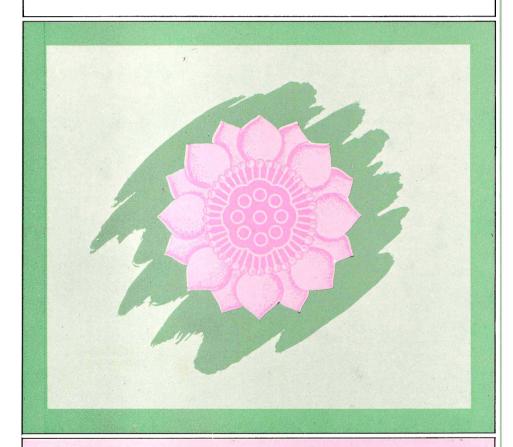
NĀGĀRJUNA

A Translation of his **Mūlamadhyamakakārikā** with an Introductory Essay



Kenneth K. Inada

Bibliotheca Indo-Buddhica Series No. 127

NĀGĀRJUNA

A Translation of his Mūlamadhyamakakārikā with an Introductory Essay

Kenneth K. Inada

稻田龜男

Sri Satguru Publications
A Division of
Indian Books Centre
Shakti Nagar, Delhi
India

Bibliotheca Indo-Buddhica Series Sunil Gupta, Editor Published by:
Sri Satguru Publications
Indological and Oriental Publishers
A Division of
Indian Books Centre
40/5, Shakti Nagar,
Delhi-110007
(INDIA)

© 1993 Kenneth K. Inada

First Indian Edition, Delhi, 1993

ISBN 81-7030-385-0

PRINTED IN INDIA

ADDENDUM TO THE PREFACE

Twenty three years have elapsed since the original publication of this work. Despite its second printing within five years, the copies were quickly sold and it soon became out of print.

But now under the good graces of Mr. Sunil Gupta of the Indian Books Centre, the fate of the work took a new turn. He kindly suggested that it be reprinted and included as a volume in the Bibliotheca Indo-Buddhica Series. I of course heartily agreed and am profoundly appreciative of this gesture. I regret, however that I do not presently have the time to revise the work, i.e., to review the translations for accuracy and style and to expand on the introductory essay so as to update studies on Madhyamaka philosophy and literature which have inundated the field in the last twenty years. It proves that the field is alive and well, and that the future of its movement bodes well in Mahayana studies as well as in the extended areas of comparative thought and culture.

Buffalo, New York August, 1993 Kenneth K. Inada

PREFACE

The present work is but a humble attempt to lay bare before the public the unique thought of Nāgārjuna (c. 150-250 A.D.) in translation by way of his major work, the Mūlamadhyamakakārikā (hereafter, referred to as the Kārikā throughout the work) and by way of an introductory essay on his philosophy. The Kārikā or verses are, to be sure, very concise and for this reason cryptic and perhaps confounding. But it should be noted that it is not the written language that should be looked at askance since Sanskrit is a rather precise language and a remarkably advanced one at that for the presentation and propagation of thought. Basically, like all great works, it is the ideas relative to the truth of things that must be taken to task and not the language in use or the methodology involved. And yet, however defiant the ideas may be to clear analysis. scholars must constantly strike out for a better basis of understanding. To this end the present work is dedicated and thus, should it arouse even a single response from the reader for a better perspective of Nagariuna's philosophy and thereby Mahayana Buddhism as a whole, it would have served its basic and final purpose.

The complete English translation of the Kārikā in 27 Chapters is presented in sequence with the romanized version of the Sanskrit verses for easy reference. The Kārikā were derived from the Prasannapadā of Candrakīrti (c. 600-650 A.D.), edited by Louis De La Valée Poussin and published by the Bibliotheca Buddhica between 1903 and 1913. Being a commentary work, the Prasannapadā contains the original Kārikā by Nāgārjuna. For the advanced student of the Mahāyāna, nothing could be better than to compare the Prasannapadā with the Chinese work, Chung-lun (Taishō Shinshū Daizōkyō, XXX, No. 1564), another commentary work by Pingala (c. 4th century A.D.) and admirably translated into Chinese by the famed

Ŧ

vi PREFACE

Kumārajīva (in China 401-413 A.D.). It was the *Chung-lun*, including its subsequent commentary works, which kept the Chinese and Japanese Buddhist scholars versed on the Mādhyamika or Śūnyavāda in a continued sense and fired the spirit of sectarian development and propagation in their respective countries.

Besides Th. Stcherbatsky's monumental work, *The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāna*, which contains the *Kārikā* translation of Chapters I & XXV, plus the complete translation of Chapters I & XXV of the *Prasannapadā*, the following works in English can be referred to for comparative purposes.

Frederick J. Streng: Emptiness, A Study in Religious Meaning.

Appendix A, "Fundamentals of the Middle Way," is the complete Kārikā translation.

Richard H. Robinson: Early Mādhyamika in India and China.

Chapter II on Early Indian Mādhyamika contains many important translations from the Kārikā.

Heramba H. Chatterjee: Müla-Madhyamaka-Kārikā of Nāgārjuna. Part I (Chapters I-V) and Part II (Chapters VI-VIII) have thus far appeared.

Other foreign language translations can be seen in the Bibliography.

Short prefatory remarks to each chapter have been inserted in order to present the reader a quick glimpse of each chapter content.

It only remains for me to thank those who are responsible for the publication of this work. Originally, to the late venerable Dr. Daisetz T. Suzuki who was a silent Zen godfather to me between 1949 and 1966 and who was responsible for introducing me to Dr. Shoson Miyamoto of the University of Tokyo who, in turn, introduced me to the intricacies but delights of the Mādhyamika; Dr. Miyamoto's enlightening seminars and cordial personal contacts outside the classroom will always be treasured; to Dr. Shinsho Hanayama whose Bodhisattvacaryā will always be held as a model

PREFACE vii

and in highest esteem; to Dr. Hajime Nakamura, former Dean of Humanities and current Head of the Department of Indian and Buddhist Studies, The University of Tokyo, whose genuine leadership and scholarship will always be objects of emulation; his personal interest in and encouragement of my work and well-being cannot fully be expressed; incidentally, he is directly responsible for the selection of this work as No. 2 in the Tokyo Eastern Series; to Dr. Reimon Yuki whose stimulating seminars on Yogācāra-vijñānavāda thought immeasurably aided me in understanding the Mādhyamika; to Dr. Mitsuyoshi Saigusa, scholar of Buddhist and Comparative philosophy, whose endearing friendship and kind suggestion have finally made it possible for the work to be published in this form: although he has kindly consented to see the work through the press, besides typographical errors which are inevitable, I must take full responsibility for all errors committed since the release of the manuscript to the press; finally, I must thank my wife, Masako, without whose abiding concern, closeness and understanding the myriad obstacles would have been insurmountable.

Kenneth K. Inada

Buffalo, New York January 1970

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
PREFA	CE	
INTRODI	UCTORY ESSAY	1
TRANSL	ATION OF THE MŪLAMADHYAMAKAKĀRIKĀ	35
I	Pratyaya parīkṣā (觀因緣品)*	37
II	Gatāgata parīkṣā (觀去來品)	43
III	Cakṣurādīndriya parīkṣā (觀六情品)	51
IV	Skandha parīkṣā (觀五陰品)	54
V	Dhātu parīkṣā (觀六種品)	57
VI	Rāgarakta parīkṣā (觀染染者品)	60
VII	Saṃskṛta parīkṣā (觀三相品)	63
VIII	Karmakāraka parikṣā (觀作作者品)	71
IX	Pūrva parikṣā (觀本住品)	76
X	Agnindhana parikṣā (觀燃可燃品)	80
XI	Pūrvāparakoţi parīkṣā (觀本際品)	85
XII	Duḥkha parīkṣā (觀苦品)	88

^{*} The Chinese title headings have been inserted for comparative purposes and are derived from Kumārajīva's Chung-lun (中論 Taishō Shinshū Daizōkyō, XXX, No. 1564)

INTRODUCTORY ESSAY

Nāgārjuna (c. 150-250 A.D.) has held continuous attention of Buddhists and Buddhist scholars in Asia since his own day. Even today he commands the greatest attention in the Western world insofar as philosophic Mahāyāna tradition is concerned. Though he did not establish a school or a system of thought as such, he did attract such overwhelming interest and appeal on the part of the masses by way of his unique writings that a tradition of a sort soon arose during his lifetime and a large following in consequence of it. He had a few faithful disciples, such as, Āryadeva and Rāhulabhadra, but after them there was never a continuous line of torchbearers. In spite of this, his ideas, though subtle and profound, carried such deep understanding and implications of fundamental Buddhist truths that they will influence, one way or another, all or most of the subsequent Mahāyāna developments in India, China, Tibet, Korea and Japan.

Indeed, insofar as Mahāyāna Buddhism is concerned, Nāgārjuna stands out as the giant among giants who laid the foundation of religious and philosophical quests. His supreme position has stood firm for centuries in all the countries blessed with the Mahāyāna form of Buddhism; and in the fervor to honor his stature, the people of these countries have in some cases elevated him to foremost heights, i.e., a bodhisattva, equal to all the deities and buddhas of the past, present and future. He was, in short, considered to be the second Buddha and he always occupied the second position in the lineage of Buddhist patriarchs in the various sectarian developments of Tibet, China, and Japan. On the other hand, his veneration at times reached such ridiculous heights that his name, was sanctified and stamped everywhere with reckless abandon even for purposes of feigning scriptural authority. Despite the excesses of spirit displayed in dif-

ferent forms, we must acknowledge the fact that such religious veneration becomes an important vehicle for the propagation as well as continuity of Buddhism as such. But now, after so many centuries, it is the work of scholars to sift the pure from the impure, the proper basic doctrines from the deviated corrupted ones, in order to achieve a measure of balance and sensibility in the whole ideological flow of ideas from the historical Buddha to the present. In this attempt it will be seen that Nāgārjuna and his thoughts occupy an important place at the crucial crossroad in the subtle beginnings of the Māhāvāna as against the Theravāda tradition.

The early beginnings of the Mahāyāna are enshrouded in fragmentary and cursory accounts on the doctrinal similarities of certain early schools, such as, the Mahāsanghika or Sautrāntika, but exactly when, where, and on what grounds it began has never been clarified nor ascertained. Perhaps this question will forever remain unknown due to the paucity of literature on the matter. However, by the time of Nagarjuna, we do know that the Mahayana tradition had already taken on clear lines of development and yet, to the chagrin of scholars, his life and the Buddhist activities of the times are not as clear as one would hope them to be. It is a case of the lack of corroborating material from Nāgārjuna himself and also from outside sources that we are stymied in the attempt to draw up an accurate picture of the historical and ideological play within the Mahāyāna. But the task before us, i.e., to study the thoughts of Nāgāriuna and thereby his influence on and contribution to the Mahāyāna, is by no means hopeless.

In particular, we have before us, his major work, the Mūlama-dhyamakakārikā, which sets forth at least his own interpretation of the fundamental thought of Buddhism viewed from the Mahāyāna standpoint. As it is written in versified form, terse and abstract, the doctrinal meaning and significance at times escape the unwary mind. The ideas manifest at once simplicity and complexity, a trait which no mean scholar of Buddhism could ignore or forget but a

trait which nevertheless has led astray many a scholar precisely on this account. Such being the case we sometimes witness devious interpretations of basic doctrines by worthy scholars. But such excesses in interpretation or acceptance cannot be taken too seriously since Nāgāriuna, though his verses exhibit cryptic strains, did not intentionally write in an esoteric manner nor did he write to serve only the scholarly elite. Whatever characterization we make, good or bad, with regards to his work and ideas, must be based on the nature of the doctrine or idea intended in the versified expression. By this it means that more than the man Nagarjuna, as indeed he was a fallible creature, we must look into his accountings of fundamental doctrines and judge thereof his faithfulness, perceptiveness and creative novelty. He was frank, to be sure, in admitting that he expounded nothing new and that he was only elaborating on the teachings of the historical Buddha. Thus, the task is not simple and it is important to seek a sense of direction and temporal dimension in the analysis.

The age prior to Nāgārjuna is an almost "no man's land" as far as extant literature is concerned because firstly, the texts are rather scanty and secondly, authors of texts are not accurately known. The whole mass of *Prajāāpāramitā Sūtras*⁽¹⁾, which began to appear some time in the 1st century B.C. and which continued to be constructed as well as exert influence until the very end of Buddhism in India in the 12th century A.D., is a good example of the type of early or founding texts which express the highest and most profound understanding of the Mahāyāna but such understanding could scarcely be attributed to a single man or a handful of individuals.

Nāgārjuna then appeared at the opportune moment to present a concise and systematic view of thoughts crystallized over the five or six centuries since the Buddha. And indeed, on the matter of time alone, those centuries were important and necessary to permit the mellowing and maturing process to come to a climax, so to speak, and thereby to produce the dominant ideas that were to be

felt in the further developments of the Mahāyāna in India and elsewhere.

Naturally, in understanding this process, we cannot neglect nor ignore the most active, highly vibrant, and competitive age in Buddhist history known as the Abhidharma period. Scholars have heretofore paid relatively little attention to the influence of this period but it has actually played the central role, if not the greatest role, in the development and propagation of Buddhism as a whole. If there are high watermarks to be considered in Buddhist history, the Abhidharma period certainly rates a very high level, a level of great fermentation and flourishment of Buddhist thought. Ideologically speaking, no other period in Buddhist history, whether of the Theravada or Mahavana or even national Buddhist developments such as in Tang Dynasty China, could ever match or come up to the level of activity as recorded during this period. The so-called eighteen schools⁽²⁾ which vied for the true understanding of the historical Buddha's teachings express the flower of the struggle of that period. Sadly, however, we are heirs to only two complete sets of Abhidharma literature among them and a single fragmentary text (8) which cannot specifically be assigned to any one of the schools.

A glance at the two complete sets (4) shows a marked similarity in compilation, i.e., the same number of seven works, but the internal contents differ quite drastically. And yet, on close scrutiny the terms or concepts employed deal with practically the same subject matter, i.e., the description of the internal constitution of man by way of the skandhas, dhātus, āyatanas and dharmas (5) and finally the right understanding of these dharmas which would ultimately result in the attainment of the nirvānic realm of being. Thus, with the Abhidharma, the same underlying philosophy of the Buddha—suffering, cause, cessation and the way—is kept intact but the emphasis on the elaborate elemental and descriptional aspect is focussed on for the first time by all Abhidharma schools. It is not so much that these schools were different or tried to be different as it is that they

exhibited serious concern to seize the Buddhist truth as each of them saw fit. In the heightened and competitive activity that they were engaged in, their works took on the nature of being too complex and abstract for ordinary Buddhists to follow. And yet this was not deliberate cover-up attempts on the part of any scholastics of the period. They were principally concerned with the definitizing of the concept of man as a suffering creature by virtue of his internal constitution situated within the context of the wider so-called external matrix of things and of what could be done with that situation. They did not deviate a bit from the historical Buddha's teachings insofar as fundamental principles or doctrines go. This seems to be one of the basic reasons for the monotonous and repetitious nature of the works besides the fact that such a nature promoted easy remembrance of the doctrines. They invariably returned to the Buddha's words for further analysis, elaborations and insight into man's situation, a situation always seen in the context of the 4-fold Noble Truth.

It seems strange that this earnest attempt to understand the human situation by way of the dharma theory (6) should cause a host of scholars to literally brand Buddhism of the Abhidharma origin as pluralism or pluralistic in the metaphysical sense. The very first sign of this interpretation, though not by design, occurs with Warren's translation of the term dhamma (dharma) as "elements of existence" or "elements of being." (7) It is seen that he labored much and could not come to a definitive translation of the term and finally settled for the above. But his phrases are only suggestive and he actually left the door open for better translations. Yet, almost at once, we note that scholars have accepted this phrase without discretion nor digestion and employed it quite freely. Perhaps, the rapid rise of the sciences toward the end of the 19th century and on into the 20th century, and the subsequent employment of the scientific method even in the humanistic sciences, prompted the initial rush towards accepting an atomistic analysis of natural phenomena in all respects. However, paradoxically enough, this atomism will in time give way to a non-atomistic and more dynamic view of nature. Meanwhile, the tenure of the phrase, "elements of existence," has been long.

For example, we find in the writings of the great Russian Buddhologist, Th. Stcherbatsky, a rather sharp scientific bent in the analysis of the Buddhist concept of man. He accepts the translation, "elements of existence," as substantially accurate. In his work, (6) he employs the following phrases: "pluralistic whole," "separate elements," "plurality of separate elements," "pluralism and radical pluralism," and yet, in the end, he seems to be at wits end when in direct confrontation with the term itself he concludes thus: "But, although the conception of an element of existence has given rise to an imposing superstructure in the shape of a consistent system of philosophy, its inmost nature remains a riddle. What is dharma? It is inconceivable! It is subtle! No one will ever be able to tell what its real nature (dharma-svabhāva) is! It is transcendental!" (9)

Stcherbatsky knew that he was dealing with a difficult term and he tried his best to justify all aspects of the constituents of man's nature by drawing on current scientific terminology to render clear what had eluded scholars before. But his acceptance and employment of the phrase, "element of existence," caught on and we find that this atomistic and scientific interpretation will be accepted rather uncritically by subsequent interpretators. (10) Consequently, the interpretations of the Abhidharma oriented systems, whether of Theravāda or Mahāyāna origins, have been simply extended the label of pluralistic atomism.

The technical term for the alleged radical pluralism is sanghāṭa-vāda. In the compounded term, the suffix, vāda, refers to the "doctrine," "concept," "way," "school," or simply in Western terminology the equivalent of an "ism." This does not cause any problem in translation. What however causes the problem is the term, sanghāṭa. The Pāli derivation is sanghaṭeti, which literally means "binding

together."(11) This term then has the meaning of "union," "junction," "collection," "aggregation," etc...not in the sense of elements in union, collection, aggregation, etc., but in the unique sense of elements being what they are by virtue of the aggregated, collected, united or binded nature of things. This, in other words, is not to assert the existence of separate elements of existence first and then to see them in aggregation. The dharmas do not have any a priori status. Rather, it is to indicate the existential nature of so-called "elements" (dharmas) in the matrix of relatedness. Thus one's experience is a fact of unique relatedness but at the same time the particular experience can be factored into different aspects. In this sense, the dharmas give a pluralistically factored nature or conception to experience and never the other way round, i.e., that they, the dharmas, underline experience in terms of an interplay or an aggregated construction out of them. (Confer Chapter XX where Nāgārjuna systematically denies any atomistic assertions to both causes and conditions, and their union as such.)

All this, on the other hand, does not mean to promote absolutism of any sort. It is the function of reason, normally speaking, to be critical of positions or viewpoints and thereby set up alternatives for decision making. However, reason cannot and should not be used as an apogogic device, i.e., the rejection of a view does not automatically mean the acceptance of another. Consequently, the rejection of pluralism, simple or radical, does not mean the acceptance of monism or any form of absolutism.

Insofar as the term, "monism," is concerned, Buddhism undoubtedly leaned toward some form of monistic understanding of man's existence as witnessed, for example, in the Yogācāra-vijñānavāda and certain aspects in the tantric traditions both in and out of India. Monism, in the strictest Buddhist sense, refers to the ontologically unified view of man and therefore admits to factoral analysis of his experience. Buddhism is still, in this respect, a man-centered understanding of things and never man indifferently bound to nature. It

cannot, except for later deviations from true Buddhism, tolerate the metaphysically transcendent monistic system that the unwary interprets it to be or read into it. As a rule, based on fundamental teachings of the Buddha, principles or doctrines which are transcendental or super-mundane are not admissible... a rule which all too often is glossed over, neglected, or even consciously rejected in favor of the easy but hopelessly erroneous monistic interpretation of Buddhist ideas.

In this respect too the term, "absolutism," has no real significance relative to either Buddhist doctrines or Buddhism as such. Scanning through all the philosophical ideas, there is not a single concept which lends itself to a totally absolutistic interpretation in the strictest sense. Even the Buddha, as the historically enlightened being, is never referred to as a metaphysical absolute. Such other terms as Tathāgata, Dharmakāya, Nirmaņa-kāya, Sambhogakāya, Sūnyatā, Pratītva-samutbāda and even Nirvāna, are to be treated If it were otherwise, Buddhism would then easily fall likewise. into a system of absolute First Principles and whereupon these principles would dictate everything in the whole of nature. There would be no challenge to understanding the empirically grounded existential strains in our common everyday lives; there would be no meaning to the enthusiasm for the search of the basis of life itself. But the absolute or absolutism has no real place in the scheme of Buddhist analysis of man, in the so-called ontologically structured metaphysics of man which is through and through empirical. The very refusal to answer categorically the metaphysically grounded questions (12) by the Buddha himself should be a constant warning to those who facilely resort to labelling any doctrine or facet of Buddhism into convenient forms of monism or absolutism. Be it said once and for all that Buddhist philosophy cannot admit or submit to any ideas with cosmic dimensions. If such were ever the case, then it would be, at that very particular point, not philosophical Buddhism at all but certain outlandish and corrupted form of Buddhism which in all eventuality would have little or no real meaning for those who earnestly pursue the true basic doctrines. (18) Buddhism must be viewed as a thoroughgoing naturalistic view of man. This simple focus on man has all the makings of an elaborate and highly technical accounting of man as seen in the Abhidharmika systems. But no one ought to be confused or even dismayed by the elaborate terminology in use for they are only convenient tools or means for the explorations into man's fundamental sentient nature.

It is sometimes said that Nāgārjuna appeared at the right moment and at the right place in Buddhist history to provide the necessary corrective measures to Buddhist philosophical analysis of man's nature and thereby initiated a "new" movement within the Mahāyana tradition. First of all, however, it must be remembered that he did not appear out of a vacuum but rather that he came after a long period of Buddhist activity in India proper. At least six or seven centuries had transpired between the historical Buddha (6th century B.C.) and Nāgārjuna (circa 2nd-3rd centuries A.D.), a time in which Buddhists actively explored, criticized, and propagated the Buddhist truth. This is the period which produced the eighteen contending schools of the Abhidharmika system discussed earlier and also the time which saw the germs of the break in the interpretation of the nature of the summum bonum (nirvāṇa) between the Hinayana (inclusive of modern Theravada) and Mahayana traditions. At the same time, secondly, it should be noted that the Mahāvāna tradition in its earlist phase, i.e., pre-Christian period, had already produced some of the most attractive and arresting thoughts in Buddhist history...thoughts which are considered most fundamental to all subsequent developments in the tradition. (14) Sūtras relative to this period concentrate on the universal and extensive sameness (samatā, tathatā) in the nature of man, his supreme wisdom $(praj\tilde{n}\tilde{a})$ and compassion $(karun\tilde{a})$, all of which describe the concept of a bodhisattva or enlightened being. They expound ad infinitum the purity, beauty and ultimate rewards of the realization of this supreme realm of being in language which is at once esthetic, poetic and dramatic but which at times are painfully frustrating to the searching rational mind. For example, the empirically oriented mind would not be able to accept and adapt simple identities of the order (or realm) of worldly (mundane) and unworldly (supermundane). empirical and nonempirical, common everyday life (samsāra) and uncommon enlightened life (nirvāna), pure (sukha) and impure (asukha), and finally, form $(r\bar{u}pa)$ and emptiness $(s\bar{u}nyat\bar{a})$. In the final identity of form and emptiness, a climax in the ideological development is reached where the sūtras, in particular the whole Prajñāpāramitā Sūtras, elaborate on the point that all forms are in the nature of void (sūnya). Thus, such forms in the nature of a sentient creature or being (sattva), a soul or vital force (jīva), a self (ātman), a personal identity (pudgala) and separate "elements" (dharmas) are all essentially devoid of any characterization (animitta, alaksana). The quest for voidness or emptiness is thoroughgoing with the aim being the non-grasping (agrāhya) and at once the emptiness of the personal experiential components (pudgala-sūnyatā) and of the personal ideational components (dharma-śūnyatā). This is the final goal of the nirvanic realm, here and now, without residues (anupadhiśeșa-nirvāṇa-dhātu) and achievable by all.

Needless to say, the understanding of the above identities is the constant challenge and the most profound feature of the Mahāyāna, if not the whole of Buddhist philosophy. Unquestionably, Nāgārjuna was faithful to this lineage of ideas and he tried his hand in crystallizing the prevailing ideas. He came to bundle up the loosely spread ideas, so to speak, and gave a definite direction in the quest of man.

Apart from radical pluralism and monism of the absolutistic type, there are a few other charges made against Nāgārjuna and his tradition which ought to be noted. One of the principal arguments refers to nihilism. It is a popular and an understandable charge if one were only to seek for and rely on the linguistic aspect in order to draw his own conclusions. Indeed, the very term, śūnya, has

evolved a tradition with reference to Nagarjuna's philosophy, i.e., the Sūnvavāda. Šūnya means, in the literal sense, "empty," "vacuous." "void," "nothing," etc., and thus it would seem natural, solely based on linguistic grounds, to refer to Sūnyavada as the school or doctrine of emptiness, voidness, or nothingness. (15) This is certainly an uninitiated naive understanding which cannot even stand up to the fundamental or main doctrines of Buddhism which Nagarjuna and his followers were careful not to violate. Indeed, the Buddhists tried to propagate such doctrines in a consistent and sustained manner permissible by language. But the emphasis on the language or the linguistic aspect may actually turn out to be a limiting function in Buddhism for, in the use of a term, there is only peripheral or superficial reference to an event or experience and never with respect to concrete reference to the nature of things themselves in totality. This is also true in the West. It is trite to say that language can never reach reality per se and yet we must remind ourselves of this to restitute the Sünyavāda from the charge of nihilism.

In a sense it is true that language does reflect the forms and characteristics of nature itself and even of human experience. Being man's construction, it must necessarily represent the closest facsmiles to the reality of things while remaining faithful to the socio-psychological context. But it must never become absolute or that a oneto-one correspondence made with respect to language and reality. In such a way, Indian philosophy including Buddhism, is replete with instances where terms are faithful to reality but still, in the ultimate sense, remains defiant of absolute connection. It is paramount to keep in mind that language must meet the strictest requirements in the determination and communication of terms. But the formal aspect, the conceptual and logical, must never be pushed to a realm where technical mists cloud and all' too often dictate the final interpretation. (16) Śūnya or śūnyatā (the state of śūnya) is one such term which does not lend itself to strict determination and communication because it is rooted in the basic ontological nature of man. It refers to man's perfected pure state of being without the normal elements of defilements or attachments. Buddhism, from the very beginning, had spoken of the dual nature of defilements which constantly plague man, i.e., the so-called "physical tainting" (kleśāvarana) and the "conceptual tainting" (jħeyāvarana). Both are only two aspects of the total status of defilement imposed by man himself, and such imposition, consciously or unconsciously. becomes the basis of his limiting, restrictive, divisive or discriminative activities. It would therefore be wrong to straightforwardly assign defilement or attachment to either the merely "physical" or the merely "mental." Buddhism sees man in totality with respect to the matrix of both aspects, and to this extent it is monistic in the ontological sense. Thus it is incorrect to interpret the mental or conceptual aspect as wholly responsible for the interpretation of the nature of things (17) since the total activity, the conceptual rooted in the physical basis and the physical basis running throughout the conceptual process, must be accounted for at all times. If this be mysticism, then it is the supreme mysticism to which all of Buddhism subscribes. However, it is at this very point that Buddhism seeks final rationale in the nature of man's being. This is where Nāgārjuna with his unique use of certain concepts, such as śūnya, tried to interpret the Buddhist truth.

Consequently, *sūnya* or *sūnyatā* refers to total being without the defiled or attached conditions and, as such, there is nothing removed from man's being and his activities, nothing nihilistic or voided in his ordinary existence.

Another popular charge, quite related to the charge of nihilism and perhaps considered a corollary, is that of negativism. (18) Somehow the concept of śūnya seems to connote a negativistic view of reality to the unwary. But negativism is not a charge limited to the Śūnyavāda because Buddhism since its inception had always referred to or presented its principal doctrines in negative ways which, by the way, can be taken as another argument for the limited

use of language in describing reality. For example, the famous "Three Marks" (trilakṣaṇa) of Buddhist distinction, i.e., three principal features which distinguish Buddhism from other systems of thought of India proper, are impermanence (anitya), non-objectified self (anātman), and suffering (duḥkha). All three are negative expressions of the phenomena of existence.

Impermanence (anitya) refers to the inexorable fleeting, everchanging status of life. In the Heraclitean sense, no two moments are identical and thus every existential moment is new or novel. Sadly, man requires the passage of conventional time to remember the so-called great or monumental moments by their outstanding features, although such moments are basically similar in nature to all the rest of the seemingly unconscious moments of his existence. But the impermanence doctrine is only a reminder of the existential continuity which man must be cognizant of at all times if he is to live properly or wholesomely in the ultimate sense.

Mon-objectified self, or popularly rendered as non-self (anātman), refers to the conditionality or the ontologically contingent nature of man which defies positive ascription. Man's existence, in short, is an intricate labyrinth or matrix of conditions, where no one or two or several of these conditions can ever do justice to man's description. He is contingent at all times in this sense and thus non-objectifiable. Or, if he were to lend himself to analysis, it would only have to be in the negative sense, the non-ātman.

Finally, suffering (duḥkha) refers to the status of man in the empirically bound sense. That is to say, he is a bundle of suffering by virtue of the ontologically objectified attachments he maintains both on the "physical" and "mental" levels. Until or unless he can relinquish himself from these objectified attachments (upādāna) or coverings (āvaraṇa), his perfected ontological status will not be fulfilled. The desires and cravings refer specifically to the unwarranted "longings" for the phantasmagorically objectified or permanentized elements of life process. Once more, in this sense,

suffering is a negatively expressed condition of man who can convert himself into something positively pure. The cessation of Buddhist suffering (duhkha-nirodha) constitutes at once enlightenment $(bodhi)^{(19)}$

Furthermore, nirvāna is sometimes added to the above as a further distinguishing characteristic of Buddhism and this concept also refers to reality negatively, i.e., the state of all defilements and attachments blown out. In sum, if one were to gather all or most of the tenets of Buddhism, one would be most surprised to note a host of negatively expressed ideas controlling and guiding his approaches to the understanding of reality. But the point is that one should not be as unwary as to be controlled by these negative concepts in definitive terms. They are only indicators, markers for the suppression of falsely objectified views and, at the same time, suggestive of the true positive content of reality or life in the making.

Still another charge levelled against the Mādhyamika is that of relativism. It is supposedly an outcome of the failure to comprehend rightfully the true nature of the middle path (madhyamā-pratipad). As the path is the avoidance of maintaining both extremes, i.e., the realms of luxury and asceticism, it is swiftly concluded that the fundamental teaching of the Buddha must be a kind of relativism, a shifting of values between the two realms. But the path, in reality, is a total concept which involves the full ontological basis of man as we shall shortly discuss.

But what principally seems to give rise to the relativistic interpretation is the translation of the technical term, pratityasamutpāda. This term has eluded the best minds in the search for a plausible expression. For example, it has variously been translated as follows: causal genesis, theory of the twelve causes, twelve-fold causal chain, arising from conditional causes, dependent origination, dependent coorigination, dependent existence, conditioned origination, relativity, and the principle of (universal) relativity. The basis of these translations come from the early general formula for the cycle (wheel)

of life found in various places of the Pāli Nikāyas (e.g. Majjhima Nikāya, II, 32; Samyutta Nikāya, II, 28) and which runs as follows: this being, that becomes; from the arising of this, that arises; this not becoming, that does not become; from the ceasing of this, that ceases. In Chapter XXVI of the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$, Nāgārjuna treats this basically Hīnayānistic doctrine and destroys (or corrects) any notion implied which suggests the staticity of the parts (anga) of the cycle of life.

