ष्यनिर्देशेन गुणेतरै। ॥ १६॥

16. A man who has come to behold the excellence of an archer will have to behold the opposite of it, if the archer hits without fixing an aim.

Just as a clever archer, with a view to preventing his arrow from going to a wrong direction, fixes his aim before hitting, so a skilful disputant, in order to avoid being misunderstood, should, in stating an inference, mention the minor term (pakṣa) with which the major term (sâdhya) and the middle term (hetu) are both connected.

हेते।स्तथोपपत्तमा वा स्यात् प्रयोगोऽन्यथापि वा । द्विधान्यतरेणापि साध्यसिद्धिभवेदिति ॥ १७॥

17. The reason (or the middle term, i.e., hetu) may be used to show connection or the opposite of it; in either of these two ways, the sâdhya (that which is to be proved) can be proved.

The reason or middle term (hetu) can be used in two ways as follows: (1) the reason or middle term (hetu) may exist only if the major term (sâdhya) existed, such as in the proposition "here there is fire, because there is smoke," the smoke (middle term) may exist only if there is fire (major term); and (2) the reason or middle term (hetu) cannot exist if the major term (sâdhya) does not exist, such as in the proposition "here there is fire, because otherwise there could not be any smoke," the smoke (middle term) could not have existed if there had been no fire (major term).

साध्यसाधनयार्व्याप्तियत्र निश्चीयतेतराम्। साधमर्येण स दृष्टान्तः सम्बन्धसारणान्मतः॥ १८॥

18. Where the inseparable connection of the major term (sâdhya) and the middle term (sâdhana or hetu) is shown by homogeneousness (sâdharmya), the example is called a homogeneous one, on account of the connection (between those terms) being recollected.

An example (dṛṣṭānta) is a familiar case which reassures the inseparable connection (vyāpti) between the major term (sādhya) and the middle term (hetu). It is of two kinds: (1) homogeneous (sādharmya), and (2) heterogeneous (vaidharmya). The homogeneous example is that which reassures the connection (vyāpti) by homogeneousness (sādharmya), thus:—

- (1) This hill is full of fire (major term);
- (2) because it is full of smoke (middle term);
- (3) just as the kitchen (homogeneous example).

Here the fire and smoke abide homogeneously in the kitchen.

साध्ये निवर्त्तमाने तु साधनस्याप्यसम्भवः । ख्याप्यते यत्र दृष्टान्ते वैधम्म्येंग्रेति स स्मृतः ॥ १९ ॥

19. The heterogeneous example is that which shows that the absence of the major term (sâdhya) is followed by the absence of the middle term.

The heterogeneous example reassures the connection (vyāpti) by contrariety, that is, by showing that the absence of the major term (sādhya) is attended by the absence of the middle term (hetu), thus:—

- (1) This hill has no smoke (major term);
- (2) because it has no fire (middle term);
- (3) just as a lake (hoterogeneous example).

अन्तर्व्याप्तेयव साध्यस्य सिद्धेर्बहिरुदाहृतिः। व्यर्था स्यात्तदसद्भावेऽप्येवं न्यायविदेश विदुः॥२०॥

20. Logicians maintain that to cite an example from outside is useless, as that which is to be proved (sâdhya) can be proved through internal inseparable connection (antar-vyâpti), even without such example.

Internal inseparable connection (antar-vyapti) occurs when the minor term (paksa) itself as the common link of the middle term (hetu) and the major term (sâdhya) shows the inseparable connection between them, thus:—

- (1) This hill (minor term) is full of fire (major term);
- (2) because it is full of smoke (middle term).

Here the inseparable connection between the fire and smoke is shown by the hill (minor term), which is their common ground.

External inseparable connection (bahir-vyāpti) occurs when an example (dṛṣtānta) from outside is introduced as the common link of the middle term (hetu) and the major term (sādhya) to reassure the inseparable connection between them, thus:—

- (1) This hill is full of fire (major term);
- (2) because it is full of smoke (middle term);
- (3) just as a kitchen (example).

Here the kitchen, which forms no essential part of the inference, is introduced from outside as the common link of the fire and smoke, to reassure the inseparable connection between them (the fire and smoke).

Some logicians [such as Vasubandhu] hold that that which is to be proved, that is, the "proven" or the major term (sâdhya), can be established by the internal inseparable connection (antar-vyâpti) alone, so the pointing out of the external inseparable connection (bahir-vyâpti) is superfluous. It is useless even when there is no internal inseparable

connection. In the case of the internal inseparable connection being existent external inseparable connection is superfluous, and in the case of the former being non-existent the latter is useless.

प्रतिपाद्यस्य यः सिद्धः पक्षाभासे।ऽस्ति लिङ्गतः । लोकस्ववचनाभ्यां च बाधिते।ऽनेकथा मतः ॥ २१ ॥

21. If that of which the major term or predicate (sâdhya) is affirmed is opposed by evidence (linga), the public understanding, one's own statement, etc., we have that which is known as the fallacy of the minor term or thesis (Pakṣâ-bhâsa), of which there are many varieties.

The semblance or fallacy of the minor term or thesis (pakṣabhāsa) arises when one predicates of the minor term (pakṣa) that which is yet to be proved to the apponent, or which is incapable of being proved, or when it is opposed to perception and inference, or inconsistent with the public understanding or incongruous with one's own statement, thus:—

- (1) "The jar is corporeal (paudgalika)"—this is a conclusion which is yet to be proved to the opponent.
- (2) "Every thing is momentary"—this is a Saugata (Buddhist) doctrine which, according to the Jainas, is incapable of being proved.
- (3) "The general (sâmânya) and particular (viśeṣa) things are without parts, are distinct from each other and are like themselves alone"—this is opposed to perception.
- (4) "There is no omniscient being"—this is, according to the Jainas, opposed to inference.
- (5) "The sister is to be taken as wife"—this is inconsistent with the public understanding.
- (6) "All things are non-existent"—this is incongruous with one's own statement.

ग्रन्यथानुपपन्नत्वं हेतार्रक्षणमीरितम् । तद्रप्रतीतिसन्देहविपर्यासैस्तदाभता ॥ २२ ॥

- 22. The reason (i.e., the middle term called hetu) has been defined as that which cannot exist except in connection with the major term (sâdhya); the fallacy of the reason (hetvâbhâsa) arises from non-conception, doubt or misconception about it (the middle term).
 - (1) This hill is full of fire (major term);
 - (2) because it is full of smoke (middle term).

In this example "smoke" is the middle term or reason (hetu) which cannot exist, except in an inseparable connection (union) with "fire," which is the major term (sâdhya).

ग्रसिद्धस्त्वप्रतीता या याऽन्यथैवापपद्यते । विरुद्धो योऽन्यथाप्यत्र युक्तोऽनैकान्तिकः स तु ॥ २३ ॥

23. That which has not yet been established is called "the unproved" (asiddha); that which is possible only in the opposite way is called "the inconsistent" (viruddha); that which can be explained in one way as well as in the opposite way is called "the uncertain" (anaikāntika).

Semblance of the reason or fallacy of the middle term (hetvabhasa) is of three kinds, as follows:—

- (1) The unproved (asiddha) such as: "the sky-lotus is fragrant, because it has the generic property of lotuses." Here the reason, viz., the sky-lotus [which is unreal] has the generic property of lotuses, is unproved.
- (2) The inconsistent (viruddha) such as: "this is fiery, because it is a body of water." Here the reason alleged is opposed to what is to be established.

(3) The uncertain (anaikântika) such as: "all things are momentary, because they are existent." Here the reason alleged is uncertain, because 'existence' may or may not be a proof of momentariness, for, an opponent might equally argue: "all things are eternal, because they are existent."

साधम्म्येंगात्र दृष्टान्तदेषा न्यायविदीरिताः। अपलक्षग्रहेत्त्थाः साध्यादिविकलादयः॥ २४॥

24. Logicians have declared that fallacies of the example (drståntåbhåsa) in the homogeneous form, arise here from an imperfect middle term or from a defect in the major term, etc.

Fallacies of the homogeneous example (sâdharmya dṛṣṭântâ-bhâsa) arise from a defect in the major term (sâdhya) or middle term (hetu) or both, or from doubt about them, thus:—

(1) Inference is invalid (major term), because it is a source of knowledge (middle term), like perception (homogeneous example).

Here the example involves a defect in the major term (sâdhya), for perception is not invalid.

(2) Perception is invalid (major term), because it is a source of true knowledge (middle term), like a dream (homogeneous example).

Here the example involves a defect in the middle term (hetu), for a dream is not a source of true knowledge.

(3) The omniscient being is not existent (major term), because he is not apprehended by the senses (middle term), like a jar (homogeneous example).

Here the example involves a defect in both the major and middle terms ($s\hat{a}dhya$ and hetu), for the jar is both existent and apprehended by the senses.

(4) This person is devoid of passions (major term), because he is mortal (middle term), like the man in the street (homogeneous example).

Here the example involves doubt as to the validity of the

major term, for it is doubtful whether the man in the street is devoid of passions.

(5) This person is mortal (major term), because he is full of passions (middle term), like the man in the street (homogeneous example).

Here the example involves doubt as to the validity of the middle term, for it is doubtful whether the man in the street is devoid of passions.

(6) This person is not omniscient (major term), because he is full of passions (middle torm), like the man in the street (homogeneous example).

Here the example involves doubt as to the validity of both the major and middle terms, for it is doubtful whether the man in the street is full of passions and not omniscient.

