DIGNAGA'S THEORY OF DIRECT KNOWLEDGE

—An Annoted Translation of Pramāņasamuccaya, Chapter I—

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INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

It is just half a century ago that the late Mahāmahopadhyaya S. C. Vidyabhūsana published his monumental work, History of the Mediaeval School of Indian Logic, in which he first introduced Dignāga's theory of knowledge to the scholars of Indian philosophy. Notwithstanding this incentive, the furtherance of the study on this great figure was not a task that could be carried out without toil. Pramāṇasamuccaya (PS), a comprehensive and systematical work on epistemology and logic, though being known as a reformative work in the histroy of Indian Logic, is unfortunately not preserved in the original Sanskrit, and the Tibetan version, the only available material of the study on this text, cannot be considered to be quite a readable one, perhaps mainly due to the unfitness of the Tibetan language to this kind of strict and subtle arguments and also sometimes to the translator's lack of understanding. Attempts have been made by Randle and other scholars to collect passages of PS scattered in the Nyāya texts and elsewhere, and these attempts have proved to be very helpful for the study of Dignaga's theory. Controversial points of his theory have been thus gradually made clear. An epoch was marked by Stcherbatsky when he published an elaborative study on the Nyāyabindu. While annexing precise notes to this concise treatise of Dharmakirti, he made frequent references to PS, and moreover, translated the portion wherein Dignaga discussed the problem of self-cognition with Jinendrabuddhi's commentary. Dignāga's theory was brought forth under the brighter light and the preliminary course to the textual study of PS was well set up by his effort. Owing to the successful result of Dr. Rāhula Sānkṛtyāyana's second expedition to Tibet, we are now provided with the Sanskrit text of Pramānavārttika (PV), an extensive critical commentary on PS, along with some commentaries on it. These are precious materials to further the study of the doctrines of Dignaga as well as of Dharmakirti, for PV treats with the same problems as discussed in PS, and, fortunately enough, the passages of the latter are found often cited in the commentaries of the former. Recently some portions of PS have been rendered by Japanese scholars into their own language from the Tibetan version. The portion translated and annoted here was put into Japanese some years back by Mr. Takemura, Asst. Prof. of Ryūkoku Univ., Kyoto (Ryūkoku Daigaku Ronshū, No. 351, 1956), but, according to the opinion of the present writer, his translation can hardly be recognized as a scholary work,

misreading of the text being found almost in every line. The present translation is based on, in principle, Tshad-ma kun-las btus-pahi hgrel-pa (Pramānasamuccaya-vrtti), Kanakavarman's version, Peking Ed., Mdo-hgrel XCV (Ce), fol. 93 bff. Verses of PS are properly inserted between lines by the present writer. Constant references have been made to Vasudhararaksita's version, Peking Ed., Mdo-hgrel XCV, fol. 13 aff and Jinendrabuddhi's Visālāmalavatī-nāma Pramānasamuccaya-vrtti, Sde-dge & Peking Eds. The writer wishes to acknowledge his gratitude to Prof. Hatano, Tohoku Univ., Asst. Prof. Miyasaka, Kōyasan Univ., Asst. Prof. Ihara, Kyūshū Univ. and Mr. Hasuba, Otani Univ., through whose courtesy he could obtain the photographic copies of the abovementioned texts. The writer has also to express his indebtedness to Jain Muni Jambuvijaya who was kind enough to send the writer a proof of his Sanskrit reconstruction of PS, Chap. I, which is expected to be out soon as an appendix to his edition of Nayacakra-vrtti. Owing to this excellent Sanskrit reconstruction, the writer could clarify some ambiguous points. Muni Jambuvijaya collected many original passages of PS thus far left unnoticed from various sources, which, however, have not been noted in this paper because the writer does not like to refer to them before the publication of the said work.

§ 1. SALUTATION

Verse 1. I salute Him who is the personification of valid knowledge, who pursues the benefit of the living beings, who is the teacher, the sugata, the protector. And, in order to establish the means of valid knowledge, I shall unite here under one head the scattered fragments from all my other treatises¹⁾.

Abbreviations.

AKV Sphutārthā Abhidharmakosavyākhyā, Ed. by U. Wogihara, Tokyo, 1932-36.

BL Th. Stcherbatsky, Buddhist Logic, 2 Vols, Bibliotheca Buddhica XXVI, Leningrad, 1930-32.

DP Dharmottarapradipa, Ed. by D. Malvania, Patna, 1955.

NB Nyāyabindu of Dharmakīrti.

NBh Nyāyabhāşya of Vātsyāyana.

NBT Nyāyabindu tikā of Dharmottara, Ed. with DP.

NM Nyāyamukha, Chinese Version, Taisho Tripitaka, XXXII, pp. 1-6.

NV Nyāyavārttika of Uddyotakara, Vārānasī Ed.

NVTT Nyāyavārttika-tātparya-tīkā of Vācaspatimiśra, Kāshī Skt. Ser.

PS Pramāņasamuccaya.

PSV Pramāņasamuccaya-vrtti.

PSVT Viśālāmalavatī-nāma Pramāņasamuccaya tīkā, Tibetan Version, Tohoku, No. 4268.

TS Tattvasamgraha of Śāntarakṣita, Gaekwad Oriental Series, Nos. XXX, XXXI, Baroda 1926.

TSP Tattvasamgraha-pañjikā of Kamalasīla, Ed. with TS.

VA Pramāņavārtikabhāşyam or Vārtikālamkārah of Prajñākaragupta, Ed. by R. Sānkrtyāyana, Patna, 1953.

VPM Vibhūticandra annexed to Dharmakīrti's Pramānavārttika with a Commentary by Manorathanandin, Ed. by R. Sānkṛtyāyana, Patna, 1937.

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Here (in the verse of salutation), in order to cause in the heart of the people, at the beginning of the treatise, the faith (in the Buddha), the praise is expressed in honour of the Buddha, the Adorate, who, because of his perfectness of the cause and the effect, is to be regarded as the personification of the valid knowledge ($pram\bar{a}na-bh\bar{u}ta$)³). There, the cause is the completion of the intention ($\bar{a}saya$) and the practice (prayoga). (The completion of) the intention means that the Buddha is the One pursuing the benefit of the living beings. (The completion of) the practice signifies that the Buddha is the teacher because he teaches the people. The effect is the

pramāṇa-bhūtāya jagad-dhitaiṣine praṇamya śāstre sugatāya tāyine / pramāṇa-siddhyai svamatāt samuccayah kariṣyate viprasṛtād ihaikataḥ //

¹⁾ Dignāga is generally regarded as the founder of the so-called Logician Vijnānavādins (nyāyānusārino vijñānavādinah), the younger branch of the Yogācāra-Vijñānavādins; the elder school of it represented by Asanga and Vasubandhu is known by the name of Vijñānavādins basing upon Scripture (āgamânusāriņo vijñanavādinah). The names given to these two subdivisions of the Yogācāra show clearly the difference of attitude between the two towards the Buddhist truth. Dignāga does not recognize, as the masters of the elder school do, the authority of the Scripture. According to him, the words of the Buddha must be subjected to the critical test before they are accepted as valid, and we find that his works are consistently permeated by the critical and rationalistic spirit. This spirit, however, is not introduced newly by him into Buddhism, but he inherited it from the Buddha, who used to exhort his disciples not to accept any of his words merely out of reverence but to test it critically, just as people test the purity of gold by burning it in fire, by cutting it and by examining it on a touchstone, cp. Anguttara Nikāya, III, 65,3, Majjhima N., sutta 38, TSP, p. 12, Jñānasārasamuccaya, k. 31 (transl. by S. Yamaguchi, Chūkan Bukkyō Ronkō, p. 327), Th. Stcherbatsky, BL, Vol. I, p. 77, S. Radhakrishnan, Indian Philosophy, Vol. I, p. 611, do., The Dhammapada, pp. 10-11, S. Mookerjee, The Buddhist Philosophy of Universal Flux, p. xl. Dignaga is convinced of his following the teaching of the Buddha by establishing the theory of knowledge, and basing upon this conviction, he gives, at the beginning of the treatise, a salutation to the Buddha, who, according to his expression, is to be reckoned as the personification of the valid knowledge (pramāṇa-bhūta). It is reported by Buston that Dignāga wrote this verse on the side of a rock in the cavern known by his name, and that as he wrote down this salutation and his determination to establish the true theory of knowledge, various ominous signs appeared, cp. Obermiller, History of Buddhism (Chos-hbyun) by Bu-ston, Vol. II, p. 150. Dharmakirti attaches importance to this verse, by which, he thinks, the fundamental standpoint of the Buddhist Logicians is declared. He makes thorough discussion on this point in his extensive critical commentary on Pramānasamuccaya, namely Pramānavārttika, and, in consequence, the chapter on the establishment of the means of valid knowledge (pramāna-siddhi-pariccheda) is, in this work, separated from the chapter on the direct knowledge and is treated as independent. The full verse is cited at VPM, p. 518, and the first half at VA, p. 3, and AKV, p. 7, 5-6:

²⁾ cp. VA, p. 3, 12ff, 115, 31-32, 116, 5-6.