However, it seems that the term translated as the principle of relativity with all the overtones of modern science has become very popular and acceptable even by scholars. This technical term undoubtedly does have "strains" of the relativistic notion but not in the normal nor in the scientific sense. It should be interpreted in the total ontological sense which means that the rise of an experiential event is spread both "spatially" and "temporally" in a dynamic sense. That is to say, the relational structure is not static but underscored by the co-arising phenomenon of the total nature of things, although some elements at play are significantly present while others remain insignificant. Thus, pratityasamutpāda, might be rendered as relational origination. The term, relational, is a neutral concept insofar as the ontological implications are concerned but simultaneously it refers to a lateral, horizontal, and vertical relational structure to the moment in question. There is no reliance on anything alien nor an imposition by an alien force in the process because the moment is a moment by virtue of its own creative or constructive (karmaic) process. Thus the term, relational, makes way for both the active and the passive functions of the so-called "subject" in question. And the term, origination, refers to the arising of a novel moment by virtue of the total relational structure impelled by a natural dynamics of its own.

It must be remembered that Th. Stcherbatsky, coming at the time of the popular and general acceptance of Einsteinian physics, had gone extensively overboard to dub this concept as the principle of relativity. (20) This phrase, more than any other Buddhist concept,

has to this day made science and Buddhism ever closer, or even to the extent of identifying both as seen in some quarters. Naturally, this is going too far for neither discipline can be synonymous in any consistent sense although Buddhist principles are on the whole readily amenable to scientific interpretation but it is hardly the case the other way around. In spite of this, it is agreed by many that Buddhist teachings come very close to the ideas expounded in modern psychology and even psycho-analysis as seen, for example, in the analysis of man's genetic development in terms of skandhas, āyatanas, dhātus and including the concept of karma with respect to man's actions—past, present and future.

The doctrine of pratity as a mutpāda is then a basic concept in all Buddhist traditions whether of the Theravāda or Mahāyāna; it is so basic with Nāgārjuna that he will use it as the key concept in meeting ontological reality "face to face," so to speak. It is the ruling concept underlying all the discussions in the chapters of the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$. Thus the argumentation lodged against all systems, positions or viewpoints (drsti) by Nāgārjuna is not another way of establishing a standpoint, e.g. relativism, but it is an unique way of calling to attention the myriad and multi-phased factors or conditions at play in the immediate concretizing karmaic present which, by the way, is the only locus whereby concourse with reality as such (yathābhūtam) can be had.

Finally, there are a few scholars who interpret Nāgārjuna as the supreme logician or dialectician as if truth could be educed logically or by a dialectical effort. (21) To be sure, the Kārikā exhibit traits of logical inferences from time to time but this is not true in all instances. (22) If there are semblances of a consistent use of logic or a form of dialectic, these at best only depict the play or function of reason and not in terms of "awakening" reason to a wondrous realm of existence. (23) It is true that ordinarily man is sorely unaware of the ground for his own thinking process, a ground which might be termed the psycho-physical continuum throughout

the whole being. Clarity, purity, unclouded thinking are, after all, aspects of the rational play but such a play is only one of the attributes of the sense world. That is to say, the mind (citta) and its function (caitasika) are only considered parts of the function of the sensible realm in Buddhism and never as separate or transcendental aspects of being. More specifically, along with the five sense organs, the mind is considered to be another sense organ. This is one of the ways in which Buddhism treats the continuum of being and avoids the simple dichotomy of mind-body or subject-object relationship. This fact is so easily overlooked in later developments but it is so basic to all Buddhist thought, early or later, that no interpreter could ill afford to neglect this unity of being from its genetic beginnings.

The term dialectic is derived from the Greek, "dialektike," which means to hold a discourse or debate. Now, a discourse or a debate may be for two reasons: First, for sophistical refutation or a critique for critique sake. This is otherwise known as eristic or given to mere disputations. Second, for an end in view, i.e., the search ultimately for a truth whatever that implies. The first may be termed negative or destructive dialectic, while the second positive or constructive dialectic. Needless to say, we are concerned with the second. However, the problem of assigning a kind of dialectic to Nāgārjuna's philosophy is not as easy as it seems on first thought. We must remember that there have been pros and cons on this matter since the beginning and the issue is still unsettled. First of all, it would seem almost a violation of terms to attempt an association of a dialectic with the non-assertive type of Nāgāriuna's philosophy. It is one thing to say that his logical disputations consist of the dual aspect of the destructive and constructive natures of a dialectic as the Westerner understands by the term but it is another matter to say how and in what manner they function together; and it is still another matter to distinguish between the two and to speak of them separately. In the Kārikā we do find logical analysis pushed to its extremes or to a reductio ad absurdum. This would be the reason why the group represented by Buddhapālita and Candrakīrti is called the Prāsangika Mādhyamika which reduces all assertions to the category of ultimate absurdity. But how far can we go along with the Prāsangika and his logic or dialectic in use? Was Nāgārjuna's philosophy basically characterized by the spirit of destructive dialectic or constructive dialectic or both? Can we speak of destructive and constructive dialectics separately or does one entail or imply the existence of the other such that the two are invariably co-existent? If the latter, are we in so-called grounds where neither logic, dialectic, nor empirical understanding may tread? These and many other subtle questions are by no means easy to answer. It is recalled that the Prasangika immediately had a rival in the Svätantrika Mädhyamika led by Bhavaviveka which tried to avoid the folly of a logic of deduction ad absurdum (brasangavākya) and favored the insertion of a counter position in any argument. Again, it is to be noted that Nāgārjuna's disciple Āryadeva and, in turn, Rāhulabhadra busied themselves in the refutation of contending schools of thought in order to defend the true Mādhyamika position. Now, undoubtedly, there was a something to defend and uphold, something which became the core of the Sūnyavāda tradition. However, it is questionable whether that something does lend itself to logic or dialectics in the Buddhist enlightening process.

We might conclude here by saying that Nāgārjuna is not a logician or a dialectician of the Western brand and that the Buddhist truth, if forthcoming at all, is not the result of logic or dialectics. Truth does not lend itself to mere rational accounting however subtle or refine that may be. It is rather the result of prajna, the so-called "eye of wisdom," the instrument which cuts open and at once reveals reality for what it is. And yet, prajna, in this sense, is only a tool which presents itself only at the opportune moment after rigorous training inclusive of total being, but the potential of its

realization and thereby its cutting power lies nascent in every living being. Nāgārjuna, however, does not treat this special doctrine of $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$ in the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ in any systematic manner. This is left to the $Praj\bar{n}\bar{a}p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ Sūtras which were abundantly in extant during his time since he was an heir to their teachings, and one of which he is alleged to have commented on. (24)

If Nāgārjuna is not to be labelled an absolute monist, radical pluralist, nihilist, negativist, relativist, logician and finally dialectician, what then can be said of him and his philosophy? It would seem that there is but one definite and practical approach to guide us. It is that Nāgārjuna's thoughts, however elusive they seem to be, must be made coincident with the most original and fundamental teaching of the historical Buddha, i.e., the doctrine of the middle path (madhyamā-pratipad), as indeed he himself asserts several times in the Kārikā that he is only following the Buddha's words. It is a doctrine accepted by all and at once the quest of all. It is the supreme "ontological principle" in Buddhism. Later on, to be sure, the concept of nirvāna will be used interchangeably with the middle path to describe the perfected state of man.

The middle path, as initially discoursed in the Buddhist foundation sūtra and later called the *Dhammacakkappavattana-sutta* (The Sūtra on the Exposition of the Buddhist Dharma or Truth; Confer *Samyutta-nikāya*, IV, 329 and V, 420), indicates that it is realized by the avoidance of the two extremes. What extremes? The extremes of the realism of activities relative to luxury and asceticism. One side engenders the quest for affluent matters and things which are of the nature of permanency and eternality (śāśvata-vāda) while the other the quest for total self-abnegation, self-effacement and of the nature of impermanence, nihilism and annihilationism (uccheda-vāda). In both instances there arise the root evil forces of objectifying or entifying either the elements related to wealth or riches on the one hand or "elements" related to non-entity, nihility or negativity on the other. And furthermore, there is the grasping, clinging (upādāna)

pushed to its extremes or to a reductio ad absurdum. This would be the reason why the group represented by Buddhapālita and Candrakīrti is called the Prāsangika Mādhyamika which reduces all assertions to the category of ultimate absurdity. But how far can we go along with the Prāsangika and his logic or dialectic in use? Was Nāgārjuna's philosophy basically characterized by the spirit of destructive dialectic or constructive dialectic or both? Can we speak of destructive and constructive dialectics separately or does one entail or imply the existence of the other such that the two are invariably co-existent? If the latter, are we in so-called grounds where neither logic, dialectic, nor empirical understanding may tread? These and many other subtle questions are by no means easy to answer. It is recalled that the Prāsangika immediately had a rival in the Svātantrika Mādhvamika led by Bhāvaviveka which tried to avoid the folly of a logic of deduction ad absurdum (brasangavākya) and favored the insertion of a counter position in any argument. Again, it is to be noted that Nagarjuna's disciple Aryadeva and, in turn, Rāhulabhadra busied themselves in the refutation of contending schools of thought in order to defend the true Madhyamika position. Now, undoubtedly, there was a something to defend and uphold, something which became the core of the Sūnyavāda tradition. However, it is questionable whether that something does lend itself to logic or dialectics in the Buddhist enlightening process.

We might conclude here by saying that Nāgārjuna is not a logician or a dialectician of the Western brand and that the Buddhist truth, if forthcoming at all, is not the result of logic or dialectics. Truth does not lend itself to mere rational accounting however subtle or refine that may be. It is rather the result of $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$, the so-called "eye of wisdom," the instrument which cuts open and at once reveals reality for what it is. And yet, $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$, in this sense, is only a tool which presents itself only at the opportune moment after rigorous training inclusive of total being, but the potential of its

realization and thereby its cutting power lies nascent in every living being. Nāgārjuna, however, does not treat this special doctrine of $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$ in the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ in any systematic manner. This is left to the $Praj\bar{n}\bar{a}p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ Sūtras which were abundantly in extant during his time since he was an heir to their teachings, and one of which he is alleged to have commented on. (24)

If Nāgārjuna is not to be labelled an absolute monist, radical pluralist, nihilist, negativist, relativist, logician and finally dialectician, what then can be said of him and his philosophy? It would seem that there is but one definite and practical approach to guide us. It is that Nāgārjuna's thoughts, however elusive they seem to be, must be made coincident with the most original and fundamental teaching of the historical Buddha, i.e., the doctrine of the middle path (madhyamā-pratipad), as indeed he himself asserts several times in the Kārikā that he is only following the Buddha's words. It is a doctrine accepted by all and at once the quest of all. It is the supreme "ontological principle" in Buddhism. Later on, to be sure, the concept of nirvāna will be used interchangeably with the middle path to describe the perfected state of man.

The middle path, as initially discoursed in the Buddhist foundation sūtra and later called the *Dhammacakkappavattana-sutta* (The Sūtra on the Exposition of the Buddhist Dharma or Truth; Confer *Samyutta-nikāya*, IV, 329 and V, 420), indicates that it is realized by the avoidance of the two extremes. What extremes? The extremes of the realism of activities relative to luxury and asceticism. One side engenders the quest for affluent matters and things which are of the nature of permanency and eternality (śāśvata-vāda) while the other the quest for total self-abnegation, self-effacement and of the nature of impermanence, nihilism and annihilationism (uccheda-vāda). In both instances there arise the root evil forces of objectifying or entifying either the elements related to wealth or riches on the one hand or "elements" related to non-entity, nihility or negativity on the other. And furthermore, there is the grasping, clinging (upādāna)

to the objectified content or elements within the ever-flowing existence. Thus in each instance, there exist the extreme (anta) of being "caught up" in the objectified elements within the perspective or viewpoint (drsti) that one consciously or unconsciously maintains, i.e., the elements are abstracted, taken out of context, and staticized into lifeless images and thereupon viewed as real... all the time unmindful of the basic stream of life. Stated in another metaphorical way, the clinging on to objectified elements in the ontological flow is analogous to the messy or sticky affair of a fly caught in an ointment, and this affair seems to be a never-ending, ever obstructive and disharmonious way of life. Some become conditioned to this situation over a long habitual and mainly unconscious livelihood and thus accept it to be the normal course of things without ever finding out the more easeful and wholesome way of life potentially there; while others are more impatient and troubled and consequently fight against it openly or not so openly and thus go on in the seemingly interminable struggle on the strictly superficially empirical level of things.

The middle path doctrine is the Buddhist ontological principle which avoids the two extremes (24) and at once resolves them in the way of taking on the dimension of inclusiveness or immanence of all things, including of course the perspective or viewpoint of the person concerned. Thus the middle path is the "vision of the real in its true form." Nothing is excluded, nothing is negated, nothing is abstracted. Everything is . . in the sense of inclusive or immanent transcendence. The middle path might then be termed the ontological inclusiveness, excellence, purity or supremeness of being.

Nāgārjuna captured and continued this fundamental message on the nature of man's highest state and gave his own "systematic" treatment of it by way of the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$. He was the supreme Buddhist ontologist. He gave direction to man for his ontological quest in the mundane world. Though man is initially bound by defilements, ultimately he is capable of channelling his life to richer, fuller and

purer realms. Understood in this sense, the *Kārikā* are nowheres unintelligible, confusing, misleading or insignificant. They are indeed consistent, meaningful and persuasive.

No positive assertion on the methodology of Nāgārjuna may be made, especially after denying that there is any consistent use of neither logic nor dialectic to educe ultimate truth (tattva). However, if a phraseology were to be coined, it might be termed the "way of śūnya." And this "way" is termed by some Asian as well as Western scholars as the "logic of śūnya." Thus termed, the "logic" must be one of showing the way to the ultimate understanding that śūnya is the realized content of all experiential components (dharmas) because of the contingent dynamics of nature (pratītya-samutpāda). It is a "method" only in the sense of exhibiting the whys and wherefores of all views (dṛṣṭi), proper or improper, and of asserting the thusness of experiences as such (yathābhūtam).

To be sure, the Kārikā are difficult to read and understand because the method of criticizing any view (drsti) to its logical necessity (prasanga) and thereby to exhibit its absurdity, is basically an exercise in seeing the proper relationship between the two-fold aspect of truth (Chapter XXIV, 8, 9). This is to say, the reader must be able to distinguish between the realms of empirical "relative" truth (samvṛti-satya) and of non-empirical "supreme" truth (paramārthasatya). He must, as it were, be able to shift his gears of ontological understanding. The phrase, "ontological understanding" seems redundant but it is used advisedly in the sense that there is an understanding with reference to the existential or sentient nature of the individual. This nature generally has not been accorded its due import in the past since sentient creatures usually forget the basis of their own existence and tend to run off into the clouds of intellection, becoming increasingly unmindful of the totality of the nature of things.

Naturally, the concept of *sūnyatā* is with reference to the supreme nature of truth but this does not mean that the concept is not

relatable to the empirical nature of truth. The key concept here is, as mentioned earlier, relational origination (pratitya-samutpāda). It is a so-called bridge concept which spans both realms of truth. It presents a unique perspective of reality (bhava) and permits the perceptive one to have glimpses of the relational structure of being on the one hand and of the voidness (sūnyatā) of being on the other. However, the empirical and the non-empirical realms are not coexistent in all respects from the beginning in the mundane world. although admittedly the Karikā state quite cryptically that in the ultimate sense the samsāric and nirvānic realms are identical (XXV. 19, 20). One can only see reality and relate it from the empirical (samvrti) standpoint, to be sure, but this standpoint requires a relentless discursive analysis of the mind and its functions. It is basically an exercise in divesting the mind of its own prejudices or attachment to mental elements in the structurally enslaved sense. Though existence is on the flow at all times, the mind and its objects seemingly are not. The mind freezes or staticizes the object of perception without being cognizant of itself and its functions as being nothing but "waves" (i.e., visible markings) in the normal flow of existence. How can one reconcile the duality of the mind, i.e., one side as real and the other relatively unreal? This, of course, is the crucial point and the ultimate message of the Buddhist philosophy of nonself (anātman), non-permanence (anitya) and the universal nature of the hindrance-ridden being (duhkha). Passage or flow of existence means that there is no objectifying or entifying of the mind itself and its objects of perception. Thus any concept (drsti) viewed abstractly is taken to task and brought to its ultimate idiocy or self-contradiction.

Due to the relentless attack on any and all concepts the Mādhyamika is sometimes referred to as the philosophy of no-position. Indeed, even Candrakirti in his *Prasannapadā* (p. 19.1-19.7) makes this comment, i.e., the Mādhyamika has no counter-thesis to offer because that would entail yet another position. In the *Vigrahavyā*-

vartani (verse 29), Nāgārjuna himself admits that he has no views or theses to offer and therefore he must be absolved of all errors.

All this points to one thing: that the reality of things is not bound to logical or conceptual understanding. Reality or human experience lends itself to symbolism but to that extent it must be understood that symbolic references are strictly speaking deficient of ultimate reality. To exhibit this fact is the tenor of the whole of the Kārikā. This spirit is quite aptly demonstrated in the early remarks by Candrakīrti that any reality or any experience due to relational origination (pratītyasamutpāda), if characterizable at all, will have to be in the following negative terms:

Non-extinction, non-origination, non-destruction, non-eternal (anirodham anutpādam anucchedam aśāśvatam)

Non-identity, non-differentiation, non-coming into being, pon-going out of being

(anekārtham anānārtham anāgamam anirgamam)

These are known popularly as the Eight Negations or the Eight-Noes (八不). But they are not another set of conceptions expressed in mere negative terms; rather they are expressions of the reality of the nature of things in relational origination and, as expressions, they only point to the limits of reason, indirectly exhibiting the fact that the negative terms are only expressive of a positive content to the nature of things. In other words, since relational origination is at all times dynamically involved, no positive static view of reality as such (tattva) is grasped and thus the negative expressions only aid in "narrowing down" or "squeezing reality" to the point of giving the reader a microscopic view of the dynamic flow of existence.

The Buddhists have gone beyond the "either or" logic since it only operates within the realm of reason. They were interested in a more inclusive way of accommodating the whole of man's experiential process. They came up with the four possibles (catuṣkoṭikā) in viewing every aspect of reality. That is to say, for example,

one could assert (1) being (bhava), (2) not being (abhava), (3) both being and not being, and (4) neither being nor not being. This is certainly exhaustive of the treatment of reality, whether of the physical or mental nature or both at once. Nagarjuna utilizes this type of logical view of things throughout the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$. It should be cautioned that though the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ at times seem to be positing logical entities, in reality, they are pointing at ontological entities or statuses. (Confer, for example, Chapter XXVII on the Examination of Dogmatic Views.)

Thus Nagariuna at the very outset, sets forth to show the logical ways in which common intellects tend to view reality. However, they are unmindful of the four relational conditions describing the dynamic flow of nature, i.e., causal component (hetu-pratvaya), objective component (ālambana-pratyaya), sequential component (samanantara-pratyaya), and dominant component (ādhibateya or adhibatipratyaya). These refer to the contingent conditions involved in the continuity of being. As the continuity (samtāna) is a fact of nature, no thing or experience can be analyzed into steadfast existential factors as such. If it were analyzable, there would be no production from self (svatah), from other (paratah), from both self and other, or from neither, i.e., without a cause (ahetu). Nāgārjuna then will criticize any positing of permanent entities from this two-fold sense. i.e., that, first of all, reality is contingently formed (hetu-pratyayaapeksa) and, secondly, there can be no reference at all to reality being characterized as extinction, origination, destruction, eternal, etc. (the opposite of the Eight-Noes) within this contingent framework.

The spirit of Nāgārjuna has been kept intact and transmitted to us by way of diverse lands and languages. In this respect, the Chinese contribution is tremendously large. Foremost, of course, is Kumārajīva's *Chung-lun* which is based on Pingala's now lost Sanskrit commentary of the *Kārikā*. This translation work is the forerunner of the Śūnyavāda movement in China, starting with such

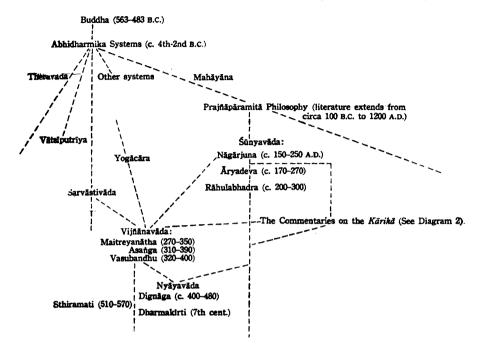
men as Seng-chao (384-414) and Tao-sheng (360-434) and continuing on to Chi-tsang (549-623). The latter's monumental work, San-lun-hsüan-i (三論玄義), (Taishō Shinshū Daizōkyō, XXXXV, No. 1852) is greatly responsible for the establishment of Śūnyavāda thought in China and later in Japan. Special attention must be called to his famous two-fold analytical division of the ideas of the Kārikā, i.e., into the famous p'o-hsieh-hsien-cheng (破邪顯正) which can be rendered as refutation (or critique) is at once an awakening to the true dharma or reality as such. The influence of this thought on subsequent Far Eastern Buddhism cannot be underestimated.

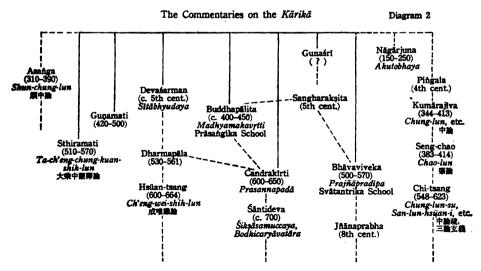
The present translation is made especially with the view of furthering a philosophic perspective and understanding of the key terms and concepts. Although, in the strictest sense, there is no absolute and direct analysis of anything including human experiential process, a truism as old as the original teachings of the historical Buddha, it is true that man is constantly involved in assigning provisional status (prabañca) to any subject or object under review. And, in spite of this, he struggles to seek some measure of understanding. Bearing this in mind it was felt justifiable, in the case of a few verses, to leave the original Sanskrit terms untranslated, especially with such terms as sūnya and sūnyatā, since no English equivalent could be found. Moreover, it was thought that it would spare the reader from being misled or from forming certain prejudices against Buddhism at the outset. It seems that the frequency of exposure to such key terms might promote their currency sooner and at the same time improve Buddhist understanding in the original sense.

Despite Nāgārjuna's strong indictment against Abhidharmic interpretation in the opening chapter, the reader should constantly be wary of falling into any approach which might lead to simple or naive type of realism or even a simple metaphysical understanding of man and world throughout the rest of the chapters. All terms and concepts are always relatable or correspondent with any and all

aspects of man's experience. Thus, for example, the term, dharma, is strictly a human experiential factor, heavily mental or concomitant with mental process to be sure, but it has no reference to the physical nature of things as such. It is still man who makes the interpretation of nature possible, although he cannot deny the surroundings to which he is constantly and contingently related and from which he must dynamically draw upon for his own existence.

In virtue of the scarcity of literature on the Buddhist movements in India proper and elsewhere, it is rather difficult to piece together a clear and accurate picture of the lineage of the Sunyavada. However, in order to show some semblance of ideological continuity in the Mahayana, the following two diagrams are attached. The first is a general sketch starting from the historical Buddha and showing the prominent schools in their relative chronological places. The second is a more minute and larger scheme of the commentaries made on the Kārikā. As noted earlier, eight commentaries were allegedly made, including Nāgārjuna's own, but if the work of Pingala and Asanga (both existing only in the Chinese) were added. the number would total ten. The texts (in Italics) refer to either commentaries or important works in Sanskrit or Chinese which continue the Sunyavada thought. Only five of the commentaries are identified in the Sanskrit. And, finally, particular attention should be made with respect to the close affinity of the Sūnyavāda and the Vijñānavāda. In diagram 2, for example, Asanga, Sthiramati, Gunamati. Dharmapāla and Hsüan-tsang all belong to the Vijfiānavāda tradition.





Notes

- Consult Edward Conze: The Prajāāpāramitā Literature (Mouton & Co., 'S-Gravenhage, 1960) for the most exhaustive treatment of this genre of Buddhist literature made recently.
- A concise treatment is made by E. J. Thomas in his The History of Buddhist Thought (Routledge & Kegan Paul, Lt., 1953 reprint), Appendix II, pp. 288-292.
- Šāriputra-abhidharma-sāstra (舎利佛阿毘曇論) Taishō Shinshū Daizōkyō, XXVIII, N. 1548, a work which remains only in the Chinese and belongs to an unknown Abhidharma school.
- Confer, op. cit.; Thomas, Appendix I, pp. 274-276 for the comparison of the sets.
- 5. The most systematic treatment of the Sarvāstivāda 75 dharma-theory was done by Th. Stcherbatsky in his The Central Conception of Buddhism and the Meaning of Dharma, (reprinted by Susil Gupta, Ltd., India, 1956). This is a formidable volume, perhaps one of his best early works in pioneering of Buddhist thought, but it must be read with certain understanding and a critical eye.
- The 75 dharmas for Sarvāstivāda, 89 for Theravāda, 100 for Vijfiānavāda and 84 for Satyasiddhi.
- 7. Warren, Henry Clarke: Buddhism in Translation. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1896. p. 116. After nearly 75 years since its publication, this work still remains one of the outstanding translation projects done on the Theravada tradition. The selections are excellent and their translations are done with rare insight and understanding. However, it should be noted that such phrases as the above do manifest dangerous implications.
- Op. cit.; Central Conception. pp. 19, 23, 24, 57, 62. This interpretation is carried on in his later monumental work, The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāna (Leningrad: Publication Office of the Academy of Science of the USSR, 1927) and also in the two-volume Buddhist Logic (Leningrad: Publishing Office of the Academy of Science of the USSR, 1930).
- 9. Ibid.; p. 63.
- 10. For example, another worthy Buddhist scholar, T. R. V. Murti, The Central Philosophy of Buddhism (London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 19:6) faithfully follows Stcherbatsky in giving the radical pluralistic interpretation to the Sarvāstivāda. Confer, pp. 69-76. Ashok Kumar Chatterjee in his The Yogācāra Idealism (Varanasi: Banaras Hindu University 1962) voices the same realistic interpretation that "all dharmas are accepted as objectively real," and concludes that the Sarvāstivāda is "critical realism." Confer, p. 3. A most recent work by K. Venkata Ramanan, Nāgārjūna's Philosophy, as presented in the Mahā-prajñāpāramitā-śāstra (Tokyo: Charles

E. Tuttle Company, Inc., 1966) follows the same line of pluralistic interpretation. Confer, pp. 57-62. Edward Conze also carries a similar theme in his scholarly work, *Buddhist Thought in India* (London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1962). Confer especially pp. 138-141 where he labels Sarvāstivāda as "pan-realism."

At least one contemporary Indian Buddhist scholar, Vishwanath Prasad Varma, has taken exception to Stcherbatsky's radical pluralistic interpretation in which he "traces the concept of Dharma as vital essential super-subtle elements in the Kathopanishad," and Varma concludes, "there is no validity for interpreting the word Dharma or Dhamma as occurring in the Pali literature as element." Confer, V. P. Varma: "The Upanishads and the Origins of Buddhism," (The Journal of the Bihar Research Society; Buddha Jayanti Special Issue, Vol. II, 1956. pp. 372-394). p. 373 and footnote 6.

- Pali-English Dictionary. Published by the Pali Text Society, 1921-25. Ed. by T. W. Rhys Davids & William Stede. p. 126 under S.
- 12. The famous simile of the man who, wounded by a poison arrow, refuses treatment and interminably asks questions on the origin, maker, archer, etc. of that arrow, gives the clearest example of "committing to the flames" matters which have no immediate empirical concern. Confer Majjhima Nikāya; Discourse 63, Cūļa-Mālunkyasutta.
- 13. It would seem that later developments in esoteric tantrism in India and Tibet are forms which are so vastly different from original Buddhism that they cannot be considered true Buddhism although they have carried the name of Buddhism geographically to other countries and chronologically up to the present. They are, strictly speaking, deviations which speeded Buddhist degeneration into the impure realm. But Buddhism and Buddhist doctrines have the trait of being amenable to changes in all respects and this might be looked upon as supportive of the unique feature of simplicity and profundity co-existing, a feature which made it possible for Buddhism to become one of the leading religious forces of Asia.
- 14. Besides the bulky Prajňāpāramitā Sūtras, some of the pre-Nāgārjuna works, without ascertainment of rightful authorship but written presumably by men of the highest caliber, are the Saddharmapundarika Sūtra, Srīmāladevisinhanāda Sūtra, Vimalakīrtinirdeşa Sūtra, Avatamsaka Sūtra, Suvarnaprabhaşa Sūtra and Sukhāvatīvyūha Sūtra.
- 15. It is true that Nāgārjuna and his tradition were criticized for being nihilistic (nāstika) by contemporaries but this criticism was off the mark for, on simple grounds, no Buddhist system or school would advance the utter destruction of the individual unless it is a deviated form which of course Śūnyavāda cannot be identified with. Recently, an Indian scholar Harsh Narain attempts to prove that the Śūnyavāda is "absolute nihilism rather than a form of Absolutism or Absolutistic monism." (Śūnyavāda:

A Reinterpretation." Philosophy East and West, XIII, 4 [January 1964, p. 311-338.]) Though Narain argues deftly with many references to support his claim, there still remains the big question whether his reinterpretation is just another linguistic reinterpretation of the basic term, sūnyatā, in its various usages.

16. E. J. Thomas says that "The Buddhist thinkers had without realizing it stumbled upon the fact that the terms of ordinary language do not express the real facts of existence. Words are static, but not the objects to which they refer. The contradictions were attributed not to the defects of verbal expression, but to the nature of the experience." (The History of Buddhist Thought; op. cit. p. 218.

It might be added here that one aspect of the doctrine of indeterminacy or inexpressibility (avyākṛta) is to exhibit the impossibility of presenting realistically in written or unwritten forms any metaphysical (ergo symbolic) references to the world or to human experiences. And pushed further, the doctrine reminds us to know the limits of discriminative knowledge (vijāāna) but, at the same time, to seek within it the way to non-discriminative knowledge (nirvikalpa-jāāna, prajāā).

17. The so-called idealistic tradition in the Mahāyāna, i.e., the Yogācāravijnānavāda tradition, has been subjected to an interpretation which is
much too mental or conceptual and consequently overplayed. The ālayavijnāna, for example, has been assigned to the mind as a storehouse of
mental seeds without giving due credit or emphasis to the "physical"
housing in which it must function. The interplay of the eight vijnānas
("consciousnesses") and the bijas ("seeds") is subtle but cannot be explained away as mere ideational process.

In this connection, it should be pointed out that C. H. Hamilton's pioneering translation work, Wei Shih Er Shih Lun 唯無二十論 or The Treatise in Twenty Stanzas on Representation-only by Vasubandhu (American Oriental Society, New Haven, Connecticut, 1938; Reprint by Kraus Reprint Corppration, N. Y. 1967), has generated a strict subjective or idealistic interpretation of the Vijñānavāda. But this interpretation is definitely incorrect. J. Takakusu has also contributed, inadvertently perhaps, to this erroneous view by coining the phrases, "mere-ideation" and "ideation-only" for the Sanskrit term, vijñaptimātra, or for the Chinese, wei-shih. (The Essentials of Buddhist Philosophy. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1947. Chapter VI). To be sure, there is no English equivalent of the term which would not be criticized. However, any phrase attached to the term must be amply qualified when employed.

The outer realm of perception (vigaya, soci-ching 外域) is not referring to "external objects" nor even with respect to any "objects" of perception. It is a generic term for the total external realm involved in the perceptual process. But, as the treatise states, very clearly, the so-called "consciousness-only" (vijaptimatra soci-shih 唯識) is inviolably bound

with the outer realm (visaya) and yet, in the strict sense, it is not the result of any so-called "external objects" nor is it responsible for the existence of the "objects" themselves. See especially verses XIII-XVI of Hamilton's work.