Some unnecessarily lay down three other kinds of fallacy of the homogeneous example (sådharmya-dṛṣṭāntābhāsa), viz.:—

(1) Unconnected (ananvaya), such as: This person is full of passions (major term), because he is a speaker (middle term), like a certain man in Magadha (example).

Here, though a certain man in Magadha is both a speaker and full of passions, yet there is no inseparable connection between "being a speaker" and "being full of passions."

(2) Of connection unshown (apradaršitānvaya), such as :— Sound is non-eternal (major term), because it is adventitious (middle term), as a jar (example).

Here, though there is an inseparable connection between "adventitious" and "non-eternal," yet it has not been shown in the proper form, as:—

"Whatever is adventitious, is non-eternal, as a jar."

[Dignâga, the Buddhist, urged the necessity of converting the example into a universal proposition, with a view to show the connection between the middle term and major term in the proper form.]

(3) Of contrary connection (viparîtânvaya), such as :-Sound is non-eternal (major term), because it is adventitious
(middle term).

Here, if the inseparable connection (vyûpti) is shown, thus—
"Whatever is non-eternal, is adventitious as a jar," instead
of thus—

"Whatever is adventitious, is non-eternal as a jar," the example would involve the fallacy of contrary connection.

वैधम्म्येणात्र दृष्टान्तदेषा न्यायविदीरिताः। साध्यसाधनयुग्मानामनिवृतेश्च संशयात्॥ २५॥

25. Logicians have declared that fallacies of the example in the heterogeneous form arise when the absence of the major term (sâdhya) or the middle term (sâdhana or hetu) or both, is not shown, or when there is a doubt about them.

The fallacy of the heterogeneous example (vaidharmya-dṛṣṭāntābhāsa) is of six kinds, thus:—

(1) Inference is *invalid* (major term), because it is a source of true knowledge (middle term); whatever is not invalid is not a source of true knowledge, as a *dream* (heterogeneous example).

Here the example involves in the heterogeneous form a defect in the major term $(s\hat{a}dhya)$, for a dream is really invalid, though it has been cited as not invalid.

(2) Perception is non-reflective or nirvikalpaka (major term), because it is a source of true knowledge (middle term); whatever is reflective or savikalpaka, is not a source of true knowledge, as inference (heterogeneous example).

Here the example involves in the heterogeneous form a defect in the middle term (sâdhana), for inference is really a source of true knowledge, though it has been cited as not such.

(3) Sound is eternal and non-eternal (major term), because it is an existence (middle term); whatever is not eternal and non-eternal is not an existence, as a jar (heterogeneous example).

Here the example involves in the heterogeneous form a defect in both the major and middle terms (sâdhya and sâdhunu), for the jar is both "eternal and non-eternal," and "an existence."

(4) Kapila is non-omniscient (major term), because he is a non-propounder of the four noble truths (middle term); whoever is not non-omniscient is not non-propounder of the four noble truths, as Buddha (heterogeneous example).

Here the example involves in the negative form a doubt as to the validity of the major term (sâdhya), for it is doubtful whether Buddha was omniscient.

(5) This person is untrustworthy (major term), because he is full of passions (middle term); whoever is not un-trustworthy is not full of passions, as Buddha (heterogeneous example).

Here the example involves doubt as to the validity of the middle term (hetu), for it is doubtful whether Buddha is not full of passions.

(6) Kapila is not devoid of passions (major term), because he did not give his own flesh to the hungry (middle term); whoever is devoid of passions gives his own flesh to the hungry, as Buddha (heterogeneous example).

Here the example involves doubt as to the validity of both the major and middle terms (sâdhya and sâdhana), for it is doubtful whether Buddha was devoid of passions and gave his own flesh to the hungry.

Some unnecessarily lay down three other kinds of fallacy of the heterogeneous example (vaidharmya-dṛṣṭântâbhâsa), viz.:—

(1) Unseparated (avyatireki): This person is not devoid of passions (major term), because he is a speaker (middle term); whoever is devoid of passions is not a speaker, as a piece of stone (heterogeneous example).

Here, though a piece of stone is both "devoid of passions" and "not a speaker," yet there is no unavoidable separation (vyatireka vyāpti) between "devoid of passions" and "a speaker."

(2) Of separation unshown (apradaršita-vyatireka):

Sound is non-eternal (major term), because it is adventitious (middle term); just as ether (example).

Here, though there is an unavoidable separation between "adventitions" and "eternal," yet it has not been shown in the proper form such as: "Whatever is not adventitious, is eternal, just as ether."

[Dignâga, the Buddhist, urged the necessity of converting the heterogeneous example into a universal negative proposition, with a view to point out the connection of the middle term and major term.]

(3) Of contrary separation (viparîta-vyatireka):

Sound is not eternal (major term), because it is adventitious (middle term); whatever is eternal, is not adventitious, just as ether (example).

Here the example has been put in a contrary way, for the proper form should have been: "Whatever is not adventitious is eternal, just as ether.

वाद्युक्ते साधने प्रोक्तदेषाणामुद्भावनम् । दूषणं निरवद्ये तु दूषणाभासनामकम् ॥ २६ ॥

26. Refutation $(d\hat{u}sana)$ is the pointing out of the aforesaid fallacies in the reasoning of an opponent; but it is called a semblance of a refutation $(d\hat{u}san\hat{a}-h\hat{u}sa)$, when the reasoning is really devoid of defects.

A disputant is said really to refute his opponent, if the former can detect in the reasoning of the latter any of the fallacies aforementioned. But it will be a mere semblance of refutation, if he ascribes to his opponent fallacies which he has not really committed.

सकलावरणमुक्तात्मकेवलं यत् प्रकाशते । प्रत्यक्षं सकलार्थात्मसत्ततप्रतिभासनम् ॥ २७॥

27. That which is characterised as free from

all obstructions and shines as the absolute is called (supreme or transcendental) perception; it uninterruptedly illumines the nature of all objects.

Perception (pratyaksa) is used in two senses: (1) supreme or transcendental (paramarthika) and (2) practical (vyavaharika). The practical perception consists of the knowledge acquired by the soul through the channels of the senses, such as the visual knowledge, auditory knowledge, etc. Transcendental perception is the knowledge acquired by the soul direct, through meditation, without the intervention of the senses or signs.

प्रमाणस्य फलं साक्षादशानविनिवर्त्तनम् । केवलस्य सुखापेक्षे शेषस्यादानहानधीः ॥ २८॥

28. The immediate effect of pramâna (valid knowledge) is the removal of ignorance; the mediate effect of the absolute knowledge is bliss and equanimity, while that of the ordinary practical knowledge is the facility to select or reject.

Pramâna (valid knowledge) is of two kinds: (1) kevala, absolute and (2) ordinary. The immediate effect of both is the cessation of ignorance. The mediate effect of the absolute knowledge is happiness and equanimity, while that of the ordinary knowledge is the facility which it affords us to choose the desirable and reject the undesirable.

अनेकान्तात्मकं वस्तु गोचरः सर्वसंविदाम्। एकदेशविशिष्टोऽर्थो नयस्य विषये। मतः॥ २९॥

29. Since things have many characters (that is, may be conceived from many points of view), they are the objects of all-sided knowledge (omniscience); but a thing conceived from one particular point

of view is the object of naya (or one-sided know-ledge).

Objects, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, possess many different characteristics, and may be taken from different standpoints. They are understood in their entire character by omniscience alone, while to take them from a certain standpoint is the scope of naya (the one-sided method of comprehension).

Naya (the one-sided method of comprehension) is of seven kinds, mentioned below:—

- (1) Naigama (the non-distinguished) is the method by which an object is taken in its generic and specific capacities not distinguished from each other. For instance, by the term "bamboo" one may understand a number of properties, some of which are peculiar to its own species, while the remaining ones are possessed by it in common with other trees, such as a mango, jack, banyan, etc., without any distinction being made between these two classes of properties. The Nyâya and Vaiśeṣika schools of philosophy follow the Naigama naya.
- (2) Samgraha (the generic) is the method by which the generic properties alone are taken into consideration without any cognizance of the particular properties which, independent of the former, are non-entities, like-sky flowers. Thus, when we speak of a mango, jack or bamboo, we mean that it is a tree. The Advaita and Sâmkhya systems of philosophy follow the samgraha naya.
- (3) Vyavahāra (the practical) is the method by which the practical or particular alone, is considered, for the general without the particular is a non-entity, like the horn of a hare. On being asked to bring a tree, can anybody bring the tree in general? No, he can bring only a particular tree, such as a mango, jack or bamboo.

The Cârvâka philosophy follows the Vyavahâra naya.

(4) Rju-sûtra (the straight expression) is the method by which a thing, as it exists at present, is considered, without any

reference to the past or future. It is useless to ponder over things as they were in the past or will become in the future. All practical purposes are served by the thing itself, as it exists at the present moment. For instance, a man, who was formerly (in a previous birth) my son, is now born as a prince somewhere else; he is of no practical use to me now. So the Rju-sûtra recognises only the entity itself (bhava), and does not consider the name (nâma), image (sthâpanâ), or the constituent cause (dravya). For instance, a poor cowherd, if he bears the name of Indra, does not thereby become the lord of heavens. image of a king cannot accomplish the function of the king The causes in me which will lead to my accepting a different kind of body in a future birth, cannot enable me to enjoy that body now. Some hold that the atoms alone are true, while practically it is the aggregates or lumps alone that are true. This is Rju-sûtra, which is followed by the Buddhists.