³⁾ PSVT, 2a, 5-2b, 2: 'pramāṇa-bhūta' implies that the Buddha is the authority (=the valid knowledge) and that He has come into the world (thad ma yaṅ hdi yin la gyur pahaṅ yin pa=idam paramāṇaṁ ca bhūtaṁ ca). 'bhūta' means 'to be born' (skyes-pa=jāta) or 'to come into the world' (byuṅ-ba=utpanna). What is meant by this term is that the Buddha, in whose personality the valid knowledge is embodied, is distinguished from the supposed authority which has no actual relation with the world, such as tsvara who remains in eternal and non-self-revealing state and the like.

attainment of the objectives of his own and of others. 'The attainment of the objective of his own' is (evidenced) by the fact that the Buddha is titled sugata (one that has attained bliss); that title (can be explained as) indicating three meanings⁴), i.e., (i) praiseworthiness (prasastārtha), just like the handsome (su-rūpa)⁵), (ii) non-retrogression (=final emancipation, apunarāvrtty-artha), just like the radical cure from the fever (su-naṣta-jvara) and (iii) wholeness (nihśeṣārtha), just like the jar filled with water (su-pūrna-ghata). These three meanings (of the title 'sugata' are grounds of) distinguishing the Buddha's attainment of his own objective from the attainment of the outsiders (of Buddhism) who has subdued passions (vītā-rāgā) or of those who is undergoing religious training (saikṣa) or who no longer need religious training (asaikṣa)⁶). 'The attainment of the objective of others' is to be taken as implying that the Buddha is possessed of the 'protector-hood' (tāyitva) in the sense that he is2)

Saluting the teacher who is endowed with such merits, the author will compose, in order to establish the means of valid knowledge, *Pramānasamuccaya* or Collection of the Theory of Knowledge by collecting (passages) from *Nyāyamukha* and other treatises⁷⁾ of the author himself. (The purpose of composing this work is) to reject the others' theory of knowledge and to elucidate the characteristics of the author's

^{4) &#}x27;Sugata', the word primarily meaning 'well (su)-gone (gata)', is counted among ten titles of the Buddha, cp. Mahāvyutpatti, Nos. 1-10, in the sense that He has well attained the enlightenment. This title of the Buddha is explained here as implying His three merits, pra-sastatā, apunarāvyttitva and niḥśeṣatā, which are respectively the attribute of surāpa, sunaṣṭajvara and supārnaghaṭa, each of which is prefixed to with 'su' like 'sugata'. It seems that this dogmatical etymology of 'sugata' was prevalent among the Buddhist scholars of this school, for we find the same in Durvekamiśra's commentary on NBT, cp. DP, p. 3, 11ff, see also PV, III, kk. 141-144.

⁵⁾ Tib. skes-bu gzugs-legs-pa: a graceful, handsome person. Surūpa might also be taken as the name of a legendary king who gave son, wife and himself to be eaten by an ogre in exchange for religious instruction, cp. Edgerton, Buddhist Hybrid Skt. Dictionary. But this had better be taken here as a common noun, because DP, p. 3, says, when explaining praśastārtha, that those who make living by beauty of their form are 'surūpa' (surūpā rūpājīvāh).

⁶⁾ Among those Buddhist disciples (śrāvaka) who has reached the stage of the sage (ārya-pudgala), the arhat is called 'aśaikṣa', because he, extinguishing the influence of passions (āsrava-kṣaya), no longer needs religious training, and other seven (from srotāpatti-pratipannaka to arhat-pratipannaka), who are to study more in order to attain the arhat-hood, are called 'śaikṣa'. cp. Abhidharmakośa, VI, pudgala-mārga-nirdeśaḥ.

⁷⁾ Dignāga's works preserved in the Tibetan Tripitaka are fourteen in number, while the Chinese Tripitaka enumerates six, of which four are missed in the Tibetan. Among these twenty works now available, we find the same theory as expounded in PS(V) being stated, at least, in Hetucakradamaru, Tohoku, No. 4209, cp. PSV, III, 19, \bar{A} lambanaparikṣ \bar{z} vrtti, Tohoku, No. 4206, XXXI, pp. 888-889, cp. PSV, ad. I, 4, 5, 9, Abhidharmakośavrtti-Marmaprad \bar{z} pa, Tohoku, No. 4095, cp. PSV, ad. I, 4, and Ny \bar{z} yamukha. Especially many verses and passages of NM are seen rearranged in PS(V), cp. G. Tucci, The Ny \bar{z} yamukha of Dign \bar{z} ga.

own theory of knowledge⁸⁾; for there is a divergence of opinion with regard to the means of knowledge⁹⁾, on which the apprenhension of the object to be known depends¹⁰⁾.

§ 2. TWO SOURCES OF VALID KNOWLEDGE

V. 2-3ab: There are two sources of valid knowledge; for the object to be known has two aspects. As regards (cognitions of those objects which are) related to these two aspects, no other independent source of valid knowledge is to be recognized. Nor is there other source in the case of recognition, because (if the other source be admitted to be required in this case), the fallacy of infinitude would be logically concluded, just as in the case of recollected knowledge¹¹).

pratyaksam anumānam ca pramāne laksana-dvayam / prameyam tatra sandhāne na pramānântaram na ca // 2 // punah punar-abhijñāne 'nisthā-āsakteh smṛt'ādi-vat / 3a-b

⁸⁾ In each chapter of this treatise, Dignāga, after elucidating his own theory, refutes the views of Vādavidhi, Naiyāyika, Vaiśeṣika, Sāmkhya and Mīmāmsaka.

^{&#}x27;9) PSVT, llb: vipratipatti=viruddha-pratipatti (hgal bahi rtogs pa ni log par rtogs pa rnams te). Theories maintained by others are contradicting each other in four points of view, i.e., the result (hbras-bu=phala), the nature (ran-gi no-bo=svarūpa), the object (yul=visaya) and the number (grans=samkhyā) of the means of valid knowledge, cp. NBT, p. 35,1: catur-vidhā câtra vipratipattih samkhyā-laksana-gocara-phala-visayā. TSP, p. 366, 14: tatra pramāne svarūpa-phala-gocara-samkhyāsu pareṣām vipratipattis catur-vidhā. Dignāga's theory is quite unique on each of these four points as seen below.

¹⁰⁾ pramān'ādhīno hi prameyâdhigamah. cp. the opening statement of NBh: pramānato'rthapratipattau pravrtti-sāmarthyād arthavat pramānam. In spite of the apparent affinity between Dignāga and the Naiyāyika in respect of the theory that parameya (artha) is apprehended by means of pramāna, both differ totally in the understanding of the nature of pramāna and prameya. While the Naiyayika holds, basing upon the Nyaya realism, that pramana and prameya are independent entities, Dignāga emphasizes their ideated character, cp. below ad. I, 9-10. Nāgārjuna denies the possibility of apprehending prameya by means of pramana on the ground that both, being mutually involved, have no independent substantiality, cp. Vigrahavyāvartaṇī, kk. 31-33, Vaidalyaprakarana, ad. sūtra 1-2, and Candrakirti, who lays stress on the Mādhyamic transcendental viewpoint, does not agree to the Dignaga's proposition 'pramāṇādhino prameyādhigamaḥ', for there is nothing to be apprehended or asserted from his point of view, cp. Prasannapadā, p. 55ff. However, it is recognized by the Mādhyamika too that the transcendental truth does not stand aloof from the empirical world, but reveals itself in the world. Thus the transcendental intuition, admitting that it is essentially inexpressible, must also be transformed into the practical knowledge by virture of which the worldly things are apprehended. That empirical knowledge in which the transcendental truth is revealed can alone be valid and be the criterion in criticizing the illusiveness of merely empirical apprehension. Dignāga's aim of discussing the means of knowledge consists in making clear the structure of this knowledge and its relation to the common knowledge. Accordingly, his discussion does not overstep the boundary of cognitive phenomena, and the transcendental truth is referred to within the scope of its being reflected in empirical knowledge. And the knowledge, whether it be merely empirical or mediated through the transcendental intuition, so far as it is the act of knowing, there must be something to be known by it. In this sense, it can righteously maintained that where there is a fact of knowing, pramāņa and prameya are supposed to be there, although they are not to be regarded as real entities.