- 18. This negativistic theme is carried out by A. B. Keith in his monumental and influential work, Buddhist Philosophy in India and Ceylon (Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1923). He says, "In the Madhyamaka...the absolute truth is a negativism or doctrine of vacuity (śūnyatā), established by the application to the ideas accepted by the Hinavana as absolute truth of a logic which insists that any contradiction is an infallible proof of error, and which finds contradiction in every conception, and determining a priori what is impossible, denies its existence on that ground in the face of facts." (p. 235) Further on, he goes on to say, "Nagarjuna denies consistently that he has any thesis of his own, for to uphold one would be wholly erroneous; the truth is silence, which is neither affirmation nor negation, for negation in itself is essentially positive in implying a reality. He confines himself to reducing every positive assertion to absurdity, thus showing that the intellect condemns itself as inadequate just as it finds hopeless antinomies in the world of experience." (p. 239).
- 19. Literally and generally speaking, the opposite of duhkha is sukha which means the agreeable, pleasant, easeful, wholesome state of being. In this sense, sukha is readily attainable by all if proper livelihood is led but it should never be identified with the final goal, nirvāna, although the latter presupposes the accomplishment of the former.
- 20. There is close resemblance, to be sure, between the two types of relativity doctrine, one Buddhistic and the other scientific, but it is doubtful whether one side can successfully be translated over to the other with all the implications therein. It seems that there is a basic difference in the scientific and pre-scientific use of the term. One side is basically physical or mechanistic and therefore largely deterministic, while the other is organic or ontological in nature and therefore inclusive of deterministic and non-deterministic factors. It will be seen that Nāgārjuna, in Chapter I, demonstrates the untenability of strict causality, causal elements, and causal connection, and thus hints at "other" approaches to the understanding of reality (tattva).

In all of his major works, Stcherbatsky goes to the extent of using capitals on the translation of *pratityasamutpāda* as Relativity or the Principle of Relativity, and thereby implicitly promotes a kind of monism. It is interesting to note that T.R.V. Murti in a work cited earlier follows Stcherbatsky's interpretation quite freely and even ends with (or aims at) a strictly Vedāntic (monistic) picture of the Mādhyamika.

21. The best case on this is represented by T. R. V. Murti in his previously cited work, The Central Philosophy of Buddhism. Confer especially pages

- 47-54. While on page 9, he extends to the historical Buddha the honor of being the first dialectician in the world.
- 22. In the subsequent translations the reader should be able to judge for himself whether logic or dialectic is used consistently to educe truth or the nature of ultimate reality (tattva), or even emptiness (śūnyatā) of being.
- 23. Murti talks about the "Conflict of Reason," "Criticism," or "reflective awareness of things," as the dialectical import of the Mādhyamika prasanga doctrine (reductio ad absurdum) but whether prasanga is really a method for educing truth or only a method of criticism is a moot question. Perhaps, it is neither and that the whole tenor of the Mādhyamika might actually be to tax reason only to its discriminative limits and thereby render clear the absurdity of adhering to the discriminated objectified elements. Beyond that it might only be either sheer speculation on the function of reason or a case of reading in too much. It might he added that, in Buddhism as a whole, there is no logic (rational play) without reference to the ontological nature of things. In short, no logic without ontology.
- 24. He commented on the Pańcavińsatisāhasrikā Prajnāpāramitā (The 25,000 Verse Prajňāpāramitā Sūtra). His commentary work in turn is known as the Mahāprajňāpāramitā Šāstra but is only extant in the Chinese as the Ta-chih-tu-lun (大智幹論 Taishō Shinshū Daizōkyō, XXV, No. 1509)
- 25. Both extremes or their perceptual contents or elements thereof are identical after all on the level of objectification and with respect to the subsequent clinging action. This is one important aspect of the middle path which has not been given due attention by not a few scholars.

The Translation of the

Mūlamadhyamakakārikā of Nāgārjuna

with

the Sanskrit kārikā romanized

CHAPTER I

Pratyaya parīkṣā

Examination of Relational Condition

The term, pratyaya, has been variously rendered as yin-yüan (因緣) by Kumārajīva, as causality by Stcherbatsky, as Bedingungen by Walleser. All three renditions, it must be stated, do not do complete justice to the Sanskrit original but there is a feeling that all three translators have sensed the significance of the term and concluded with the best possible term under their command in conveying the idea. This is just an example of how difficult it is to translate an original idea into another language, a difficulty which is doubly so when the term is a philosophical concept.

We may perhaps venture to say at the outset that the term ought to be shorn of any notion of "cause" or "causality" as commonly interpreted. These notions would immediately set up a causal connection such that an effect or something is originated or produced out of something else. In other words, they would connote a oneto-one, cause-effect, occurrence of events which is definitely not the true intention of the Mādhyamika. For this reason, it is proposed, not without shortcomings either, to coin the phrase, "relational condition," in which the adjective, "relational" refers to the ontological representation of an event or subject as related to the whole situation, whether significantly or not, in a certain moment; while the noun, "condition," refers to the state of such an event or subject at that particular moment. Thus, relational condition does reflect somewhat the modern idea of a four-dimensional view of events in nature but the comparison can never be completely carried out because the former has a pre-scientific origin while the latter a strictly Western scientific base.

The chapter then discusses the important concept of bratvava or relational condition. Nagarjuna immediately ties it in with the problem of origination or how experiential events come forth. He asserts emphatically that events or entities (a term synonymously used in reference to a unity of human experience) are never known or found to originate out of themselves, from others, from both themselves and others, and from the absence of causes (verse 1). Following fundamental Buddhist principles, he points out that four and only four types of relational condition are permissible, i.e. primary causal (hetu), appropriating or objectively extending (ālambana), sequential or contiguous (anantara), and dominantly extending (ādhipateya) (verse 3). But then, keeping in mind the concepts of being (sat) and non-being (asat), he methodically analyzes the play of relational conditions in order to exhibit the inner contradiction or utter absurdity of premising anything in the entified form.

In such a way this chapter serves as an introduction to the rest of the chapters because the method or line of argument used recurs over and over again, almost ad nauseam. However, the reader must constantly keep in mind that the basic aim of Nāgārjuna is to reveal the fact that experiential events are always in the nature of relational origination (pratītyasamutpāda). And, very early in a dedicatory verse, Nāgārjuna sings praise to the Buddha's supreme teaching of relational origination. The verse contains the famous Eight-Noes or Negations which indirectly point at the blissful realm of existence. It expresses the whole philosophy of Mādhyamika in a nutshell and thus could well be labelled the Mādhyamika Creed.

anirodhamanutpādamanucchedamaśāśvatam/
anekārthamanānārthamanāgamamanirgamam//
yah pratityasamutpādam prapañcopasamam śivam/
deśayāmāsa sambuddhastam vande vadatām varam//

I pay homage to the Fully Awakened One,
the supreme teacher who has taught
the doctrine of relational origination,
the blissful cessation of all phenomenal thought constructions.

(Therein, every event is "marked" by):
non-origination, non-extinction,
non-destruction, non-permanence,
non-identity, non-differentiation
non-coming (into being), non-going (out of being).

Verse 1

na svato nāpi parato na dvābhyām nāpyahetutaḥ/ utpannā jātu vidyante bhāvāh kvacana ke cana//

At nowhere and at no time can entities ever exist by originating out of themselves, from others, from both (self-other), or from the lack of causes.

Verse 2

catvārah pratyayā hetuścālambanamanantaram/
tathaivādhipateyam ca pratyayo nāsti pañcamah//

There are four and only four relational conditions; namely primary causal, appropriating or objectively extending, sequential or contiguous, and dominantly extending conditions. There is no fifth.

Note: Stcherbatsky asserts that the classification into four varieties belongs to the Sarvāstivādins and that it is supplemented by a further classification into six different hetus, which probably are later than Nagarjuna, since they are not mentioned by him. (The Conception of Buddhist Nirvana; p. 164, fn. 6) On the other hand, S. Yamaguchi points out that the Abhidharmamahavibhasasastra, chuan 16 (阿毘達磨大毘婆論, 卷十六) makes reference to the fact Nāgārjuna is only trying to understand the method of the Sarvāstivādins regarding their claim of the transmission of the true teachings of the Buddha. He further indicates that the four pratyayas also occur in the Madhyamakāvatāra (入中論). Thus there is no direct connection with the theory of six helus. (Confer Yamaguchi, S.: Prasannapadā nāma Mādhyamikavrttih of Candrakirti. 淨明句論と名ずくる月稱造中論釋. Japanese translation with critical notations. Tokyo: Köbundö Shobö, 1947 (Vol. I), 1949 (Vol. II); Vol. 1, p. 116, note 6).

na hi svabhāvo bhāvānām pratyayādişu vidyate/ avidyamāne svabhāve parabhāvo na vidyate//

In these relational conditions the self-nature of the entities cannot exist. From the non-existence of self-nature, othernature too cannot exist.

Verse 4

kriyā na pratyayavatī nāpratyayavatī kriyā/ pratyayā nākriyāvantah kriyāvantaśca santyuta//

The functional force does not inhere relational conditions, nor does it not inhere them. The relational conditions, vice versa, do not inhere the functional force, nor do they not inhere it.

Verse 5

```
utpadyate pratityemānitime pratyayāḥ kila/
yāvanotpadyata ime tāvannāpratyayāḥ katham//
```

Only as entities are uniquely related and originated can they be described in terms of relational conditions. For, how can non-relational conditions be asserted of entities which have not come into being?

Verse 6

```
naivāsato naiva satah pratyayo 'rthasya yujyate/
Asatah pratyayah kasya satasca pratyayena kim//
```

Relational condition does not validly belong to either being or non-being. If it belongs to being, for what use is it? And if to non-being, for whose use is it?

Verse 7

```
na sannāsanna sadasandharmo nirvartate yadā/katham nirvartako heturevam sati hi yujyate//
```

When a factor of experience does not evolve from being, non-being, nor from both being and non-being, how can there be an effectuating cause? Thus (such) a cause is not permissible.

Note: This verse treats the concept of the primary causal condition (hetu-pratyaya)

Verse 8

anālambana evāyam san dharma upadišyate/ athānālambane dharme kuta ālambanam punah//

It is said that a true factor of experience does not have an appropriating or objectively extending relational condition. If it does not exist, then again, wherein is this type of relational condition?

Note: Alambana is normally translated as the object of cognition but here it hardly seems applicable to the concept of dharma (factor of experience).

Verse 9

anutpanneşu dharmeşu nirodho nopapadyate/ nānantaramato yuktam niruddhe pratyayaśca kah//

It is not possible to have extinction where factors of experience have not yet arisen. In an extinguished state, for what use is a relational condition? Thus the sequential or contiguous relational condition is not applicable.

Verse 10

bhāvānām niḥsvabhāvānām na sattā vidyate yataḥ/ satidamasmin bhavatītyetannaivopapadyate//

As entities without self-nature have no real status of existence, the statement, "from the existence of that this becomes," is not possible.

Note: This verse treats the concept of the dominantly extending relational conditional (adhipati-pratyaya). Stecherbatsky interprets the Sankrit phrase, satidam asmin bhavatīti, as the formula for the twelve-fold causal chain as found in the Nikāyas. However, Ryotai Hatani points out as a note to this particular verse that the phrase is not to be restricted to the general formula on causation but should simply mean the significance of the existence of one entity from another. (Confer Hatani, R.: Sanronkaidai-to-honyaku 三論解題と翻譯 [Sanron and their Translations with critical notations]); in Kokuyaku Issaikyō, Chūgan-bu, 國譯一切經,

中觀部 Vol. 1. Tokyo: Daitō Shuppan-sha 1930). To be operative, the fourth cause (adhipati-pratyaya) must assume the existence of an entity. However, Nāgārjuna's fundamental standpoint is that of the non-self-nature (niḥsvabhāva) of an entity and therefore rules out any imputation of a causal or relational connection of entities in a one-to-one manner.

Verse 11

```
na ca vyastasamastesu pratyayesvasti tatphalam/
pratyayebhyah katham tacca bhavenna pratyayesu yat//
```

The effect (i.e., arisen entity) does not exist separated from relational condition nor together in relational condition. If it does not exist in either situation, how could it arise out of relational conditions?

Verse 12

```
athāsadapi tattebhyah pratyayebhyah pravartate/
apratyayebhyo'pi kasmānnābhipravartate phalam//
```

Now then, if non-entity arises from these relational conditions, why is it not possible that the effect (i.e., arisen entity) cannot arise from non-relational conditions?

Verse 13

```
phalam ca pratyayamayam pratyayāścāsvayammayāḥ/
phalamasvamayebhyo yattatpratyayamayam katham//
```

The effect (i.e., arisen entity) has the relational condition but the relational conditions have no self-possessing (natures). How can an effect, arising from no self-possessing (natures), have the relational condition?

Verse 14

```
tasmānna pratyayamayam nāpratyayamayam phalam/
Samvidyate phalābhāvātpratyayāpratyayāḥ kutaḥ//
```

Consequently, the effect (i.e., arisen entity) is neither with relational nor without non-relational condition. Since the effect has no existing status, wherein are the relational and non-relational conditions?

CHAPTER II

Gatāgata parīksā

Examination of What Has and What Has Not Transpired

As the title suggests, this chapter is an examination of what is known to have transpired or gone (gata) and what is known not to have transpired or gone (agata). There is a temptation to translate the Sanskrit terms as simply the past and the future respectively, but on critical reading of the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ the argument centers on the idea of a past (transpired moment) and does not justify any assertion of a future in the ordinary sense. In developing the argument, however, the use of another term is necessitated in relating gata with agata. This term is gamyamāna or the passing away in or from the present. The Chinese version, i.e., Kumārajīva's translation, is very accurate in rendering the above terms as i-ch'ü 已去 (gata). wei-ch'ü 未去 (agata), and ch'ü-shih 去時 (gamyamāna, also rendered as hsien-ch'ü 現去). The usage reveals that the Chinese character ch'ü 去 appears in all three, which shows the care and skill employed in adhering to the central concept of the movement into the past. Thus the above terms are respectively translated as "that which has transpired or passed (gata)," "that which has not transpired or passed (agata)," and "present passing away (gamyamāna)."

The argument in the present chapter is undoubtedly addressed to those who maintain the idea of an individuality in things (the (pudgalavādins) such as the case was with the Sammitiya and the Vātsīputriya. The division of passage or movement (gati, gamana) in time is refuted on the grounds that to assert any one of the three moments does not necessitate the introduction of any of the other two terms. The chapter is a necessary sequence in the development of the doctrine of pratītyasamutpāda set forth in the opening chapter

and it also engenders the mood and pattern for the critical analysis of the opponent's views expressed in the remaining chapters.

Verse 1

```
gatam na gamyate tāvadagatam naiva gamyate/
gatāgatavinirmuktam gamyamānam na gamyate//
```

Indeed, that which has transpired does not come to pass nor does that which has not transpired. Separated from these (gatāgata), the present passing away cannot be known.

Note: S. Yamaguchi enlightens us that the final "na gamyate" refers to the fact that a certain condition is unknowable or inconceivable. Cf., his translation of Prasannapadā, op. cit., Vol. 1, p. 144, notes 7 and 13.

Verse 2 (The opponent contends)

```
cestā yatra gatistatra gamyamāne ca sā yatah/
na gate nāgate cestā gamyamāne gatistatah//
```

Where there is movement, there is passage. There is movement also in the present passing away but not in that which has transpired nor in that which has not transpired. Thus passage must reside in the present passing away.

Verse 3 (Nāgārjuna asserts)

```
gamyamānasya gamanam katham nāmopapatsyate/gamyamānam hy agamanam yadā naivopapadyate//
```

Indeed, how is it possible for the present passing away to have a coming to pass? For, it is not possible for the present passing away to be without a coming to pass.

Note: The second part of the Sanskrit original reads: gamyamāne dvigamanam yadā naivopadadyate. De La Vallée Poussin, however, makes a notation (op. cit., p. 94, note 2) to the effect that, according to the Tibetan version, this part should read: gamyamānam hy agamanam yadā naivopadadyate. Both Ryōtai Hatani and Hakuju Ui note in their respective Japanese translations that the Akutobhaya (Wu-wei-lun 無畏論), Prajñā-pradīpa (Pan-jo-te'ng-lun 般若燈論), Ta-ch'eng-chung-kuan-shih-lun (大乘中觀釋論) and

Pingala's version as translated by Kumārajīva into Chinese (Chung-lun 中論), all refer to the latter reading. I have adopted Ui's method of changing the Sanskrit original into its more acceptable form. Ui goes on to say that the changes in the Sanskrit original attest to the fact that a few revisions had been made in later centuries. (Confer Hakuju Ui's work in Kokuyaku Daizōkyō, Rombu Vol. V, 國譯大藏經, 論部, 卷五 Tokyo: Kokumin Bunko Kankōkai, 1921. p. 19).

Verse 4

gamyamānasya gamanam yasya tasya prasajyate/
rte gatergamyamānam gamyamānam hi gamyate//

The assertion that the present passing away has a coming to pass results in a fallacy that the former can be without the latter. However, the present passing away does come to pass.

Verse 5

gamyamānasya gamane prasaktam gamanadvayam yena tadgamyamānam ca yaccātra gamanam punah//

There are two aspects of coming to pass inherent in the passage of the present passing away. That is, one (which gives substance) to the present passing away and the other which is the coming to pass itself.

Note: Yamaguchi renders *prasakta* as fallacy; thus his translation from the Japanese would read: "There is a fallacy of asserting two kinds of coming to pass..." (cf. op. cit. his translation, p. 150) This is not without merits for it clarifies the position that Nāgārjuna takes.

Verse 6

dvau gantārau prasajyete prasakte gamanadvaye/ gantāram hi tiraskṛtya gamanam nopapadyate//

If the two aspects of coming to pass (are admitted), then there follow two kinds of passing (i.e., transpiring) entities. For, a passing away which is devoid of a passing entity does not take place.

```
gantāram cettiraskṛtya gamanam nopapadyate/
gamane 'sati gantātha kuta eva bhavisyati//
```

If now the coming to pass which is devoid of a passed entity does not take place, then, in turn, where will the passing entity be without the coming to pass?

Verse 8

```
gantā na gacchati tāvadagantā naiva gacchati/
anyo ganturagantuśca kastrtīyo hi gacchati//
```

Indeed, a passing entity does not come to pass and neither does a non-passing entity. Apart from these, how could there be a third (type of) entity coming to pass?

Note: A non-passing entity (agantr) refers to an entity which is not involved in the coming to pass process.

Verse 9

```
gantā tāvadgacchatīti kathamevopatsyate/
gamanena vinā gantā yadā naivopapadyate//
```

Indeed, how is it (possible) for a passing entity to come to pass when, separated from a coming to pass, a passing entity does not take place?

Verse 10

```
pakṣo gantā gacchatīti yasya tasya prasajyate/
gamanena vinā gantā ganturgamanamicchataḥ//
```

If it is asserted that a passing entity comes to pass then a fallacy would result in that the entity could be separated from the coming to pass. (And yet) a passing entity requires the (condition of) passing away.

Verse 11

```
gamane dve prasajyete gantā yadyuta gacchati/
ganteti cocyate yena gantā sanyacca gacchati//
```

If again it is asserted that the passing entity comes to pass then (another) fallacy would result in two types of coming to pass. One type would exhibit the fact of a passing entity and the other the coming to pass in virtue of being a passing entity.

Note: Ui indicates that the Sanskrit term, cocyate (to be named), is cojyate (to be exhibited) in the Tibetan version. And although the Chinese is not clear on this point, he prefers to follow the Tibetan. (op. cit. Kokuyaku Daizōkyō. Vol. V; p. 22, note 63). I have followed his suggestion.

Verse 12

gate nārabhyate gantum gantam nārabhyate 'gate/ nārabhyate gamyamāne gantumārabhyate kuha//

There is no commencing of passing away in that which has transpired nor in that which has not transpired. Neither is there a commencing in the present passing away. Wherein, then, does it commence (to pass away)?

Verse 13

na pūrvam gamanārambhādgamyamānam na vā gatam/ yatrārabhyeta gamanamagate gamanam kutaḥ//

There is no present passing away prior to the commencement of coming to pass and also in that which has transpired. How could there be a commencement of coming to pass in that which has not transpired?

Verse 14

gatam kim gamyamānam kimagatam kim vikalpyate/ adrsyamāna ārambhe gamanasyaiva sarvathā//

As any form of the commencement of coming to pass cannot be seen, how could that which has transpired, the present passing away, and that which has not transpired be conceivable?

Verse 15

gantā na tisthati tāvadagantā naiva tisthati/ anyo ganturagantusca kastṛtiyo 'tha tisthati//

Indeed, the passing entity nor the non-passing entity does not abide. How could there be a third entity, besides these, that abides?

```
gantā tāvattişthatīti kathamevopapatsyate/
gamanena vinā gantā yadā naivopapadyate//
```

Indeed, how is it (possible) for a passing entity to abide when, separated from a coming to pass, a passing entity does not take place?

Verse 17

```
na tisthati gamyamānānna gatānnāgatādapi/
gamanam sampravṛttiśca nivṛttiśca gateh samā//
```

There is no abiding (nature) in the present passing away, in that which has transpired and in that which has not transpired. (Otherwise) the coming to pass, arising, and cessation would be identical with (the concept of) passage.

Verse 18

```
yadeva gamanam gantā sa eveti na yujyate/
anya eva punargantā gateriti na yujyate//
```

It is not justifiable to say that the coming to pass is the same as the passing entity; nor is it justifiable to say that the passing entity is different from or alien to passage.

Verse 19

```
yadeva gamanam gantā sa eva hi bhavedyadi/
ekibhāvaḥ prasajyeta kartuḥ karmaṇa eva ca//
```

If the coming to pass is identical with the passing entity, then (analogically) it would be the same as falling into the error of imputing a single character to the doer and his deed.

Verse 20

```
anya eva punargantā gateryadi vikalpyate/
gamanam syādṛte ganturgantā syādgamanādṛte//
```

Again, if it is discriminatively thought that the passing entity is different from passage, then perhaps the passing entity could exist without a coming to pass and vice versa.

```
ekībhāvena vā siddhirnānābhāvena vā yayoḥ/
na vidyate tayoḥ siddhiḥ katham nu khalu vidyate//
```

As they (i.e., coming to pass and a passing entity) cannot possibly be established in terms of a single character nor of a different character, how could they be established at all?

Verse 22

```
gatyā yayocyate gantā gatim tām sa na gacchati/
yasmānna gatipūrvo 'sti kaścit kim ciddhi gacchati//
```

The passing entity which is known or described by passage does not initiate the latter because it cannot exist prior to the latter. Yet, any entity somehow does come to pass.

Note: Ui enlightens us that although the Sanskrit is yayocyate, the Chinese and Tibetan versions correspond to yayojyate which is more correct insofar as the meaning is concerned. (op. cit., pp. 27f., note 82).

Verse 23

```
gatyā yayocyate gantā tato'nyām sa na gacchati/
gatī dve nopapadyete yasmādeke pragacchati//
```

The passing entity which is known or described by passage does not intiate a different kind of passage because in a single coming to pass there cannot possibly be two kinds of passage.

Note: See note on previous verse 22 for Ui's reference to yayocyate and yayojyate.

Verse 24

```
sadbhūto gamanam gantā triprakāram na gacchati/
nāsadbhūto 'pi gamanam triprakāram sa gacchati//
```

The real state of a passing entity does not initiate three kinds of coming to pass nor does its unreal state.

Note: The three kinds of coming to pass refer to those involved in (1) real state (sadbhūta), (2) unreal state (asadbhūta), and (3) both real and unreal state (sadasadbhūta.)

Gatāgata parīkṣā

50

Verse 25

gamanam sadasadbhūtah triprakāram na gacchati/ tasmādgatiśca gantā ca gantavyam ca na vidyate//

Both the real and the unreal states (of the passing entity) do not initiate three kinds of coming to pass; therefore there are no passage, passing entity, and that which is to be transpired.

CHAPTER III

Caksurādindriya parīksā

Examination of the Eye-faculty, etc.

This chapter deals with the field or sphere of action of the six sense organs. However, the line of thought in the discussion necessarily entails the understanding of the logic involved in the previous chapter. There we have seen that, strictly speaking, the three concepts of gata, agata, and gamyamāna cannot be maintain d. In the present chapter Nāgārjuna takes up only the first of the six sense organs, i.e., the seeing activity, and demonstrates its non-possibility insofar as seeing itself and others are concerned because of basic objectification or attaching an unwarranted self-nature (svabhāva) to any activity.

Thus, it would follow that there is no seeing agent (draşţṛ) as such. In a similar fashion he assumes that he has demonstrated beyond doubt the non-possibility of imputing any "enduring" characteristic to the rest of the five sense organs, among which the mind is considered as the sixth sense organ.

Verse 1

darśanam śravanam ghrānam rasanam sparśanam manah/ indriyāni sadetesām drastavyādīni gocarah//

The six sense faculties are seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting, touching, and thinking. These have their respective fields of action, such as, what is to be seen, etc.

Verse 2 (Nāgārjuna asserts)
svamātmānam darśanam hi tattameva na paśyati/
na paśyati yadātmānam draksyati tatparān//

The seeing activity, indeed, does not see its own self. If it cannot see its own self, how is it possible to see other (things).

Verse 3

```
na paryāpto 'gnidṛṣṭānto darśanasya prasiddhaye/
sadarśanah sa pratyukto gamyamānagatāgataih//
```

The example of the fire (i.e., which burns material but does not burn itself) is not adequate enough to establish the seeing activity. The fire example and the seeing activity can be refuted (analogically) by the concepts of "present passing away," "that which has transpired," and "that which has not transpired."

Note: Pratyukta can be translated as refuted or answered.

Verse 4

```
nāpasyamānam bhavati yadā kim cana darsanam/darsanam pasyatītyevam kathametattu yujyate//
```

As a seeing activity which is presently not seeing is non-existent, how is it justifiable to speak of a seeing activity which sees?

Verse 5

```
paśyati darśanam naiva naiva paśyatyadarśanam/
vyākhyāto darśanenaiva drastā cāpyupagamyatām//
```

The seeing activity does not see nor does a non-seeing activity. Again, it must be admitted that the seeing agent which relies upon the seeing activity has already been explained.

Verse 6

```
tiraskṛtya draṣṭā nāstyatiraskṛtya ca darśanam/
draṣṭavyam darśanam caiva draṣṭāryasati te kutaḥ//
```

The seeing agent does not exist whether it is with or without the seeing activity. Since it does not exist, where can the seeing activity and the object to be seen be?

```
pratītya mātāpitarau yathoktaḥ putrasambhavaḥ/cakṣūrūpe pratītyaivamukto vijñānasambhavaḥ//
```

As it is said that a child is born out of the father and mother relationship, so also does consciousness arise from the bond between the eye and its material form.

Note: This verse is lacking in the Akutobhaya, Prajñāpradīpa, and the Chinese versions.

Verse 8

```
drastavyadaršanābhavādvijñānādicatustayam/
nāstīti upādānādīni bhavisyanti punah katham//
```

From the non-existence of the seeing activity and the object to be seen, it follows that the four-fold consciousness, etc. (i.e., touch, sensation, desire) do not exist. How then, again, could it be possible for clinging action, etc., to arise?

Note: The four-fold matters refer to the sanskrit, vijnāna, sāsravasparša, vedanā and tṛṣṇā.

Verse 9

```
vyākhyātam śravaṇam ghrāṇam rasanam sparśanam manah/
darśanenaiva jānīyācchrotrśrotavyakādi ca//
```

Based on the discussion of the seeing activity, it is to be known that the functions of hearing, smelling, tasting, touching, thinking or the hearer and what is to be heard, etc., could be explained (in the same manner).

CHAPTER IV

Skandha parīkṣā

Examination of the Skandhas

With the same motive in mind as in previous chapters, i.e., to establish the impossibility of imputing either an enduring entity or characteristic, this chapter takes up the subject of the five skandhas (rūpa, vedanā, samjāā, samskāra and vijāāna). Again, as it was done in Chapter III, Nagarjuna treats only the first of the five skandhas, i.e., rūpa, and assumes that the same line of argument can be cogently carried out with respect to the other four. He first states that it is inconceivable to say that rūpa can be separated from the Four Great Elements (Earth, Water, Fire, Wind) for these are after all concomitant causes for the rupa's own being. On the other hand, the Four Great Elements cannot be thought of in the absence of rūpa. But all this does not mean that neither rūpa nor the elements cease to exist. Nagarjuna is only trying to exhibit the fact that any concept or thing cannot be described by reference to a simple cause-effect relationship in order to establish its existential status.

Verse 1

rūpakāraņanirmuktam na rūpamupalabhyate/ rūpeņāpi na nirmuktam dṛśyate rūpakāraṇam//

Material form $(r\bar{u}pa)$ separated from the efficient cause $(k\bar{a}rana)$ cannot be conceived. Moreover, separated from material form the efficient cause cannot be seen.

Note: The causes are in reference to the Four Great Elements (catvāri mahābhūtāni): Earth, Water, Fire, and Wind.

```
rūpakāraņanirmukte rūpe rūpam prasajyate/
āhetukam na cāstyarthaḥ kaścidāhetukaḥ kva cit//
```

If material form is separated from efficient cause, then it follows that form will be without a cause. However, nowhere is there a thing existing without a cause.

Verse 3

```
rūpena tu vinirmuktam yadi syādrūpakāranam/
akāryakam kāranam syāt nāstyakāryam ca kāranam//
```

Granted that separated from material form an efficient cause of form exists, then there will be a cause without an effect. But a cause without an effect (in reality) does no exist.

Verse 4

```
rūpe satyeva rūpasya kāraņam nopapadyate/
rūpe 'satyeva rūpasya kāraņam nopapadyate//
```

When material form exists, its cause is untenable. Moreover, even when material form does not exist, its cause is (likewise) untenable.

Verse 5

```
nişkāraņam punā rūpam naiva naivopapadyate/
tasmāt rūpagatān kāmścinna vikalpān vikalpayet//
```

Again, material form without a cause definitely is untenable. Therefore, any material form which has been thought of (i.e., becomes a concept) should not (become the basis of) further conceptualization.

Verse 6

```
na kāraņasya sadrsam kāryamityupapadyate/
na kāraņasyāsadrsam kāryamityupapadyate//
```

It is untenable that the effect will resemble the efficient cause. Again, it is untenable that the effect will not resemble the efficient cause.

vedanācittasamjñānām samskārāņām ca sarvaśaḥ/ sarvesāmeva bhāvānām rūpenaiva samah kramah//

Feeling, mind, awareness, volitional plays, and all existentian actions can each be discussed in the same manner as material form.

Verse 8

vigrahe yah parihāram kṛte śūnyatayā vadet/ sarvam tasyāparihrtam samam sādhyena jāyate//

When a refutation is based on $s\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$ and an opponent counter-refutes, he is not able to counter-refute everything since the counter-refutation will be the same (nature) as the contention $(s\bar{a}dhya)$.

Note: This is an extremely subtle and cryptic verse which Candra-kirti clarifies as a play between with self-nature (sasvabhāva) and without self-nature (niḥsvabhāva). The Mādhyamika with its refutation based on śūnyatā always maintains the latter, niḥsvabhāva, of all entities. Cf. Prasannapadā, p. 127.

Verse 9

vyākhyāne ya upālambham kṛte śūnyatayā vadet/ sarvam tasyānupālabdham samam sādhyena jāyate//

When an exposition is based on śūnyatā and an opponent censors, he is not able to censor everything since the censor-ship will be the same (nature) as the contention.