- (5) Sabda (the verbal) consists in using a word in a conventional sense, and not according to its etymological derivation. Thus the word satru usually, or in its conventional sense, means "enemy," while etymologically "a destroyer". The grammarians are the followers of this method.
- (6) Samabhirûdha (the subtle) consists in making nice distinctions among the synonyms, applying each name appropriately according to their etymological derivation. The grammarians are the followers of this method.
- (7) Evambhûta (the such-like) consists in naming a thing only when it possesses its practical efficiency. Thus a man should be named śakra, if he actually possesses strength (śakti), implied by the name. The grammarians are the followers of this method.

नयानामेकनिष्ठानां प्रवृत्तेः श्रुतवर्त्मनि । सम्पूर्णार्थविनिश्चायि स्याद्वादश्रुतमुच्यते ॥ ३० ॥

30. The knowledge which determines the full meaning of an object through the employment, in

the scriptural method, of one-sided nayas, is called Syâdvâda-śruta.

The śruta or scriptural knowledge is of three kinds, viz.: (1) false hearing or knowledge (mithyā-śruta), such as that derived from the scripture of the bad Tirthikas; (2) hearing of the one-sided method (naya-śruta), that is, the knowledge derived from that part of the Jaina scripture which teaches us to comprehend things from any particular standpoint; and (3) hearing of the all-sided method (syād-vāda-śrutu), that is, the knowledge derived from that part of the Jaina scripture which teaches us to comprehend things from all-sided standpoints. The naya-śruta (knowledge of the one-sided method) has been described in the previous verse. The syād-vāda (knowledge of the all-sided method) is described below:—

Syâd-vâda, which literally signifies assertion of possibilities, seeks to ascertain the meaning of things from all possible standpoints. Things are neither existent nor non-existent absolutely. A thing may be said to exist in a certain way and to be non-existent in another way, and so forth. Syâd-vâda examines things from seven points of view, hence the doctrine is also called sapta-bhangî-naya (seven-fold paralogism). It is stated as follows: (1) May be, it is (syâdasti); (2) may be, it is, not (syâd-nâsti); (3) may be, it is, and it is not (syâd-asti-nâsti); (4) may be, it is indescribable (syâd-avyaktavyam); (5) may be, it is and yet indescribable (syâd-asti ca avaktavyañca); (6) may be, it is not, and also indescribable (syâd nâsti ca avaktavyañca); (7) may be, it is, and it is not, and also indescribable (syâd asti ca nâsti ca avaktavyañca).

When a thing is to be established, we say "it is," when it is to be denied, we say "it is not." When a thing is to be established and denied in turn, we say "it is and it is not." When a thing is to be established and denied simultaneously, we say, "it is indescribable." When a thing is to be established and yet described as indescribable, we say "it is, and yet indescribable." When a thing is to be denied and also

declared as indescribable, we say "it is not, and also indescribable." When a thing is to be established and denied as well as declared indescribable at the same time, we say "it is and it is not, and also indescribable." Syâd, which signifies "may be," denotes all these seven possibilities, that is, a thing may be looked at from one of the above seven points of view, there being no eighth alternative.

प्रमाता स्वान्यनिर्भासी कर्त्ता भोका विवृत्तिमान्। स्वसंवेदनसंसिद्धो जीवः क्षित्याद्यनात्मकः॥ ३१॥

31. The spirit (soul or jiva) is the knower, doer and enjoyer, illumines self and others, undergoes changes of condition, is realised only in self-consciousness, and is different from the earth, etc.

The soul (âtman or jiva) has knowledge, and so is different from knowledge itself. As an enjoyer and doer, the soul in the Jaina philosophy is different from that of the Sâmkhya philosophy. The soul by the Jainas is described as undergoing changes of condition. In this respect, it is different from that of the Nyâya and Vaiśeṣika philosophy.

प्रमाणादिव्यवस्थेयमनादिनिधनात्मका । सर्वसंव्यवहर्त्त्टणां प्रसिद्धापि प्रकीत्तिता ॥ ३२ ॥ कृतिरियं श्रीसितपटृसिद्धसेनदिवाकरस्य ॥

32. This system of pramâna, etc., is beginningless and endless; though familiar to all persons in every day practice, it is yet explained here.

This shows that the world, as conceived by the Jainas, is eternal.

न्यायावतारविवृतीः।

ग्रवियुतसामान्यविशेषदेशिनं वर्द्धमानमानम्य । न्यायावतारविवृतिः स्मृतिबीजविवृद्धये क्रियते ॥

'प्रमाणेत्यादि' अनेन च तादातम्य-तदुत्पत्तिलक्षणसंबन्ध-विकलतया ध्वनेबहिरर्थं प्रति प्रामाण्यायागात् अभिधेयादि-सूचनद्वारोत्पन्नार्थसंशयमुखेन श्रोतारः श्रवणं प्रति प्रोत्सा-ह्यन्ते इति धर्मोत्तरो मन्यते।... अञ्चटस्तु ग्राह। न श्राव-कोत्साहकमेतत् प्रामाण्याभावात् तेषां चाप्रमाणादप्रवृत्तेः।

स्व आतमा स्वरूपं, परे। र्थः । तै। आभास्यितुं प्रकाशियतुं शीलं यस्य तत् । तथा श्रायते निर्णीयते तत्त्वं येन तत् श्रानम् । बाध्यते अनेनेति बाधः, विपरीतार्थोपस्थापकप्रमाणप्रवृत्तिरिति यावत् । तेन विशेषेण वर्जितं रहितं यत् शानं तत् प्रमाणिमिति संटंकः । स्वपराभासीत्यनेन ये स्वाभास्येव शानं मन्यन्ते ते श्रानवादिनो बौद्धविशेषाः, ये च पराभास्येव मीमांसकनैया-ियकाद्यः, ते निरस्तास्ते हि बहिर्ण्याभावात् शानं स्वांशपर्यविस्तसत्ताकम् इत्याचक्षीरन् । तद्युक्तम् । श्रे यार्थाभावे श्रानाभावप्रसङ्गात् ।पराभास्यपि स्वप्रकाशाभावात् अभिद्धीरन् तद्यसम्बद्धम् । स्वप्रकाशाभावे परप्रकाशा-योगात्; न हि प्रदीपः स्वरूपमनुद्योतयन् घटाद्युद्योतने व्याप्रियते।

तत्र सिद्धान्तप्रसिद्धपारमार्थिकप्रत्यक्षापेक्षयाऽक्षशब्दो जीवपर्य्वायतया प्रसिद्धः । इह तु व्यावहारिकप्रत्यक्षप्रस्तावात्

अक्षध्वनिरिन्द्रियवचने। गृह्यते ततस्व अक्षं प्रति गतं प्रत्यक्षं यिदिन्द्रियमाश्चित्य उज्जिहीते अर्थसाक्षात्कारि ज्ञानं तत् प्रत्यक्ष-मित्यर्थः।... ततस्व सर्वज्ञानानां यत् स्वरूपसंवेदनं तदिप प्रत्यक्षमित्युक्तं भवति। तत्रापि स्वरूपस्य प्राह्यस्य साक्षात्क-रणसद्भावादिति। अक्षं भ्यः परतो वर्त्तते इति परोक्षमक्षव्या-पारिनरपेक्षं मनोव्यापारेण असाक्षादपरिच्छेदकं यत् ज्ञानं तत्परोक्षमिति भावः।.... द्विधैव ...द्वाभ्यामेव प्रकाराभ्यां मेयस्य प्राह्यार्थस्य विनिश्चयात् स्वरूपनिर्णयात्॥१॥

प्रसिद्धानि प्ररूढानि, नाधुना साध्यानीत्यर्थः। प्रमाणानि प्रत्यक्षानुमानशब्दानि।... यदर्थं प्रमाणपरीक्षणं ग्रसाविप जलपानशीतत्राणादिव्यवहारोऽनादिप्ररूढः। तिश्वरर्थकं प्रमाण्यलक्ष्यणभिधानमिति॥२॥

यद्यपि प्रतिप्राणिप्रसिद्धानि प्रमाणानि । अन्यथा तत्कृत-निखिलव्यवहारोच्छेद्प्रसंगात्तदुच्छेदे च दृष्टहान्याद्यापत्तेः ।... व्यामूढं विपरीतग्रस्तं विचित्रतां गतं मनोऽन्तः करणं येषां ते तथा तेषाम्, इहेति लोके ।.....यद्यनादिप्रसिद्धं प्रमाणलक्षणं प्रति न केचित् अपि व्यामुद्येयुस्तदा यद् भवद्भिः प्रागुद्ध्राहिनिरर्थकं प्रमाणलक्षणमिति तद् युक्तमेव स्यात्। न चैतदेवम्, तत्र व्यामूढानां दर्शनात्॥ ३॥

परेश्चोऽक्षगेचिरातीतस्तते। उन्योऽपरेश्चस्तद्भावस्तत्ता तया साक्षात्कृततयेति यावत् । तस्य [अर्थस्य] ग्राहकं व्यवसाया- तमकतया साक्षात् परिच्छेदकं यत् ज्ञानं तदीहरामिति ईहगेव प्रत्यक्षमिति संटंकः । ... अर्थस्य ग्राहकमित्यस्य ग्रहणेक्षयेति वक्ष्यमाणपदसापेक्षत्वादमुना बहिरिप येऽर्थकालाकलनविकलं