¹¹⁾ VPM. p. 140, cp. VA, p. 242, 29:

There are only two sources of valid knowledge¹²⁾, direct knowledge (pratyaksa) and indirect knowledge ($anum\bar{a}na$)¹³⁾; for the object to be known has two aspects. There is no other object to be known than the particular (svalaksana) and the universal

¹²⁾ The number $(samkhy\bar{a})$ of the source of valid knowledge recognized by the different schools of Indian philosophy is as follows: -Cārvāka, one-perception (pratyakṣa); Vaiśeṣika, two-perception and inference (anumāna); Sārhkhya & one school of Nyāya, three-verbal testimony (śabda) besides the said two; orthodox Nyāya, four—comparison (upamāna) together with above three; Prabhākara Mīmāmsā, five-implication (arthāpatti) together with above four; Bhātṭa Mīmāmsā & Vedānta, six—negation (abhāva) together with above five; Paurānika, eight-inclusion (sambhava) and tradition (aitihya) together with above six, cp. Randle, Indian Logic in the Early Schools, p. 305. The doctrine recognizing aitihya, arthāpatti, sambhava and abhāva as independent source of valid knowledge is refuted by the Naiyāyika, cp. NS, II, ii, 1ff, and it is supposed that the Nyāya doctrine of four sources of valid knowledge was most authoritative at the time of Dignaga. Among the Buddhists, the author of the Upayahrdaya, a Hinayanist before Nāgārjuna, recognizes four sources of valid knowledge as agreed by the Naiyāyika, and the elder school of the Yogācāra recognizes three, excluding upamāna, but without mentioning reason, from the abovesaid four. Dignaga maintains that śabda is not a different source of knowledge from anumāna, because the knowledge derived from śabda indicates its own object through the 'exclusion of other objects' (anya-apoha), which is nothing but the function of anumāna, PS, V, k. 1, cited at TSP, ad. k. 1515, p. 441, 6.7: na pramānāntaram śābdam anumānāt tathā hi saḥ (=tat)/ krtakatv'ādi-vat svārtham anyāpohena bhāṣate //, transl. by Stcherbatsky, BL, Vol. I, p. 459, cp. Ihara, Jinna ni okeru Gengo to Sonzai no Mondai, Kyūshū Daigaku Tetsugaku Nenpō, Vol. XIV, p. 114, my paper, Fragments of Pramānasamuccaya, Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, Vol. VII, 1, p. 326. Upamāna, by means of which the similarity of two things is apprehended, is also rejected by Dignaga. If the apprehension of an object by its name, say gavaya, be derived from the words 'gavaya is similar to cow', then it is the same in structure as \hat{sabda} . If the similarity between cow and gavaya be thought to be apprehended by the cognizant himself, then the apprehension is resulted through the operation of the mind (anumāna) which relates two things separately perceived. Hence upamāna also is not an independent source of valid knowledge, cp. PSV, V, 169b, 45: re sig ñe bar hjal ba ni ba lan dan ba min dag hdra bar rtogs pahi don can yin na // de la gṣan las thos nas rtogs na sgra las byun ba yin la / ran ñid kyis yin na ni don gñis tshad ma gsan gyis rtogs na / yid kyis hdra bar rtog par byed pa yin la / de yan tshad ma gşan ma yin te. That pratyakşa and anumāna are only two sources of valid knowledge (pramāṇe dve eva) is thus proved by Dignāga. cp. NM, p. 3b, 10-11: 唯有現量及與比量. 彼声喻等摂 在此中. In respect of the number of pramāna, the Vaisesika is in accord with Dignāga, but it is worth while noticing that the inconsistency of the Vaiseşika doctrine was the incentive which gave rise to the Nyāya theory of four pramīnas, cp. Ui, Indo Tetsugaku Kenkyū, Vol. I, p. 304. The Vaiśeșika includes in the concept of pratyakșa the determinate perception or the perceptual judgement (savikalpaka-pratyaksa in later terminology), the characteristic of which consists in associating name or word with sense-datum, while śābda, which also the apprehension of the object by dint of words, is regarded as anumana. It is to make good for this defect of the Vaiseșika doctrine that the Naiyāyika treats sabda and upamāna as separate sources of valid knowledge from pratyakşa and anumāna. Accordingly, the theory of two sources of valid knowledge elucidated by Dignaga on his consistently critical ground is to be clearly distinguished from that of the Vaiśeşika.

¹³⁾ Dignāga's etymological explanation of pratyakṣa is: akṣam akṣam prati vartata iti pratyakṣam (that kind of knowledge which exists in close connection with each sense faculty is pratyakṣa), cp. NM, p. 3b, 17, cited at TSP, p. 373, 26, DP, p. 38, 26. Candrakirti, who adopts the Vedānta definition—pratyakṣam aparokṣam (that which is not beyond our ken is pratyakṣa)—,

 $(s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nya-lakṣaṇa)$, and we should recognize that direct knowledge takes the particular as its object and indirect knowledge the universal¹⁴).

How then are those cognitions which cognize colour etc. in the form of a judgement 'this is non-eternal' or which cognize one and the same object in

assails the above explanation on the ground that it could also absurdly mean that a knowledge about the sense or a knowledge whose object is the sense is pratyaksa, cp. Prasannapadā, p. 72, Stcherbatsky, The Conception of Buddhist Nirvana, p. 159. Stcherbatsky is erroneous in noting that the citation here is attributed to Prasastapada; whose definition, however, slightly differs from the above: akṣam akṣam pratītyôtpadyata iti pratyakṣam, Praśastapādabhāṣya, Chowkhamba Ed., p. 552, 28. To answer to the Candrakīrti's hypercriticism, the Nyāya etymology—akṣasyâkşasya prati vişayam vrttih pratyakşam, NBh, ad. I, i, 3 may be better. Dharmottara, whose interpretation - pratyakşam ili prati-gatam āśritam akşam. «pratyakşa means that the sense-organ is approached, reposed upon \gg does not differ materially from Dignāga's, makes distinction between the etymology and the real meaning, cp. NBT, ad. I, 3, p. 38, 3.4. Anumāna (anu $+\sqrt{\text{ma}}+\text{ana}$) literally means such knowledge as preceded by some other knowledge. What precedes anumāna is, according to the Naiyāyikas, the preception of a mark and of the universal relation between this mark and the possessor of it, cp. NBh, ad. I, i, 5: linga-linginoh sambandha-darśanam lingadarśanam ca. However, Dignāga interpretes differently the implication of the preffix anu-, which is righteously taken by the Naiyāyika as meaning 'paścāt' (afterwards) or '-pūrvaka' (preceded by », cp. NBh, ad. I, i, 3: mitena lingenârthasya paścan manam anumanam, NS, I, i, 5: tat-pūrvakam trividham anumānam. Dignāga's definition of svārtha-anumāna or anumāna for one's own self is: tshul gsum pahi rtags las rjes su dpag pahi don (V's transl. rjes su dpag par bya bahi don) mthon ba gan yin pa de ni ran gi don gyi rjes su dpag paho «That apprehension of an object which is grounded on the triple-conditioned logical mark (tri-rūpa-linga) is svartha-anumāna), PSV, II, 109a, 2-3, cp. NB, II, 3: tatra svårtham trirūpāl lingād yad anumeye jñānam tad-anumānam. The prefix anu-- is thus replaced by ablative case-ending and is taken as implying logical ground. As the determinate perception is regarded by Dignaga as a kind of anumana, cp. below note 15), pratyakşa and anumāna may adequately be rendered respectively as 'direct knowledge (or awareness)' and 'indirect knowledge (awareness)!