CHAPTER V

Dhātu parīkṣā

Examination of the Dhātus

In this chapter Nāgārjuna considers the nature of true knowledge of the six realms or "elements" ($dh\bar{a}tus$), i.e., $bh\bar{u}$ (earth), jala (water), tejas (fire), anila (wind), $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ (space) and $vij\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ (consciousness). As in previous chapters he treats only one of the elements, this time the $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$, and demonstrates how it cannot exist in four respects. That is to say, $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ cannot exist as (1) an entity or existence ($bh\bar{a}va$), (2) a non-entity or non-existence ($abh\bar{a}va$), (3) a characterization (laksya), and (4) a characteristic (laksana). These four aspects are applicable to the other five dhātus. In the last verse Nāgārjuna comes out with the truth of things in the Mādhyamika sense that one who indulges in the conceptualization of nature's elements, e.g., into existence and non-existence, will never arrive at their real perception or understanding.

Verse 1

nākāśam vidyate kim citpūrvamākāśalakṣaṇāt/
alakṣaṇam prasaiyeta syātpūrvam yadi lakṣaṇāt//

Prior to any spatial characteristics, space cannot exist. If it can exist prior to any characteristics, then, necessarily, it falls into the error of (imputing) a space without characteristics.

Verse 2

alakşano na kaścicca bhāvah samvidyate kva cit/ asatyalakṣane bhāve kramatām kuha lakṣanam//

Nowhere is there any entity without characteristics. When there is no entity without characteristics, where could the characteristics appear?

nālakṣaṇe lakṣaṇasya pravṛttirna salakṣaṇe/ salakṣaṇālaksanābhyāṃ nāpyanyatra pravartate//

In instances of either with or without characteristics, there is no production of characteristics. Again, there is no production in another place other than the two (i.e., with and without characteristics).

Verse 4

lakşaṇāsaṃpravṛttau ca na lakṣyamupapadyate/ lakṣyasyānupapattau ca lakṣaṇasyāpyasambhavah//

Where characteristics do not arise, there can be no characterization. And where characterization is not possible, characteristics will not arise.

Verse 5

tasmānna vidyate lakşyam lakşanam naiva vidyate/lakşyalakşananirmukto naivo bhāvo 'pi vidyate//

Therefore, characterization as well as characteristics cannot exist. Again, an entity devoid of both characterization and characteristics cannot exist.

Verse 6

avidyamāne bhāve ca kasyābhāvo bhavişyati/ bhāvābhāvavidharmā ca bhāvābhāvamavaiti kaḥ//

Where an entity is non-existent, how can any non-entity exist? Moreover, destitute of either entity or non-entity, who can ever know anything apart from these?

Verse 7

tasmānna bhāvo nābhāvo na lakṣyam nāpi lakṣaṇam/ ākāśam ākāśasamā dhātavah pañca ye pare//

Therefore, space is not an entity, non-entity, characterization or characteristics. The rest of the other five dhātus can be treated in the same manner as space.

59

Verse 8

astitvam ye tu paśyanti nāstitvam cālpabuddhayaḥ/bhāvānām te na paśyanti draṣṭavyopaśamam śivam//

Those of low intelligence (i.e., inferior insight) who see only the existence and non-existence of things cannot perceive the wonderful quiescence of things

CHAPTER VI

Rāgarakta parīksā

Examination of Passion and the Impassioned Self

This chapter is concerned with the concepts of passion (raga, affection) and the impassioned self (rakta, the one who is impassioned and thereby "defiled"). Nāgārjuna carries out the discussion on the basis of differing temporal movements. He first inquires into whether the impassioned self can exist apart from the passion and, should it be so, then the passion, in turn, must depend on it. Next, he considers simultaneous occurrence but the idea of simultaneity or concomitance of two entities is an illusion and, surely, a confusion of terms. He clearly demonstrates the fact that as one wishes for concomitance, one still desires to maintain the diversity of elements: and vice versa, as one seeks for diversity one also wishes to assert concomitance at the same time. In short, Nagarjuna indicates that diversity and unity are two different concepts which cannot be confused with reference to reality. Similarly, the concepts of passion and the impassioned self must be viewed aright, never to be spoken of together nor separately. The intimations here are towards the Mādhyamika idea of the śūnyatā of dharmas (the "emptiness" of all factors of experience).

Verse 1

rāgādyadi bhavetpūrvam rakto rāgatiraskṛtaḥ/ tam pratītya bhavedrāgo rakte rāgo bhavetsati//

If prior to and separated from the passion the impassioned self is admitted to exist, then the passion will be contingent on the impassioned self. Thus the passion exists only from the fact of the existence of the impassioned self.

```
rakte 'sati punā rāgaḥ kuta eva bhavişyati/
sati vāsati vā rāge rakte 'pyeşa samaḥ kramaḥ//
```

Again, from the non-existence of the impassioned self, where can the passion be? Whether the passion exists or does not, (once again), the impassioned self can be treated in the same manner.

Verse 3

```
sahaiva punarudbhūtirna yuktā rāgaraktayoḥ/
bhavetām rāgaraktau hi nirapekṣau parasparam//
```

Again, simultaneous occurrence of the passion and the impassioned self is inconceivable because, surely, both of them are not mutually dependent on each other for existence.

Verse 4

```
naikatve sahabhāvo 'sti na tenaiva hi tatsaha/
prthaktve sahabhāvo 'tha kuta eva bhavişyati//
```

In a unity (of passion and impassioned self), there is no concomitance because a thing does not come together with another. In a diversity, on the other hand, how does such a concomitance arise?

Verse 5

```
ekatve sahabhāvaścet syātsahāyam vināpi saḥ/
pṛthaktve sahabhāvaṣcet syātsahāyam vināpi sah//
```

If (it is admitted that) there is concomitance in a unity, then concomitance may also occur without a coming together. If (it is admitted that) there is concomitance in a diversity, then concomitance may also occur without a coming together.

Verse 6

```
pṛthaktve sahabhāvaśca yadi kim rāgaraktayoh/
siddhah pṛthakpṛthagbhāvah sahabhāvo yatastayoh//
```

If there is concomitance in a diversity, in what manner does the passion and the impassioned self exist together? For

then concomitance arises when there is a completion of the two separate entities.

Verse 7

```
siddhah pṛthak pṛthagbhāvo yadi vā rāgaraktayoh/
sahabhāvam kimartham tu parikalpayase tayoh//
```

Moreover, if there is an establishment of the diverse (nature of) passion and the impassioned self, then what is the purpose of your contriving a concomitance of the two?

Verse 8

```
pṛthagna sidhyatītyevam sahabhāvam vikānkṣasi/
sahabhāvaprasiddhyartham pṛthaktvam bhūya icchasi//
```

You say that there is no establishment of the diversity (of entities) and, at the same time, you seek for concomitance. On the other hand, while projecting the establishment of concomitance, once again, you are desirous of diversity.

Verse 9

```
pṛthagbhāvāprasiddheśca sahabhāvo na sidhyati/
katamasmin pṛthagbhāve sahabhāvam satīcchasi//
```

Without the establishment of diverse entities, there is no concomitance. In what kind of diversity (of entities) are you desirous of establishing concomitance?

Verse 10

```
evam raktena rāgasya siddhirna saha nāsaha/
rāgavatsarvadharmānām siddhirna nāsaha//
```

Consequently, there is no establishment of passion with or without the accompaniment of the impassioned self. Similar to passion, there is no establishment of the dharmas (i.e., factors of existence) with or without the accompaniment (of the *dharmaic* self).

CHAPTER VII

Samskṛta parīkṣā

Examination of the Created Realm of Existence

This is one of the more comprehensive chapters dealing with the interesting topic of the so-called compounded nature or created realm of existence. The Chinese title refers to this chapter as the examination of the three characteristics, i.e., origination (*utpāda*), duration (*sthiti*) and cessation (*bhanga*), and thereby presents a clearer pictures as to what the chapter discusses.

The argument for the impossibility of maintaining the created realm is carried through by means of the three characteristics and with the same type of logic we have seen employed in Chapter II, i.e., with respect to the analysis of gamyamana, gata, and agata. Here again, each moment of the created realm, for example, the characteristic of origination, is taken up and the question is raised whether something prior or previous to it can be its cause. The advancement of a cause invariably breaks down because what has arisen does not require a cause nor does what has not arisen. This analysis is carried through with the other two characteristics of duration and cessation. The breaking up of entities into different moments is an impossibility and thus Nāgārjuna states finally that the establishment of origination, duration and cessation is not possible at all and that there is no such thing as a created realm. His central position is clearly expressed in Verse 16: "Any thing (i.e., factor of existence) which exists by virtue of relational dependence is quiescence in itself. Therefore, presently arising and origination per se are likewise in the nature of quiescence."

```
yadi saṃskṛta utpādastatra yuktā trilakṣaṇi/
athāsaṃskṛta utpādaḥ kathaṃ saṃskṛtalakṣaṇaṃ//
```

If origination is of the created nature, then the three characteristics (i.e., origination, duration, cessation) will prevail. But if origination is of the uncreated nature, how could it be a characteristic of the created?

Verse 2

```
utpādādyāstrayo vyastā nālam lakṣaṇakarmaṇi/
saṃskṛtasya samastāḥ syurekatra kathamekadā//
```

When the three characteristics of origination, etc. are discrete, there will be no action in the characteristics with respect to the created nature. And if they are compounded or united, how could they occur at the same time in the same place?

Verse 3

```
utpādasthitibhangānāmanyatsamskṛtalakṣaṇam/
asti cedanavasthaivam nāsti cette na samskṛtāh//
```

If other characteristics of the created nature besides that of origination, duration and cessation are permitted, then this process (of assigning characteristics) could go on *ad infinitum*. If they are not permitted, on the other hand, then they are not of the created nature.

Verse 4

```
utpādotpāda utpādo mūlotpādasya kevalam/
utpādotpādamutpādo maulo janayate punaḥ//
```

The origination of origination is nothing but the arising of the primal origination. And of course the primal origination gives rise to the origination of origination.

Verse 5

```
utpādotpāda utpādo mūlotpādāsya te yadi/
maulenājanitastam te sa katham janayisyati//
```

If you say that the origination of origination is the arising of the primal origination, then how could it give rise to the primal origination, when it depends on the latter (for its own being) and has not yet arisen?

Verse 6

```
sa te maulena janito maulam janayate yadi/
maulam sa tenajanitastamutpadayate katham//
```

If you say that that which depends on the primal origination gives rise to the primal origination, then how could it give rise to the primal origination which in turn depends on the origination of origination and which has not yet arisen?

Verse 7

```
ayamutpādyamānaste kāmamutpādayedimam/
yadīmamutpādayitumajātah śaknuyādayam//
```

This so-called presently originating will, as you wish, cause an origination if that which has not arisen is capable of causing such an origination.

```
Verse 8 (The opponent contends)

pradīpaḥ svaparātmānau saṃprakāśayitā yathā/

utpādah svaparātmānāvubhāvutpādayettathā//
```

As light illumines both itself and other entities, so does origination give rise to both itself and others.

```
Verse 9 (Nāgārjuna asserts)
pradīpe nāndhakāro 'sti yatra cāsau pratisthitaḥ/
kim prakāśayatī dīpaḥ prakāśo hi tamovadhaḥ//
```

There is no darkness in light or in its abode. What does light illumine when, indeed, it destroys darkness?

Verse 10

```
kathamutpadyamānena pradīpena tamo hatam/
notpadyamāno hi tamah pradīpah prāpnute yadā//
```

How could darkness be destroyed by a presently shining light? For, indeed, the presently shining light has not as yet extended over to darkness.

Verse 11

aprāpyaiva pradipena yadi vā nihatam tamah/ ihasthah sarvalokastham sa tamo nihanişyati//

If darkness is destroyed by light which is not extended, then light, in such a state, will destroy the whole world of darkness.

Verse 12

```
pradīpaḥ svaparātmānau saṃprakāsayate yadi/
tamo 'pi svaparātmānau chādayisyatyasaṃsayaṃ//
```

If light illumines both itself and other entities, then undoubtedly, darkness will also darken itself and other entities as well.

Verse 13

```
anutpanno 'yamutpādaḥ svātmānam janayetkatham/ athotpanno janayate jāte kim janyate punaḥ//
```

How could an origination which has not arisen give rise to its own self? Again, if that which has arisen gives rise to itself, how could there be a rise again?

Verse 14

```
notpadyamānam notpannam nānutpannam katham cana/
utpadyate tathākhyātam gamyamānagatāgataiḥ//
```

In no way is it possible that origination rises from presently arising, that which has arisen, or that which has not arisen. This (line of argument) has already been discussed with respect to gamymāna, gata, and agata.

Note: Reference is here made to Chapter II on Gatagata pariksa.

Verse 15

```
utpadyamānamutpattāvidam na kramate yadā/kathamutpadyamānam tu pratītyotpattimucyate//
```

When this presently arising does not proceed from the origination, how can it be said that the former depends on the latter?

Verse 16

```
pratītya yadyadbhavati tattacchāntam svabhāvataḥ/
tasmādutpadyamānam ca śāntamutpattireva ca//
```

Any entity which exists by virtue of relational origination is quiescence in itself. Therefore, presently arising and origination per se are likewise in the nature of quiescence.

Verse 17

```
yadi kaścidanutpanno bhāvaḥ saṃvidyate kva cit/
utpadyeta sa kiṃ tasminbhāva utpadyate 'sati//
```

If an entity which has not arisen is granted to exist somewhere, then it would originate. But how could this entity, when it actually does not exist, originate?

Verse 18

```
utpadyamanamutpado yadi cotpadayatyayam/
utpadayettamutpadamutpadah katamah punah//
```

If origination gives rise to the presently arising, then again, what kind of origination will now give rise to the (first type of) origination?

Verse 19

```
anya utpādayatyenam yadyutpādo 'navasthitiḥ/ athānutpāda utpannah sarvamutpadyate tathā//
```

If another (origination) gives rise to this (first) origination, then origination will go on *ad unfinitum*. But if that which has arisen arises from non-origination, then everything will arise in such a way.

Verse 20

```
sataśca tāvadutpattirasataśca na yujyate/
na sataścāsataśceti pūrvamevopapāditam//
```

Indeed, an origination relative to either being or non-being cannot by justified. Nor is it possible with being and non-being (at the same time). This has been demonstrated before.

Note: Reference is to Chapter I, Verses 6 & 7.

Verse 21

```
nirudhyamānasyotpattirna bhāvasyopapadyate/
yaścānirudhyamānastu sa bhāvo nopapadyate//
```

Origination of a presently extinguishing entity is impossible. Moreover, it is equally impossible for a presently nonextinguishing entity.

Verse 22

```
na sthitabhāvastişthatyasthitabhāvo na tişthati/
na tisthati tisthamānah ko 'nutpannaśca tisthati//
```

An entity which has arisen does not abide (i.e., endure) nor does an entity which has not arisen. A presently enduring entity also does not abide. How could something without origination abide?

Verse 23

```
sthitirnirudhyamānasya na bhāvasyopapadyate/
yaścānirudhyamānastu sa bhāvo nopapadyate//
```

The abiding of a presently extinguishing entity is impossible. Indeed, the abiding of a presently non-extinguishing entity is equally impossible.

Verse 24

```
jarāmaraṇadharmeşu sarvabhāveşu sarvadā/
tişthanti katame bhāvā ye jarāmaraṇaṃ vinā//
```

As all entities are always subject to the conditions (i.e., dharmas) of ageing and death, what entities abide which are not subject to the conditions?

sthityānyayā sthiteḥ sthānam tayaiva ca na yujyate/ utpādasya yathotpādo nātmanā na parātmanā//

The abiding state of an entity is not justifiable on the grounds of another entity's abiding or by its own abiding. This is just as the origination of origination which is dependent neither on its own self nor on another.

Verse 26

nirudhyate nāniruddham na niruddham nirudhyate/ tathāpi nirudhyamānam kimajātam nirudhyate//

That which has not extinguished does not extinguish. That which has extinguished does not extinguish also. This is also the case with that which is presently extinguishing. How could an entity which has not arisen extinguish itself?

Verse 27

sthitasya tāvadbhāvasya nirodho nopapadyate/ nāsthitasyāpi bhāvasya nirodha upapadyate//

In truth, the cessation of an abiding entity is not possible. Also, the cessation of a non-abiding entity is not possible.

Verse 28

tayaivāvasthayāvasthā na hi saiva nirudhyate/anyayāvasthayāvasthā na cānyaiva nirudhyate//

From its abiding state, surely, the same state does not extinguish itself. Also, from another abiding state, that state does not extinguish itself.

Verse 29

yadaiva sarvadharmāṇāṃutpādo nopapadyate/ tadaivaṃ sarvadharmāṇāṃ nirodho nopapadyate//

As the origination of all *dharmas* (i.e., factors of existence) is not possible, so, also, is the cessation of all *dharmas*.

```
sataśca tāvadbhāvasya nirodho nopapadyate/
ekatve na hi bhāvaśca nābhāvaścopapadyate//
```

In truth, the cessation of a real existing entity is not possible. For, indeed, it is not possible to have the nature of both existence and non-existence at the same time.

Verse 31

```
asato 'pi na bhāvasya nirodha upapady...e/
na dvitīyasya śirasah chedanam vidyate yathā//
```

The cessation of an unreal existing entity is also not possible. It is as if the severance of a second head (of a person) is inconceivable.

Verse 32

```
na svātmanā nirodho 'sti nirodho na parātmanā/
utpādasya yathotpādo nātmanā na parātmanā//
```

There is no cessation by itself or by another entity. It is just as the origination of origination does not arise by itself or by another.

Verse 33

```
utpādasthitibhaṅgānāmasiddhernāsti saṃskṛtaṃ/
saṃskṛtasyāprasiddhau ca kathaṃ setsyatyasaṃskṛtaṃ//
```

As the establishment of origination, duration and cessation is not possible there is no created realm. Without the establishment of the created realm, how then will the uncreated realm come about?

Verse 34

```
yathā māyā yathā svapno gandharvanagaram yathā/
tathotpādastathā sthānam tathā bhanga udāhrtam//
```

It is like an illusion, a dream, or an imaginary city in the sky. In such a way, (the concepts of) origination, duration, and cessation have been described.

CHAPTER VIII

Karmakāraka parīkṣā Examination of the Doer and the Deed

This chapter brings to sharp focus the Buddhist conceptions of the doer (kāraka) and his deed (karman) in order to correctly understand the workings of the dharmas in the realm of created elements (samskrtāh dharmāh). In discussing the two concepts, Nāgārjuna introduces the metaphysical notion of a thing in its finished or completed state (sadbhūta) as well as its unfinished or incompleted state (asadbhūta) and attempts to illustrate the various possible conditions expressible and assignable with respect to the doer and his deed. But all these conditions, which are taken up in turn, are untenable. The utimate standpoint is that of the dynamics of relational structure (pratitya) which occurs in Verse 12 and which is an important link with the Madhyamika Credo. The final verse speaks of the various other phenomena which can be examined similarly as that of the doer and his deed, thus projecting into and anticipating the next two chapters which discuss, respectively, the former or antecedent state of an entity and the relationship between fire and wood.

In looking over the verses it would be worth noting that Candrakirti, in reference to the initial verse, discusses an interesting contrast between the completed and incompleted states of the doer and his deed. It illustrates the two alternatives in which these terms are related as follows:

The completed state is accompanied by function $(kriy\bar{a})$ while the incompleted state is not. Yet, in discussing either the doer or the deed, the function represents a third concept. And furthermore, as the first verse below clearly indicates, the status of any entity in a completed or incompleted state cannot issue forth another entity.

Note: The above diagrams are discussed by S. Yamaguchi in this Japanese translation of the *Prasannapadā*. Confer Vol. II, *op. cit*. pp. 127-28; Notes 14 & 16.

Verse 1

sadbhūtaḥ kārakaḥ karma sadbhūtaṃ na karotyayaṃ/ kārako nāpyasadbhūtaḥ karmāsadbhūtamihate//

A doer in a completed state cannot create a deed in a completed state. Again, a doer in an incompleted state cannot create a deed in an incompleted state.

Verse 2

sadbhūtasya kriyā nāsti karma ca syādakartṛkam/ sadbhūtasya kriyā nāsti kartā ca syādakarmakaḥ//

When a doer is in a completed state, there will be no doing and also a deed will be without a doer. Likewise, when a deed is in a completed state, there will be no doing and also a doer will be without a deed.

Note: The concept of a function or doing is introduced here to set up a triadic relationship, i.e., with respect to doer (kāraka, kartṛ), doing (kriyā), and the deed (karman).

Verse 3

karoti yadyasadbhūto 'sadbhūtam karma kārakaḥ/ ahetukam bhavetkarma kartā cāhetuko bhavet//

If a doer in an incompleted state creates a deed in an incompleted state, then (in actuality) the deed will be without a cause and the doer will (in itself) have no cause.

Note: The Chinese version has the completed state or fixed being (ting-yu 定有) (sadbhūta) instead of the incompleted state (asad-

bhūta). This is clearly an error on the part of the Chinese interpretation since the previous verse illustrates the situation of the completed state.

Verse 4

hetāvasati kāryam ca kāraņam ca na vidyate/ tadabhāve kriyā kartā kāraņam ca na vidyate//

Without a cause, there can be no effect or an efficient cause. Without these (effect and cause), there can be no functions of doing, doer and deed.

Note: Hetu which is simply cause must be distinguished for kāraņa which is an instrumental or efficient cause, i.e., having a potential.

The kāraṇa in the second line is used synonymously for karman.

Verse 5

dharmādharmau na vidyate kriyādīnāmasambhave/ dharme cāsatyadharme ca phalam tajjam na vidyate//

Without these functions, etc. [doer, deed], there can be no factors (*dharma*) and non-factors (*adharma*) of experience. Without factors and non-factors there can be nothing arising out of them.

Verse 6

phale 'sati na mokṣāya na svargāyopapadyate/ mārgaḥ sarvakriyāṇāṃ ca nairarthakyaṃ prasajyate//

When there is no effect there will be no way of arriving at liberation or the heavens. For all doings or functions will fall into purposelessness.

Verse 7

kārakah sadasadbhūtah sadasatkurute na tat/ parasparaviruddham hi saccāsaccaikatah kutah//

A completed-incompleted doer cannot create a completed-incompleted deed. For, how could the mutually conflicting completed and incompleted states co-exist as one?

satā ca kriyate nāsannāsatā kriyate ca sat/ kartrā sarve prasajyante dosāstatra ta eva hi//

A completed doer cannot create an incompleted deed nor can an incompleted doer create a completed deed. For, (if the above conditions are not accepted), thereupon all fallacies will follow.

Verse 9

nāsadbūtam na sadbhūtah sadasadbhūtameva vā/karoti kārakah karma pūrvoktaireva hetubhih//

A completed doer cannot create an incompleted deed nor that of a completed-incompleted deed. This is according to the reason expounded in previous verses (i.e., verses 2 and 3).

Verse 10

nāsaddbhūto 'pi sadbhūtam sadasadbhūtameva vā/karoti kārakah karma pūrvoktaireva hetubhih//

An incompleted doer also cannot create a completed deed nor that of a completed-incompleted deed. This is according to the reason expounded in previous verses (i.e., verse 4, 5, and 6).

Verse 11

karoti sadasadbhūto na sannāsacca kārakah/ karma tattu vijānīyātpūrvoktaireva hetubhih//

A completed-incompleted doer cannot create either a completed or incompleted deed. That is to be known by the reason stated previously (i.e., Verse 7).

Verse 12

pratitya kārakaḥ karma tam pratitya ca kārakam/karma pravartate nānyatpaśyāmaḥ siddhikāraṇam//

The doer is dynamically related to the deed and the deed to the doer in order to arise. We cannot perceive any other cause for their establishment or completion.

evam vidyādupādānam vyutsargāditi karmaṇah/ kartuśca karmakartṛbhyām śeṣān bhāvān vibhāvayet//

Thus, by way of the refutation of the (static concepts of the) doer and the deed, the concept of seizing or clinging $(up\bar{a}d\bar{a}na)$ can be known. And basing the analysis on both the doer and the deed, various other entities (i.e., phenomena) can be understood.

CHAPTER IX

Pūrva pariksā

Examination of the Antecedent State of the Self

The chapter examines the antecedent state of the self (ātman). It can be conveniently analyzed in terms of the upādātr (ch'ü-che, shou-che 政者. 受者 subject, perceiver, percipient) and the upādāna (ch'ü, shou, tso 取. 受. 作 act of perceiving, seizing, clinging, or perception). As a matter of fact, this distinction occurs in the Tibetan title which Max Walleser renders as Annehmer und Annehmen (upādātr-upādāna).

The distinction actually issues forth another term in the process involved which is that of upādeya (so-ch'ü, so-shou 所取. 所受 the perceptual realm). From the above it is clear that upādātə and upādāna are internal elements or aspects in the perceiving function while upādeya gives an external spread of such a function. And the total process is a triadic relationship. The Mādhyamika standpoint here is to destroy the wholly formal, logical, or conceptual notions concerning the process involved in perception. Thus the examination is not solely restricted to former states of the perceiver but also concerns with the present and future states. This is the import of the last verse.

Verse 1

darśanaśravanādini vedanādini cāpyatha/ bhavanti yasya prāgebhyah so 'stītyeke vadantyuta//

Of the existence of an entity which sees, hears, etc. or which feels, etc., some people assert that it exists prior to its functions.

Note: The functions are distinguished between the five faculties of perception (buddhindriyāṇi or jñānendriyāṇi) which are darśana (seeing), śravaṇa (hearing), ghrāṇa (smelling), rasana (tasting), and sparśana (touching), and the five constituent elements of being (pañcaskandhas) which are rūpa (bodily or material form), vedanā (feeling, sensation), saṃjñā (awareness, perception), saṃskāra (aggregate of formations or mental conformations), and vijnāna (conscious or discriminative thought faculty.)

Verse 2

katham hyavidyamānasya darśanādi bhavişyati/ bhāvasya tasmātprāgebhyah so 'sti bhāvo vyavasthitah//

How is it that seeing, etc. come to be of a presently nonexisting entity? Consequently, the entity (seemingly) exists abidingly prior to its functions.

Verse 3

darśanaśravaṇādibhyo vedanādibhya eva ca/
yaḥ prāgyyavasthito bhāvaḥ kena prajñapyate 'tha sah//

If the entity exists abidingly prior to its functions of seeing, hearing, etc., or feeling, etc., then by what means is it known?

Jerse 4

vināpi darśanādīni yadi cāsau vyavasthita/ amūnyapi bhavisyanti vinā tena na samśavah//

If the abiding entity could exist apart from the functions of seeing, etc., then undoubtedly the functions too could exist without the entity.

Verse 5

ajyate kena cit [kaścit] kim citkena cidajyate/ kutah kim cidvinā kaścitkim citkim cidvinā kutah//

An entity is made manifest by its attendant functions and, vice versa, the functions are known by way of the entity to which they belong. How is it possible for an entity to be without its functions and the functions without their entity?

Verse 6 (The opponent contends)
sarvebhyo darśanādibhyaḥ kaścitpūrvo na vidyate/
aiyate darśanādīnāmanyena punaranyadā//

No entity could exist prior to all its functions of seeing, etc. By means of the different functions of seeing, etc., the entity appears in different moments.

Verse 7 (Nāgārjuna asserts)

sarvebhyo darśanādibhyo yadi pūrvo na vidyate/ ekaikasmātkatham pūrvo darśanādeh sa vidyate//

If the entity does not exist prior to all its functions of seeing, etc., then how could it exist prior to each of the functions?

Verse 8

drastā sa eva sa śrotā sa eva yadi vedakaḥ/ ekaikasmādbhavetpūrvaṃ evaṃ caitanna yujyate//

If (it is granted that) an entity which sees is concomitantly an entity which hears or feels, then that entity will exist prior to its functions. But such a situation could not be in accordance with reason.

Verse 9

drastānya eva śrotānyo vedako 'nyaḥ punaryadi/ sati syāddrastari śrotā bahutvaṃ cātmanāṃ bhavet//

If again (granted that) the entity which respectively sees, hears, and feels is individually distinct, then as there will be an entity which sees there will also be an entity which hears. But this situation would impose many forms on the entity.

Verse 10

darśanaśravanādīni vedanādīni cāpyatha/ bhavanti yebhyasteşveşa bhūteşvapi na vidyate//

Of the arising of the functions of seeing, hearing, feeling, etc. out of the Elements, the entity too cannot be found to exist.

Note: Reference is made to the Four Great Elements of earth, water, fire and wind.

darśanaśravaṇādīni vedanādīni apyatha/
na vidyate cedyasya sa na vidyanta imānyapi//

If the entity which sees, hears, etc., or which feels, etc. cannot be found, then the functions themselves cannot also be found to exist.

Verse 12

prāk ca yo darśanādibhyaḥ sāṃprataṃ cordhvameva ca/ na vidyate 'sti nāstīti nivṛttāstatra kalpanāḥ//

Of an entity which does not exist prior to, concomitantly, or posterior to the functions of seeing, etc. the notions of existence and non-existence are unnecessary.

Note: Prāk, sāmprata, and ūrdhva are translated by Kumārajīva as the three temporal existences (san-shih 三世), i.e., past, present and future.

CHAPTER X

Agnindhana parikṣā Examination of Wood and Fire

This chapter is one of the more significant expositions of the central concept of pratityasamutpāda. The terms, fire (agni) and wood (indhana), are critically analyzed into whether they are the same (ekatva) or different (anyatva). In other words, a pair of terms relating to the Mādhyamika Credo, i.e., anekārtham anānārtham, is under review. The Credo comes to full light in this chapter but, as the 15th verse indicates, the same critical analysis thus employed can be extended to other entities, notably that of the self (ātman) and its seizing or grasping function (upādāna).

Special mention must be made here with respect to a novel job of interpreting the meaning of the technical term paraspara-apekṣā (mutual togetherness) as used in this chapter by Prof. Y. Ueda. (Confer his Daijō-bukkyō-shisō-no-kompon-kōzō; 大乘佛教思想の根本構造 "The Fundamental Construct of Mahāyāna Buddhist Thought." Kyoto: Hyakkaen, 1957. Chapter 3, pp. 67-103. This chapter originally appeared as an article in the Tetsugaku-zasshi; "Journal of Philosophy [Japanese]," March, 1951)

He is the first scholar to interpret and employ a principle which he claims to be central or basic to the unique type of "logic" employed in Mādhyamika philosophy. The unique logical principle in brief is that of any two concepts, e.g., fire and wood, there are inherent conditions in each such that their ultimate relationship into a whole or unity entails a mutual denial of each other. (相互排除性,相互否定的關聯性). With this principle he arrives at the solution to the baffling statement that nothing is identical or differentiated as expressed in the Credo.

80

The germ of this logical thought had already been hinted at by Chinese as well as Japanese scholars, especially by those in the field of Zen, but this is not entirely a surprise because of the closeness or perhaps an ultimate identity, in the final analysis, of the foundations of Zen and Śūnyavāda. D. T. Suzuki, for example, speaks of the logic of immediate negation (即非の論理), H. Ui speaks of the logic of immediate negation-affirmation (即非是名の論理), and even as far back as the 12th Century A.D., Dōgen, the patriarch of Japanese Sōtō Zen, remarks on the union of the self and the other self (自己 と他己の同一性). Despite these antecedent thoughts, due credit must go to Prof. Ueda for carrying out a clear and systematic exposition of the peculiar, if not unique, type of logic in use.

Verse 1

yadindhanam sa cedagnirekatvam kartṛkarmanoh/ anyaścedindhanādagnirindhanādapyrte bhavet//

If wood is the same as fire, then likewise the doer and his deed will be identical. If fire is distinct from wood, then it will exist without wood.

Verse 2

nityapradīpta eva syādapradīpanahetukaḥ/
punarārambhavaiyarthyamevam cākarmakaḥ sati//

If there is no cause for burning, then fire should burn constantly. And there will be no purpose in fire to start (i.e., to burn) again and it will then be without a function.