सकलमिप ज्ञानं प्रलपन्ति ताजिरस्थित । ... प्राह्मिति च निर्णयकं द्रष्टच्यं निर्णयभावेऽर्थग्रहणायेगगत् । तेन यत् तथागतैः प्रत्यपादि प्रत्यक्षं कल्पनापाढमभ्रान्तमिति तद्पास्तं भवति । तस्य युक्तिरिक्तत्वात् । तथाहि, ते निर्विकल्पकत्वेऽध्यक्षस्य युक्ताः खेटयन्ति किलेदमर्थसामर्थ्येनोदीयते सिन्निहितार्थ-क्रिया समर्थार्थग्राहकत्वात् । ... तस्मात् [प्रत्यक्षात्] इतरत् असाक्षाद्र्थग्राहकं ज्ञानं परोक्षमिति ज्ञं यमवगन्तव्यमेतद्पि स्वसंवेदनापेक्षया प्रत्यक्षमेव । बहिर्थापेक्षया तु परोक्ष-व्यपदेच्यामर्गुते इति द्र्ययन्नाह प्रह्णेक्षयेति । इह प्रह्णं प्रक्रमाद् बहिःप्रवर्त्तनमुच्यते । अन्यथा विशेषण्यैयर्थात् तस्येक्षापेक्षतया बहिःप्रवर्त्तनमुच्यते । अन्यथा विशेषण्यैयर्थात् तस्येक्षापेक्षतया बहिःप्रवृत्तिपर्य्यालेच्यति यावत् । तद्यमर्थो यद्यपि स्वयं प्रत्यक्षं तथापि लिंगशब्दादिद्वारेण बहिर्विषयग्रहणेऽसाक्षात्का-रितया व्याप्रियते इति परोक्षमित्युच्यते । ... तद्यथा अनुमानं शाब्दं चेति ॥ ४ ॥

साध्याविनाभुन इत्यनेन पर्प्रणीतिलंगलक्षणव्युदासमा-चष्टे। ततरच यत् परे प्रोचुः। पक्षधम्मीन्वयव्यतिरेकलक्षण-रूपत्रयोपलक्षितानि त्रीणि एव लिंगानि अनुपलिधः स्वभावः कार्यतेति। तदुक्तं ''अनुमेयेऽथ तत्तुल्ये सद्भावे। नास्तिता-ऽसति। निरिचतानुपलम्भात्मकार्याख्या हेतवस्त्रयः''॥ इति॥

तथाऽन्येऽस्येदं कार्यं कारणं संयोगि समवायि विरोधि चेति लिंगिकमिति।तथा पूर्ववत् शेषवत् सामान्यते।हष्टमित्यादि। तद्बालप्रलिपतप्रायमित्यवगन्तव्यम्। पक्षधमत्वविरहेऽपि अनु-मिमीमहे कालादिकस्त्रश्चममीं समस्त्येव तत्र पक्षधमिता लिंगस्य गृह्यते इति चेत् न, अतिप्रसङ्गात्। एवंहि शब्दस्य अनित्यत्वे साध्ये काककाण्यादेरिय गमकत्वप्रसक्तेः । तत्रापि होकादेधिर्मिणः कल्पयितुं शक्यत्वात् । ... अधुना यत् शौद्धोदनशिष्यकैर्न्यगादि यदुतभ्रान्तमनुमानं सामान्यप्रतिभा-सित्वात् तस्य च बहिः स्वलक्षणे व्यतिरेकाव्यतिरेकविकल्पा-भ्यामपाकियमाणतया योगात्तद्भूपतया वत न तस्याध्यवसाया-देतिस्मन् तद्श्रहस्य च भ्रान्तिलक्षणत्वात् ... तदुक्तम् "अतिस्मन् तद्श्रहा भ्रान्तिरिप संबन्धतः प्रमा" इति तद्पाक-चु माह तद्भ्रान्तिमत्यादि ॥ ५॥

न केवलमनुमानं भ्रान्तं कि तहि यद्भवद्भिः दृष्टान्ततया उपात्तं प्रत्यक्षं तद्पि भ्रान्तमेव "सर्वमालम्बने भ्रान्तम्" इति वचनात्। ... लेकसंवृत्तिं घटयन्ते। वयं दृढ़तरवासनाप्रवा-धसंपादितसत्ताकयाः प्रत्यक्षानुमानयाः प्रमाणतामाचक्ष्महे ॥६॥

सकलप्रतिभासस्य समस्तसंवेदनस्य भ्रान्तत्वासिद्धिता विपर्थ्यस्तत्वानिष्पत्तेः यत् स्फुटं स्वान्यनिश्चायि सुनिश्चिततया स्वपरप्रकाशकं तत् प्रमाणमिति सम्बन्धः। तच्च द्वयसिद्धौ स्वरूपार्थलक्षणयुग्मनिष्पत्तौ प्रसिष्यति निष्पद्यते नान्यथा प्रमेयाभावे प्रमाणाभावात्॥ ७॥

हष्टेन प्रमाणावलेकितेन इष्टः प्रतिपिपादियिषिते। ज्याहते। जिराकृतः सामर्थ्यादधी यिस्मन् वाक्ये तत् तथा प्रमाणिनिश्च-तार्थावाधितमिति यावत्। तस्मात् परमे। कित्रमः पुरुषे। पयोगी शक्यानुष्ठाने। वाऽथी वाच्यस्तमिधातुं शीलं यस्य तत् परमार्थाभिधायि विशिष्टार्थदर्शकमित्यर्थः। ततस्तः वन्नाहितया उत्पन्नं प्रकृतवाक्यप्रतिपाद्यार्थाद्वानशीलतया लब्धात्मसत्ताकं यन्मानं तत् शाब्दमिति प्रकीर्त्तितम्। ... तद्प्रामाण्ये

परार्थानुमानप्रलयप्रसंगात् तस्य वचनरूपत्वात् । ... शाब्दं च द्विधा भवति । लौकिकं शास्त्रजं च । ... यादृशः शास्त्रात् तज्जातं प्रमाणतामनुभवति तदृशयिति ॥ ८॥

ग्राप्तः प्रक्षीयारोषरागादिदे।षगयस्तेनोपन्नम् ग्रादे। उपल-ब्धम् अनेन अपैरिषेयापेहिमाहः, तस्य प्रमाणवाधितत्वात् पुरुषव्यापाराभावे वचनानुपलब्धेरुपलम्भेऽपि तदर्थानवगमात् तद्रथेनिश्चयार्थं पुरुषाश्रयणे गजस्नानन्यायप्रसंगात्।... उल्लुङ्घाते प्राबल्धेन गम्यते अभिभूयते अन्यैरित्युल्जङ्घां तते।ऽन्यद्नुहङ्कां सर्ववचनातिशायीति यावत् । ... हष्टेन प्रमाणनिर्णीतेन इष्टस्य तद्वाच्यस्य विरोधो यस्मिन् तत् तथा तदेव । यदि चाहष्टः प्रमाखेन इष्टो वचनान्तरेख तयाविरोधकं तद्विरुद्धार्थाभिधानात् । तते।ऽन्यत् ग्रहष्टेष्टविरे।धकम् **अबाधार्थाभिधायीत्यर्थः । ... तत्त्वं जीवाद्यः पदार्थाः** प्रमाणप्रतिष्ठितत्वात् तेषाम् उपदेशः स्वरूपप्रकाशनं तद्रक्षणा-दिविधानं वा तं करोतीति तत्त्वे।पदेशकृत् अतएव सार्वे सर्वस्मै हितं ...। कुत्सिताः पन्थानः कापथास्तीर्थान्तराणि तेषां घट्टनं विचालकं निराकारकं सर्वजनापकारिकुमतविध्वंसकमि-त्यर्थः ॥ ९ ॥

स्व ग्रातमा तस्य निश्चयः प्रमेयाधिगमः तद्वद्नयेषां प्रतिपाद्यानां निश्चयोत्पादनं प्रमेयपरिच्छेदकक्षानप्रादुर्भावनं यथाऽऽत्मनोऽर्थनिर्णयस्तथा परेषां निर्णयज्ञननमित्यर्थः । बुधैर्वि-द्विद्वः परस्मै अर्थः प्रयोजनं येन तत् परार्थं मीयतेऽनेनेति मानम् । ननु च यदि निश्चयोत्पादनं परार्थमानं तदा क्षानमपि परप्रत्यायनाय व्याप्रियमाणं परार्थं प्राप्नोतीत्याह । वाक्यं

परार्थं न ज्ञानं तस्यैव ग्रानन्तर्थ्येण व्यापारात् परप्रयोजन-मात्रत्वाच्च इतरस्य तु व्यवहितत्वात् स्वपरोपकारित्वात् च । कथं वचनमज्ञानरूपं प्रमाणिमत्याह । तदुपचारतस्तस्य ज्ञानस्य उपचारोऽतद्रूपस्यापि तद्रङ्गतया तद्रूपत्वेन ग्रहणम् ततः इदम् उक्तं भवति प्रतिपाद्यगतमृत्यत्स्यमानं यत् ज्ञानं तद्व्यवहित-कारणत्वात् वचनमपिउपचारेणप्रमाणिमत्युच्यते॥ १०॥