- . 14) According to the Vaiśeşika-Nyāya realism, every individual existence (vyakti), excepting the extreme universal (para-sāmānya) and the extreme individual (antya-višeṣa), is in possession of the universal $(j\bar{a}ti=s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nya, visesa)$. Hence we perceive a thing, at the first moment, in indifferentiated obscurity (nirvikalpaka-pratyaksa), but later on determinately (savikalpakapratyakşa), conjoining differentiated vyakti and jāti (jāti-viśista-vyakti). Dignāga does not assent to this realist view. He makes an essential distinction between svalaksana and sāmānvalakṣaṇa; the former is the particular individuality which can never be generalized or replaced by a concept, and the latter is the universal which, being constructed through the generalizing faculty of our thought, is lacking reality. In correspondence with this essential distinction between two kinds of prameya, the theory of a radical distinction between two sources of knowledge $(pramana \cdot vyavastha)$ is definitely stated here. Evidently this theroy is set up in opposition to the Nyāya view of the coalescence of different sources of knowledge (pramāṇasamplava), i.e., the view that the same object can be cognized by any of four kinds of pramāna, cp. NBh, ad. I, i. 3. Elaborative arguments made by Uddyotakara and Vācaspatimiśra on this point are precisely traced by Stcherbatsky, and we need no further remark, cp. BL, Vol. II, Appendix II, p. 301ff.
- 15) Savikalpaka-pratyakṣa or the determinate perception, which can be formulated in the judgement 'this is red', is recognized by most of the philosophical schools of India as a kind of pratyakṣa. But Dignāga, who is in the opinion that pratyakṣa apprehends only the particular stripped of the universal, is to be asked to explain by which pramāna the determinate perception is caused. See postscript of this paper.

repetition (asakra)? 16)

Certainly there is such cognition as can be expressed in the judgement 'this is non-eternal', but this cognition, being related to the said two aspects of the object, is not another independent source of valid knowledge. In the case of such cognition, one cognizes at first colour etc. from two aspects, i.e., the inexpressible particularity (avyapadesya=svalakṣana) on the one hand and the universal colour-ness (varnatva=sāmānya-lakṣana) on the other, then, relating through the operation of the mind (manas) the universal colourness to the universal 'non-eternity', forms the judgement 'colour etc. are non-eternal'. Hence (such cognition) is not other source of valid knowledge (than indirect knowledge).

Nor is there an independent source of valid knowledge in the case of recognition (pratyabhijnā). (Indeed) one and the same object can be cognized in repetition, but this recognition also is not other independent source of valid knowledge. Why? Because, (if it be regarded as an independent source of knowledge,) then the fallacy of infinitude (anisthā) would be logically concluded. In case, indeed, all kinds of cognition be deemed to be valid knowledge, there would be infinite number of the source of valid knowledge, and, as for instance, a recollected knowledge (which is commonly accepted as non-valid would also be regarded as valid). The term 'recollected knowledge' (smṛta) in the verse stands for recollection (smṛti). Such mental faculties as recollection, desire (icchā), anger (dveṣa) and the like, operating on the object once cognized before, are not independent source of valid knowledge:

likewise (the recognition also should not be deemed to be an indpendent source of valid knowledge).

¹⁶⁾ Recognition (pratyabhijñā) is generally thought to be of the same kind as recollection (smrti), both being produced by dint of the impression (samskāra) of previous cognition. What distinguishes it from recollection is the direct awareness of the object, which operate along with the impression. We are not acquainted with any particular school reckoning recognition as an independent source of knowledge, but Sāstradīpikā, Chowkhamba Ed., p. 115, 1st indicates that there are some (probably Vedāntins) who hold that recognition is a separate means of apprehending an object from other five kinds of thought-construction.

¹⁷⁾ Refutation of sogikalpaka-pratyaksa as an independent source of valid knowledge.

¹⁸⁾ Refutation of recognition as an independent source of valid knowledge.

¹⁹⁾ The Mimāsā definition of pramāṇa—anadhigata-artha-gantr pramāṇam (the function of the source of knowledge consists in cognizing an object which is not yet cognized)—is accepted by the Buddhist, cp. NBT, p. 19, 2: ata eva cânadhigata-viṣayam pramāṇam. Vācaspatimiśra pleaded against this definition on the ground that it cannot include the case of an object which has stability being cognized by a series of perception (dhāravāhika-vijnāna), cp. NVTT, p. 21, 6-8. This criticism may be taken as being directed to the Mīmāmsakas, because, according to the Buddhists, there is no such object that has stability and duration.

§ 3. DEFINITION OF DIRECT KNOWLEDGE

V. 3cd: Direct knowledge is free from thought-construction. (Thought-construction) implies to associate name, genus etc. (with the object immediately perceived)²⁰⁾.

There, (i. e., among two kinds of valid knowledge,) direct knowledge is free from thought-construction $(kalpan\bar{a}-apodha)^{21}$. The knowledge wherein there is no sign of thought-construction is direct knowledge. What, then, is this thought-construction? It implies to associate name $(n\bar{a}ma)$, genus $(j\bar{a}ti)$ etc. (, which are considered to be the efficient cause of the verbal designation (sabda-pravrtti-nimitta), with the thing immediately perceived). In the case of spontaneous words $(yadrcch\bar{a}-sabda)$, proper

²⁰⁾ pratyakşam kalpanāpoḍham, nāma-jāty-ādi-yojanā / 3c-d cp. NV, p. 41, 19ff: apare tu manyante pratyakşam kalpanāpoḍham iti. (NVTT, p. 153, 20: samprati Dignā'sya lakṣaṇam upanyasyati, apare iti.) atha keyam kalpanā? nāmajātyādiyojānêti. TSP, ad. k. 1221, p. 368, 23: katham lakṣaṇa-kārenôktam nāmajātyādiyojanā kalpanêti.

²¹⁾ This definition of pratyakṣa which, we find, is almost Aiscussed in every Sanskrit work on epistemology and logic is framed on the basis of the essential distinction between svalakṣana and sāmānya-lakṣana, cp. above note 14). Notwithstanding its simplicity, it is supposed to be so exhaustive that any other qualifier is possible to be added without yielding to a superfluity, cp. note 35). It is perhaps under the influence of this definition that Vācaspati interpreted the word avyapadeśya in the definition of pratyakṣa in NS, I, i, 4 as referring to nirvikalpaka-pratyakṣa and the word vyavasāya-ātmaka as indicating savikapaka-pratyakṣa.

²²⁾ TSP, ad. k. 1224, p. 369, 22ff, NVTT, p. 153, 23ff. Dignāga is in affinity with the Grammarian in holding that the thought-construction is inseparable from the verbal expression, and, in this respect, differs in opinion from Vātsyāyana. cp. Randle, Indian Logic in the Early Schools, pp. 119-120. Sāntarakṣita and Kamalaśīla lay stress on the expression «ucyate» '(a thing \cdots) is expressed in word' in these passages, and consider it to be the evidence of Dignāga's understanding of kalpanā as being inseparably related with word (nāma=śabda), and not with genus etc. (jāty-ādi), cp. TS & TSP, 1233. According to their interpretation, 'nāma' in Dignāga's definition of kalpanā as 'nāma-jāty-ādi-yojanā' should be essentially distinguished from 'jāty-ādi'. Jāti etc. being not recognized by Dignāga as real entities, jāty-ādi-yojanā is a heretical theory to be discarded; Dignāga's own interpretation of kalpanā is nāma-yojanā, cp. ibid., 1219-1221. Or, even when the existence of $j\bar{a}ti$ etc. be provisionally admitted, it must be noticed that these are related to a thing only through the medium of nāma, cp. ibid., 1224-1225. After elaborating these arguments, they conclude that the coalescence with word $(n\bar{a}ma)$ is the characteristic feature of Dignāga's definition of kalpanā. These arguments, admitting that they are not off the point in conclusion, seems to be not faithful to the original thought of the passages here, because it is evident that yadrcchā-śabda is meant by the term 'nāma': yadrcchā-śabdeṣu nāmnā visisto'rtha ucyate 'dittha' iti. Classification of śabda into five categories is perhaps taken from the Grammarians, cp. Mahābhāṣya ad. Sivasūtra 2, Vārt., 1: catusṭayī śabdānām pravṛttiḥ, jāti-śabdāḥ, guṇa-śabdāḥ, kriyā-śabdāḥ, yadṛcchā-śabdāś ca caturthāḥ. As regards dravya-sabda, the origin is obscure, but Prasastapada also adopts this category, cp. Randle, op. cit., p. 107ff. Dharmakirti is more prudent than Dignāga in defining kalpanā as 'a distinct cognition of mental reflex which is capable of coalescing with a verbal designation' in order to include the thought-construction of infant and dumb person who have the potentiality of verbal designation but do not utter an actual word, cp. NB, 1, 5: abhilāpa-samsarga-yogyapratibhāsa pratītih kalpanā.