Verse 3

```
paratra nirapekşatvādapradīpanahetukaḥ/
punarārambhavaiyarthyam nityadīptaḥ prasajyate//
```

Being unrelated to an other, it (i.e. fire) will be something without a cause for burning. Moreover, it will follow that a constantly burning fire would have no purpose of starting (i.e. burning) again.

tatraitasmādidhyamānamindhanam bhavatīti cet/ kenedhyatāmindhanam tattāvanmātramidam yadā//

Thus, if it is granted that there is wood in the burning (process) and that only wood is burning, then by what means will it burn?

Verse 5

anyo na prāpsyate 'prapto na dhaksyatyadahan punah/ na nirvāsyatyanirvānah sthāsyate vā svalingavān//

A different thing (i.e., fire distinguished from wood) is never effected and a non-effected thing will never burn. And, in turn, a non-burning thing will never extinguish itself while a non-extinguishing thing, having its own characteristics, will continue to endure itself.

Verse 6 (The opponent contends) anya evendhanādagnirindhanam prāpnuyādyadi/ strī samprāpnoti purusam purusaśca strīyam yathā//

If fire which is distinct from wood should unite with wood, it would be like a woman uniting with a man and, vice versa, a man uniting with a woman.

Note: Kumārajīva translates this union as between this person (isu jen 此人) and that person (pi jen 彼人) but the Sanskrit definitely refers to a man (purusa) and a woman (stri). Both, however, carry the meaning across. At any rate, this opposition must never be confused with the union of husband and wife which are inseparable or correlative concepts.

Verse 7 (Nāgārjuna asserts)

anya evendhanādagnirindhanam kāmamāpnuyāt/ agnīndhane yadi syātāmanyonyena tiraskṛte//

Fire which is distinct from wood will unite with the latter freely as you contend, if and only if, the two have mutually distinct existences.

yadindhanamapekşyāgnirapekşyāgnim yadindhanam/kataratpūrvanişpannam yadapekşyāgnirindhanam//

If fire is dependent on wood and wood on fire, then each one must have had a prior completed state and to which the other depends.

Verse 9

yadindhanamapekşyāgniragneh siddhasya sādhanam/ evam satindhanam cāpi bhavişyati niragnikam//

If fire is dependent on wood then an already existing fire will again be effectuating itself. If that is so then wood also will exist without fire.

Verse 10

yo 'pekşya sidhyate bhāvastamevāpekşya sidhyati/ yadi yo 'pekşitavyah sa sidhyatām kamapekşya kah//

If an entity depends on another entity in order to manifest itself, the latter will also depend on the former for its manifestation. If what is to be dependent on for manifestation already exists, then (the question is) what depends on what?

Verse 11

yo 'peksya sidhyate bhavah so 'siddho 'peksate katham/ athapyapeksate siddhastvapeksasya na yujyate//

An entity depends on an other for realization (i.e., manifestation) but, in an unrealized (i.e., unmanifested) state, what is the manner of dependence? And again, even though (the entity) is already in a dependently manifested state, the nature of dependence is not possible.

Verse 12

apeksyendhanamagnima nänapeksyägnirindhanam/
apeksyendhanamagnim na nänapeksyägnimindhanam//

Fire does not exist by dependence on wood nor does it exist by non-dependence on wood. Likewise, wood does not exist by dependence or non-dependence on fire.

āgacchatyanyato nāgnirindhane 'gnirna vidyate/ atrendhane śeṣamuktaṃ gamyamānagatāgataiḥ//

Fire does not come from something else nor does it exist in the wood. With respect to wood the remaining issues have been taken up in the discussion of present passing away, that which has transpired, and that which has not transpired.

Note: Reference is to Chapter II.

Verse 14

indhanam punaragnirna nāgniranyatra cendhanāt/ nāgnirindhanavānnāgnāvindhanāni na teşu saḥ//

Again, fire is not wood nor is it in something else than wood. Fire does not contain wood. There is neither wood in fire nor fire in wood.

Verse 15

agnīndhanābhyām vyākhyāta ātmopādānayoḥ kramaḥ/ sarvo niravaśeṣeṇa sārdham ghaṭapaṭādibhiḥ//

By means of the analysis of fire and wood, the total relationship between $\bar{a}tman$ and $up\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$, and along with the (notions of) earthen jar, cloth, etc., have all been explained without fail.

Note: Ātman and upādāna refer to man and his five basic functions (skandhas). This verse is a summation of the analysis of wood and fire, and the analysis, Nāgārjuna contends, can be employed to all "entities" (dharmas) including the self (ātman) and its functions in order to show the fallacies involved in maintaining preconceived notions.

Verse 16

ātmanaśca satattvam ye bhāvānām ca pṛthak pṛthak/ nirdiśanti na tānmanye śāsanasyārthakovidān//

Insofar as I am concerned, those who speak of the reality of entities and who assign them distinct existences cannot be considered truly knowledgeable of the (Buddha's) teachings.

CHAPTER XI

Pūrvāparakoti parīksā

Examination of Antecedent and Consequent States in the Empirical Realm

In the Tibetan Dhu na rtsa bahi ḥgrel pa ga las ḥjigs med (Mūlamadhyamakavrttyakutobhaya), the Chinese Pan-jo-teng-lun-shih (般若燈論釋) and the Ta-ch'eng-chung-kuan-shih-lun (大乘中觀釋論), the title is the Examination of Samsāra (lun hui 輪廻, life-death cycle). An investigation of the content of the present chapter reveals that this title is quite justifiable. However, Candrakīrti's Sanskrit title is not without a basis since it suggests that the discussion of samsāra should be carried to its extremes, hence the term, koṭi, and exhibit its impossibility. Here again, as in previous chapters, the argument develops by breaking up the doctrine of samsāra into separate elements, i.e., into the three temporal moments of prior, posterior and simultaneity, and by showing the ultimate obscurity and uncertainty of these elements. All existences in truth are instances of the fact of sūnyatā which does not lend itself to analysis and description.

Verse 1

pūrvā prajňāyate koţirnetyuvāca mahāmuniḥ/ saṃsāro 'navarāgro hi nāsyādirnāpi paścimaṃ//

The great wise one (i.e., Sākyamuni) has said that the state anterior to samsāra (i.e., life-death cycle or the empirical realm) cannot be grasped. For, samsāra has no beginning and end; that is to say, no definite points of commencement and conclusion.

naivāgram nāvaram yasya tasya madhyam kuto bhavet/ tasmānnātropapadyante pūrvāparasahakramāḥ//

As there are no beginning and end, how could there be a middle? Therefore, the simultaneity, anterior, and posterior states (of samsāra) are not possible.

Vesre 3

```
pūrvam jātiryadi bhavejjarāmaraņamuttaram/
nirjarāmaranā jātirbhavejjāveta cāmrtah//
```

If birth is anterior and old age-death posterior, then there will be birth without old age-death and this will entail the rise of a deathless being.

Verse 4

```
paścājjātiryadi bhavejjarāmaraņamāditah/
ahetukamajātasya syājjarāmaraņam katham//
```

If birth is posterior and old age-death anterior, that would consitute a state of non-causal connection. For, of something yet to be born, how could there be old age-death?

Verse 5

```
na jarāmaraņenaiva jātisca saha yujyate/
mriyeta jāyamānasca syāccāhetukatobhayoḥ//
```

Indeed, birth is never conceived to be simultaneous with old age-death. For, what is in the process of being born must die and both life and death are non-causally related.

Verse 6

```
yatra na prabhavantyete pūrvāparasahakramāh/
prapancayanti tām jātim tajjarāmaranam ca kim//
```

Where states of anterior, posterior, and simultaneity (of samsāra) do not exist, how could the concepts of birth and old age-death be projected?

kāryam ca kāraņam caiva lakşyam lakşaņameva ca/ vedanā vedakaścaiva santyarthā ye ca ke cana//

Cause and effect, characteristics and characterization, feeler and feeling, and also whatever other things exist....(This verse continues on to the next.)

Verse 8

pūrva na vidyate koţih samsārasya na kevalam/ sarveṣāmapi bhāvānām pūrvā koţi na vidyate//

....not only is there not an anterior state in samsāra but this state is not possible for all existences.

CHAPTER XII

Duhkha parikṣā

Examination of Suffering

As the chapter indicates, the discussion is on the investigation of pain or suffering (duhkha). The problem is stated in the opening verse which asserts the four possible ways of viewing the causes of suffering, i.e., self-cause, other-cause, both self and other cause, and non-causal. In each instance the usual logic of reductio ad absurdum (prasanga) is applied to exhibit the untenability of each causal view. Nāgārjuna concludes by making reference to the fact that the four-fold possible views (cāturvidhyam) can equally be applied to demonstrate the impossibility of asserting elements of the external world.

Verse 1

svayam kṛtam parakṛtam dvābhyām kṛtamahetukam/ duhkhamityeka icchanti tacca kāryam na yujyate//

Some assert that suffering arises by virtue of being self-caused, other-caused, both self and other-caused or non-causal. Such an assertion which treats suffering as an effect is not justifiable.

Verse 2

svayam krtam yadi bhavetpratitya na tato bhavet/ skandhānimānamī skandhāh sambhavanti pratitya hi//

If suffering is self-caused, it will not have a relational condition in arising. For, surely, these (present) skandhas are relationally conditioned in the arising of those (future) skandhas.

yadyamībhya ime 'nye syurebhyo vāmī pare yadi/ bhavetparakṛtam duḥkham parairebhiramī kṛtaḥ//

If these (present) skandhas are different from those (future) skandhas or if the latter is other than the former, then there will be suffering caused by something else and those (future) skandhas will also be caused by it.

Verse 4

```
svapudgalakṛtaṃ duḥkhaṃ yadi duḥkhaṃ punarvinā/
svapudgalaḥ sa katamo yena duḥkhaṃ svayaṃ kṛtaṃ//
```

If suffering is caused by the individual himself, then the individual is separated from suffering. Who is this individual self which self-causes suffering?

Verse 5

```
parapudgalajam duhkham yadi yasmai pradiyate/
parena kṛtvā tadduhkham sa duhkhena vinā kutah//
```

If suffering is caused by another individual, where is this self which is separated from suffering but which is (seemingly) the recipient of the suffering caused by another?

Verse 6

```
parapudgalajam duḥkham yadi kaḥ parapudgalaḥ/
vinā duḥkhena yaḥ kṛtvā parasmai prahinoti tat//
```

If suffering is caused by another individual, what is (the nature of) this individual which is separated from and yet causes and bestows suffering on the recipient?

Verse 7

```
svayam kṛtasyāprasiddherduḥkham parakṛtam kutaḥ/
paro hi duḥkham yatkuryāttattasya syātsvayam kṛtam//
```

As self-cause cannot be established, where can an other-caused suffering be? For, surely, an other-caused suffering is caused by that other itself.

```
na tāvatsvakṛtaṃ duḥkhaṃ na hi tenaiva tatkṛtaṃ/
paro nātmakṛtaścetsyādduḥkhaṃ parakṛtaṃ kathaṃ//
```

In truth then, there is no self-caused suffering for it cannot come about by itself. If an other does not bring about its own suffering, why is there an other-caused suffering?

Verse 9

```
syādubhābhyām kṛtam duḥkham syādekaikakṛtam yadi/
parākārāsvayamkāram duḥkhamahetukam kutah//
```

If suffering could be caused individually by one's self and by an other, then there should also be suffering caused jointly. Where is this non-causal suffering which is neither caused by itself nor by an other?

Verse 10

```
na kevalam hi duhkhasya căturvidhyam na vidyate/bāhyānāmapi bhāvānām cāturvidhyam na vidyate//
```

Not only is the four-fold causal view of suffering impossible but the same is not possible with respect to the external elements of being.

CHAPTER XIII

Samskāra parīksā

Examination of Mental Conformation

The Tibetan title of this chapter has the term, tativa (de nid) instead of samskāra, but as one goes through the verses there is a gradual shift from the concept of samskāra to the real meaning of sūnyatā or the nature of thusness. So, in this respect, the Tibetan title is more suggestive of the real content of the chapter and much more to the point. However, the term, samskāra is an old terminology employed from Early Buddhism and refers to the nascent mental force (i.e., a kind of mental élan vital). Stcherbatsky, interestingly enough, uses the suggestive term, "synergy" for samskāra in reference to the synthetic or synthesizing energy of life.

At the outset, Nāgārjuna strikes at the heart of the matter by saying that the Buddha condemned all conceptions arising from false discrimination of realities. This is, in fact, attributed to the nature of saṃskāra or mental conformation. The discussion then goes into the conceptions of self-nature (svabhāva) and varying nature (anyathābhāva), and their possible relationship. In neither case, however, does the argument prove any of their respective existences. Youth does not age in the strict sense and milk does not turn into butter. In other words, in the true Zen manner, youth is youth, age is age, milk is milk, and butter is butter. There is no strict conversion from one to the other. Thus the discussion inevitably arrives at the nature of thusness, śūnyatā, as the only true view of existence, but Nāgārjuna is quick to caution that śūnyatā is not subject to conceptualization.

tanmṛṣā moṣadharma yadbhagavānityabhāṣata/ sarve ca moṣadharmāṇaḥ saṃskārāstena te mṛṣā//

The Blessed One has said that elements with delusive nature are untrue. All mental conformations are delusive in nature. Therefore, they are untrue.

Verse 2

tanmṛṣā moṣadharma yadyadi kim tatra muṣyate/ etattūktam bhagavatā śūnyatāparidīpakam//

If the elements with delusive nature are untrue, what is there which deludes? On account of this the Blessed One merely expounded the significance of \$\sigma unvatā\$.

Verse 3 (The opponent contends)

bhāvānām nihsvabhāvatvamanyathābhāvadarsanāt/ asvabhāvo bhāvo nāsti bhāvānām sūnyatā yatah//

From the perception of varying natures all entities are without self-natures. An entity without self-nature does not exist because all entities have the nature of śūnyatā.

Verse 4 (Nāgārjuna asserts)

kasya syādanyathābhāvaḥ svabhāvaścenna vidyate/kasya syādanyathābhāvaḥ svabhāvo yadi vidyate//

If self-nature does not exist, what is it that has this varying nature? (On the other hand), if self-nature does exist, again, what is it that has this varying nature?

Verse 5

tasyaiva nānyathābhāvo nāpyanyasyaiva yujyate/ yuvā na jīryate yasmādyasmājjīrņo na jīryate//

It is not possible for this or another entity to have a varying nature. This is from the fact that youth does not age (over again).

tasya cedanyathābhāvaḥ kṣirameva bhaveddadhi/kṣirādanyasya kasya ciddadhibhāvo bhaviṣyati//

If an entity does have a varying nature, then it will be possible for milk to become butter. But butter-nature will have to arise in something other than milk.

Verse 7

yadyaśūnyam bhavetkim citsyācchūnyamiti kim cana/ na kim cidastyaśūnyam ca kutaḥ śūnyam bhavişyati//

If something devoid of the nature of $s\bar{u}nya$ exists, then there also will be something else which may have the nature of $s\bar{u}nya$. But as anything devoid of the nature of $s\bar{u}nya$ does not exist, how could there exist the nature of $s\bar{u}nya$?

Verse 8

śūnyatā sarvadṛṣtīnāṃ proktā niḥsaraṇaṃ jinaiḥ/ yeṣāṃ tu śūnyatādṛṣṭistānasādhyān babhāṣire//

The wise men (i.e., enlightened ones) have said that $s\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$ or the nature of thusness is the relinquishing of all false views. Yet it is said that those who adhere to the idea or concept of $s\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$ are incorrigible.

CHAPTER XIV

Samsarga parikṣā

Examination of Combination or Union

This chapter discusses the concept of combination or union (samsarga) and once again Nāgārjuna resorts to the three temporal moments in discussing any concept or entity. Verse 1 has direct relationship to Chapter III which examines the six āyatanas (seats of sense perception) and Verse 2 to Chapter VI which examines the passion and the impassioned self. But quite explicit in the whole discussion is the fact that Nāgārjuna has in mind two ideas of the Mādhyamika Credo, i.e., with respect to non-identity and non-difference (anekārtham anānārtham). His argument is to show the absurdity of these ideas combining and evolving one from the other or from their identical or different natures. Thus, finally, he arrives at the conclusion that the presently combining (samsrjyamāna), an already combined (samsrṣṭa), and the agent which combines (samsraṣṭr) are untenable.

Verse 1

drastavyam darśanam drastā trinyetāni dviśo dviśah/ sarvaśaśca na samsargamanyonyena vrajantyuta//

The three phases of the object perceived, the perceiving function, and the perceiver cannot mutually combine in twofold senses or all together.

Note: The two-fold senses refer to: (1) The object and the perceiving function, (2) The perceiving function and perceiver, and (3) The perceiver and the object.

```
evam rāgasca raktasca ranjanīyam ca drsyatām/
traidhena seṣāḥ klesāsca seṣāṇyāyatanāni ca//
```

The passion, impassioned self, and the impassionable can be seen in the same manner. The rest of the *kleśas* (i.e., mental defilements) and *āyatanas* (i.e., seats of sense perception) depends on these three phases (for exposition).

Verse 3

```
anyenānyasya samsargastaccānyatvam na vidyate/
drastavyaprabhrtīnām vanna samsargam vrajantvatah//
```

There is combination of something with something different. But there are (essentially) no different natures in the object perceived, etc. and these, therefore, cannot coalesce.

Verse 4

```
na ca kevalamanyatvam drastavyāderna vidyate/kasya citkena citsārdham nānyatvamupapadyate//
```

Not only do different natures in the object perceived, etc., not exist, but it is also not possible for an entity to have a different nature jointly with another.

Verse 5

```
anyadanyatpratityänyannänyadanyadṛte 'nyaḥ/ yatpratitya ca yattasmättadanyannopapadyate//
```

Differentiation comes about by the relational conditions of different (entities) and it does not exist removed from them. And yet by virtue of the relational factor, there cannot be a differentiation between the entities involved.

Verse 6

```
yadyanyadanyadanyasmādanyasmādapyrte bhavet/
tadanyadanyadanyasmādrte nāsti ca nāstyatah//
```

If a different (entity) is different because it arises from another different (entity), then it will also exist removed from the latter. But such a situation of a different (entity) cannot possibly exist.

Verse 7

nānyasmin vidyate 'nyatvamananyasmin na vidyate/ avidyamāne cānyatve nāstyanyadvā tadeva vā//

It is not possible for a differentiation to exist in a different or a non-different (entity). When a differentiation does not exist, difference and identity also do not exist.

Verse 8

na tena tasya samsargo nānyenānyasya yujyate/ samsrjyamānam samsrstam samsrastā ca na vidyate//

The combination of identical entities or of different entities is not justifiable. For, there cannot exist a presently combining, an already combined, and the agent which combines.

CHAPTER XV

Svabhāva parīkṣā

Examination of Self-nature

The Tibetan and Chinese versions have as similar titles the Examination of Being and Non-being (bhāvābhāva, yu-wu 有無). This may have been the older form but the present Sankrit title, nevertheless, does not detract anything from what is being discussed Nāgārjuna here discusses the idea of self-nature or self-existence (svabhāva) and the possible ways of conceiving it. He introduces the interesting concept of extended or other nature (parabhāva) to show that it too cannot help in the understanding of the character of self-nature. It is interesting to note that Stcherbatsky translates parabhāva as relational existence with an eye, it seems, to capture the sense of relativity of objects.

In Verses Nos. 6 and 10 Nāgārjuna strikes at the heart of the matter by reassuring all that the truth expounded by the Buddha cannot be grasped by a play or interplay of concepts, such as, self-nature, extended nature, existence, or non-existence and that the wise should abandon all ideas which tend to treat existence in terms of static notions, such as, permanency (śāśvata) or interruption (uccheda), notions which are antithetic to the Mādhyamika Credo.

Verse 1

na sambhavah svabhāvasya yuktah pratyayahetubhih/ hetupratyayasambhūtah svabhāvah krtako bhavet//

The rise of self-nature by relational and causal conditions is not justifiable. For, such a self-nature will have a character of being made or manipulated.

svabhāvah kṛtako nāma bhavişyati punaḥ katham/ akṛtrimah svabhāvo hi nirapekṣah paratra ca//

How is it possible for the self-nature to take on the character of being made? For, indeed, the self-nature refers to something which cannot be made and has no mutual correspondence with something else.

Verse 3

kutah svabhāvasyābhāve parabhāvo bhavişyati/ svabhāvah parabhāvasya parabhāvo hi kathvate//

Where self-nature is non-existent, how could there be an extended nature? For, indeed, a self-nature which has the nature of being extended will be called an extended nature.

Note: Parabhāva, in the sense of extended nature, means that an entity has the existential character of extending or reaching over into the nature of other entities. It also means other-nature in contrast to self-nature. However, the argument obtains regardless of the translation.

Verse 4

svabhāvaparabhāvābhyāmṛte bhāvah kutah punah/ svabhāve parabhāve vā sati bhāvo hi sidhyati//

Again, separated from self-nature and extended nature, how could existence be? For, indeed, existence establishes itself in virtue of either self-nature or extended nature.

Verse 5

bhāvasya cedaprasiddhirabhāvo naiva sidhyati/ bhāvasya hyanyathābhāvamabhāvam bruvate janāh//

If existence does not come to be (i.e., does not establish itself), then certainly non-existence does not also. For, indeed, people speak of existence in its varying nature as non-existence.

svabhāvam parabhāvam ca bhāvam cābhāvameva ca/ ye pasyanti na pasyanti te tattvam buddhasāsane//

Those who see (i.e., try to understand) the concepts of self-nature, extended nature, existence, or non-existence do not perceive the real truth in the Buddha's teaching.

Verse 7

kātyāyanāvavāde cāstīti nāstīti cobhayam/ pratisiddham bhagavatā bhāvābhāvavibhāvinā//

According to the Instructions to Kātyāyana, the two views of the world in terms of being and non-being were criticized by the Buddha for similarly admitting the bifurcation of entities into existence and non-existence.

Note: The Sanskrit, Kātyāyanāvavāda, either refers to the sūtra or to the instruction given to Kātyāyama by the Buddha.

Verse 8

yadyastitvam prakrtyā syānna bhavedasya nāstitā/ prakrteranyathābhāvo na hi jātūpapadyate//

If existence is in virtue of a primal nature, then its non-existence does not follow. For, indeed, a varying character of a primal nature is not possible at all.

Verse 9

prakṛtau kasya cāsatyāmanyathātvam bhaviṣyati/
prakṛtau kasya ca satyāmanyathātvam bhaviṣyati//

If primal nature does not exist, what will possess the varying character? If, on the other hand, primal nature does exist, what then will possess the varying character?

Note: The opponent raises the first question and Nagarjuna counters with the second. He follows up with an answer in the next two verses.

astiti śāśvatagrāho nāstītyucchedadarśanam/ tasmādastitvanāstitve nāśrīyeta vicakṣanah//

Existence is the grasping of permanency (i.e., permanent characteristics) and non-existence the perception of disruption. (As these functions are not strictly possible), the wise should not rely upon (the concepts of) existence and non-existence.

Verse 11

asti yaddhi svabhāvena na tannāstīti śāśvatam/ nāstīdānīmabhūtpūrvamityucchedah prasajyate//

It follows that permanency means that existence based on self-nature does not become a non-entity and disruption means that what formerly was existent is now non-existent.

CHAPTER XVI

Bandhanamokṣa parīkṣā

Examination of Bondage and Release

This is the first chapter to discuss nirvāna and its implications A fuller treatment, of course, is reserved for Chapter XXV on the Examination of *Nirvāna* but here the general trend of the treatment is hinted at. All living beings are bound by defilements, i.e., by being caught up in the basic life-death process of samsāra. Is there a way out of all this bondage? To think in terms of a release or deliverance (moksa) from the bondage (bandhana) is not enough. Nāgāriuna again brings in his logic of reductio ad absurdum to demonstrate that what is already bound cannot be unbound, that what is unbound need not be bound, and that there cannot be any movement from one thing to another in what we understand as samsāra. As a consequence, there is nothing to be released or freed from a bound entity. Even conceptual knowledge works in a similar fashion for he says that those who believe in manipulating the concept of nirvāṇa have the gravest of all attachments (Verse 9) and that nirvāṇa and saṃsāra are beyond thought (Verse 10).

Verse 1

saṃskārāḥ saṃsaranti cenna nityāḥ saṃsaranti te/ saṃsaranti ca nānityāḥ sattve 'pyeṣa samaḥ kramaḥ//

If mental conformations are transmigratory (i.e., as cyclic nature), they, as permanent entities, do not transmigrate. In fact, as impermanent entities, they also do not transmigrate. The same (relationship) also holds true for a sentient being.

```
pudgalaḥ saṃsarati cetskandhāyatanadhātuşu/
pañcadhā mṛgyamāno 'sau nāsti kaḥ saṃsarişyati//
```

If man's individuality is transmigratory with respect to the five-fold realms of skandhas, āyatanas and dhātus, then it is non-existent. What then does transmigrate?

Note: Reference is made to the five-fold function in man's action involving all the 5 skandhas, 12 āyatanas, and 18 dhātus. These activities are samsāric or migratory in nature.

Verse 3

```
upādānādupādānam samsaran vibhavo bhavet/
vibhavaścānupādānah kah sa kim samsarisyati//
```

Anything moving from one (sensual) grasping to another will be without a body or form. How does a bodiless or nongrasping thing ever transmigrate?

Verse 4

```
saṃskārānāṃ na nirvāṇaṃ kathaṃ cidupapadyate/
sattvasyāpi na nirvāṇaṃ kathaṃ cidupadyate//
```

Why is it that nirvāṇa (or quiescence) is not possible with mental conformations? Also, why is it that even a sentient being is not possible of nirvāṇa?

Verse 5

```
na badhyante na mucyanta udayavyayadharminah/
samskārāh pūrvavatsattvo badhyate na na mucyate//
```

The mental conformations are endowed with the characteristics of production and extinction, and thus cannot be bound or attain release. Similarly, a sentient being cannot be bound or attain release.

Verse 6

```
bandhanam cedupādānam sopādāno na badhyate/badhyate nānupādānah kimavastho 'tha badhyate//
```

If (sensual) grasping per se is bound or restricted, then the grasping entity will be free from bonds. A non-grasping entity will also be free from bonds. Then, in what abiding condition is (one) bound?

Verse 7

badhniyādbandhanam kāmam bandhyātpūrvam bhavedyadi/ na cāsti tat śesamuktam gamyamānagatāgataih//

If bonds exist prior to the bondage, they could bind freely or at will. But this is not so. The other matters have already been discussed with respect to gamyamāna, gata and agata.

Note: The last remark refers to Chapter II where the problems on the three aspects are minutely discussed.

Verse 8

baddho na mucyate tāvadabaddho naiva mucyate/ syātām baddhe mucyamāne yugapadbandhamokṣaṇe//

In truth, then, a bound entity cannot be released and it is so also with an unbound entity. If by chance a bound entity is in the process of being released, then bondage and release will be simultaneous phenomena.

Verse 9

```
nirvāsyāmyanupādāno nirvāņam me bhavişyati/
iti yeṣām grahasteṣāmupādānamahāgrahaḥ//
```

Those who delight in maintaining, "Without the grasping, I will realize nirvāṇa; Nirvāṇa is in me;" are the very ones with the greatest grasping.

Verse 10

```
na nirvāṇasamāropo na saṃsārāpakarṣaṇaṃ/
yatra kastatra saṃsāro nirvāṇaṃ kiṃ vikalpyate//
```

Where nirvāṇa is not (subject to) establishment and saṃsāra not (subject to) disengagement, how will there be any conception of nirvāṇa and saṃsāra?

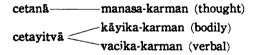
CHAPTER XVII

Karmaphala parīkṣā

Examination of Action and Its Effect

The Tibetan version agrees with the Sanskrit in its title but in the Chinese version the title is simply the Examination of *karman* or Action. This is one of the more interesting chapters since it deals with the popular Buddhist concept of man's action. Man is always interested in the question of what past, present and future deeds or actions are and to what extent they are significant to present lives or to what extent they are controllable.

In this chapter Nāgārjuna first explains the types of karman in order to introduce and clarify the Buddha's teachings. He says that the Buddha spoke of two types of karman, i.e., one which is in the realm of thought $(cetan\bar{a})$ and the other concerning thought in action $(cetayitv\bar{a})$. The following diagram will illustrate the point:



 not disruption (*uccheda*) and that *saṃsāra* is not permanency (*śāśvata*). Nothing is interrupted, fixed, gained, lost, or passed over to another. As a consequence, it is of no use speaking of *karman* and its effect, of *kleśas*, of bodily entities, etc., for they are all false peregrinations of the mind. Incidentally, verses 1-19 contain the popular views on *karman*.

Verse 1

ātmasaṃyamakaṃ cetaḥ parānugrāhakaṃ ca yat/ maitram sa dharmastadbījam phalasya pretya ceha ca//

Self-restraint, kindness towards others, and benevolence are the ways of the *dharma* (i.e., the truth of the nature of things). They are the seeds which bear fruit in this as well as the next realm of life.

Verse 2

cetanā cetayitvā ca karmoktam paramarşinā/ tasyānekavidho bhedah karmanāh parikīrtitah//

The Great Sage has said that *karman* is (in the nature of) thought as well as thought in action, and that there are many distinct varieties of *karman*.

Verse 3

tatra yaccetanetyuktam karma tanmānasam smrtam/cetayitvā ca yattūktam tattu kāyikavācikam//

The *karman* which has been described as thought ($cetan\bar{a}$) indicates the mental and volitional aspects and that which has been described as thought in action ($cetayitv\bar{a}$) refers to the bodily and verbal aspects.

Verse 4

vāgvispando 'viratayo yāscāvijnaptisamjnitāh/ avijnaptaya evānyāh smrtā viratayastathā//

Words, actions, the indescribable non-abandonment as well as what is asserted to be another form of the indescribable abandonment,....(This verse continues on to the next.)

```
paribhogānvayam puṇyamapuṇyam ca tathāvidham/
cetanā ceti saptaite dharmāḥ karmāñjanāḥ smṛtāḥ//
```

....virtuous and non-virtuous elements associated with enjoyment of being (paribhoga), and thought itself, these are the seven dharmas which give rise to karman.

Verse 6

```
tişthatyāpākakālāccetkarma tannityatāmiyāt/
niruddham cennirrudham satkim phalam janayişyati//
```

If *karman* endures at any time in the maturing process, then it will be of the nature of permanent endurance. But if it ceases to be, how could anything ceased (or spent) give rise to an effect?

Verse 7

```
yo 'nkuraprabhṛtirbījātsaṃtāno 'bhipravartate/
tataḥ phalamṛte bījātsa ca nābhipravartate//
```

A continuity which begins in a sprout, etc., comes forth from a seed and thereby takes on the nature of an effect, but separated from the seed the continuity could never arise.

Verse 8

```
bījācca yasmātsamtānah samtānācca phalodbhavah/bījapūrvam phalam tasmānnocchinnam nāpi śāśvatam//
```

Since continuity comes forth from seed and effect from continuity, there is always a seed prior to the effect. Therefore, there is no interruption and also no constancy.

Verse 9

```
yastasmāccittasamtānaścetaso 'bhipravartate/ tataḥ phalamṛte cittātsa ca nābhipravartate//
```

Thereupon, thought continuity comes forth from the existence of mind and in consequence the effect. Without the mind, continuity cannot arise.

cittācca yasmātsamtānaḥ samtānācca phalodbhavaḥ/ karmapūrvaṃ phalaṃ tasmānnocchinnaṃ nāpi śāśvatam//

Since continuity comes forth from the mind and the effect from continuity, there is *karman* (of the mind) prior to the effect. Therefore, there is no interruption and also no constancy.

Verse 11

dharmasya sādhanopāyāḥ śuklāḥ karmapathā daśa/ phalaṃ kāmaguṇāḥ paṃca dharmasya pretya ceha ca//

The ten paths of pure action are the means of realizing the *dharma*. The effects (i.e., fruits) of the *dharma* of this as well as the next realm of life are the five sensual enjoyments.