प्रत्यक्षेगापि अनुमानेनेव प्रसिद्धार्थप्रकाशनात् स्वप्रतीत-प्रमेयप्रत्यायनात् परार्थत्वं प्रतिपाद्यप्रयोजनत्वं द्वयारिप प्रत्यक्षा-नुमानयेस्तुत्यकारणत्वान्नानुमानस्यैवैकस्येत्यभिप्रायः । ... तद्यथाऽनुमानप्रतीते।ऽर्थः परस्मै प्रतिपाद्यमाने। वचनरूपापन्नः परार्थमनुमानम् तथा प्रत्यक्षप्रतीते।ऽपि परार्थं प्रत्यक्षं परप्रत्यायनस्य तुल्यत्वात् वचनव्यापारस्यैव भेदात् । तथाह्य-नुमानप्रतीतं प्रत्यायन्नेवं वचनयति । ग्रग्निरत्र धूमात् । यत्र यत्र धूमस्तत्र तत्राग्निः। यथा महानसादै।। वैधर्म्येण वा अग्नरभावे न कचिद् धूमा यथा जलारायादे।। तथा च धूमाऽयं तस्मात् धूमादग्निरत्रेति । ... प्रत्यक्षप्रतीतं पुनर्दर्शयन् एताव-द्वक्ति। पश्य राजा गच्छति। ततश्च वचनात् विविधादिप समग्रसामग्रीकस्य प्रतिपाद्यस्य ग्रनुमेयप्रत्यक्षार्थविषया यतः प्रतीतिरुल्लसत्यते। द्वयारपि परार्थता इत्याह च । परस्य तदुपायत्वात् प्रतिपाद्यस्य प्रतीति प्रतिपादकस्य प्रत्यक्षानुमान-निर्णीतार्थप्रकाशनकारणत्वादित्यर्थः। एतेन पूर्वकारिकोक्तो-पचारकारतां च लक्षयति ॥ ११ ॥

यद्वचः प्रत्यक्षप्रतिपन्नार्थप्रतिपादि साक्षात्कारिक्कानगाचर-कथनचतुरं तत् प्रत्यक्षमुच्यते । ... वचनं कुतः प्रत्यक्षमित्याह । प्रतिभासस्य निमित्तत्वात् प्रतिपाद्यप्रत्यक्षप्रकाशहेतुत्वाद् उपचारेण उच्यते ॥ १२ ॥

पक्षो वश्यमाणलक्ष्मणः स ग्रादिर्येषां हेतुहष्टान्तोपनयनिगमादीनां तानि तथा तेषां बचनानि प्रतिपादका ध्वनयः
तान्येवात्मस्वरूपं यस्य तत्पक्षादिवचनात्मकं न तु च
हेतुप्रतिपादकं बचः परार्थमनुमानमित्यभिधायतत्पक्षादिवचनात्मकमिति वदतः पूर्वापरच्याहता वाचे। युक्तिः । नैतदस्ति । एवं
मन्यते । नैकः प्रकारः परार्थानुमानस्य किं तिर्हि यथा परस्य
सुखेन प्रमेयप्रतीतिभवति तथा यत्र सः प्रत्यायनीयः तत्र
दशावयवसाधनं प्रतिपादनोपायः तद्यथा पक्षादयः पञ्च तच्छुद्यश्च ॥ १३ ॥

साध्यस्य अनुमेयस्य अभ्युपगमोऽङ्गीकरणं प्राश्चिकादीनां पुरतः प्रतिज्ञास्वीकार इत्यर्थः ।...प्रत्यक्षाद्यनिराकृत इति प्रत्यक्षां साक्षात्कारिसंवेदनमादिशब्दादनुमानस्ववचनलेका गृह्यन्ते तैः अनिराकृतः अवाधितः।...तद्यथा सर्वमनेकान्ता-तमकम् अस्ति सर्वज्ञ इत्यादि । तस्य पक्षस्य प्रयोगोऽभिधा-नमत्र परार्थानुमानप्रस्तावे कर्त्वयो विधेयः। हेतार्गोचरदीपक इति निर्देशस्य विषयसंदर्शकत्वात् इत्यर्थः॥ १४॥

अन्यथेत्युक्तविपरीताश्रयणे पक्षप्रयोगाकरणे इत्यर्थः । वादिनो हेत्पन्यासकर्त्तुरभिप्रेतोऽभिमतः स चासा हेतुगा-चरदच वाद्यभिप्रेतहेतुगाचरस्तत्र मुद्यति देग्लायते तच्छी-लदच यस्तस्य प्रत्यायस्य प्रतिवादिना हेतुर्विरुद्धारेकिता भवेत् विरोधदाङ्काकलङ्कितः स्यादित्यर्थः । ततदच सम्यग् हेतावपि विपक्षे एवायं वर्त्तते इति व्यामाहात् विरुद्धदूषण- मभिद्धीत । पक्षोपन्यासासु निर्धीतहेतुगोचरस्य नैष देाषः स्यादित्यभिप्रायः । अमुमेवार्थं स्पष्टं दृष्टान्तेनाह ॥ १५ ॥

यथा लक्ष्यनिर्देशं विना धानुष्कस्य इषुं प्रक्षिपते। यो गुणदेषो ते। तद्दर्शिजनस्य विपर्यस्ताविप प्रतिभातः । गुणेऽिष दे। पत्या दे। पेऽिष वा गुणतया तथा पक्षनिर्देशं विना हेतुमु-पन्यस्यते। वादिना यो स्वाभिष्रेतसाध्यसाधनसमर्थत्वासमर्थ-त्वलक्षणे। गुणदे। पे। प्रशिक्षप्रतिवाद्यादीनां विपरीताविष प्रतिभात इति भावार्थः ॥ १६॥

स्वार्थानुमानप्रस्तावे हि परप्रणीतलक्षणान्तरव्यपेहिन साध्यव्यतिरेकात् सामस्त्येन हेताव्यीवृक्तिरेवैकं लक्षणिति निर्णीतं परार्थानुमानेनापि तदेव प्रकाशनीयं वचनरचना तु क्रिचत् प्रवक्ति इत्यभिप्रायवांस्तद्द्वैविष्यमाह । हेते। द्विविधः प्रयोगः स्यादिति सम्बन्धः । कथमित्याह । तथैव साध्यसद्भावे एव उपपित्तिविद्यमानता तया तथोपपत्या यथा अग्निरत्र धूमस्य तथैव उपपत्तिरित । अन्यथापि वा इत्यनेनावयवे समुदायोग्पचारात् अन्यथानुपपत्ति । लक्ष्यित अन्यथा साध्यव्यतिरेके अनुपपत्तिः अविद्यमानता एव तया वा अन्यथानुपपत्या हेतोः अयोगः स्यात् । यथा अग्निरत्र धूमस्य अन्यथानुपपत्या हेतोः अयोगः स्यात् । यथा अग्निरत्र धूमस्य अन्यथानुपपत्तिरित एते च हे अपि एकस्मिन् साध्ये प्रयोक्तव्ये इति मन्येत ।...तथोन्पत्तिप्रयोगेण अन्यथाऽनुपपत्त्यप्रयोगेण वा साध्यस्य प्रतिपि-पादियिषतार्थस्य सिद्धिनिष्पत्तिः...भवैत् ॥१९॥

साध्यं जिज्ञासितार्थातमकं साधनं तद्गमको हेतुः तथाः साध्यसाधनयोः व्याप्तिः इदमनेन विना न भवतीत्येवंरूपा यत्र कचिकिद्वीयतेतराम् अतिदायेन निर्णीयते स साधम्येदृष्टान्तः। यथा अग्निरत्र धूमस्य तथैव उपपत्तेः महानसादिवत् । इत्ययं च अविस्मृतप्रतिबन्धे प्रतिवादिनि न प्रयोक्तव्य इत्याह ॥१८॥

साध्ये गम्ये निवर्त्तमाने असंभवति तु शब्दोऽवधारणार्थो भिन्नक्रमः स च साधनस्य असंभव एव इत्यत्र द्रष्टव्यः। ख्याप्यते प्रतिपाद्यते यत्र कचित् हृष्टान्ते स वैधम्येण भवति इति शब्देन सम्बन्धस्मरणात् इति इदमत्रापि संबद्घाति अस्यापि समर्थमाणे संबन्धे अप्रयोगात् इति किमर्थं विस्सृत-संबन्धे एव प्रतिवादिनि हृष्टान्तः प्रयुज्यते नान्यदेति प्रवचना-वकाशमाशङ्कराह ॥ १९॥

ग्रन्यन्दा हि स्मर्थ्यमाखे वा संबन्धे ग्रप्रयुज्येतागृहीते वा... ततश्च ग्रन्तः पक्षमध्ये व्याप्तिः साधनस्य साध्याकान्तत्वम् श्रन्तर्व्याप्तस्तस्यैव साध्यसंगम्यसंसिद्धेः प्रतीतेः बहिर्विव-क्षितधर्मिणाऽन्यत्र दृष्टान्तधर्मिणि उदाहृतिः व्याप्तिदर्शनरूपा व्यर्था निष्प्रयोजना । तद्सद्भावेऽप्येव संबन्धाद् प्रहरणाद् ग्रन्तर्व्यात्प्त्यभावेऽप्येवमिति व्यर्थेव बहिरुदाहृतिः । नहि सहद-र्शनात्। क्वित् सर्वत्र तद्रपता सिध्यति व्यभिचारदर्शनात्। तस्माद् अगृहीतसम्बन्धे प्रतिपाद्ये प्रमाखे न प्रतिबन्धः। साध्यस्तत्सिद्धौ तत एव साध्यसिद्धेरिकिञ्चत्करी हष्टान्ता-दाहृतिरिति न्यायविद्वांसा विदुरवबुध्यन्ते इति । इह च प्रकरणे रोषावयवानां उपनयनिगमनशुद्धिपञ्चकलक्षणानां संक्षिप्तरुचि-सत्त्वानुग्रहपरत्वात् ग्रस्य यद्यपि साक्षाह्यक्षगां नोक्तं तथाप्यत एव प्रतिपादितावयवत्रयं बुद्धिमद्भिरुन्नेयम् । यते।ऽवयवा-पेक्षया जघन्यमध्यमात्रुष्टाः तिस्रः कथा भवन्ति इति । तत्र हेतुप्रतिपादनमात्रं जघन्या, द्व्याद्यवयवनिवेदनं मध्यमा,