noun), a thing qualified by (or associated with) a name (as an efficient cause of verbal expression, e.g., <code>Dittha-tva</code>)²³⁾ is expressed in the word '<code>Dittha</code>'. In the case of genus-words (<code>jāti-sabda</code>, common noun), a thing qualified by a genus (e.g., <code>go-tva</code> <code><cow-ness</code>) is expressed in the word '<code>go</code>' <code><cow</code>). In the case of quality-words (<code>guṇa-sabda</code>, adjective), a thing qualified by a quality (e.g., <code>sukla-tva</code> <code><white-ness</code>) is expressed in the word '<code>sukla</code>' <code><white</code>). In the case of action-words (<code>kriyā-sabda</code>, verbal noun), a thing qualified by an action (e.g., <code>pācaka-tva</code> <code><cook-ness</code>) is expressed in the word '<code>pācaka</code>' <code><a cook</code>). In the case of substance-words (<code>dravya-sabda</code>), a thing qualified by a substance (e.g., <code>dandi-tva</code> <code><stick-holder-ness</code>) or <code>viṣāṇi-tva</code> <code><hormed-ness</code>) is expressed in the word '<code>dandin</code>' <code><a stick-holder</code>) or '<code>viṣāṇin</code>' <code><the-ness</code> (The characteristic feature of the thought-construction thus consists in the verbal designation of a thing through the association of name, genus etc. with it).

Here, (with regard to the last two cases of the above-mentioned five,) some (are in the different opinion that the efficient cause of verbal expression is nothing but the relation between an action or a substance and its possessor, and) maintain that (a thing) qualified by this relation (is expressed in the words ' $p\bar{a}caka$ ', 'dandin' and so on)²⁴).

On the other hand, some others hold that a thing qualified by the word which essentially can denote no real entity $(artha-s\bar{u}nya)$ is expressed (in all five cases mentioned above)²⁵⁾.

²³⁾ cp. Bālamanoramā ad. Siddhāntakaumdī, 1781=MBh, V, i, 119: (\langle tva\rangle \rangle tal\rangle -pratyaya yata utpatsyete, tasmāt prakṛti-bhūta-) sabdād vyakti-bodhe jāyamāne yaj jāty-ādikam viseṣaṇatayā bhāsate (tad vyakti-viseṣaṇam 'bhāva'-sabdena vivakṣitam \cdots) yathā go-sabdād dhi vyakti-bodhe jāyamāne go-tvam viseṣaṇatvena bhāsate. Dittha-tva is a generalization of an innumerable number of individual Dittha existing instantenously in each moment from his birth to his death, cp. TSP, ad. 1226.

²⁴⁾ PSVT, 18b, 5ff can be summarized as follows: 1) The bhāva-pratyaya sufixed to samāsa, krt and taddhita implies the relation of action and that which is in case-relation with it (kriyā-kāraka-sambandha, e.g., pācakatvam···relation between kriyā and kartr, pacyamānatvam···relation between kriyā and karma), the relation of possession and possesor (sva-svāmi-sambandha) etc. 2) The bhāva-pratyaya suffixed to any word is the efficient cause of that word being applied to a certain thing, cp. MBh, V, i, 119. 3) pācaka=pac+(nvul)(-aka) is krt, and dandin=danda+(ini)(-in) is taddhita. 4) Therefore, the bhāva-pratyaya (-tva) of 'pācakatva', 'danditva' etc. stands for the above-said relation and at the same time is deemed to be the efficient cause of verbal expression. (The present writer wishes to express thanks to Mr. Y. Ojihara, Asst. Prof. of Sanskrit, Kyoto Univ. for his rendering the writer much help for the understanding of this grammatical discussion.)

²⁵⁾ The Naiyāyikas and other realists are in the opinion that genus, quality etc., which are considered to be the efficient cause of verbal designation in the above passages, are *padârthas* or real entities, but according to Dignāga, they are mere products of the thought-construction and denote no real existence, cp. above note 14); what is denoted by genus-word 'cow' is not the universal which is supposed to be the common possession of every individual cow but 'the

Anyway, that which is devoid of the thought-construction thus characterised is direct knowledge.

For what reason, then, the direct knowledge is called 'praty-akṣa' (lit. being direct to sense-organ) and not 'prati-viṣaya' (lit. being direct to object), despite the fact that it is caused in dependence upon both the sense-organ and the object?

V. 4ab: It is signified by the sense-organ, for the sense-organ is the specific cause of it^{26} .

It is not signified by the object, such as colour and the like. The reason is that the object is a factor common ($s\bar{a}dh\bar{a}rana$) to other kinds of knowledge because of its being a cause of the mind ($mano\text{-}vij\bar{n}\bar{a}na$) or of the knowledge of other persons ($anya\text{-}samt\bar{a}na$) too. And it is generally known that (a thing or a fact) is designated by the name of its specific component ($as\bar{a}dh\bar{a}rana$), as for instance, we use verbal expressions 'the sound of a drum' or 'the sprout of berley' to indicate a certain sound or a sprout, instead of naming it 'the sound of hand' or 'the sprout of earth', although the hand or the earth is also a cause in each case²⁷).

That direct knowledge is free from thought-construction is established (thus on the ground that it is direct to the sense-organ).

It is stated in an Abhidharma treatise too that "one whose visual sense is normal perceives blue $(n\bar{\imath}lam\ vij\bar{a}n\bar{a}ti)$ but does not apprehend that 'this is blue' $(n\bar{\imath}lam\ iti\ vij\bar{a}n\bar{a}ti)$. Facing to an object, he perceives the object in itself $(artha-samjn\bar{a})$ but does not form an idea $(dharma-samjn\bar{a})$ of it" 28).

§ 4. VARIETIES OF DIRECT KNOWLEDGE

If direct knowledge be absolutely devoid of thought-construction, then whence is this (stated in the Abhidharma treatise):—"Five kinds of perceptive function take

exclusion of non-cow' (anya-apoha, -vyāvṛtti). It is with the mind to make his own interpretation of genus etc. explicit that Dignāga interpolated this sentence here. 'Some others' (anye), accordingly, are the Buddhists, cp. TSP, ad. k. 1229, p. 371, PSVT, 19a, 1.

²⁶⁾ VPM , p. 177 : asādhāraņa-hetutvād akṣais tad vyapadišyate /4a-b.

²⁷⁾ cp. Abhidharmakośa, Taisho, XXIX, p. 12b, 18-c, 2: 何因識起俱託二縁得所依名在根非境…… 彼及不共因 故随根説識(ato'sādhāranatvāc ca tair eva nirdiśyate)……及不共者 謂眼唯自眼識所依,色亦通為他身眼識(anya-cakṣur-vijāānasyāpi)及通自他意識所取……識得名随根非境. 如名鼓声及麦芽等(yathā bherī-śabdo yavâṅkuraḥ). Sanskṛt is quoted from AKV, p. 87, 13ff. Candrakīrti refers to this discussion after criticizing Dignāga's etymological expalanation of pratyakṣa, cp. Prasannapadā, p. 72.

²⁸⁾ cp. Prasannapadā, p. 74. This quotation, says Stcherbatsky, could prove that Dignāga's theory of pratyakṣa is foreshadowed in previous Sautrāntika works, cp. The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāna, p. 162, note 3.

the congregation (of atoms) as their respective object"? 29) (The object of the sense being a single atom (paramânu), the congregation (samcita) should be apprehended by means of the thought-construction which unites together the perception of each constituent atom. It seems, therefore, to be incongruous to hold that the direct knowledge is free from thought-construction and yet it cognizes the congregation of atoms.) Again it is mentioned (in the Abhidharmakosa) that "these (mental functions) make the particular their respective object, so far as it is the particularity of outer seats (āyatana-svalakṣana) and not of substance (=atom, dravya-svalakṣana)" 30). How is this statement to be understood?

V. 4cd: There (in the Abhidharmakosa), (the perception,) being caused by (the sense-organ through its contact with) many objects (=congregation of many atoms), makes the whole (sāmānya) its object when cognizing its own object³¹⁾.

Since it (=perception) is caused by the sense-organ through its contact with (congregated) many substances (=atoms), it is said to take the undivided whole (=the congregation itself) as its object on cognizing its own (outer) seats³²⁾. It, however, does not apprehend the whole through the thought-construction which, after perceiving split substances (=atoms), unites them together. (Therefore, there is no incongruity with the statement of the Abhidharma in asserting that the direct knowledge is free from thought-construction.)