Note: The ten pure actions refer to carrying out the following: non-killing, non-stealing, non-adultery, non-lying, non-duplicity, non-evil talk, non-odd talk, non-greed, non-hatred, and non-false view.

Verse 12

bahavaśca mahāntaśca doṣāḥ syurapi kalpanā/ yadyeṣā tena naivaiṣā kalpanātropapadyate//

If conceptualizations are permitted there will arise many as well as great errors. Therefore, they are not permissible (or possible) here.

Verse 13

imām punah pravaksyāmi kalpanām yātra yojyate/ buddhaih pratyekabuddhaiśca śrāvakaiścānuvarnitām//

I will here relate about certain appropriate conceptualizations which have been praised (i.e., sanctioned) by the *Buddhas*, *Pratyekabuddhas* and *Śrāvakas*.

Verse 14

pattram yathā 'vipraņāśastathārņamiva karma ca/caturvidho dhātutah sa prakṛtyā 'vyākṛtaśca sah//

An imperishable continuing action is like a document (i.e., in constant force) and a *karman* is like an obligation (i.e., a discharge of duty). The imperishable continuing action is four-fold from the standpoint of the realms of action (*dhātu*) and is indeterminate from the standpoint of primal substance (*prakrti*).

Note: Reference is made to the four-fold realms of desire (kāma), materiality (rūpa), immateriality (arūpa), and transcendent of sense attachment (anāsrava).

Verse 15

```
prahāņato na praheyo bhāvanāheya eva vā/
tasmādavipraņāśena jāyate karmaņām phalam//
```

It (i.e., the imperishable continuing action) is not abandoned by simple abandonment but by the virtuous practical actions. Therefore, the fruits of *karman* come forth from the imperishable continuing action.

Verse 16

```
prahāṇataḥ praheyaḥ syātkarmaṇaḥ saṃkrameṇa vā/
yadi doṣāḥ prasajyeraṃstatra karmavadhādayaḥ//
```

If it is abandoned by simple abandonment or by the transformation of the *karman*, then there necessarily follows such errors as the denial of *karman*, etc.

Verse 17

```
sarveşām vişabhāgānām sabhāgānām ca karmaṇām/
pratisamdhau sadhātūnāmeka utpadyate tu saḥ//
```

When all the similar and dissimilar *karmans* come together in a realm, there will arise only one imperishable continuing action.

Verse 18

```
karmaņaḥ karmaņo dṛṣte dharma utpadyate tu saḥ/
dviprakārasya sarvasya vipakve 'pi ca tiṣṭhati//
```

The imperishable continuing action will arise in the present, correspondingly with respect to all the two-fold nature (i.e., similar and dissimilar) of the *karmans*. It will also endure in its maturing state.

Verse 19

```
phalavyatikramādvā sa maraņādva nirudhyate/
anāsravam sāsravam vibhāgam tatra lakşayet//
```

The imperishable continuing action ceases to be when it has gone beyond (i.e., exhausted) the effects or met with death. Here a distinction must be made between worldly attachments (sāsrava) and supra- worldly non-attachments (anāsrava).

Verse 20 (Nāgārjuna asserts)

```
śūnyatā ca na cocchedaḥ saṃsāraśca na śāśvatam/
karṃaṇo 'vipraṇāśaśca dharmo buddhena deśitaḥ//
```

The imperishable continuing action spoken of by the Buddha is $\dot{sunyata}$ and not uccheda (interruption), $sams\bar{a}ra$ and $\dot{sas}vata$ (constancy).

Verse 21

```
karma notpadyate kasmāt niḥsvabhāvaṃ yatastataḥ/
yasmācca tadanutpannaṃ na tasmādvipraṇaśyati//
```

The reason why karman does not arise is that it is without a self-nature (niḥsvabhāva). As it does not arise there is no perishing.

Verse 22

```
karma svabhāvataścetsyācchāśvatam syādasamśayam/akṛtam ca bhavetkarma kriyate na hi śāśvatam//
```

If *karman* has self-nature then undoubtedly it will have the nature of constancy and will also be uncreated. However, anything characterized by constancy does not create.

Verse 23

```
akṛtābhyāgamabhayam syātkarmākṛtakam yadi/
abrahmacaryavāsaśca doṣastatra prasajyate//
```

If an uncreated *karman* exists then there will be apprehensive (acts) without any creation. And a fallacy would result in which there will be no dwelling upon (i.e., carrying on) the ways of the Brahman.

Verse 24

```
vyavahārā virudhyante sarva eva na saṃśayaḥ/
puṇyapāpakṛtornaiva pravibhāgaśca yujyate//
```

All common practices would, no doubt, be destroyed for it follows that no distinction between the virtuous and evil doers could be made.

Verse 25

```
tadvipakvavipākam ca punareva vipakşyati/
karma vyavasthitam yasmāttasmātsvābhāvikam yadi//
```

If karman is a fixed thing (i.e., enduring) because of its self-nature, then a maturity that is already matured will again seek maturity.

Verse 26

```
karma kleśātmakam cedam te ca kleśā va tattvatah/
na cette tattvatah kleṣāh karma syāttattvatah katham//
```

This karman will have the nature of defilements (klesas) and these, in turn, will not be in the nature of truth (tattva). But if the defilements are not in the nature of truth, how could karman be in the nature of truth?

Verse 27

```
karma kleśāśca dehānām pratyayāḥ samudāhṛtāḥ/karma kleśāśca te śūnyā yadi deheşu kā kathā//
```

It is said that karman and defilements are a co-operating conditionality of differing bodies. But if karman and defilements are of the nature of $ś\bar{u}nya$ (i.e., thusness or "void"), what could be said of these bodies?

Verse 28 (The opponent contends) avidyānivṛto jantustṛṣṇāsaṃyojanaśca sah/ sa bhoktā sa ca na karturanyo na ca sa eva sah//

The sentient being beclouded by ignorance is a bundle of cravings. He is the percipient (i.e., experiencer of *karmaic* effects). He is neither identical to nor different from the doer.

Verse 29 (Nāgārjuna asserts) na pratyayasamutpannam nāpratyayasamutthitam/ asti yasmādidam karma tasmātkartāpi nāstyatah//

Since *karman* does not arise by means of relational or non-relational conditionality, there is also no doer.

Verse 30

karma cennāsti kartā ca kutaḥ syātkarmajaṃ phalaṃ/ asatyatha phale bhoktā kuta eva bhavişyati//

If there is neither *karman* nor doer, where could the effect arising from the *karman* be? Where there is no effect, how could there be any percipient (i.e., experiencer)?

Verse 31

yathā nirmitakam śāstā nirmimīta rddhisampadā/ nirmito nirmimītānyam sa ca nirmitakah punah//

It is as if a master, by his supernormal powers, were to form a figure and this figure, in turn, were to form another figure....(continues on to the next verse).

Verse 32

tathā nirmitakākārah kartā yatkarma tatkṛtam/ tadyathā nirmitenānyo nirmito nirmitastathā//

In exactly the same way, the doer is like the formed figure and his action (karman) is like the other figure formed by the first.

Karmaphala parikṣā

Verse 33

kleśāḥ karmāṇi dehāśca kartāraśca phalāni ca/ gandharvanagarākārā marīcisvapnasamnibhāḥ//

Defilements, *karmans*, bodily entities, doers and effects are all similar to the nature of an imaginary city in the sky, a mirage, and a dream.

112

CHAPTER XVIII

Ātma parīkṣā

Examination of the Bifurcated Self

The Chinese title is the Examination of the Factors of Existence (dharma, fa 法) and the Tibetan is the Examination of the Existence of Self and Factors of Existence (Bdag dan chos brtag pa; Ātma-dharma parīksā). This chapter discusses the concept of ātman which had been hinted at in the previous chapter on karman. It is one of the more important chapters dealing with man's self and, eventually, as one would expect. Nagariuna argues on the nonexistence of atman. In the opening verse he quickly destroys any idea that the atman can be equated with the skandhas and concludes that they are logically untenable. The bifurcated self (ātman). self-hood (ātmīya), self-identity (mama) and individuality (ahamkāra) are all mental constructions and detrimental to the attainment of moksa or release. The Buddha only employs the term, ātman, provisionally for he is actually interested in teaching the truth (tattva) of anatman. Truth is non-relational, non-descriptive, nondifferential....it is thatness or thusness. In Verse 8 Nāgārjuna introduces the famed Four-cornered logic (szu-chü lun-fa 四句論法, catuskotikā), i.e., the possible conditions of is, is not, both is and is not, and neither is nor is not, in order to exhibit the fact that final truth transcends all these possibilities; it is śūnyatā per se.

Verse 1

ātmā skandhā yadi bhavedudayavyayabhāgbhavet/ skandhebhyo 'nyo yadi bhavedbhavedaskandhalakṣaṇaḥ//

If the bifurcated self (ātman) is constitutive of skandhas, it will be endowed with the nature of origination and destruc-

tion. If it is other than the *skandhas* it will not be endowed with the latter's characteristics.

Note: The skandhas refer to the five constituents of being or existence, i.e., rūpa (material form), vedanā (feeling), saṃjña (awareness), saṃskāra (mental conformation), and vijāāna (conscious play).

Verse 2

```
ātmanyasati cātmīyam kuta eva bhavişyati/
nirmamo nirahamkārah śamādātmātmanīnayoh//
```

Where the bifurcated self does not exist, how could there be a self-hood $(\bar{a}tm\bar{i}ya)$? From the fact that the bifurcated self and self-hood are (in their basic nature) quiescence, there is no self-identity (mama) or individuality $(ahamk\bar{a}ra)$.

Verse 3

```
nirmano nirahamkāro yaśca so 'pi na vidyate//
nirmamam nirahamkāram yah paśyati na paśyati//
```

Any entity without individuality and self-identity does not exist. Whosoever sees (it with) non-individuality and non-self-identity cannot see or grasp (the truth).

Verse 4

```
mametyahamiti ksine bahirdhādhyātmameva ca/
nirudhyata upādānam tatkṣayājjanmanaḥ kṣayaḥ//
```

Grasping ceases to be where, internally and externally, (the ideas of) individuality and self-identity are destroyed. From the cessation of grasping the cessation of birth also follows.

Verse 5

```
karmakleśakşayānmokşa karmakleśā vikalpatah/
te prapańcātprapańcastu śūnyatāyām nirudhyate//
```

There is mok ilde sa (release or liberation) from the destruction of karmaic defilements which are but conceptualization. These arise from mere conceptual play (prapa ilde n ca) which are in turn banished in ilde sa ilde n yat ilde a.

ātmetyapi prajñapitamanātmetyapi deśitam/ buddhairnātmā na cānātmā kaścidityapi deśitam//

The Buddhas have provisionally employed the term $\bar{a}tman$ and instructed on the true idea of $an\bar{a}tman$. They have also taught that any (abstract) entity as $\bar{a}tman$ or $an\bar{a}tman$ does not exist.

Verse 7

nivṛttamabhidhātavyam nivṛtte cittagocare/ anutpannāniruddhā hi nirvāṇamiva dharmatā//

Where mind's functional realm ceases, the realm of words also ceases. For, indeed, the essence of existence (dharmatā) is like nirvāna, without origination and destruction.

Verse 8

sarvam tathyam na vā tathyam tathyam cātathyameva ca/ naivātathyam naiva tathyametadbuddhānuśāsanam//

Everything is suchness (tathyam), not suchness, both suchness and not suchness, and neither suchness nor not suchness. This is the Buddha's teaching.

Verse 9

aparapratyayam śāntam prapañcairaprapañcitam/ nirvikalpamanānārthametattattvasya lakṣaṇam//

Non-conditionally related to any entity, quiescent, non-conceptualized by conceptual play, non-discriminative, and non-differentiated. These are the characteristics of reality (i.e., descriptive of one who has gained the Buddhist truth)

Verse 10

pratītya yadyadbhavati na hi tāvattadeva tat/ na cānyadapi tasmānnocchinnam nāpi śāśvatam//

Any existence which is relational is indeed neither identical to nor different from the related object. Therefore, it is neither interruption nor constancy.

anekārthamanānārthamanucchedamaśāśvatam/etattallokanāthānām buddhānām śāsanāmrtam//

"Non-identity, non-differentiation, non-interruption and non-continuity." These are the immortal teachings of the world's patron *Buddhas*.

Verse 12

saṃbuddhānāmanutpāde śrāvakāṇāṃ punaḥ kṣaye/ jñānaṃ pratyekabuddhānāmasaṃsargātpravartate//

Where the accomplished *Buddhas* do not appear and the Śrāvakas cease to be, the enlightened mind of the *Pratyeka-buddhas* comes forth from independent disengagement (of the bifurcated self).

Note: This verse subtly shows that human beings are all potential pratyekabuddhas who independently could attain a higher form of knowledge or realize the truth of things (tattva).

CHAPTER XIX

Kāla parīkṣā

Examination of Time

This relatively short chapter strikes at the core of the matter of temporal moments in existence. Since the analysis made in Chapter II on the Examination of gata, agata, and gamyamāna is presupposed, the discussion here is necessarily simplified and brief. Nāgārjuna omits the fine analysis of the three temporal moments and almost immediately argues for the non-existence of the time-concept from the temporal as well as existential standpoints.

Verse 1

```
pratyutpanno 'nāgataśca yadyatītamapekṣya hi/
pratyutpanno 'nāgataśca kāle 'tīte bhaviṣyatah//
```

If, indeed, the present and future are contingently related to the past, they should exist in the past moment.

Verse 2

```
pratyutpanno 'nāgataśca na stastatra punaryadi/
pratyutpanno 'nāgataśca syātām kathamapeksya tam//
```

If, again, the present and future do not exist there (i.e., in the past), how could they be contingently related?

Verse 3

```
anapeksya punah siddhirnātītam vidyate tayoh/
pratyutpanno 'nāgataśca tasmātkālo na vidyate//
```

Again, it is not possible for both (present and future) to establish themselves without being contingent on a past. Therefore, there is no justification for the existence of a present and a future time.

```
etenaivāvašistau dvau krameņa parivartakau/
uttamādhamamadhyādīnekatvādīmśca lakṣayet//
```

It follows from the above analysis that the remainder of the two periods likewise can be taken up and that concepts such as above, below, middle, etc. or identity, etc. can be similarly described or treated.

Note: This means that the analysis can be made similarly by using the present and the future in turn as a base and relating each to the other two temporal periods. Similar analysis holds true for the other concepts mentioned.

Verse 5

```
nāsthito grhyate kālaḥ sthitaḥ kālo na vidyate/
yo grhyetāgrhītaśca kālaḥ prajñapyate katham//
```

A non-enduring time cannot be manipulated. But an enduring time, although manipulatable, does not exist. How could a non-manipulatable time be grasped (i.e., conceptualized)?

Verse 6

```
bhāvam pratītya kālaścetkālo bhāvādṛte kutaḥ/
na ca kaścana bhāvo 'sti kutaḥ kālo bhaviṣyati//
```

If time exists in virtue of the relational existential structure, where can it be without the structure? As any existential structure does not exist, where can time be?

CHAPTER XX

Sāmagrī parikṣā

Examination of Assemblage

The Tibetan and Chinese versions both have their titles as the Examination of Cause and Effect (Hetuphala: Rgyu dan hbras bu brtag pa). The content of the chapter certainly reveals the relationship between these two concepts but it also treats the concept of assemblage (sāmagrī). It would seem, however, that Nāgārjuna's treatment places greater emphasis on the idea of assemblage where various relational conditions (pratyaya), cause, and effect come together or exist in concomitance. He naturally utilizes the other concepts in order to show the impossibility of attaching any subsisting nature to any one of them, i.e., hinting at all times that existence or being per se is beyond descriptive manipulation. Therefore, he goes through all the possible combinations of cause and effect (Verses 12, 13, 14) in their temporal moments in order to demonstrate the inconceivability of both being together within an assemblage. The question of void $(\sin nya)$ is then introduced but again he shows that any conceptualization of it falls into error. Consequently, nothing can be asserted of either cause or effect in assemblage or of assemblage without cause and effect. The ideas expressed here are closely related to those found in Chapters I & XIV.

Verse 1

hetośca pratyayānām ca sāmagryā jāyate yadi/ phalamasti ca sāmagryām sāmagryā jāyate katham//

If the effect (i.e., arisen entity or fruit) comes about from the assemblage of cause and relational conditions and exists within such an assemblage, in what manner does it come about in the assemblage?

Verse 2

```
hetośca pratyayānām ca sāmagryā jāyate yadi/
phalam nāsti ca sāmagryām sāmagryā jāyate katham//
```

If the effect comes about from the assemblage of cause and relational conditions, and it does not exist within such an assemblage, in what manner does it come about in the assemblage?

Verse 3

```
hetośca pratyayānām ca sāmagryāmasti cetphalam/
grhyeta nanu sāmagryām sāmagryām ca na grhyate//
```

If the effect is in the assemblage of cause and relational conditions, it should be conceivable within the assemblage. However, (the fact is) it is inconceivable within an assemblage.

Verse 4

```
hetośca pratyayānām ca sāmagryām nāsti cetphalam/
hetavaḥ pratyayāśca syurahetupratyayaiḥ samāḥ//
```

If the effect is not in the assemblage of cause and relational conditions, then the causes and relational conditions would be similar to non-causal and non-relational conditions.

Verse 5

```
hetukam phalasya dattvā yadi heturnirudhyate/
yaddattam yanniruddham ca hetorātmadvayam bhavet//
```

If the cause gives to the effect a causal nature before extinguishing itself, then there will be a dual causal form of the given and the extinguished.

Verse 6

```
hetum phalasyādattvā ca yadi heturnirudhyate/
hetau niruddhe jātam tatphalamāhetukam bhavet//
```

If, however, the cause does not give the effect a causal nature before extinguishing itself, then the effect, arising after the cause extinguishes itself, will have no cause.

Verse 7

phalam sahaiva sāmagryā yadi prādurbhavetpunaḥ/ekakālau prasaivete janako vaśca janyate//

If, again, the effect and the assemblage appear together, then it would follow that the producer and the produced are contemporaneous (i.e., exist in the same moment).

Verse 8

pūrvameva ca sāmagryāḥ phalam prādurbhavetyadi/ hetupratyavanirmuktam phalamāhetukam bhavet//

Moreover, if the effect appears prior to the assemblage, then it, without cause and relational condition, will have a non-causal nature.

Verse 9

niruddhe cetphalam hetau hetoh samkramanam bhavet/ pūrvajātasya hetośca punarjanma prasajyate//

If the effect is taken to be the transition of a cause which had extinguished itself, then it follows that the cause would be a re-origination of an already originated cause.

Verse 10

janayetphalamutpannam niruddho 'stamgatah katham/ tişthannapi katham hetuh phalena janayedvrtah//

How could an already extinguished cause give rise to an already arisen effect? Again, how could a cause which is concomitant with an effect give rise to the latter?

Verse 11

athāvṛtah phalenāsau katamajjanayetphalam/ na hyadṛṣṭvā vā dṛṣṭvā vā heturjanayate phalam// On the other hand, what kind of an effect would result from a cause without the nature of concomitance? For, a cause will not give rise to an effect regardless of whether the latter is projected or unprojected.

Note: Projected and unprojected are peculiar translations for dṛṣṭvā and adṛṣṭvā respectively and they refer to the state of ontological relationship or non-relationship from the standpoint of a cause and its effect.

Verse 12

```
nātitasya hyatītena phalasya saha hetunā/
nājātena na jātena samgatiriātu vidyate//
```

Indeed, it is not possible to have an union of a past effect with a past cause nor with a future and present cause.

Note: This verse as well as the following two refer to the three possible combinations of an effect with respect to its past, present, and future conditions.

Verse 13

```
na jätasya hyajätena phalasya saha hetunä/
nätitena na jätena samgatiriätu vidvate//
```

Indeed, it is not possible to have an union of a present effect with a future cause nor with a past and present cause.

Verse 14

```
nājātasya hi jātena phalasya saha hetunā/
nājātena na nastena samgatirjātu vidyate//
```

Indeed, it is not possible to have an union of a future effect with a present cause nor with a future and past cause.

Verse 15

```
asatyām samgatau hetuh katham janayate phalam/
satyām vā samgatau hetuh katham janayate phalam//
```

Without partaking in an union, how could a cause give rise to an effect? But again, with the partaking in a union, how could a cause give rise to an effect?

```
hetuh phalena śūnyaścetkatham janayate phalam/
hetuh phalenāśūnyaścetkatham janayate phalam//
```

If a cause is a void (\$\sin \text{unya}\$) with respect to an effect, how could it give rise to the effect? If, on the other hand, a cause is not a void with respect to an effect, how could it give rise to the effect?

Verse 17

```
phalam notpatsyate 'sūnyamasūnyam na nirotsyate/
aniruddhamanutpannamasūnyam tadbhavisyati//
```

An effect which is a non-void (aśūnya) will not arise nor extinguish itself. For, that which is a non-void will be non-arising and non-extinguishing.

Verse 18

```
kathamutpatsyate śūnyam katham śūnyam nirotsyate/
śūnyamapyaniruddham tadanutpannam prasajyate//
```

How could an effect which is a void (sūnya) either arise or extinguish itself? Again it necessarily follows that that which is a void will be non-arising and non-extinguishing.

Verse 19

```
hetoh phalasya caikatvam na hi jātūpapadyate//
hetoh phalasya cānyatvam na hi jātūpapadyate//
```

It is not possible, indeed, for a cause and an effect to be identical. But again, it is not possible indeed for them to be different.

Verse 20

```
ekatve phalahetvoh syādaikyam janakajanyayoh/
prthaktve phalahetvoh syāttulyo heturahetunā//
```

If the cause and effect were identical there would be an identity of the producer and the produced. If they were

different, however, then the cause would be the same as a non-causal cause.

Verse 21

```
phalam svabhāvasadbhūtam kim heturjanayişyati/
phalam svabhāvāsadbhūtam kim heturjanayişyati//
```

How could a cause give rise to an effect which in its own nature is a complete being? But again, how could a cause give rise to an effect which in its own nature is an incomplete being?

Verse 22

```
na cājanayamānasya hetutvamupapadyate/
hetutvānupapattau ca phalam kasya bhavişyati//
```

Moreover, a cause without a productive nature cannot be a cause. In the absence of such a productive nature, where will the effect be?

Verse 23

```
na ca pratyayahetūnāmiyamātmānamātmanā/
yā sāmagrī janayate sā katham janayetphalam//
```

As the assemblage of causes and relational conditions does not in virtue of itself produce itself, how could it produce an effect?

Verse 24

```
na sāmagrikṛtam phalam nāsāmagrikṛtam phalam/
asti pratyayasāmagri kuta eva phalam vinā//
```

There is no effect created either by an assemblage or by a non-assemblage of causes and relational conditions. Separated from an effect, where indeed is the assemblage of relational conditions?

CHAPTER XXI

Sambhavavibhava parīksā

Examination of Occurrence and Dissolution of Existence

The title refers to the concepts of occurrence (sambhava) and dissolution (vibhava) of being. In the argument which follows Nāgārjuna has in mind the real meaning of human existence. In other words, the two concepts must be understood in the sense of occurring or coming into existence and dissolving or going out of existence in the context of true existence. He goes through the usual process of discussing the two concepts in relationship to each other with reference to the three temporal moments. In each instance there is no justification for asserting any of the concepts; that is to say, any dogmatically contended assertion can always be led to the realm of absurdity.

It might just be a projection but it would seem that Nāgārjuna makes an illuminating point when he introduces the subtle difference between the terms, bhāva and bhava. Bhava refers to the general state or nature of existence of any entity or organism. In this sense, it connotes something of the nature of an enduring or static quality. This conception is what most of us profess to understand as the basis for the existence of all things. Such an understanding, however, comes from a deluded mind and it is here that Nāgārjuna goes on to show that there is another realm or aspect of being which people have always overlooked. This is the realm or aspect of bhāva. Bhāva refers to the truly dynamic worldly existence, i.e., it refers to the Buddhist fundamental conception of the continuity of becomingness of ordinary life. This becomingness or bhāva is a fact which no amount of conceptualization will ever be able to analyze or fathom. It will "cease" only in nirvāna.

vinā vā saha vā nāsti vibhavaḥ sambhavena vai/ vinā vā saha vā nāsti sambhavo vibhavena vai//

Dissolution does not exist either separated from or concurrent with the occurrence of being. Occurrence, likewise, does not exist either separated from or concurrent with its dissolution.

Verse 2

bhavişyati katham nāma vibhavah sambhavam vinā/ vinaiva janma maranam vibhavo nodbhavam vinā//

How could there be dissolution separated from the occurrence of being? (As there would be the improbable phenomenon of) death without birth, there is no dissolution without occurrence.

Verse 3

saṃbhavenaiva vibhavaḥ kathaṃ saha bhavişyati/ na janmamaraṇaṃ caivaṃ tulyakālaṃ hi vidyate//

How could there be dissolution concurrent with the occurrence of being? For, indeed, it is not possible for both birth and death to exist simultaneously.

Verse 4

bhavişyati katham nāma sambhavo vibhavam vinā/ anityatā hi bhāveşu na kadācinna vidyate//

How could there be occurrence separated from the dissolution of being? For in the various modes of (true) existence, transient nature is never found not to exist.

Verse 5

sambhavo vibhavenaiva katham saha bhavişyati/ na janmamaranam caivam tulyakālam hi vidyate//

How could there be occurrence concurrent with the dissolution of being? For, indeed, it is not possible for both birth and death to exist simultaneously.

```
sahānyonyena vā siddhirvinānyonyena vā yayoḥ/
na vidvate tavoh siddhih katham nu khalu vidvate//
```

The establishment of mutual concurrence or mutual separation is an impossibility. How then would it ever be possible to assert any completed states of the two?

Verse 7

```
kşayasya sambhavo nāsti nākşyasyāsti sambhavaḥ/ksayasya vibhavo nāsti vibhavo nāksayasya ca//
```

There is no occurrence of being in either a ceased or an unceased entity. Again, there is no dissolution of being in either a ceased or an unceased entity.

Verse 8

```
sambhavo vibhavascaiva vinā bhāvam na vidyate/
sambhavam vibhavam caiva vinā bhāvo na vidyate//
```

Occurrence and dissolution are not possible apart from (true) existence. On the other hand, (true) existence is not possible apart from occurrence and dissolution.

Verse 9

```
sambhavo vibhavaścaiva na śūnyasyopapadyate/
sambhavo vibhavaścaiva nāśūnyasyopapadyate//
```

Occurrence and dissolution cannot exist in the nature of void (sūnya). They cannot exist in the nature of non-void either.

Verse 10

```
sambhavo vibhavaścaiva naika ityupapadyate/
sambhavo vibhavaścaiva na nanetyupapadyate//
```

It is not possible that occurrence and dissolution are identical. They cannot be different either.

```
drśyate sambhavaścaiva vibhavaścaiva te bhavet/
drśyate sambhavaścaiva mohādvibhava eva ca//
```

You may think that both occurrence and dissolution can be perceived but such a perception only comes about from a deluded mind.

Verse 12

```
na bhāvājjāyate bhāvo bhāvo bhāvānna jāyate/
nābhāvājjāyate bhāvo bhāvo bhāvānna jāyate//
```

(True) existence does not arise from itself nor does it arise from non-existence. Again, non-existence does not arise from itself nor does it arise from existence.

Verse 13

```
na svato jāyate bhāvah parato naiva jāyate/
na svatah paratascaiva jāyate jāyate kutah//
```

(True) existence arises neither by itself nor by an other. It does not arise by both (forces). How then does it arise?

Verse 14

```
bhāvamabhyupapannasya śāśvatocchedadarśanam/
prasajyate sa bhāvo hi nityo 'nityo 'tha vā bhavet//
```

One who admits existence will necessarily perceive permanence and disruption. For, it necessarily follows that such an existence must either be permanent or impermanent.

Note: This idea was discussed in XV, 10, 11.

Verse 15 (The opponent contends)

```
bhāvamabhyupapannasya naivocchedo na śāśvatam/
udayavyayasamtānaḥ phalahetvorbhavaḥ sa hi//
```

On the other hand, as one admits (true) existence there could be no permanence or disruption. For, such an existence expresses the continuity in the rise and fall (i.e., disintegration) of a being in a cause-effect relationship.

Note: Bhava and bhāva appear. The difference is subtle. Bhava refers to the state or nature of ordinary existence and connotes an enduring or subsisting entity. Bhāva, on the other hand, refers to true worldly existence, to the state of continuity of becomingness in life process. Whether the difference was made advertently or inadvertently remains conjectural. It may have been simply a typographical error.

```
Verse 16 (Nāgārjuna asserts)
udayavyayasaṃtānaḥ phalahetvorbhavaḥ sa cet/
vyayasyāpunarutpatterhetūccehedah prasaivate//
```

If such an existence expresses the continuity in the rise and fall (i.e., disintegration) of a being in a cause-effect relationship, then, since the fall does not have the nature of arising again, it will necessarily be the disruption of cause.

Verse 17

```
sadbhāvasya svabhāvena nāsadbhāvasca yujyate/
nirvāṇakāle cocchedah prasamādbhavasamtateh//
```

It is not justifiable to assert that an existence in virtue of self-nature becomes a non-existence. For, at the time of nirvāṇa, there is a disruption in virtue of the quiescence of the continuity of being.

Verse 18

```
carame na niruddhe ca prathamo yujyate bhavaḥ// carame nāniruddhe ca prathamo yujyate bhavaḥ//
```

It is not justifiable to assert that a being arises only at a time when a previous being ceases to be, nor also that a being arises when a previous being does not cease to be.

Verse 19

```
nirudhyamāne carame prathamo yadi jāyate/
nirudhyamāna ekaḥ syājjāyamāno 'paro bhavet//
```

If a being arises in the ceasing process of the previous being, then perhaps the ceasing process refers to one kind of being and the arising process to another.

```
na cennirudhyamānaśca jāyamānaśca yujyate/
sārdham ca mriyate yeşu teşu skandheşu jāyate//
```

If it is not justifiable to assert that existence can be expressed in the concurrent process of arising and ceasing, then it should arise as well as cease within the same realm of the *skandhas* (i.e., the five aggregates of being).

Verse 21

```
evam trişvapi kāleşu na yuktā bhavasamtatih/
trişu kāleşu yā nāsti sā katham bhavasamtatih//
```

Consequently, the continuity of being is not possible within the three temporal moments. As it does not exist within the three temporal moments, in what manner does it exist?

Note: Reference to past, present, and future.

CHAPTER XXII

Tathāgata parīkṣā

Examination of the Tathagata

This chapter investigates the question of the *Tathāgata*. The term itself is an interesting one in that it refers to one who has attained or arrived at the state of truth (*tathatā* or *tattva*). It is normally translated as thus-come or thus-gone (*tathā-āgata* or *tathā-gata*).

In reality, this chapter is a logical consequence of what has been hinted at in the previous chapter. There we have seen that Nāgārjuna advertently or inadvertently stressed the concept of $bh\bar{a}va$ (rather than bhava), the realm of true worldly existence beyond any conceptualization. It is in this realm that the true meaning of a $Tath\bar{a}gata$ will have to be understood. He goes through the usual pattern of thought but, as in Chapter XVIII, Verse 8, he introduces the so-called four-cornered logic $(catuṣkoṭik\bar{a})$, i.e., the four and only four possible ways of viewing anything. He applies the elements of this logic to the concepts of $s\bar{u}nya$ (void) and concludes that, afterall, $s\bar{u}nya$ is spoken of only as a provisional means of understanding the true realm.