संपूर्णद्शावयवकथनमृत्कृष्टा । तत्र इह मध्यमायाः साक्षात् कथनेन जघन्यात्कृष्टे अर्थतः सूचयतिः तत् सङ्गावस्य प्रमाण-सिद्धत्वात् इति ॥ २० ॥

प्रतिपाद्यस्य प्रतिवादिनः यः किद्वत् सिद्धः प्रतीतावा-रूढ एव स पक्षाभासः। साध्यस्यैव पक्षत्वात् सिद्धस्य साध-नानहित्वाद् ग्रतिप्रसक्तेस्तथाऽक्षिलिंगताऽध्यक्षहेतुभ्यां लेक-स्ववचनाभ्यां च बाधितिस्तिरस्कृता यः स पक्षाभासस्तत्र प्रतिपाद्यसिद्धो यथा पाद्गलिको घटः। सागतं वा प्रति सर्वे क्षिणकिमित्यादि। प्रत्यक्षबाधिता यथा निरंशानि स्वलक्षणानि परस्परविविक्ती वा सामान्यविशेषाविति। ग्रनुमानबाधितो यथा नास्ति सर्वेश इति। लेकबाधितो यथा गम्या माता इति। स्ववचनबाधितो यथा न सन्ति सर्वे भावा इति॥ २१॥

हेतार्छक्षणम् असाधारणधर्मरूपं यदीरितं गमितम् अने-कार्थत्वाद्दा धातोः प्रतिपादितं स्वार्थानुमानप्रस्तावे। यदुता-न्यथानुपपन्नत्वमिति । तस्य अप्रतीतिरनध्यवसायः, संदेहे। देशियमानता, विपर्यासे। वैपरीत्यनिर्णेयाऽप्रतीतिश्च संदे-देहश्च विपर्यासश्चेति द्वन्द्वः। तदाभता हेत्वाभासता।। २२॥

यः किद्यद्रप्रतीतः प्रतीत्याऽगोचरीकृतोऽनिद्यतः सोऽ-सिद्धनामा हेत्वाभासः ।...यस्तु अन्यथैव साध्यं विनैव विपक्ष एवेति यावत् उपपद्यते सम्भवति स विरुद्धाभिधानः । यः पुनः अन्यथापि साध्यविपर्ययेणापि युक्तो घटमानकाऽपि शब्दात् साध्येनापि सोऽत्र व्यतिकरेऽनैकान्तिकसंक्षो ज्ञातव्य इति । तत्र प्रतिप्राणिप्रसिद्धप्रमाणप्रतिष्ठितानेकान्तविरुद्धबुद्धिभिः कणभक्षाक्षपाद्बुद्धादिशिष्यकैरुपन्यस्यमानाः सर्व एव हेतवः । तद्यथा एकान्तेन नित्यः शब्दोऽनित्यो वा। सत्त्वात् उत्पत्ति-मत्त्वात् कृतकत्वात् प्रत्यभिश्चायमानत्वात् इत्याह ।...कल्पनार-चितसत्ताकानां च सर्वशक्तिविरहरूपतया निःस्वभावत्वात्। तथापि तेषां साधनत्वे साध्यमपि निःस्वभाविमिति। खरवि-षाणं शशिवषाणस्य साधनमापद्यते इति शोभनः साध्यसाध-नव्यवहारः।...एवं हि नभःपुण्डरीकं तत्र नास्तीति सत्तादि-कमपि कल्पयितुं न शक्यमिति प्रसक्येत।...ग्रनित्यवादी नित्यवादिनं प्रति प्रमाणयित। सर्वं क्षिणकं सत्त्वात्..... नित्यवादी पुनः एवं प्रमाणयित। सर्वं नित्यं सत्त्वात्। तस्माद् ग्रमी सर्व एव हेतवः सन्ते।ऽनेकान्तमन्तरेण ने।पपद्यन्ते इति तमेव प्रतिपादयितुम् ईशते विमृद्धद्विद्धिः पुनः विपक्षसाध-नार्थम् उपन्यस्यमाना विवक्षया ग्रसिद्धविरुद्धानैकान्तिकतामा-विभ्रतीति स्थितम्॥ २३॥

हष्टान्तदेषा हष्टान्ताभासा इत्यर्थः ।...साध्यं गम्यम् आदि-शब्दात् साधने। भयपरिग्रहः । तद्विकलास्तच्छून्याः आदिशब्दात् सन्दिग्धसाध्यसाधने। भयधमी गृह्यन्ते । किंभूता एते इत्याह । अपगतं लक्षणं येभ्यस्ते तथा च ते हेतवश्च तेभ्य उत्था उत्थानं येषां ते अपलक्षणहेत्त्थाः। इदं च प्रायकं विशेषणं, सम्यग् हेता-विष वकृदेषवशात् हष्टान्ताभासते। पपत्तेः यथा नित्यानित्यः शब्दः श्रावणत्वात् घटवदिति । तत्र साध्यविकलो यथा, भ्रान्तम् अनुमानं प्रमाणत्वात् प्रत्यक्षवत् प्रत्यक्षस्य भ्रान्तता-विकलत्वात्..... । साधनविकलो यथा, जाग्रत्संवेदनंभ्रान्तं प्रमाणत्वात् स्वप्नसंवेदनस्य प्रमाणतावैक-ल्यात्...। उभयविकलो यथा, नास्ति सर्वद्वः प्रत्यक्षाद्यनुप-

लब्धत्वात् घटवत् घटस्य सन्त्वात् प्रत्यक्षादिभिरुपलब्धत्वाच । सन्दिग्धसाध्यधम्मेर्ग यथा, जीतरागेर्द्यं मरणधर्मत्वात् रथ्या-पुरुषवत् रथ्यापुरुषे वीतरागत्वस्य सन्दिग्धत्वात्...। सन्दिग्ध-साधनधम्मी यथा, मरणधमाऽयं पुरुषो रागादिमत्त्वात् रथ्या-पुरुषवत् द्रष्टव्यः पुरुषे रागादिमस्वस्य सन्दिग्धत्वात् वीतराग-स्यापि तथा सम्भवादिति । सन्दिग्धोभयधम्मौ यथा, असर्वज्ञो-ऽयं रागादिमस्वात् रथ्यापुरुषवत् इति रथ्यापुरुषे प्रदर्शित-न्यायेन उभयस्यापि सन्दिग्धत्वादिति। ननु च परैरन्यदिप हष्टान्ताभासत्रयमुक्तं तद्यथा अनन्वये।ऽप्रदर्शितान्वये। विपरीता-न्वयञ्चेति । तत्र अनन्वया यथा, रागादिमान् विवक्षितः पुरुषा वक्तवाद् इष्टपुरुषवदिति यद्यपि किलेष्टपुरुषे रागादिमस्वं वक्तवं च साध्यसाधनधम्मी हष्टी तथापि ये। या वक्ता स स रागाँद-मानिति व्याप्तरिसद्धंरनन्वये।ऽयं दृष्टान्तः। तथा अपदर्शितान्वये। यथा, ग्रनित्यः शब्दः कृतकत्वात् घटवदिति । ग्रत्र यद्यपि वास्तवोऽन्वयाऽस्ति तथापि वादिना वचनेन न प्रकाशित इति ग्रप्रदर्शितान्वया दृष्टान्तः । विपरीतान्वया यथा, ग्रनित्यः शब्दः कृतकत्वात् इति । हेतुमभिधाय यदनित्यं तत् कृतकं घटवदिति विपरीतव्याप्तिदर्शनात् विपरीतान्वयः ॥ २४ ॥

साध्याभावः साधनाभावव्याप्तौ दर्शीयतुमभिष्रेयते यस्मिन्
तद् वैधम्यम् । तेनात्र दृष्टान्तदेषा न्यायविदीरिता इति दत्तार्थं
साध्यसाधनयुग्मानां गम्यगमकाभयानाम् अनिवृत्तेः अविवर्त्तनात्
च शब्दस्य व्यवहितप्रयागत्वात् संशयाच्च निवृत्तिसंदेहाच्चेत्यर्थः । तदनेन षड् दृष्टान्ताभासाः सूचिताः । तद्यथा साध्याव्यतिरेकी (१), साधनाव्यतिरेकी (२), साध्यसाधनाव्यतिरेकी