However, (the author does not completely agree the above Abhidharma statement in respect of the object of the sense. The author's own view) is stated as follows:-33)

²⁹⁾ VPM, p. 176: samcitālambanāh pañca vijñānakāyāh. A similar passage is found in Abhidharmakośa, p. 12a, 26-28: 伝説……五識決定積集多微方成所依所縁性故 (samcitāśrayālambanatvāt, AKV, p. 86, 9-10), and this is attributed to the Vaibhāṣika. According to Vimśatikā, k. 11 & Com., Ālambanaparīkṣā, kk. 1-5 & Com. and Trimśikābhāṣya, ad. k. 1, realists are divided into three groups in view of their theory concerning the object of cognition (ālambana). The first group maintains that the object of cognition is an individual atom (paramânu), the second the congregation or the gathering of many atoms (samcita) and the third the union of atoms (samghāta). It is obvious that the theory here referred to is that of the second group, which is reported by Kuei-chi 窺基 to be the Vaibhāṣika, cp. Yamaguchi, Seshin Yuishiki no Genten Kaimei, p. 78, note 2. Vimśatikātikā of Vinitadeva quotes exactly the same sentence explaining the theory of the second group.

³⁰⁾ Abhidharmakośa, p. 3a, 9-11: 約処自相許五識身取自相境, 非事自相 (āyatana-svalakṣaṇam praty ete svalakṣaṇa-viṣayā na dravya-svalakṣaṇam prati, cp. AKV p. 28, 10-16). Cp. VPM, p. 176.

³¹⁾ *VPM*, p. 176, *VA*, p. 279, 10:

tatrânekârtha-janyatvāt svârthe sāmānya-g**ā**caram // 4c-d //

³²⁾ $\bar{a}yatana = b\bar{a}hya - \bar{a}yatana$; form, sound etc. When the perception operates, what is perceived is a form in its wholeness ($\bar{a}yatana$ -svalaksana), and is not the individual atom (dravya-svalaksana) which is the constituent of the form.

³³⁾ PSVT, 22b, 2=33: Rejecting a divergent view in regard to the object to be cognized (spyod-yul las log par rtogs pa=gocara-vipratipatti), the author states definitely the impossibility of the object being conceptually cognized (rnam par rtog pa med pa $\tilde{n}id=avikalpatva$).

V. 5: The substance constituted by many elements (=the congregation of atoms) can never be cognized by the sense-organ. What is perceptible by the sense-organ is the self-cognizable, inexpressible form³⁴).

Anyhow, (it is established) in this way that direct knowledge which is caused by five kinds of sense-organ is devoid of thought-construction. According to the doctrine maintained by others, some other qualifications (of direct knowledge) are to be added here35). However, 'being free from thought-construction' is enough (to define direct knowledge).

V. 6ab: The mind, so far as it perceives object or it perceives internally desire etc., is also free from thought-construction³⁶).

The mind (manas), which, (though) leaning upon the object such as form and the like, operates in the form of an immediate awareness, is also free from thoughtconstruction³⁷). Desire, anger, ignorance, pleasure, pain etc. (which are functions of

mānasam cârtha-rāgādi-svasamvittir akalpikā / 6a-b

According to Jinendrabuddhi, the compound artha-rāgādi-sva-samvitti should be interpreted as implying artha samvitti and rāgādi sva-samvitti, PSVT, 24b, 4: don gyi sgra hdi ni ses byahi rnam grans so // hdod chags la sogs pa rnams kyi ran ni / chags la sogs / ran no //

37) NBT, ad. I, 9 attempts to make clear the structure of mental sensation (mānasapratyaksa). cp. BL, Vol. II, p. 311 ff.

³⁴⁾ VA, p. 298, 1 (VPM, p. 189): dharmiņo 'neka-rūpasya nêndriyāt sarvathā gatiḥ / svasamvedyam anirdeśyam rūpam indriya-gocarah // 5 //

cp. NM, p. 3b, 18-19: 有法非一相 根非一切行 唯内証離言 是色根境界.

³⁵⁾ NS, I, i, 4 defines pratyaksa as that knowledge which is produced by the contact of sanse-organ with object, and which is inexpressible, non-erroneous and determinate (indriyârthasamnikarşôtpannam jñānam avyapadeśyam avyabhicāri vyavasāyātmakam pratyakşam). Dignāga attacks this definition saying that the cognition caused by the sense-object contact is incapable of 'being expressible', 'being erroneous' or 'being determinate', PS, I, k. 19a-b. cited at VA, p. 338, 17, cp. my paper, Fragments of Pramānasamuccaya, p. 330. The qualification 'being inexpressible' is superfluous, because the expressible is cognized only by inference and can never be perceived through sense-organ. The error being attributed to the mind (manas) which is not sense-organ, the qualification 'non-erroneous' is also unnecessary. The nature of determination consisting in connecting the sense-datum with the universal which cannot be cognized by the sense, the third qualification does not hold good, cp. PSV, ad. I, 19, 97b, 8-98a, 8, cp. Kitagawa, Shōri-gakuha no Genryō-setsu ni taisuru Jinna no Hihan, Nagoya Daigaku Bungaku-bu Kenkyū Ronshū, Tetsugaku, XXI, pp. 58-63. The second qualification is adopted also by the elder school of the Yogācāra, cp. Yogācārabhūmi, Taisho, XXX, 357a, 15-16: 現量 (pratyakṣa) 者.謂有三種.一非不現見(aparokṣa).二非己思応思(parikalpita-parikalpya-abhāva).三非錯乱境界 (abhrānta). Dharmakīrti adds again this qualification to the Dignānga's definition, cp. NB, I, 4: tatra pratyakṣam kalpanāpodham abhrāntam, and the meaning of this addition is variously interpreted by his commentators, cp. my paper, Bukkyō-ronri-gakuha no Genryō-setsu ni kansuru Ichikōsatsu, Indo-gaku Bukkyō-gaku Kenkyū, Vol. II, 1, pp. 123-124. Perhaps Dharmakīrti's adoption of this qualification is meant for answering to the objection againt Dignaga that the cause of the erroneous cognition is not always the operation of the mind but the defect of sense-organ also is to be taken into account, cp. TS & TSP, 1313, 1314.

³⁶⁾ VPM, p. 191, VA, p. 303:

the mind) are also direct knowledge in the sense of internal perception, because those have nothing to do with sense-organ.

Likewise:-

V. 6cd: The intuition of the object itself which is exercised by yogins without relying upon the teacher's instruction (is also a direct knowledge, being free from thought-construction)³⁸).

The intuitive perception of *yogins* which is not mingled with thought-construction pertaining to the reliable words of the teachers and which relates to a bare object is also a direct knowledge.

(One may assert) that the idea (kalpanā-jñāna) also would be deemed to be a direct knowledge, (in case this is defined simply as being free from thought-construction). This is right.

V. 7ab: The idea also is regarded (as a direct knowledge) in the case of self-cognition. However, when the idea is formed with regard to an object, it is not a direct knowledge, because of thought-construction being there³⁹.

The idea is not a direct knowledge similar to desire etc. in so far as it is formed with regard to an object, but in the case of self-cognition the idea is not non-direct⁴⁰. Hence there is no harm in defining direct knowledge as being free from thought-construction.

Such is indeed direct knowledge.

§ 5. APPARENT DIRECT KNOWLEDGE

V. 7cd-8ab: Illusion, cognition of empirical reality, inference, its result, recollection and affection are apparent direct knowledge and are accompanied by obscurity (sa-taimira)⁴¹).

³⁸⁾ VPM , p. 191 : yoginām guru-nirdešāvyatibhinnārtha-mātra-dṛk // 6c-d //

³⁹⁾ VA, p. 331, VPM, p. 204: kalpanāpi svasamvittāv istā nārthe vikalpanāt / 7a-b

⁴⁰⁾ cp. below ad. I, 9-10.