The two basic questions discussed here are (1) whether or not a Tathāgata lives after death and (2) whether or not a Tathāgata is concurrent with the five skandhas. These questions are reminiscent of the extreme distaste of metaphysical questions (i.e., "questions which tend not to edification") which the historial Buddha expressed when asked about certain speculative views on the eternal or non-eternal nature of the world, etc. (Confer Majjhima-nikāya I, 426-432, Discouse 63 Cuļa-Maluńkyasutta). The questions are, of course, ill-directed because they discriminate or bifurcate the concept of Tathāgata. In Verses 15 & 16 he finally asserts that there is a basic

identity between the realms of the *Tathāgata* and our mundane world. As a consequence, the world of truth, the *tattva*, the *tathatā*, and the *Tathāgata* are all one and the same, irrespective of the names we advertently or inadvertently employ.

Verse 1

skandhā na nānyaḥ skandhebhyo nāsmin skandhā na teşu saḥ/tathāgataḥ skandhavānna katamo 'tra tathāgataḥ//

The *Tathāgata* is not the (aggregation of the) *skandhas* nor is it different from the *skandhas*. He is not in the *skandhas* nor are the *skandhas* in him. As he cannot possess the *skandhas*, what actually is he?

Verse 2

buddhah skandhānupādāya yadi nāsti svabhāvatah/ svabhāvataśca yo nāsti kutah sa parabhāvatah//

If a Buddha appropriates the *skandhas*, it is not so from the standpoint of self-existence. As there can be no self-existence, how can there be (a Buddha from the standpoint. of) other-existence?

Note: The Buddha and the Tathagata are interchangeable concepts.

They refer to the foremost enlightened state. Also, the term, skandha, is left untranslated in the hope of gaining currency.

Verse 3

pratitya parabhāvam yah so 'nātmetyupapadyate/ yaścānātmā sa ca katham bhavişyati tathāgatah//

It would thus follow that relationship by virtue of other-existence will constitute a non-self. But how could that which is a non-self be a *Tathāgata*?

Note: The use of the term anātman (non-self) here is not to be confused with the cardinal Buddhist doctrine by the same term.

yadi nästi svabhāvaśca parabhāvaḥ kathaṃ bhavet/ svabhāvaparabhāvābhyāmrte kaḥ sa tathāgataḥ//

If self-existence does not exist, how does other-existence exist? Apart from self-existence and other-existence, what could be (the nature of) a *Tathāgata*?

Verse 5

skandhānyadyanupādāya bhavetkaścittathāgataḥ/ sa idānīmupādadyādupādāya tato bhavet//

If a *Tathāgata* exists without appropriating the *skandhas*, then he should be appropriating the *skandhas* now. And he should be a *Tathāgata* in virtue of the appropriation.

Verse 6

skandhān cāpyanupādāya nāsti kaścittathāgatah/ yaśca nāstyanupādāya sa upādāsyate katham//

Again, no *Tathāgata* could exist without appropriating the *skandhas*. And how does an entity which cannot exist without appropriation appropriate the *skandhas*?

Verse 7

na bhavatyanupādattamupādānam ca kim cana/ na cāsti nirupādānah katham cana tathāgatah//

There is neither an appropriating process nor an unappropriated entity. How could there ever be a *Tathāgata* which is without the process of appropriation?

Verse 8

tattvānyatvena yo nāsti mṛgyamānaśca pañcadhā/ upādānena sa katham prajňapyate tathāgataḥ//

How could a *Tathāgata* be known by his appropriating process when he does not exist in terms of the fivefold nature of identity and difference with respect to (the function of) the *skandhas*?

```
yadapīdamupādānam tatsvabhāvānna vidyate/
svabhāvataśca yannāsti kutastatparabhāvatah//
```

Again, the appropriating process cannot function from the standpoint of self-existence. If nothing exists in virtue of self-existence, how could it exist in virtue of other-existence?

Verse 10

```
evam śūnyamupādānamupādātā ca sarvaśah/
prajňapyate ca śūnyena katham śūnyastathāgatah//
```

Consequently, all instances of appropriation and the appropriating entity are in the nature of $s\bar{u}nya$. But then, how could a $Tath\bar{a}gata$ in the nature of $s\bar{u}nya$ be known in terms of $s\bar{u}nya$?

Note: It seems better to leave the technical term sūnya untranslated here as well as in the subsequent verses. The same can be said for its opposite, aśūnya.

Verse 11

```
śūnyamiti na vaktavyamaśūnyamiti vā bhavet/
ubhayam nobhayam ceti prajňaptyartham tu kathyate//
```

Nothing could be asserted to be śūnya, aśūnya, both śūnya and aśūnya, and neither śūnya nor aśūnya. They are asserted only for the purpose of provisional understanding.

Verse 12

```
śāśvatāśāśvatādyatra kutah śānte catustayam/
antānantādi cāpyatra kutah śānte catustayam//
```

How could the fourfold possible natures of permanence, impermanence, etc., manifest in quiescence? Again, how could the fourfold limit, limitless, etc., manifest in quiescence?

Note: Reference is again to the elements of the four-cornered logic (catuskofikā).

```
yena grāho grhītastu ghano 'stīti tathāgataḥ/
nāstīti sa vikalpayan nirvrtasyāpi kalpayet//
```

One who is firmly entrenched in asserting (or grasping) the existence and non-existence of the *Tathāgata* will, in turn, even discriminate on the existence and non-existence of the *Tathāgata* in the *nirvānic* realm.

Verse 14

```
svabhāvataśca śūnye 'smimścintā naivopapadyate/
param nirodhādbhavati buddho na bhavatīti vā//
```

As the *Tathāgata* in its self-existence is in the nature of sūnya, it is not possible to reason that the Buddha exists or does not exist after liberation.

Verse 15

```
prapańcayanti ye buddham prapańcatitamavyayam/
te prapańcahatah sarve na pasyanti tathagatam//
```

Those who resort wholly to provisional descriptions in speaking of the Buddha, which is actually beyond description and destruction, are impaired by the descriptions themselves and cannot understand the *Tathāgata*.

Note: This verse clearly indicates the non-identity of thought (discriminative knowledge) and reality.

Verse 16

```
tathāgato yatsvabhāvastatsvabhāvamidam jagat/
tathāgato niḥsvabhāvo niḥsvabhāvamidam jagat//
```

The *Tathāgata's* nature of self-existence is also the nature of this worldly existence. The *Tathāgata*, (strictly speaking), is without the nature of self-existence and this worldly existence is likewise so.

CHAPTER XXIII

Viparyāsa parīksā

Examination of the Perversion of Truth

This chapter discusses the interesting question of perversion or false perception (viparyāsa, viparyaya) of truth or reality. The term itself is a central concept in Buddhism for in and through it all our false views are said to evolve. And in this sense it belongs to the conceptual or ideational process in man. Nāgārjuna attempts to show at the outset that the origin of all false views lies in the adulteration and complication of what is pure and what is impure. All perversions, in this sense, mean confusing the pure with the impure. With purity of experience in the background, he then goes through the usual process of arguing that elements or matters attached or related to the process of perversion do not exist in the real sense. He finally brings out the concept of perversion for direct examination and shows that the concepts of perceiver, the perceived. that which depends on perception, and perception itself are all false constructions. On the other hand, from the basic standpoint of truth or reality, they are all of the nature of quiescence. What is then to be done? He concludes that the perversion itself must cease in order to destroy ignorance and that by the destruction of ignorance all devious functions of the five skandhas, such as, samskāra and vijnāna, will be extinguished, thus arriving at ultimate quiescence or nirvāna.

Incidentally, the Chinese as well as the Tibetan versions are lacking in Verse 20.

samkalpaprabhavo rāgo dveşo mohaśca kathyate/ śubhāśubhaviparyāsān sambhavanti pratītya hi//

Covetousness, enmity, and delusion are said to arise from false ideation or conceptualization. Indeed, they come about in virtue of the perverse relational play of purity and impurity.

Verse 2

śubhāśubhaviparyāsān sambhavanti pratitya ye/ te svabhāvanna vidyante tasmātkleśā na tattvatah//

That which comes about in virtue of the perverse relational play of purity and impurity cannot possibly have self-existence or self-nature. Therefore, defilements are not in the nature of that ness or truth.

Note: Defilements (klésā) take on two aspects, i.e., physical and mental, and the verse makes reference to them in the inclusive sense.

Verse 3

ātmano 'stitvanāstitve na katham cicca sidhyataḥ/
tam vināstitvanāstitve klešānām sidhyataḥ katham//

The existence and non-existence of *ātman* can never be established. How then could the existence and non-existence of defilements be established apart from the *ātman*?

Verse 4

kasya ciddhi bhavantīme kleśāh sa ca na sidhyati/ kaścidāho vinā kam citsanti kleśā na kasya cit//

These defilements are said to exist with someone but such a person cannot be established. That is to say, separated from a person these defilements seem to exist independently without belonging to anyone.

svakāyadṛṣṭivatkleśāḥ kliṣṭe santi na pañcadhā/ svakāyadṛṣṭivatkliṣṭaṃ kleśeṣvapi na pañcadhā//

As in falsely viewing one's own body, the defilements do not exist in a fivefold manner with respect to the defiled person. As in falsely viewing one's own body, conversely, the defiled person does not exist in a fivefold manner with respect to the defilements.

Note: Reference is made to the five skandhas with their respective defilements.

Verse 6

svabhāvato na vidyante śubhāśubhaviparyayāḥ/
pratītya katamān kleśāḥ śubhāśubhaviparyayān//

The perversions of purity and impurity cannot exist from the standpoint of self-existence. In virtue of what type of perverse relational plays of purity and impurity do defilements exist?

Verse 7

rūpaśabdarasasparśā gandhā dharmāśca şadvidham/ vastu rāgasya dveşasya mohasya ca vikalpyate//

Material form, voice, taste, touch, smell, and the various factors of existence are conceptualized as the sixfold objects of covetousness, enmity, and delusion.

Verse 8

rūpaśabdarasasparśā gandhā dharmāśca kevalāḥ/gandharvanagarākārā marīcisvapnasaṃnibhāḥ//

Material form, voice, taste, touch, smell, and the various factors of existence are all merely like an imaginary city in the sky, a mirage, or a dream.

```
aśubham vā śubham vāpi kutasteşu bhavişyati/
māyāpuruşakalpeşu pratibimbasameşu ca//
```

How could there be assertions of purity and impurity when, like the conceptions of a deluded mind, they are similar to shadowy representations?

Verse 10

```
anapekşya śubham nāstyaśubham prajňapayemahi/
yatpratītya śubham tasmācchubham naivopapadyate//
```

We provisionally assert that impurity cannot exist without being mutually dependent on purity and that, in turn, purity exists only as related to impurity. Therefore, purity per se is not possible.

Verse 11

```
anapekşyāśubham nāsti subham prajñapayemahi/
yatpratītyāsubham tasmādasubham naiva vidyate//
```

We provisionally assert that purity cannot exist without being mutually dependent on impurity and that, in turn, impurity exists only as related to purity. Therefore, impurity per se does not exist.

Verse 12

```
avidyamāne ca śubhe kuto rāgo bhavişyati/
aśubhe 'vidyamāne ca kuto dveso bhavisyati//
```

When there is no purity per se, how could covetousness arise? Also, when there is no impurity per se, how could enmity arise?

Verse 13

```
anitye nityamityevam yadi grāho viparyayaḥ/
nānityam vidyate śūnye kuto grāho viparyayaḥ//
```

If perception is a perversion such that permanence is in impermanence, then it is not possible for impermance to be in sūnya. How then could that perception be a perversion?

Note: grāha is translated as perception in the sense of a static grasp of an object in an otherwise dynamic function. This is the basis of all ills or duhkha.

Verse 14

```
anitye nityamityevam yadi grāho viparyayah/
anityamityapi grāhah śūnye kim na viparyayah//
```

If perception is a perversion such that permanence is in impermanence, then again, how is it that the perception of impermanence with respect to sūnya is not a perversion?

Verse 15

```
yena grhņāti yo grāho grahītā yacca grhyate/
upaśāntāni sarvāni tasmādgrāho na vidyate//
```

That which depends on perceiving, the perception, the perceiver, and that which is perceived are all of the nature of quiescence. Therefore, perception in itself does not exist.

Verse 16

```
avidyamāne grāhe ca mithyā vā samyageva vā/bhavedviparyayah kasya bhavetkasyāviparyayah//·
```

As there is no perception, properly or improperly, who does and who does not have the perversion?

'erse 17

```
na cāpi viparītasya saṃbhavanti viparyayāh/
na cāpyaviparītasya saṃbhavanti viparyayāh//
```

Perversions do not come about even in one who perverses. Again, they do not come about even in one who does not perverse.

```
na viparyasyamānasya sambhavanti viparyayāh/
vimṛśasva svayam kasya sambhavanti viparyayāh//
```

Perversions do not come about even in one who is presently perversing. Consider seriously by yourself....in whom will the perversions arise?

Verse 19

```
anutpannāḥ kathaṃ nāma bhaviṣyanti viparyayāḥ/
viparyayeṣvajāteṣu viparyayagataḥ kutaḥ//
```

How could there be non-originated perversions? When perversions have not occurred, how could there possibly be one who perverses?

Verse 20

```
na svato jāyate bhāvah parato naiva jāyate/
na svatah parataśceti viparyayagatah kutah//
```

Existence does not come about by itself or by an other. Nor does it come about by both self and other. How could there possibly be one who perverses?

Verse 21

```
ātmā ca śuci nityam ca sukham ca yadi vidyate/
ātmā ca śuci nityam ca sukham ca na viparyayah//
```

If ātman, purity, permanence, and bliss are to be admitted (i.e., exist), then they are not to be considered as perversions.

Verse 22

```
nātmā ca śuci nityam ca sukham ca yadi vidyate/
anātmā 'šucyanityam ca naiva duḥkham ca vidyate//
```

If ātman, purity, permanence, and bliss are not to be admitted (i.e., non-existent), then likewise anātman, impurity, impermanence, and suffering are not to be admitted.

```
evam nirudhyate 'vidyā viparyayanirodhanāt/
avidyāyām niruddhāyām samskārādyam nirudhyate//
```

Consequently, ignorance is destroyed by the cessation of perversion. And by the destruction of ignorance, mental conformations, etc., are also destroyed.

Verse 24

```
yadi bhūtāḥ svabhāvena kleśāḥ ke ciddhi kasya cit/
kathaṃ nāma prahīyeran kaḥ svabhāvaṃ prahāsyati//
```

If the defilements really exist in someone in virtue of selfnature, how could they be abandoned and who could abandon the self-nature?

Verse 25

```
yadyabhūtāḥ svabhāvena kleśāḥ ke ciddhi kasya cit/
kathaṃ nāma prahīyeran ko 'sadbhāvaṃ prahāsyati//
```

If the defilements do not really exist in someone in virtue of self-nature, how could they be abandoned and who is able to abandon non-realities?

CHAPTER XXIV

Āryasatya parīksā

Examination of the Four-fold Noble Truth

In this chapter we are treated to glimpses of a real genius at work. The chapter together with Chapters I & XXV explore the crucial ideas of sūnyatā, pratītyasamutpāda, and madhyamā pratīpad

The chapter begins by first listening to the opponent's view (verses 1-6) that if everything is śūnya or śūnyatā (voidness) then all that is of the mundane world will be destroyed. Nagarjuna quickly reminds him that he does not know the real import of sūnyatā or its meaning. The various Buddhas have, afterall, taught us about the dharma (Buddhist truth) by way of the twofold truths, i.e., samvrtisatya (relative or worldly truth) and paramārtha-satya (absolute or supreme truth). The subtle distinction between the two truths must be clearly understood and, moreover, the absolute truth cannot be arrived at without first going through or experiencing the mundane, relative truths in everyday living. Sūnyatā is, afterall, the basis of all dharmas (factors of experience) or of all truths. In the famous Verse 18. Nāgārjuna equates śūnyatā with pratītyasamutbāda. It is also the madhyamā pratipad (the middle path) and only a provisional name for the expression of truth itself. Incidentally, this verse will become the basis for the philosophical development of the Chinese T'ien-t'ai School (T'ien-t'ai san-ti-chi, kung-chia-chung 天台三 締傷, 空・假・中). Moreover, Nāgārjuna argues that sūnyatā is not to be equated with asūnya ("non-void"), for in asūnya the same view held by the opponent, i.e., that everything in the mundane world will be non-existent or destroyed, will then become valid.

In exhibiting the real purpose of the chapter, i.e., the examination of the Aryan fourfold truths, he is highly critical of the opponent's

adherence to the notion of a self-sustaining, self-abiding entity. Since $s\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$ is not amenable to any abiding or enduring treatment it therefore is the basis of all beings. Thus the Aryan truths of suffering, its extinction, the way, and final $nirv\bar{a}na$ become intelligible only by and in $s\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$. Indeed, $s\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$ is a central concept in Nāgārjuna.

Verse 1 (The opponent contends) yadi śūnyamidam sarvamudayo nāsti na vyayaḥ/ catūrnāmāryasatyānāmabhāvaste prasajyate//

If everything is *śūnya* there will be neither production nor destruction. According to your assertion it will follow that the Āryan Fourfold Truths are non-existent.

Note: Verses 1 through 6 are views expressed by the opponent.

Again, śūnya is left untranslated in order to gain currency in

Western usage and understanding.

Verse 2

parijňa ca prahäņam ca bhävanā sākşikarma ca/ catūrņāmāryasatyānāmabhāvānnopapadyate//

True knowledge, relinquishing (false views), (right) practice, and (right) confirmation will not be possible because of the non-existence of the Āryan Four-fold Truths.

Verse 3.

tadabhāvānna vidyante catvāryāryaphalāni ca/ phalābhāve phalasthā no na santi pratipannakāh//

As these are non-existent, the Āryan four-fold fruits i.e., spiritual attainments, are also non-existent. As the fruits are non-existent, there will be no one who enjoys the fruits or their fruition.

Note: This verse makes reference to the four paths and fruits of attainment by the one who takes up the Buddhist principles (śrotāpanna), once returner to the empirical level (sakṛdāgamin), the non-returner (anāgamin), and the enlightened worthy one (arhat).

Verse 4

saṃgho nāsti na cetsanti te 'ṣṭau puruṣapudgalāḥ/ abhāvāccāryasatyānāṃ saddharmo 'pi na vidyate//

If the eight aspirations of men do not exist, there will be no Samgha (i.e., Buddhist order). From the non-existence of the Āryan Truths, the true Dharma also does not exist.

Note: The eight refer to the four matured states (*phalasthā*) and the four arrived states (*pratipannakāh*) mentioned in the previous verse.

Verse 5

dharme cāsati saṃghe ca katham buddho bhavişyati/ evaṃ triṇyapi ratnāni bruvāṇāḥ pratibādhase//

Without *Dharma* and *Samgha*, how could there be *Buddha*? Consequently, what you assert also destroys the Three Treasures.

Note: The implication here is that since all is \$\sin ya\$, there are no grounds for asserting the Three Treasures, i.e., the Buddha, the Dharma, and the Samgha.

Verse 6

śūnyatām phalasadbhāvamadharmam dharmameva ca/sarvasamvyavahārāmśca laukikān pratibādhase//

Delving in *sūnyatā*, you will destroy the reality of the fruit or attainment, the proper and improper acts, and all the everyday practices felative to the empirical world.

Verse 7 (Nāgārjuna asserts)

atra brūmah śūnyatāyām na tvam vetsi prayojanam/ śūnyatām śūnyatārtham ca tata evam vihanyase// Let us interrupt here to point out that you do not know the real purpose of $\hat{sunyata}$, its nature and meaning. Therefore, there is only frustration and hindrance (of understanding).

Verse 8

```
dve satye samupāśritya buddhānām dharmadeśanā/ lokasamvṛtisatyam ca satyam ca paramāṛthataḥ//
```

The teaching of the *Dharma* by the various *Buddhas* is based on the two truths; namely, the relative (worldly) truth and the absolute (supreme) truth.

Verse 9

```
ye 'nayorna vijānanti vibhāgam satyayordvayoh/
te tattvam na vijānanti gambhīram buddhaśāsane//
```

Those who do not know the distinction between the two truths cannot understand the profound nature of the Buddha's teaching.

Verse 10

```
vyavahāramanāśritya paramārtho na deśyate/
paramārthamanāgamya nirvānam nādhigamyate//
```

Without relying on everyday common practices (i.e., relative truths), the absolute truth cannot be expressed. Without approaching the absolute truth, *nirvāna* cannot be attained.

Verse 11

```
vināšayati durdrstā šūnyatā mandamedhasam/
sarpo yathā durgrhīto vidyā vā dusprasādhitā//
```

A wrongly conceived *sūnyatā* can ruin a slow-witted person. It is like a badly seized snake or a wrongly executed incantation.

Verse 12

```
ataśca pratyudāvṛttam cittam deśayitum muneh/
dharmam matvāsya dharmasya mandairduravagāhatām//
```

Thus the wise one (i.e., the Buddha) once resolved not to teach about the *Dharma*, thinking that the slow-witted might wrongly conceive it.

Verse 13

```
śūnyatāyāmadhilayam yam punah kurute bhavān/
doşaprasango nāsmākam sa śūnye nopapadyate//
```

You have repeatedly refuted sūnyatā but we do not fall into any error. The refutation does not apply to sūnya.

Verse 14

```
sarvam ca yujyate tasya śūnyatā yasya yujyate/
sarvam na yujyate tasya śūnyam yasya na yujyate//
```

Whatever is in correspondence with *sūnyatā*, all is in correspondence (i.e., possible). Again, whatever is not in correspondence with *sūnyatā*, all is not in correspondence.

Note: The meaning conveyed here is that sūnyatā is the basis of all existence. Thus, without it, nothing is possible.

Verse 15

```
sa tvam dosānātmanīyānasmāsu paripātayan/
aśvamevābhirūdhaḥ sannaśvamevāsi vismṛtaḥ//
```

You level your own errors at us. It is as if you are mounted on your horse but forget about it.

Verse 16

```
svabhāvādyadi bhāvānām sadbhāvamanupasyasi/ahetupratyayān bhāvāmstvamevam sati pasyasi//
```

If you perceive the various existences as true beings from the standpoint of self-nature, then you will perceive them as non-causal compitions.

Verse 17

```
kāryam ca kāraņam caiva kartāram karaņam kriyām/
utpādam ca nirodham ca phalam ca pratibādhase//
```

You will then destroy (all notions of) cause, effect, doer, means of doing, doing, origination, extinction, and fruit (of action).

Verse 18

yaḥ pratītyasamutpādaḥ śūnyatāṃ tāṃ pracakṣmahe/ sā prajňaptirupādāya pratipatsaiva madhyamā//

We declare that whatever is relational origination is $\dot{sunyata}$. It is a provisional name (i.e., thought construction) for the mutuality (of being) and, indeed, it is the middle path.

Verse 19

apratītya samutpanno dharmaḥ kaścinna vidyate/
yasmāttasmādaśūnyo hi dharmah kaścinna vidyate//

Any factor of experience which does not participate in relational origination cannot exist. Therefore, any factor of experience not in the nature of śūnya cannot exist.

Verse 20

yadyaśūnyamidam sarvamudayo nāsti na vyayaḥ/catūrnāmāryasatyānāmabhāvaste prasajyate//

If everything were of the nature of non-sūnya, then there would be neither production nor destruction. Then also the non-existence of the Aryan Fourfold Truths would accordingly follow.

Verse 21

apratītya samutpannam kuto duḥkham bhavişyati/ anityamuktam duḥkham hi tatsvābhāvye na vidyate//

Where could suffering in the nature of non-relational origination arise? For, indeed, what is impermanent is said to be in the nature of suffering and the impermanent cannot exist in something with self-nature.

svabhāvato vidyamānam kim punah samudeşyate/ tasmātsamudayo nāsti śūnyatām pratibādhatah//

How could that which has self-nature arise again? Therefore, there is no arising in that which disaffirms (i.e., destroys) sūnyatā.

Verse 23

na nirodhah svabhāvena sato duhkhasya vidyate/ svabhāvaparyayasthānānnirodham pratibādhase//

The extinction of suffering in terms of self-nature does not happen. For, you deny extinction itself by adhering to the notion of self-nature.

Verse 24

svābhāvye sati mārgasya bhāvanā nopapadyate/ athāsau bhāvyate mārgah svābhāvyam te na vidyate//

If the way to enlightenment possesses self-nature, then its practice will not be possible. But if the way is practiced, your assertion of a way involving self-nature is inadmissible (i.e., cannot exist).

Verse 25

yadā duḥkham samudayo nirodhasca na vidyate/ mārgo duhkhanirodhatvātkatamah prāpavisyati//

When suffering, arising, and extinction cannot be admitted to exist, what path is achieved in virtue of the extinction of suffering?

Verse 26

svabhāvenāparijñānam yadi tasya punah katham/ parijñānam nanu kila svabhāvah samavasthitah//

If (suffering) cannot be known in virtue of self-nature, how does it become an object of knowledge again? Self-nature, indeed, never remains fixed.

```
prahāņasākṣātkaraņe bhāvanā caivameva te/
parijñāvanna yujyante catvāryapi phalāni ca//
```

Just as in the case of knowledge (of suffering), therefore, your knowledge of abandoning, perceptual confirmation, practice, and the four fruits (i.e., religious attainments) cannot be possible.

Verse 28

```
svabhāvenānadhigatam yatphalam tatpunah katham/
śakyam samadhigantum syātsvabhāvam parigṛhṇataḥ//
```

To one who adheres to the notion of self-existence, how could the (four) fruits which are unattainable in virtue of self-existence be ever attainable?

Verse 29

```
phalābhāve phalasthā no na santi pratipannakāh/
saṃgho nāsti na cetsanti te 'ṣṭau puruṣapudgalāḥ//
```

Without the (four) fruits, there can be no matured states and arrived (i.e., completed) states. If these eight states of men do not exist, there will also be no realization of the Sampha.

Note: Refer to verses 3 and 4 for the fruits and states of men.

Verse 30

```
abhāvāccāryasatyānām saddharmo 'pi na vidyate/
dharme cāsati samghe ca katham buddho bhavişyati//
```

Without the Aryan Truths the true *Dharma* does not exist. Without the *Dharma* and *Saṃgha*, how could there be the *Buddha*?

Verse 31

```
apratītyāpi bodhim ca tava buddhah prasajyate/
apratītyāpi buddham ca tava bodhih prasajyate//
```

According to your assertion there is a fallacy of becoming the *Buddha* without relationship to enlightenment. Also, conversely, there is enlightenment without relationship to the *Buddha*.

Verse 32

yaścābuddhaḥ svabhāvena sa bodhāya ghaţannapi/ na bodhisattvacaryāyām bodhim te 'dhigamişyati//

According to your assertion, anyone who is not a *Buddha* in virtue of self-existence cannot hope to attain enlightenment even by serious endeavor or by practice of the *Bodhisattva* way.

Verse 33

na ca dharmamadharmam vā kaścijjātu karişyati/ kimaśūnyasya kartavyam svabhāvah kriyate na hi//

No one would ever be able to create factors or non-factors of experience. For, what is there to create in non-sūnya? Self-existence, afterall, cannot be created.

Note: The word, create, may well be substituted by manipulate.

Verse 34

vinā dharmamadharma ca phalam hi tava vidyate/ dharmādharmanimittam ca phalam tava na vidyate//

According to your assertion, the fruit could exist separated from factors and non-factors of experience. Again, according to your assertion, the fruit could not have arisen by the factors and non-factors of experience.

Verse 35

dharmādharmanimittam vā yadi te vidyate phalam/ dharmādharmasamutpannamasūnyam te katham phalam//

If you are to admit the fruit based on the factors and non-factors of experience, how could the fruit arising from them be of the nature of non-śūnya?

sarvasamvyavahārāmśca laukikān pratibādhase/ yatpratītyasamutpādaśūnyatām pratibādhase//

You will thus destroy all the everyday practices relative to the empirical world because you will have destroyed the sūnyatā of relational origination.

Verse 37

na kartavyam bhavetkim cidanārabdhā bhavetkriyā/kārakah syādakurvāṇah śūnyatām pratibādhatah//

For one who destroys $\hat{sunyata}$, it will be like a doer without an action, a non-activating action, or with nothing to act upon.

Verse 38

ajätamaniruddham ca kūtastham ca bhavişyati/ vicitrābhiravasthābhih svabhāve rahitam jagat//

From the standpoint of self-existence, the world will be removed from the various conditions and it will be nonoriginative, non-destructive, and immovable.

Verse 39

asamprāptasya ca prāptirduḥkhaparyantakarma ca/ sarvakleśaprahānam ca yadyaśūnyam na vidyate//

If everything is non-sūnya, then the attainment of a person who aspires, the actions leading to the cessation of suffering, and the destruction of all defilements will not exist (i.e., be possible).

Verse 40

yah pratityasamutpādam pasyatīdam sa pasyati/ duḥkham samudayam caiva nirodham mārgameva ca//

One who rightly discerns relational origination will, indeed, rightly discern universal suffering, its origination, its extinction, and the way to enlightenment.

CHAPTER XXV

Nirvāņa parīkṣā Examination of Nirvāna

This is naturally the most famous as well as the most popular chapter of the entire $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$. Even the renown Stcherbatsky felt that an English translation of this chapter from the *Prasannapadā* was duly necessary. Incidentally, his translation of both Chapters I & XXV out of the entire 27 chapters reveals how well he knew these chapters to be the crux of the Mādhyamika philosophy and, perhaps, suggests the reason why he labelled his pioneering book *The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāna*.

This chapter then discusses the central concept of nirvana which has attracted so much attention from all quarters of the world. Nāgārjuna, first of all, presents the opponent's view on the problem of nirvāna, i.e., if everything is granted as either sūnya or asūnya. Stcherbatsky, incidentally, employs the English word, "relative", for sūnya but despite his expressed proclivity for scientific correlation and understanding the translation is inaccurate and even misleading. At any rate, Nāgārjuna is quick to assert that nirvāņa is not the idea of existence known by worldly characterization. It admits of nothing to be cast off, gained, broken off or remaining constant, extinguished or produced, for it, in reality, belongs to the uncreated realm (asamskrta). In Verses 17 & 18, the patent questions on Buddha's existence, before and after nirodha, are discussed but these are disposed of immediately in view of their conceptual untenability. Then in Verses 19 & 20, the essence of the chapter and indeed the crux of the Mahāyāna or Buddhism in general is stated, i.e., that there is no distinction between nirvana and samsara, and also no difference in their spheres of action. With this identity Nāgārjuna, in a broad sweep, destroys any adherence to false polar or contrasting distinctions, such as, natural and supernatural, mundane and supermundane, and normal and supernormal.

Verse 1 (The opponent contends) yadi śūnyamidam sarvamudayo nāsti na vyayaḥ/ prahānādvā nirodhādvā kasya nirvāṇamisyate//

If all is \dot{sunya} and there is neither production nor destruction, then from whose abandonment (of defilements) or from whose extinction (of suffering) can $nirv\bar{a}na$ be attributed?

Note: Once again, śūnya is left untranslated.

Verse 2 (Nāgārjuna asserts) yadyaśūnyamidam sarvamudayo nāsti na vyayah/ prahānādvā nirodhādvā kasya nirvānamisyate//

If all is aśūnya and there is neither production nor destruction, then from whose abandonment (of defilements) or from whose extinction (of suffering) can nirvāṇa be attributed?

Note: Nāgārjuna, in the previous chapter, has stated that the critic of śūnya does not really know its meaning and thus cannot understand śūnya with respect to ordinary activities. Nāgārjuna reveals the fallacy of understanding śūnya in terms of self-existence (svabhāva) and, analogously, demonstrates the absurdity of premising even the concept of aśūnya, as it is done in this verse.

Verse 3

```
aprahīņamasamprāptamanucchinnamaśāśvatam/aniruddhamanutpannametannirvāṇamucyate//
```

What is never cast off, seized, interrupted, constant, extinguished, and produced....this is called nirväna.