(३), तथा सन्दिग्धसाध्यव्यतिरेकः (४), सन्दिग्धसाधनव्यति-रेकः (५), सन्दिग्धसाध्यसाधनव्यतिरेकश्चेति (६) । तत्र साध्याव्यतिरेकी यथा, भ्रान्तमनुमानं प्रमाणत्वात् इत्यत्र वैध-र्म्यहष्टान्ता यत् पुनर्भान्तं न भवति न तत् प्रमाणं तद्यथा स्वप्रज्ञानमिति स्वप्नज्ञानाद् भ्रान्ततानिवृत्तेः साध्याव्यतिरेकि-त्वमिति । साधनाव्यतिरेकी यथा, प्रत्यक्षं निर्विकल्पकं प्रमाण-त्वादिति । अत्र वैधर्म्यदृष्टान्तो यत् पुनः सविकल्पकं न तत् प्रमार्णं तद्यथाऽनुमानमनुप्रमाणताऽनिवृत्तेः साधनाव्यतिरेकि-त्वम् । उभयाव्यतिरेकी यथा, नित्यानित्यः शब्दः सत्त्वात् इत्यत्र वैधर्म्यदृष्टान्तो यः पुनर्न नित्यानित्यः स न सन् तद्यथा घटः घटादुभयस्यापि अव्यावृत्तेरुभयाव्यतिरेकित्वमिति । तथा सन्दिग्धसाध्यव्यतिरेकः, ग्रसर्वज्ञा ग्रनाप्ता वा कपिलादयः अर्थ्यसत्यचतुष्टयाप्रतिपादकत्वादिति । अत्र वैधम्येदृष्टान्तः यः पुनः सर्वज्ञ आप्तो वा असौ आर्थ्यसत्यचतुष्टयं प्रत्यपीपदत् तद्यथा शौद्धोदनिरिति । अयं च साध्यव्यतिरेकी वा ग्रार्थ्यसत्य-चतुष्टयस्य दुःखसमुदयमार्गनिरोधलक्षणस्य प्रमाणवाधितत्वेन तद्भाषकस्य ग्रसर्वज्ञतानाप्तते। पपत्तेः तस्मात् शौद्धो-दनेः सकाशाद् ग्रसर्वज्ञतानाप्ततालक्षणस्य साध्यस्य व्यावृत्तिः सन्दिग्धेति सन्दिग्धसाध्यत्रातिरेकित्वमिति । सन्दिग्धसाधन-व्यतिरेका यथा, ग्रनादेयवाक्यः किञ्चद्विक्षितः पुरुषो रागादि-मस्वादित्यत्र वैधर्म्यदृष्टान्तो यः पुनः ग्रादेयवाक्यो न स रागा-दिमान् तद्यथा सुगत इति... सुगतात् रागादिमस्वयावृत्ति-संशयात् सन्दिग्धसाधनव्यतिरेकित्वमिति । सन्दिग्धसाध्य-साधनव्यतिरेका यथा, वीतरागाः कपिछादयः करुणास्पदेखु

अपि अकरुणापरीतचित्ततया दत्तनिजकमांसराकललादिति। ग्रत्र वैधर्म्यदृष्टान्ता ये पुनर्वीतरागास्ते करुणापरीतचित्ततया दत्तनिजमांसराकलाः तद्यथा बेाधिसस्वा इत्यत्र साधनसाध्य-धर्मयाबोधिसच्वेभ्या व्यावृत्तिः सन्दिग्धा ततः प्रतिपादितप्रमा-गावैकल्यात् न ज्ञायते किंते रागादिमन्तः उत वीतरागास्तथाऽ नुकम्प्येषु किं स्विपिशितखण्डानि दत्तवन्तो नेति वा ग्रतः सन्दिग्धसाध्यसाधनव्यतिरेकित्वमिति । परैः परेऽपि दृष्टान्ता-भासास्त्रये। विमृश्यभाषितया दर्शितास्तद्यथाऽव्यतिरेकाऽप्रदर्शि-तव्यतिरेकोऽविपरीतव्यतिरेकश्चेति । ते असाभिः अयुक्तत्वात्तु द्शीयतव्याः । तथाहि अव्यतिरेकस्तैर्द्शिता यथा, अवीतरागः कश्चिव् विवक्षितः पुरुषो वक्तवादित्यत्र वैधम्यहष्टान्तो यः पुनः वीतरागो न स वक्ता यथोपळखण्ड इति; यद्यपि किले।पल-खण्डाद् उभयं व्यावृत्तं तथापि व्याप्त्रा व्यतिरेकासिद्धेः ग्रव्यति-रेकित्वमिति । ... तथाहि ग्रप्रदर्शितव्यतिरेकस्तैरुको यथा, म्रनित्यः शब्दः कृतकत्वात् म्राकाशवदित्यत्र विद्यमाने।ऽपि ब्यतिरेको वादिना वचनेन उद्भावित इति दुष्टता । विपरीत-व्यतिरेकः पुनरभिहिता यथा, अनित्यः शब्दः कृतकत्वाद् इत्यत्र वैधर्म्येह् ष्टान्ते। यद्कृतकं तिक्षत्यं भवति यथाऽऽकादामिति इत्यत्र विपर्यस्तव्यतिरेकप्रदर्शनात् विपरीतव्यतिरेकित्वम् ॥ २५ ॥

साध्यते प्रतिपाद्यप्रतिते ग्रारोहाते तु मेयं येन तत् साधनं तद्ध ग्राम् प्रत्यपादि । तद्यथा । कचित् हेतुरेवैकः, कचित् पक्षहेतु पक्षहेतु हृष्टान्ताः, कचित् ते एव सोपन्याः, कचित् सनिगमनाः, कचित् एकैकतच्छुद्धि वृद्ध्येति ।... तत्रेह सम्यक्साधनस्य दूषियतु महाक्यत्वात् साधनाभास एव

तत्सामर्थोपपत्तेः ...। तत्र प्रोक्तदेषाणां प्रत्यक्षादिनिराक्तप-क्षातिद्वादिहेतुसाध्यदिविकलदृष्टान्ताद्युपन्यासलक्षणानामुद्धा-वनं प्राक्षिकानां पुरतः प्रकाशनं यत् तद् दृष्यते स्वाभिष्रेत-साध्यप्रत्यायनवैकल्यलक्षणं विकृतिं नीयते साधनमनेनेति दृष-णिमति श्रोयम्॥ २६॥

सक्छं समस्तम् ग्रावृग्गोति ग्रावियते वाग्रनेनेत्यावरग्गम् । तत् स्वरूपप्रच्छादनं कर्मेत्यर्थः । सकलं च तदावरणं च सक-ळावरणं तेन मुक्तो रहितः ग्रात्मा स्वरूपं यस्य तत् तथा। ग्रतएव केवलम् ग्रसहायम् ग्रावरणक्षयापरामविचित्रतयैव बेाधस्य नानाकारस्य प्रवृत्तेः । सामस्त्येन पुनः ग्रावरणनिर्दछने विबन्धकार खवैक ल्याद् एकाकारतयैव तस्य विवर्त्तनाद् ग्रता ज्ञानान्तरनिरपेक्षं यत् प्रकादाते प्रथते निरुपाधिकं द्योतते इत्यर्थः। तत् परमार्थतः प्रत्यक्षं तदिदं सकलावरणमुकात्मेति हेतुद्वारेण तथा केवलं तत् प्रकाशते इति स्वरूपते। निरूप्य ग्रधुना कार्यन द्वारेण निरूपयन्नाह । सकळार्थात्मनां समस्तवस्तुस्वरूपाणां सततप्रतिभासनम् अनवरतप्रकाशनं सकलार्थात्मसततप्रति-भासनमिति प्रतिभास्यतेऽनेनेति प्रतिभासनम् ग्रात्मना धर्मरूप-तया भेदवद्विविक्षतं श्रानमिति यावत् । ग्रस्य च पारमार्थिकत्वं निरुपचरितदाब्दार्थोपपत्तेः । तथाहि । ग्रक्षदाब्दो जीवपर्याय-स्ततइचाक्षं प्रति वर्त्तते इति प्रत्यक्षं यत्रात्मनः साक्षाद्वप्रापारः। व्यावहारिकं पुनरिन्द्रियव्यवहितात्मव्यापारसम्पाद्यत्वात् परमा-र्थतः परोक्षमेव धूमादग्निश्चानवित्तरोधानाविशेषात् ॥ २७ ॥

द्विविधं हि प्रमाणस्य फलं साक्षाद् असाक्षाच अनन्तरं व्यवहितं चेत्यर्थः । तत्र साक्षाद् अज्ञानम् अनध्यवसायः प्रमेयापरिच्छित्तस्तस्य विनिवर्त्तनं विशेषेण प्रलयापाद्नं प्रमाणस्य फलम् अज्ञानोद्दलनद्वारेण तस्य प्रवृत्तेः तस्य सर्वानर्थमूलतया प्रमात्रपकारित्वात् तिज्ञवर्त्तनस्य प्रयोज्जनता युक्तेष । पत्ञ्चानन्तरप्रयोजनं सर्वज्ञानामेकरूपत्वात् सामान्येनोक्तम् । व्यविद्वतप्रयोजनं पुनः विभागेनाह । केवलस्य सर्वज्ञज्ञानस्य सुखं वैषयिकं सुखातीतपरमाह्णादानुभव उपेक्षा साक्षात् समस्तार्थानुभवेऽपि हाने।पादानोपादानेच्छाभावान्मध्यस्थवृत्तिता ते सुखे।पेक्षे फलित्यर्थः । शेषस्य तद्वातिरिक्त-प्राकृतलेकप्रमाणस्य आदानं प्रहणं हानं परित्यागस्तयोरादान-हानये।धीः बुद्धिरादानहानधीः, सा फलिति यावत् । तत्तक्ष्य आदेयानां सम्यग्दर्शनस्रक्चन्दनादीनां या आदित्सा तथा, हेयानां मिथ्यादर्शनादिविषकण्टकानां या जिहासा प्रमाणसाध्या प्रमाणात्तत्सिद्धेः ॥ २८ ॥