⁴¹⁾ VA, p. 332, 20, TSP, ad. k. 1324:

bhrānti-samvṛtisaj-jñānam anumānânumānikam // 7c-d //

smārtâbhilāṣikam cêti pratyakṣābhāsam sataimiram / 8a-b

PSVT, 27b, 2π says that four sorts of apparent direct knowledge are enumerated here, namely (1) illusion ($bhr\bar{a}nti$), (2) cognition of empirical reality ($samvrti \cdot saj \cdot j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$), (3) inference ($anum\bar{a}na$), its result ($anum\bar{a}nika$), recollection ($sm\bar{a}rta$) and affection ($abhil\bar{a}sika$) and (4) $sa \cdot taimira$. $Sa \cdot taimira$ is, according to ibid., 28b, 2, an obscure knowledge caused by the defect of the sense-organ ($dba\bar{n}\cdot po$ la $\bar{n}e \cdot bar$ $gnod \cdot pa \cdot las$ $skyes \cdot pa = indriya \cdot upagh\bar{a}ta \cdot ja$), such as timira (eye-disease) and the like. This interpretation seems not to be faithful to the original thought expressed in this verse. The last word 'sataimiram' is to be regarded as being in apposition

(95b, 3)

Among these, illusive cognition, being caused through the conceptual understanding which takes, for instance, vapour floating over sands as real water, is an apparent direct-knowledge. Cognition of empirical reality, functioning as a conceptual apprehension which, superimposing an extraneous element (e.g., name) upon a thing itself, takes the latter as having the form of the former, is an apparent direct-knowledge. Inference and cognition resulted by it etc., comprehending conceptually what has been immediately perceived before, are not direct knowledge.

§ 6. IDENTITY OF RESULT AND PROCESS OF COGNITION

(95b, 5) Here also, (according to our opinion),

V. 8cd: Resulted content of the cognition being supposed to possess the act of cognizing, it is simultaneously the result and the process of cognition⁴².

We do not admit here, as the realists do, that the result of cognition differs from the cognitive process⁴³⁾. That cognition which has been resulted (is indeed to be regarded as the result of cognitive process in so far as it is the apprehension of the object, but from another point of view, it) is known as possessing with it the act of cognizing ($sa\text{-}vy\bar{a}p\bar{a}ra$), because it arises in conformity with the form of the cognized object. In this latter sense, it is metaphorically called the cognitive process, i. e., the

with the preceding word 'pratyakṣābhāsam'; otherwise 'ca' is necessary to be added after 'sataimiram'. Our opinion is supported by the fact that Dignāga explains in his own commentary on this verse three sorts of apparent direct knowledge only and not the forth. It is obvious that PSVT modified the original thought of this verse basing upon the theory of Dharmakīrti, who, thinking it to be necessary to remove the erroneous cognition due to the defect of senseorgan from pratyakṣa, adopted the qualification 'abhrānta' in his definition of pratyakṣa, cp. above note 35), Hasuba, Jinendrabuddhi ni yoru Jigenryō Kaishaku ni tsuite, Yamaguchi Hakushi Kanreki Kinen Indo-gaku Bukkyō-gaku Ronsō, p. 205ff.

⁴²⁾ VA, p. 349, 5, VPM, p. 221, Nyāyamañjarī, Kāshī Skt. Ser., p. 66, 20: sa-vyāpāra-pratītatvāt pramānam phalam eva sat // 8c-d //

⁴³⁾ It is generally admitted by the Naiyāyikas that the operation or the process of cognition (pramāṇa) is distinguished from the resulted content (pramīti=pramāṇa·phala), cp. NBh, ad. I, i, 3. Dignāga, when criticizing the Nyāya definition of pratyakṣa, takes up this problem for discussion. If it be held, he says, that the determinate cognition is pramāṇa in accordance with the Nyāya definition, then it would be unnecessry that the result differing from it should be produced, because the cognition is already determined. If again, he continues, it be assumed that pratyakṣa-pramāṇa is the perception of the universal (sāmānya) which is the qualifying adjunct of the individual, and that pramāṇa-phala is the cognition of the individual qualified by the universal, then this assumption would lead us to the absurd conclusion that the object cognized in the process of perception differs from that actually cognized as the result of that process: this Nyāya doctrine is as ridicurous as the statement that the axe struck at the khadiratee cuts in the result the palāśa-tree, PSV, ad. I, 22, 99a, 2ff, cp. Kitagawa, op. cit., pp. 13-14, TSP, ad. 1345, p. 399.

means of knowledge⁴⁴⁾. (We conclude thus that the result and the process of cognition are not different each other.) In case, however, the resulted cognition be debarred of activity, it cannot be called the process. As for instance, when the effect produced (e.g., the corn) agrees in kind with its cause (=the seed), they say that it has 'taken' the shape of its cause, but it does not agree with the common notion to say that this expression is made even when the effect is devoid of activity. Similar is the case with the discussion here. (That is to say, when the resulted content of the cognition possesses the act of cognizing, it is rightly supposed to take the form of the object.)

§ 7. SELF-COGNITION

V. 9: It can also be maintained here that the self-cognition is the result of cognitive process, because its nature consists in determining the object. And the mental image bearing a resemblance to the object is the means of knowledge, through which the object is cognized⁴⁵.

(95b, 7)

It can also be maintained here (in examining direct knowledge) that the self-cognition (*svasamvitti*) is the result (of cognitive process). When the cognition is caused, it has two sides, appearance of the subject (*sva-ābhāsa*) and appearance of the object (*visaya-ābhāsa*)⁴⁶. The self-cognition (which takes place) between these

⁴⁴⁾ Kumārila raises objection against Dignāga's this theory assented to by Dharmakırti and his successors. He cites the same instance of cutting a tree by an axe as cited by Dignāga in his criticism of the Nyāya theory, cp. above note 43), but for different purpose. The axe, the instrument of cutting is distinct from the cut, the result,—this distinction is as generally recognized as the fact that the axe struck at the khadira-tree does not cut the palāśa-tree in Likewise, Kumārila concludes, the distinction between the instrument of cognition (pramāṇa=pramā-karaṇa) and the cognition resulted through it (pramīti=pramāṇa-phala) must not be neglected, cp. Ślokavārttika, IV, 75, TS & TSP, 1345. The Buddhist answer to this objection is as follows: —The mere invariable concomitance (avinābhāva) between the instrument of cognition and the object to be cognized does not provide sufficient ground for considering that instrument to be pramana. Through the instrument may the cognition of the object be produced, but it is not the actual act of cognizing. Moreover, absolutely speaking, all things being instantenous, the relation of producer and produced (utpadya-utpādaka-bhāva) cannot be established between the instrument and the result. The relation between pramāṇa and prameya must, therefore, be that of what determines and what is determined (vyavasthāpya-vyavasthāpakabhāva), and what determines the object is the very act of cognizing, i. e., the appearance of the object in the mental reflex, cp. TSP, ad. k. 1346, NB & NBT, I, 18-19.

⁴⁵⁾ VPM, p. 215, 221, (cp. VA, p. 349, 7, p. 393, 28):

svasamvittih phalam vā'tra tad-rūpo hy artha-niścayah /
viṣay'ākārataivâsya pramāṇam tena mīyate //

⁴⁶⁾ The theory that ālayavijāāna or store consciousness appears or manifests itself (ābhāti, pratibhāti, avabhāti, khyāti) as both the apparent subject (sva-ābhāsa=grāhaka) and the apparent object (artha-ābhāsa=grāhya) is met everywhere in Vijāānavāda treatises, and we need no explanation of it here. It is evident from the context of this passage that Dignāga established

two sides is the resulted content of the act of cognizing. Why? Because the nature of this self-cognition consists in determining the object (artha-niscaya)⁴⁷). When the idea, in which the form of the external object is represented, is taken as the object of cognition, the self-cognition which is corresponding to that idea determines the object either as something desirable or undesirable. But when the mere external thing is thought to be the object of cognition, then the appearance of the object in the mental reflex of the cognizant is the means of cognizing this object. Although the cognition should be self-cognizable in this case too, the appearance of the subject (in the mental state of the cognizant) is disregarded, and to the mental reflex resembling to the object is attributed the role of the means of cognizing this object, for the object is cognized through that mental reflex. Whatsoever be the reflex of the object which has appeared in the cognition, whether it be the reflex of something white or non-white or of any other colour, this mental reflex which possesses the object within itself has the function of determining the object.

Thus, in accordance with the variety of (the nature of) cognition, the role of the cognizing agency or of the object to be cognized is hypothetically attributed (*upacaryate*) to respective factor in each case, because (absolutely speaking,) all elements of existence, (being instantenous,) are devoid of any efficiency⁴⁸) (and, in consequence, there is no element which is to be defined invariably as the cognizing agency or as the object to be cognized).

The same content is stated (in the following verse).