यसे बहवे। उन्ता ग्रंशा धर्मा वा ग्रात्मनः स्वरूपाणि यस्य तद् अनेकात्मकं किं तद्वस्तु बहिरन्तश्च गोचरः विषयः सर्वसंविदां समस्तसंवित्तीनामनेन अनेकान्तमन्तरेण संवेदन-प्रस्त्यवच्छे दं दर्शयित ...। एक इत्यादि अनन्तधर्माध्यासितं वस्तु सामिप्रेतैकधर्मविशिष्टं नयित प्रापयित संवेदनमारोहय-तीति नयः प्रमाणप्रवृत्तेरुत्तरकालभावी परामर्श इत्यर्थस्तस्य विषयः प्रमाणप्रवृत्तेरुत्तरकालभावी परामर्श इत्यर्थस्तस्य विषयः प्रमाणस्य गोचरा मत्रोऽभिप्रेत एकदेशेन अनित्यत्वा-विधर्मलक्षणेन विशिष्टः पररूपेभ्यो व्यवच्छिन्नत्यर्थः।... सर्व-संप्राहिसत्ताभिप्रायपरिकल्पनाद्वारेण सप्त नयाः प्रतिपादिताः, तद्यथा । नैगम-संप्रह-व्यवहार-ऋजुसूत्र-शब्द-समभिरूढ़ एवं-भूता नया इत्यते। स्माभिर्य से एव वर्ण्यन्ते कथमेते सर्वाभि-

प्रायसंप्राहकाः इति चेत् । उच्यते । इति प्रायस्तावद् अर्थद्वारेगा शब्दद्वारेख वा प्रवर्त्तेत गत्यन्तराभावात् । अर्थश्च सामान्य-रूपे। विशेषरूपे। वा शब्दोऽपि रूढिते। व्युत्पसितश्च व्युत्पसि-रिष सामान्यनिमित्तप्रयुक्ता तत्कालभाविनिमित्तप्रयुक्ता वा स्यात् । ... येऽपि परस्परविशक्तितौ सामान्यविशेषरै इच्छन्ति तत् समुदायरूपे। नैगमः। ये पुनः केवछं सामान्यं वाञ्छन्ति तत् समूहसंपाद्यः संग्रहः। ये पुनरनपेक्षितशास्त्रीयसामान्य-विशेषं लेकियवहारमवतरन्तं घटादिकं पदार्थम् अभिप्रयन्ति तन्निचयजात्या व्यवहारः। ये तु क्षचक्षयिणः परमागुलक्षणा विशेषाः सत्या इति मन्यन्ते तत्संघातघटित ऋजुसूत्र इति । तथा ये रूढितः राब्दानां प्रवृत्तिं वाञ्छन्ति तिघवहसाध्यः राब्द इति। ये तु व्युत्पत्तितो ध्वनीनां प्रवृत्तिं वाञ्छन्ति नान्यथा तद्द्वारजन्यं समभिरुढ इति । ये तु वर्त्तमानकालभाविव्युत्प-त्तिनिमित्तमधिकृत्य राष्ट्राः प्रवर्तन्ते नान्यथेति मन्यन्ते तत्-संघटितः खल्वेवंभूत इति । तदेवं न कश्चन विकल्पोऽस्ति वस्तुगोचरा योऽत्र नयसप्तके नान्तर्यातीति सर्वाभिप्रायसंग्रा-हका एते इति स्थितम्। ... तथाहि नैगमनयदर्शनानुसारिखौ नैयायिकवैशेषिकौ, संग्रहाभिप्रायपत्रुत्ताः सर्वेऽपि अद्वैतवादाः सांख्यदर्शनं च, व्यवहारनयानुपातिप्रायश्चार्वाकदर्शनम्, ऋजुसूत्राक्तुतप्रवृत्तबुद्धयस्ताथागताः, शन्दादिनयमतावल-म्बिनो वैयाकरणाद्यः ॥ ... तथाहि नयति केनचिद् ग्रंशेन विशिष्टमर्थं प्रापयति ये। भिप्रायः स नयः ॥ २९ ॥

इह त्रिविधं श्रुतम् । तद्यथा । मिथ्याश्रुतं, नयश्रुतं, स्याद्वा-दश्रुतम् । तत्र श्रूयते इति श्रुतमागमः । मिथ्याऽलीकं श्रुतं मिण्याश्रुतम् । तच दुनैयाभिष्ठायष्रवृत्तं तीर्थिकसम्बन्धि निर्गीचरत्वात् । तथा नयैः हेतुभूतैः श्रुतं नयश्रुतम् । एतच्च अहदागमान्तर्गतमेव एकनयाभिष्रायप्रतिबद्धम् ।...तथा निर्दिश्यमानधर्मव्यतिरिक्ताशेषधर्मान्तरसंस्चकेन स्यात् युक्तो वादोऽभिष्रेतधर्मवचनं स्याद्वादः । तदात्मकं श्रुतं तत् किंभूतमुच्यते इत्यत्राह ।
संपूर्णो विकलः स चासावर्थश्च तद्विनिश्चायि तन्निर्णयहेतुत्वाद् एवमभिधीयते । ... नयानां नैगमादीनाम् एकनिष्ठानां
एकधर्मश्रहणपर्यवसितानां श्रुतवर्त्माने ग्रागममार्गे प्रवृत्तेः
प्रवर्त्तनाम् तदेकैकाभिष्रायप्रतिबद्धं संपूर्णार्थविनिश्चायि
तत्समुद्दायस्यैव संपूर्णार्थविनिश्चायकत्वाद् इत्याकृतम्
॥ ३०॥

स्वान्यो आतमपरो निर्भासयितुम् उद्योतियतुं शीलमस्येति स्वान्यनिर्भासी स्वस्वरूपार्थयोः प्रकाशक इति यावत्।... विवर्त्तनम् अपरापरपर्य्यायेषु गमनं विवृत्तिः परिणामः सा विद्यते यस्येति विवृत्तिमान्। स्व आतमा संवेद्यते अनेनेति स्वसंवेदनं तेन सम्यक् सिद्धः प्रतिष्ठितः प्रतीतो वा स्वसंवेदनसंसिद्धः। क्षितिः पृथिवी आदिर्येषां तानि क्षित्यादीनि। आदिशब्दाद् अम्बुतेजोवाय्वाकाशानि गृहप्रनते। न विद्यते आतमा स्वरूपमस्येति अनात्मकः ... क्षित्यादिस्वरूपो न भवति इत्यर्थः।... स्वान्यनिर्भासीत्यनेन प्रागुक्तस्वपराभासिप्रमाण-विशेषवन्मीमांसकान् परोक्षबुद्धिवादिनो योगाचारांश्च ज्ञानमात्रवादिनः प्रतिक्षिपति। कथं ज्ञानक्षानिनोः कथंचिदभेदेन तदुक्तन्यायाविशेषादिति कर्त्ता भोक्तेति विशेषणद्वयेन सांख्य-मतं विकृष्ट्यति। विवृत्तिमानित्यमुना तु एकान्तनित्यं अपरि-

णामिनं नैयायिकवैशेषिकादिप्रकरिपतं प्रमातारं निरस्यति सर्व-थाऽविचलितरूपस्य अर्थग्रहणपरिणामानुपपत्तेः ॥ ३१ ॥

प्रमाणानि प्रत्यक्षादीनि ग्रादिशब्दाश्ययपित्रहः। तेषां व्यव-स्था प्रतिनियतलक्षणादिरूपा मध्यादा सा इयमनन्तरोक्तस्थित्या प्रकीर्त्तितेति । ... सर्वसंव्यवहत्तृ णां है। किकतीर्थिकभेदिभिन्न-समस्तव्यवहारवतां प्रसिद्धाऽपि रूढाऽपि तदप्रसिद्धौ निखिल-व्यवहारोच्छेदप्रसंगात्। ... प्रकीर्त्तिता संशब्दिता श्रव्युत्पन्न-विप्रतिपन्नव्यामोहापोहायेति गम्यते॥ ३२॥

स्याद्वादकेसरिसुभीषणनादभीतेरुत्त्स्तलेखनयनान् प्रप्रलाय्यमानान् ।
हे दुर्नयाश्रितकृतीर्थिमृगानन्यत्राणान् विहाय जिनमेत्य तमाश्रयध्वम् ॥
भक्तिर्मया भगवति प्रकटीकृतेयं
तच्छासनांशकथनान्न मितः स्वकीया ।
मेहादता यदिह किंचिदभूदसाधु
तत् साधवः कृतकृपा मिय शोधयन्तु ॥
न्यायावतारविवृति विधिना विधित्साः
सिद्धः पुनर्थ इह पुण्यच्ययस्तते। मे ।
नित्यः परार्थकरणाद्यतमाभवान्तात्
भूयाज्ञिनेन्द्रमतलंपटमेव चेतः ॥

इति न्यायावतारिववृतिः समाप्ता । कृतिरियं सितपट्ट श्री-सिद्धसेनदिवाकरव्याख्यानकस्य तर्कप्रकरणवृत्तेरिति ॥

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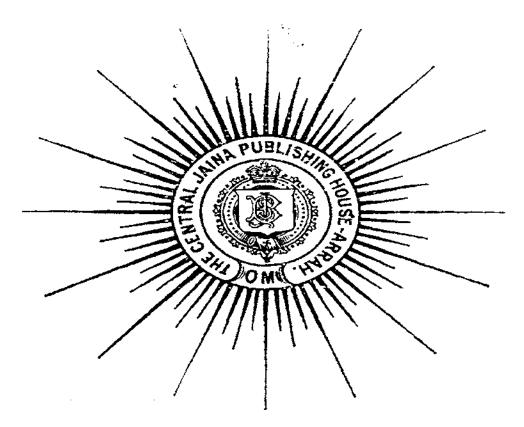
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