V. 10: That which appears in the image (in comformity with the form of the external thing) is the object of cognition, and the cognizing agency and the resulted content of cognition are respectively the apparent cognizant, (i. e., the

his theory of knowledge on the ground of the Vijnānavāda philosophy, although he does not use the term 'ālayavijnāna'. The theory of self-cognition (svasamvit) which marks the specific feature of his theory of direct knowledge is understandable only on the basis of the Vijnānavāda doctrine. It deserves to be noticed that the verse 10 following the arguments here is cited in Dharmapāla's commentary on Vijnāptimātratāsiddhi as an evidence of Dignāga's theory of the triple division of vijnāna (grāhya-ākāra, grāhaka-ākāra, svasamvit), which is criticized from the viewpoint of the Dharmapāla's fourfold division theory (証目証分 sva-svasamvit? besides the above three), cp. Cheng-wei-shih-lun, Taisho, XXXI, p. 10b, 13-16: 如集量論伽他中說. 似境相所量 能取相自証 即能量及果 此三体無別,de la Vallée Poussin Vijnāptimātratāsiddhi, La Siddhi de Hiuantsang, traduite et annotée, Tome 1, p. 139.

⁴⁷⁾ Niścaya is synonimous with vikalpa, kalpanā, adhyavasāya etc., meaning thought-construction, cp. BL, II, Indices. Here, this term is used in different sense as is explained in the passages that follow.

⁴⁸⁾ cp. TSP, ad. k. 1346, p. 399, 12-13: yasmān na pāramārthikah kartr-karan'ādi-bhāvo 'sti, kṣaṇikatvena nirvyāpāratvāt sarva-dharmānām, ibid., ad. 1222, p. 369, 11-12: naiva tu kaścit kamcid yojayati, nirvyāpāratvāt sarva-dharmānām, see above not 44).

appearance of the subject) and the self-cognition (procuced through the relation between apparent object and apparent subject, which actually are two sides of the same cognition). Therefore, these three factors of cognition are not different each other⁴⁹.

§ 8. TWO KINDS OF COGNITION AND SELF-COGNITION

(96a, 5) How, then, is it recognized that cognition is of two kinds?

V. 11ab: Cognition is of two kinds, because of the constitutional difference between the cognition of the object and the cognition of that (cognition)⁵⁰⁾.

That cognition by virture of which the (external) object such as form and the like is cognized consists of (two sides, i.e.,) the image of the object and the apparent subject. But that cognition which introspects the above said cognition of the external object consists of the idea, which reflects the external object, and the corresponding apparent subject⁵¹⁾.

Otherwise, if the (first) cognition is in conformity with the (external) object only (and is lacking subjective side), or if it consists of the apparent subject only (and is devoid of the objective side), then the cognition of that (first) cognition would be of the same nature as (the first one, i.e.,) the cognition of the external object.

Further, (if the difference between these two kinds of cognition be not admitted,) then there would be no possibility of subsequent cognitions appearing in conformity with the (form of) the past, remote object. Why? Because the past object, (being not there at the time of subsequent congnitions)⁵²⁾, cannot be their object. Hence, (there must be the cognition which is other in constitution than the cognition of the external thing and by virture of which the form of the past, remote thing is cognized. That kind of cognition is none other than the cognition which cognized the previous cognition possessed of the image of external thing. Thus) it is proved that the cognition is of two kinds.

⁴⁹⁾ VPM, p. 221, 229, Nyāyamañjarī, p. 67, 30-31:
yad ābhāsam prameyam tat pramāna-phalate punah /
grāhak'ākāra-svasamvitlī trayam nātah pṛthak-kṛtam // 10
cp. above note 46).

⁵⁰⁾ VPM, p. 232, 244, VA, p. 425, 12: vişaya-jñāna-taj-jñānâvišeşāt tu dvi-rūpatā / 11a-b

⁵¹⁾ Cp. note 46).

⁵²⁾ As all things are momentary, the object of the previous cognition does not continue to exist till the subsequent cognition arises. There is, accordingly, no possiblility of the same object being cognized by a series of perception, cp. note 48).

V. 11cd: (That there are two kinds of cognition is evident) also from (the fact that we have) recollection afterwards. The recollection (of something) does not occur to the mind without having experienced (it before)⁵³⁾.

The words 'also from the fact that we have recollection afterwards' in the verse relate to the above-stated words 'cognition is of two kinds' (in the stanza c). Some time after we perceived something, the recollection of our cognition (that we have perceived it) occurs to our mind together with the recollection of the object. Therefore, the cognition is of two kinds, (i.e., the cognition of the external object and that of the cognition or of the idea,) and in consequence it should be maintained that it is self-cognizable. Why (is this maintained)? Because, the recollection (of something) does not occur to the mind without having experienced it before. If a thing has not been perceived before, we have no recollection of it; as for instance, the recollection of the colour and like (occurs to our mind only when we have perceived it before. Likewise, the recollection of a previous cognition is possible on the assumption that the cognition was self-cognized before.)

V. 12: If it be maintained that the recollected cognition is the apprehension of previous cognition by means of another cognition, then an infinite sequence would badly be resulted. Because, with regard to it (=second cognition) again will there be a recollection.

Further, if it be so, the cognition of one object would not transit to that of another object. But, (in fact,) the transition of the cognition is commonly noticed⁵⁴.

Some may hold this:—As colour and the like (are perceived by means of the other factor than themselves, i.e., by sense-organs), the cognition also is apprehended by means of another cognition. This is not right. Because, if the recollected cognition be assumed to be the apprehension (of the previous cognition) by means of another cognition, then the absurdity of infinite sequence ($anisth\bar{a}$), i.e., the endless series ($anavasth\bar{a}$) of cognition would be logically concluded⁵⁵). (In order to be consistent, we have to admit that) this second cognition will also be apprehended by another

⁵³⁾ VA, p. 425, 5:
smṛter uttarakālam ca na hy asāv avibhāvite // 11c-d //

⁵⁴⁾ Slokavārttikavyākhyā, sūnyavāda-sthānam, ad. k. 27, Ed. Ramanatha Śāstri, p. 247, 23-34: jñānântarânubhave'nisṭhā, tatrâpi hi smṛtiḥ/viṣayântara-sañcāras tathā na syāt sa cêṣyate//12//

⁵⁵⁾ The Naiyāyikas, who hold that a cognition must be proved by another cognition, cannot avoid to face this difficulty of infinite sequence, cp. NBh, II, i, 17-19. It is to overcome this difficulty that the later Naiyāyikas establish the theory of anuvyavasāya or self-consciousness.

cognition. Why? Because, with regard to that (second cognition) again will there be a recollection, (the occurance of which is justifiable only on the assumption of the third cognition, and ad infinitum). In the case of that (second) cognition by virture of which the (first) cognition is apprehended, we have, as generally known, the recollection of it afterwards. Hence, if it be held that the cognition is apprehended by a different subsequent cognition, then (the third, the fourth and thus) the endless series of cognitions would be logically concluded.⁵⁶)

Further, (if it be so, then the first cognition would be continuously apprehended by subsequent cognitions, and consequently), the cognition of one thing would not transit to that of another. But (in fact,) the transition of the cognition is the fact generally admitted. Therefore, it must necessarily be recognized that the cognition is self-cognizable. And that very (self-cognition) is the resulted content of the act of cognizing.

In this way it is well proved that the direct knowledge is free from thought-construction.

⁵⁶⁾ Candrakīrti makes reference, in *Madhyamakâvatāra*, VI, 72, to the theory of self-cognition established through the argument on the recollection as is unfolded here, but he ascribes this theory to the Sautrāntika, cp. S. Yamaguchi, *Bukkyō ni okeru Mu to U to no Tairon*, pp. 284-285. Cp. also *Pramāṇavārttika*, II, k. 485.

Postscript: Among two questions raised after the theory of radical distinction between two pramānas was expounded, the first one has been understood by the present writer as concerning savikalpaka-pratyakṣa, see notes 15) & 17). This understanding, however, should be corrected so as to be in accord with Jinendrabuddhi, whose interpretation is as follows:— The proposition "this (colour) is non-eternal" (pratijñā) is inferred through the minor premise "the colour is a product" (hetu) and the major premise "whatsoever is a product is non-eternal, e.g., a pot" (drṣṭānta). If the theory of radical distinction between two pramāṇas should be maintained, then the above inference could not avoid committing fallacy. While the colour which is the subject of hetu is sāmānya-lakṣaṇa, the colour which is the subject of pratijñā is "this" (sva-lakṣaṇa) immediately perceived. The subjects of hetu and pratijñā being thus radically different each other, this hetu is incompatible with pakṣa-dharmatva, the first aspect of tri-rūpa-linga. Dignāga, therefore, is asked to explain the ground of this proposition being valid, cp. PSVT, 146, 5-7.