Verse 4

bhāvastāvanna nirvāņam jarāmaraņalakṣaṇam/ prasajyetāsti bhāvo hi na jarāmaraṇam vinā// Indeed, nirvāṇa is not strictly in the nature of ordinary existence for, if it were, there would wrongly follow the characteristics of old age-death. For, such an existence cannot be without those characteristics.

Verse 5

bhāvaśca yadi nirvāņam nirvāņam samskṛtam bhavet/ nāsamkṛto hi vidyate bhāvah kva cana kaścana//

If *nirvāṇa* is strictly in the nature of ordinary existence, it will be of the created realm. For, no ordinary existence of the uncreated realm ever exists anywhere at all.

Verse 6

bhāvaśca yadi nirvāṇamanupādāya tatkatham/ nirvāṇam nānupādāya kaścidbhāvo hi vidyate//

If *nirvāna* is strictly in the nature of ordinary existence, why is it non-appropriating? For, no ordinary existence that is non-appropriating ever exists.

Verse 7

yadi bhāvo na nirvāṇamabhāvaḥ kim bhaviṣyati/ nirvāṇam yatra bhāvo na nābhāvastatra vidyate//

If nirvāṇa is not strictly in the nature of ordinary existence, how could what is in the nature of non-existence be nirvāṇa? Where there is no existence, equally so, there can be no non-existence.

Verse 8

yadyabhāvaśca nirvāṇamanupādāya tatkatham/ nirvāṇam na hyabhāvo 'sti yo 'nupādāya vidyate//

If nirvāṇa is in the nature of non-existence, why is it non-appropriating? For, indeed, a non-appropriating non-existence does not prevail.

```
ya ājavamjavībhāva upādāya pratītya vā/
so 'pratītyānupādāya nirvānamupadisyate//
```

The status of the birth-death cycle is due to existential grasping (of the *skandhas*) and relational condition (of the being). That which is non-grasping and non-relational is taught as *nirvāṇa*.

Verse 10

```
prahāņam cābravīcchāstā bhavasya vibhavasya ca/
tasmānna bhāvo nābhāvo nirvānamiti yujyate//
```

The teacher (Buddha) has taught the abandonment of the concepts of being and non-being. Therefore, *nirvāna* is properly neither (in the realm of) existence nor non-existence.

Verse 11

```
bhavedabhāvo bhāvaśca nirvāṇamubhayam yadi/
bhavedabhāvo bhāvaśca mokṣastacca na yujyate//
```

If nirvana is (in the realm of) both existence and non-existence, then moksa (liberation) will also be both. But that is not proper.

Verse 12

```
bhavedabhāvo bhāvasca nirvāņamubhayam yadi/
nānupādāya nirvāṇamupādāyobhayam hi tat//
```

If nirvāṇa is (in the realm of) both existence and non-existence, it will not be non-appropriating. For, both realms are (always in the process of) appropriating.

Verse 13

```
bhavedabhāvo bhāvaśca nirvāņamubhayam katham/
asamskṛtam ca nirvāṇam bhāvābhāvau ca saṃskṛtau//
```

How could *nirvāṇa* be (in the realm of) both existence and non-existence? *Nirvāṇa* is of the uncreated realm while existence and non-existence are of the created realm.

bhavedabhāvo bhāvaśca nirvāņa ubhayam katham/ na tayorekatrāstitvamālokatamasoryathā//

How could *nirvāna* be (in the realm of) both existence and non-existence? Both cannot be together in one place just as the situation is with light and darkness.

Verse 15

naivābhāvo naiva bhāvo nirvāņamiti yā 'fijanā/ abhāve caiva bhāve ca sā siddhe sati sidhyati//

The proposition that *nirvāṇa* is neither existence nor non-existence could only be valid if and when the realms of existence and non-existence are established.

Verse 16

naivābhāvo naiva bhāvo nirvāņam yadi vidyate/ naivābhāvo naiva bhāva iti kena tadajyate//

If indeed *nirvāṇa* is asserted to be neither existence nor non-existence, then by what means are the assertion to be known?

Verse 17

param nirodhādbhagavān bhavatītyeva nohyate/ na bhavatyubhayam ceti nobhayam ceti nohyate//

It cannot be said that the Blessed One exists after *nirodha* (i.e., release from worldly desires). Nor can it be said that He does not exist after *nirodha*, or both, or neither.

Verse 18

tişthamāno 'pi bhagavān bhavatītyeva nohyate/ na bhavatyubhayam ceti nohyate//

It cannot be said that the Blessed One even exists in the present living process. Nor can it be said that He does not exist in the present living process, or both, or neither.

```
na saṃsārasya nirvāṇātkiṃ cidasti viśeṣaṇaṃ/
na nirvāṇasya saṃsārātkiṃ cidasti viśeṣaṇaṃ//
```

Saṃsāra (i.e., the empirical life-death cycle) is nothing essentially different from nirvāṇa. Nirvāṇa is nothing essentially different from saṃsāra.

Verse 20

```
nirvāṇasya ca yā koṭiḥ saṃsārasya ca/
na tayorantaraṃ kiṃ citsusūkṣmamapi vidyate//
```

The limits (i.e., realm) of *nirvāṇa* are the limits of *saṃsāra*. Between the two, also, there is not the slightest difference whatsoever.

Verse 21

```
param nirodhādantādyāh śāśvatādyāśca dṛṣṭayaḥ/
nirvāṇamaparāntam ca pūrvāntam ca samāśritāḥ//
```

The various views concerning the status of life after *nirodha*, the limits of the world, the concept of permanence, etc., are all based on (the concepts of) *nirvāṇa*, posterior and anterior states (of existence).

Verse 22

```
śūnyeşu sarvadharmeşu kimanantam kimantavat/kimanantamantavacca nānantam nānatavacca kim//
```

Since all factors of existence are in the nature of sūnya, why (assert) the finite, the infinite, both finite and infinite, and neither finite nor infinite?

Verse 23

```
kim tadeva kimanyatkim śāśvatam kimaśāśvatam/
aśāśvatam śāśvatam ca kim vā nobhayamapyataḥ//
```

Why (assert) the identity, difference, permanence, impermanence, both permanence and impermanence, or neither permanence nor impermanence?

Examination of Nirvana

159

Verse 24

sarvopalambhopaśamaḥ prapañcopaśamaḥ śivaḥ/
na kva citkasya citkaściddharmo buddhena deśitah//

All acquisitions (i.e., grasping) as well as play of concepts (i.e., symbolic representation) are basically in the nature of cessation and quiescence. Any factor of experience with regards to anyone at any place was never taught by the Buddha.

CHAPTER XXVI

Dvādašānga parīksā

Examination of the Twelvefold Causal Analysis of Being

With the discussion of Nirvāna in the last chapter the treatment from the standpoint of the Mahāyāna had basically come to a close. In this chapter and the final one to follow, Nāgārjuna goes into the analysis of Hīnayānistic doctrines. The present chapter discusses the twelvefold causal analysis which is the basis of the endless process of suffering incurred by all living beings. The discussion is Hīnayānistic and it reveals that the source of trouble lies in ignorance which in turn initiates all kinds of mental conformations (saṃskāra). The extinction of ignorance, fundamental to the whole of Buddhism, is to be realized by the practice of wisdom of seeing the truth (tattva).

The discussion of the doctrine of causal analysis indicates the strong influence of Hīnayānistic or Abhidharmic teachings during this period. But the doctrine must be seen under a new light when Nāgārjuna discusses it, i.e., within the backdrop of his doctrine of sūnyatā and pratītyāsamutpāda as hinted at in the last two verses.

Verse 1

punarbhavāya saṃskārānavidyānivṛtastridhā/ abhisaṃskurute yāṃstairgatiṃ gacchati karmabhih//

Those who are deluded by ignorance create their own threefold mental conformations in order to cause rebirth and by their deeds go through the various forms of life.

Note: The threefold mental conformations refer to those related to the body, speech and mind.

The various forms of life refer to the following: hellish beings, hungry spirits, beasts, evil spirits, human beings and heavenly beings.

Verse 2

vijňānam samnivisate samskārapratyayam gatau/ samniviste 'tha vijňāne nāmarūpam nisicvate//

The consciousness $(vij\bar{n}\bar{a}na)$, conditioned by the mental conformations, establishes itself with respect to the various forms of life. When consciousness is established, name $(n\bar{a}ma)$ and form $(r\bar{u}pa)$ are infused or become apparent.

Verse 3

nişikte nāmarūpe tu şaḍāyatanasaṃbhavaḥ/ şaḍāyatanamāgamya samsparśah sampravartate//

When name and form are infused or become apparent the $\sin \bar{a}yatanas$ (i.e., seats of perception) arise. With the rise of the $\sin \bar{a}yatanas$, touch evolves.

Verse 4

cakşuh pratītya rūpam ca samanvāhārameva ca/ nāmarūpam pratītyaivam vijñānam sampravartate//

As in the composite relational nature of the eye and its material form, consciousness arises in a similar relational nature of name and form.

Verse 5

saṃnipātastrayāṇāṃ yo rūpavijñānacakṣuṣām/ sparśaḥ saḥ tasmātsparśācca vedanā saṃpravartate//

The harmonious triadic nature of form, consciousness and eye issues forth touch. And from touch arises feeling.

Verse 6

vedanāpratyayā tṛṣṇā vedanārtham hi tṛṣyate/ tṛṣyamāṇa upādānamupādatte caturvidham// Relationally conditioned by feeling, craving arises because it "thirsts after" the object of feeling. In the process of craving, the fourfold clingings are seized.

Note: Reference to clingings of passions, dogmatic views, rigid rules of conduct, and selfhood (kāma, dṛṣṭi, śila, ātman).

Verse 7

```
upādāne sati bhava upādātuḥ pravartate/
svāddhi yadvanupādāno mucyeta na bhavedbhavah//
```

When there is clinging perception, the perceiver generates being (bhava). When there is no clinging perception, he will be freed and there will be no being.

Verse 8

```
pañca skandhāḥ sa ca bhavaḥ bhavājjātiḥ pravartate/
jarāmaraṇaduḥkhādi śokāḥ saparidevanāḥ//
```

Being is (always in reference to) the five *skandhas* and from being birth arises. Old age-death, suffering, etc., misery, grief....(continues on to the next verse.)

Verse 9

```
daurmanasyamupāyāsā jāteretatpravartate/
kevalasyaivametasya duḥkhaskandhasya sambhavah//
```

....despair and mental disturbance arise from birth. In this manner the simple suffering attached to the *skandhas* comes into being.

Verse 10

```
saṃsāramūlān saṃskārānavidvān saṃskarotyataḥ/
avidvān kārakastasmānna vidvāṃstattvadarśanāt//
```

Consequently, the ignorant creates the mental conformations which form the basis of *saṃsāric* life. Thus the ignorant is the doer while the wise, seeing the truth (*tattva*), does not create.

avidyāyām niruddhāyām saṃskārāṇāmasaṃbhavaḥ/ avidyāyā nirodhastu jñānenāsyaiva bhāvanāt//

When ignorance is banished mental conformations do not arise. But the extinction of ignorance is dependent upon the wisdom of practicing (the cessation of the twelvefold causal analysis of being).

Verse 12

tasya tasya nirodhena tattannābhipravartate/ duḥkhaskandhaḥ kevalo 'yamevam samyagnirudhyate//

By the cessation of the various links of the causal analysis, each and every subsequent link will not arise (i.e., become a hindrance). And thus this simple suffering attached to the *skandhas* is rightfully extinguished.

CHAPTER XXVII

Drsti parīksā

Examination of (Dogmatic) Views

This final chapter of the Kārikā again, as in the preceding chapter, treats Hīnayānistic doctrines prevalent at the time. As the title indicates, it is an examination of false or dogmatic views which the Hīnayāna levelled against non-Buddhists but once again we must not lose sight of the principal doctrine of śūnyatā that Nāgārjuna always has in the background. The doctrine of course does finally appear in Verse 29.

He begins the chapter by investigating such pet dogmatic or futile questions as whether or not there is existence in the past. and whether or not the realm of existence or the world is constant. These and other ideas relative to future events are all based on preconceived notions and never applicable to the present dynamic state of thing. Characteristic of the "logic of sūnya," as seen in previous chapters, he exhibits the untenability of each and every position. He also goes on to show the absurdity involved in trying to assign partial characterization to one realm and another partial characterization to yet another realm as, for example, speaking of partially limited and partially unlimited worlds. How then, he asks, could one portion of the perceiver be destroyed and another remain undestroyed? Thus we come to the final and foremost teaching of the historical Buddha, i.e., the true law (saddharma), which is beyond all views and valuation in the strictest sense. Indeed, as Nagarjuna reminds us, all existences are of the nature of sūnyatā (devoid of characterization).

dṛṣṭayo 'bhūvaṃ nābhūvaṃ kiṃ nv atīte 'dhvanīti ca/ yāstāḥ śāśvatalokādyāḥ pūrvāntaṃ samupāśritāḥ//

Whether or not I existed in the past or whether this world is constant, etc., are (questions) all based upon the views of an anterior state of things.

Note: De La Vallée Poussin has reconstructed the missing first half of this verse from the Tibetan sources. cf. p. 571 of the Prasannapadā.

Verse 2

drstayo na bhavişyāmi kimanyo 'nāgate 'dhvani/ bhavişyāmīti cāntādyā aparāntam samāṣritāḥ//

Whether or not I will exist in the future or whether the (world has) limits, etc., are (questions) all based upon the views of a posterior state of things.

Verse 3

```
abhūmatītamadhvānamityetannopapadyate/
yo hi janmasu pūrvesu sa eva na bhavatyayam//
```

It is not possible to assert (categorically) that I existed in the past. For, what had been the case in the anterior state of existence is not the same now.

Verse 4

```
sa evātmeti tu bhavedupādānam viśişyate/
upādānavinirmukṭa ātmā te katamaḥ punaḥ//
```

(Granted that) the self-same $\bar{a}tman$ exists (i.e., in the previous and present states) but with a different perceptual clinging $(up\bar{a}d\bar{a}na)$, what kind of an $\bar{a}tman$ is it, then, which is separated from clinging?

Verse 5

```
upādānavinirmukto nāstyātmeti kṛte sati/
syādupādānamevātmā nāsti cātmeti vaḥ punaḥ//
```

If ātman cannot exist separated from perceptual clinging, then the clinging itself will be the ātman. But, again, according to your assertion, there could be no ātman.

Verse 6

```
na copādānamevātmā vyeti tatsamudeti ca/
katham hi nāmopādānamupādātā bhavişyati//
```

Again, clinging per se is not ātman because it rises and vanishes. Indeed, how could perceptual clinging be identified with a perceiver?

Verse 7

```
anyah punarupādānādātmā naivopapadyate/
grhyeta hyanupādāno yadyanyo na ca grhyate//
```

Again, an *ātman* different from perceptual clinging is not possible. If it were different then, surely, a non-perceptual clinging *ātman* would also be a possibility. But that is not the case.

Verse 8

```
evam nānya upādānānna copādānameva saḥ/
ātmā nāstyanupādānaḥ nāpi nāstyeşa niścayaḥ//
```

Consequently, *ātman* cannot be identical or different from perceptual clinging. It cannot be ascertained further that there is non-perceptual clinging or that the *ātman* does not exist.

Verse 9

```
nābhūmatītamadhvānamityetannopapadyate/
yo hi janmasu pūrveşu tato 'nyo na bhavatyayam//
```

It is not possible to assert (categorically) that I did not exist in the past. For, this existence is no different from what had been the case in the anterior state of existence.

yadi hyayam bhavedanyah pratyākhyāyāpi tam bhavet/ tathaiva ca sa samtisthettatra jāyeta vāmṛtah//

If this existence were different (from what had been the case in the anterior state) then, surely, it would exist independently or detached. It would subsist thus and so, or arise to persist eternally.

Verse 11

ucchedaḥ karmaṇāṃ nāśas tathānyena kṛtakarmaṇāṃ/ anyena paribhogah syād evamādi prasajyate//

If that were the case then such erroneous notions as interruption, destruction of actions, actions done by someone but enjoyed by another, etc., would accordingly follow.

Note: This Sanskrit verse is missing but, deriving from Tibetan sources, added by De La Vallée Poussin. cf. p. 580 of the Prasannapadā.

Verse 12

nāpyabhūtvā samudbhūto doso hyatra prasajyate/ kṛtako vā bhavedātmā saṃbhūto vāpyahetukaḥ//

Again, it is not the case that present existence arose without an anterior existence for, otherwise, an error will result. This would mean that *ātman* will either have a creative nature or be something without a cause.

Verse 13

evam drstiratīte yā nābhūmahamabhūmaham/ ubhayam nobhayam ceti naisā samupapadyate//

Consequently, the (false) views that I existed in the anterior state, I did not exist, both or neither, are all impossible.

Verse 14

adhvanyanāgate kim nu bhavişyāmīti daršanam/ na bhavisvāmi cetvetadatītenādhvanā samam// The view, whether or not I will exist in the posterior state, is the same (i.e., analogous) as that discussed with respect to the anterior state of existence.

Verse 15

```
sa devah sa manuşyaścedevam bhavati śāśvatam/
anutpannaśca devah syājjāyate na hi śāśvatam//
```

If the heavenly being is a human being, then there will be constancy. For, the heavenly being will be unborn and, moreover, a constant being will not arise.

Verse 16

```
devādanyo manuşyaścedaśāśvatamato bhavet/
devādanyo manuşyaścetsamtatirnopapadyate//
```

If a human being is different from the heavenly being, then there will be non-constancy. If that is so, there cannot possibly be a continuity (of beings).

Verse 17

```
divyo yadyekadeśah syādekadeśaśca mānuṣah/
aśāśvatam śāśvatam ca bhavettacca na yujyate//
```

If one portion is heavenly and another human, then there will be both constancy and non-constancy. But that is not possible.

Verse 18

```
aśāśvatam śāśvatam ca prasiddhamubhayam yadi/
siddhe na śāśvatam kāmam naivāśāśvatamityapi//
```

If both constancy and non-constancy could be established (concomitantly), then similarly neither constancy nor non-constancy could also be established at will.

Verse 19

```
kutaścidāgataḥ kaścitkim cidgacchetpunaḥ kva cit/
yadi tasmādanādistu saṃsāraḥ syānna cāsti saḥ//
```

If anyone comes from somewhere and again goes (or returns) to somewhere else, then samsāra will indeed be beginningless. However, such a situation does not exist.

Verse 20

```
nāsti cecchāśvataḥ kaścitko bhavişyatyaśāśvataḥ/ śāśvato 'śāśvataścāpi dvābhyāmābhyām tiraskrtah//
```

If there is nothing constant, (by the same token) how could there be anything non-constant, both constant and non-constant, and separated from both constant and non-constant?

Verse 21

```
antavān yadi lokah syātparalokah katham bhavet/
athāpyanantavāmllokah paralokah katham bhavet//
```

If the world has limits, how could there be another world? On the other hand, if the world has no limits, how could there be another world?

Note: Loka is either the world or the realm of existence.

Verse 22

```
skandhānāmeşa samtāno yasmāddīpārcişāmiva/
pravartate tasmānnāntānantavattvam ca yujyate//
```

The continuity of (the function of) the skandhas is like the continual burning of the flame and, therefore, it is not possible to speak of limits or non-limits.

Verse 23

```
pūrve yadi ca bhajyerannutpadyeranna cāpyamī/
skandhāḥ skandhān pratītyemānatha loko 'ntavān bhavet//
```

If a *skandha* is destroyed in the anterior state and the present *skandha* does not arise by being relationally conditioned by the former, then the realm (of function) will have limits.

pūrve yadi na bhajyerannutpadyeranna cāpyamī/ skandhāh skandhān pratītyemān loko 'nanto bhayedatha//

If a skandha is not destroyed in the anterior state and the present skandha does not arise by being relationally conditioned by the former, then the realm (of function) will not have any limits.

Verse 25

antavānekadeśaścedekadeśastvanantavān/ syādantavānanantaśca lokastacca na yujyate//

If one portion is limited and another non-limited, then perhaps the realm (of function) will be both limited and non-limited. But that is not possible.

Verse 26

katham tāvadupādāturekadešo vinankšyate/ na nankšyate caikadeša evam caitanna yujyate//

How, indeed, could one portion of the perceiver be destroyed and another remain undestroyed? However, this (situation) is not possible.

Note: The perceiver is a collective term for the function of the skandhas.

Verse 27

upādānaikadeśaśca katham nāma vinanksyate/
na nanksyate caikadeśo naitadapyupapadyate//

How, indeed, could one portion of the perception be destroyed and another remain undestroyed? This, (situation), again, is not possible.

Note: The perception refers to the clinging or grasping function of the skandhas

antavaccāpyanantam ca prasiddhamubhayam yadi/ siddhe naivāntavatkāmam naivānantavadityapi//

If both the limited and non-limited could be established (concomitantly), then, similarly, neither the limited nor non-limited could also be established at will.

Verse 29

atha vā sarvabhāvānām śūnyatvācchāśvatādayaḥ/kva kasya katamāḥ kasmātsambhaviṣyanti dṛṣṭayaḥ//

Since all existences are of the nature of *śūnyatā*, where, by whom and in what manner could such (false) views on constancy, etc., ever arise?

Verse 30

sarvadṛṣṭiprahāṇāya yaḥ saddharmamadeśayat/ anukampāmupādāya taṃ namasyāmi gautamaṃ//

I reverently bow to Gautama (the Buddha) who out of compassion has taught the truth of being (saddharma) in order to destroy all (false) views.

GLOSSARY OF SANSKRIT TERMS WITH ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS

(Arranged according to Devanagari Alphabet)

Sanskrit English

akartrka non-doer

agata not gone; "that which has not passed;" "that

which has not transpired"

agantr a non-passing entity

agni fire; light

amśa a share; portion; part ajyate to be known; to distinguish

atita gone by; past

adṛśyamāna unseeing; unknowing adveṣa absence of hatred adhama below; down; under

adhigamyate attained; to have arrived at

adhilaya objection; refutation

adhipateya-pratyaya dominant or ruling condition

adhyātman inside; internal adhvan time; period ahkura a sprout ananta infinite

anantara-pratyaya continuous or consequential condition

anapeksya no mutual dependency

anavastha non-finality; endless series; ad infinitum

anāgamya unattainable; unapproachable

anāgata not gone; future

anārabdha impracticality or impossibility of undertaking

anāśritva non-reliance

anāsrava the uncreative and undefiled world or realm anityatā impermance; transient existence or nature

anikşa incapable of perception

aniruddha non-destructive

anukampä sympathy; compassion

anutpāda non-origination

anubhava perception; experience anuvarņita mentioned; praised anekavidha variety; manifold

anta limit; terminus; extreme

antavat finite andhakāra darkness

anya different; distinct; other

anyatra elsewhere; in another place or occassion

anyatva difference; different nature

anyathābhāva varying nature

anyonya one to another; mutuality; correspondence

apakarşana drawing off; disengagement

apara koți the "state" posterior to life-death cycle

aparanta posterior state

aparapratyaya non-relational to another entity
apekşya dependence; mutuality; contingency
aprahina non-abandoning; non-casting off

abhāsa spoken; illumined

abhidhātavya to be named or described abhipravartate to come or flow forth; arise

abhiprāya purpose; intention

abhirūdha horseback; mounting (a horse)

abhyupapanna agreed to; admitted amṛta immortality; eternal

amoha absence of ignorance or delusion
artha purpose; meaning; object
alam sufficient; adequate; able
alpabuddhi low intellect or intelligence
avagacchati conceive; understand

avara beginning

avasesa remainder; leavings

avasthā abiding state; remaining condition

avayava part; portion; member
avijñapti indescribable; unthinkable
avipraņāśa imperishable or continuing action
avyākṛta indeterminate; indescribable
aṣṭau puruṣapudgalaḥ the eight great states of man

asamjñika non-conceptual realm asamsarga separation; disjunction

asamskrta the uncreated realm; immutability

astitva state of being asvabhāva without self-nature astamgata ceased; extinguished

akritābhyāgamabhaya evil or crime existing without any act or action ākāša space; subtle and ethereal fluid pervading the

universe and a vehicle of life

äkhyäta answered; discussed

agama appear; come into existence

ājavamjavībhāva revolving of birth-death phenomenon ātman self; ego: individuality; bifurcated self

ātmasamyamaka self-restraining or checking

ātmīya ownself; selfhood anānārtham non-differentiation

āpākakāla time of being extended or of maturity

āryasatya noble truth

ālambana-pratyaya seizing or appropriating condition

āloka light; luster

āśriyeta to be dependent upon; appeal to

āsrava that which attaches man to samsāra; impure;

"flooding" or "sailing" condition

āyatana seats of perception; abode

āhetuka non-causal

indhana wood; fuel; kindling
indriya root; faculty of the senses
işyate to be approved or acknowledged

ihastha remaining thus; in such a place or world

uccheda extirpation; cutting off; end

uttama above; up
uttara after; behind
utpadyamāna presently arising

utpāda rise; origination; appearance

utpādotpāda origination of origination; force behind origination

udaya production; creation
udāhṛta described; illustrated
udbhaya arise; becoming visible

udbhūti simultaneous occurence; concomitance

upagamyate to admit; profess upadiśyate to point out; instructed upapādita previously spoken or discussed urapāduka demon; superhuman being

upapadyate take place or become a possibility; tenable

upaśānta guiescence

upasama cessation; quiescence upahṛta succumb; destroy upādātṛ perceiver; percipient

upādāna act of perceiving or appropriating for one's self;

clinging action or perception

upādāya having received or acquired; mutuality

upāyāsa mental disturbance; irritation

upālambha censor; reproach ūrdhva hereafter; subsequent ŗddhisampad supernatural power rna debt; duty; obligation

rte with the exclusion of; without; separation

ekaika one by one; individually

ekadā at the same time; simultaneous

ekadeśa a part or portion ekatra in the same place

ekatva one; unity
ekārtha oneness; identity
ekibhāva becoming one; coalition
katham how; in what manner

karana means of doing, making or effecting

kartr (kartā) doer; maker; agent

karmaka action; function; what is done or produced

karman act; action; deed

karmakleśaksaya destruction or extinction of karma and defilements

karmavadha denial of the karman; destruction kalpana imagining; discriminating; thinking

kāma desires; as one wishes

kāraka one who creates or produces; making; doing kāraņa cause of anything; potential cause; instrumental

or efficient cause

kārva that which is created or effected

kāla time; moment
kāyika bodily; corporeal
kimcit something; whatever
kūtastha immovable; unchangeable

krtaka character or nature of having been made or done

kevala only; mere; simple
koți limits; boundary; end
kovida learned; experienced; skilled

krama steps; series; uninterrupted or regular progress

kramatām appearance; manifestation

kriyā doing; making; action; functional force

ksaya cease; destruction; wane

ksīra milk

gata gone; "that which has passed or transpired"

gati passage; movement into the past

ganta, ganty passing or passed agent or entity; something ac-

complished or done

gantavya to be accomplished; "that which is to be done" gandharvanagara "Gandharva city" or an imaginary city in the sky

gamana passing action; "coming to pass"

gambhīra deep; profound

gamyamāna "present passing away"; being gone or gone to

gamyate to come to pass; to be understood or meant

grāha to grasp or cling

grhyate to be seized or grasped; conceived; manipulated

ghaṭa jar; pitcher
ghana hard; firm; deep
ghrāṇa nose; smelling function

cakşus eye

catuşkoţikā four possible assertions; "four-cornered logic"

catustaya fourfold

carama bhava last or previous nature of being; final

cāturvidhya fourfold citta mind

cittagocara realm of the mind cintya, cintā think; reflect cetanā thought

cetayitvā thought in action; thought process

ceșță motion; activity; action

chedana sever; cut off

jagat people; mankind; world

jarāmaraņa old age- death jāta the present; arise

jāniyāt understood; comprehended

jāyamāna presently arising jina wise man; a buddha

jīrņa age

tajjam to take rise; arise tattva true or real state; truth

tathagata thuscome; thusgone; the enlightened being

tathatā thusness; suchness; thatness

tamas darkness; ignorance

tamovadha overcoming or subduing darkness; destroying igno-

rance

tiraskrta set aside or apart; separation; removed

tişthati remaining; abiding; residing tulyakāla contemporary with; simultaneous

trtiya the third

tṛṣṇā craving; desire; passion dadhi butter; mouldy butter

darśana eye function; vision; perception; knowledge

dīpārcis flame; kindling

duravagăhatā difficult in the attainment or understanding durgrhita wrong or false seizure or understanding dusprasādhita difficult in the execution or performance

duhkha pain; suffering; unrest

dṛṣṭānta illustration; simile; example

dṛṣṭi view; normally false view or dogmatic belief

deha body; form; bulk or mass

doşa error; defect

doşaprasanga rise or contingency of error; fall into or result in

error

daurmanasya dejectedness; melancholy

drastr; drasta one who sees; viewer; seeing agent

dvidhā of two kinds; twofold dviśo dviśas in pairs: twofold

dveşa repugnance; enmity; hatred

dharma law; duty; phenomenon; factors of existence

dharmata inherent nature; essence of existence

dharmin endowed with any characteristic or mark; at-

tributes or peculiarities

dhâtu stratum; realm of being; constituent element or

part of world construct

nadi river

nānābhāva various: manifold

nāmarūpa name and materiality (material form); subjective-

objective bond: subjective corporeality

nāśa disappearance; annihilation nāstitva state of non-being or non-entity

niyama certainty; restriction nirapekṣã non-mutual dependence

nirudhyamāna presently extinguishing or being destroyed

niruddha destroyed or ceased

nirodha extinction; annihilation; cessation
nirmitaka transformer; creator; maker
nirmukta separated; cut off from

nirvāņa state of being in which all defilements are ex-

tinguished; perfect calm; bliss, etc.

nirvāņa samāropa instituting or establishing of nirvāņa

nirvikalpa non-discriminative mind
nirvartaka bringing about; effectuating
niscaya ascertainment; conviction
nisicyate to be infused or instilled
nibsarana relinquishing; forsaking

nihsvabhāva without self-nature or self-existence; true nature

of being

pañca kāmaguna five sensual enjoyments; objects of the five senses

pața woven cloth; garment pattra document; a paper

parakṛta other-caused

parabhāva other-nature; extended nature; relational existence

paramarşi great sage or divine man

paramārtha absolute; highest; supreme (truth)
paraloka another world or realm of existence

paraspara mutual; reciprocal; mutual extension, relationship

parānugrāhaka concern for or kindness to others
parikīrtita proclaimed: announced: explained

parijñā knowledge; insight paridevana sorrow; grief

paripātayat whirl about; throw about paribhoga enjoyment; reception parihāra denial; avoidance paryanta the end; termination paryāpta possible; sufficiency pāla guard; keeper; protector

paścima final; conclusion

paśyati seeing; rightly understanding

pitr father

punya auspicious; virtuous; good

putra son; child

pudgala man; individuality; sentient

punar again; back
puruşa soul; a man
pürva prior; former

pūrva koți "state" prior to life-death; primary state

pūrvānta former or prior state
pṛthak singly; separately; different

pṛthaktvz. difference; diversity prakāra kind; class; types, etc.

prakāśa illumine

prakṛti original or primary substance; primal character or

nature

prajňapti provisional name or understanding; conceptual play

prajňapyate grasped; understood

pratipannaka one who has attained or arrived at (the four Buddhist orders, śrotāpanna, sakrdāgamin, anāgamin

and arhat).

pratibadhase to destroy; to repel

pratibimbasama an image in a mirror; representation

pratisiddha denied; forbidden; criticized

pratisthita abiding place; abode; enduring state

pratisamdhi coming together; union

pratitya-samutpāda relational origination; dependent origination; etc.
pratyaya relational condition; correlation: co-operating

pratyākhyā

cause; etc. reject; deny

pratyukta refuted; answered

pratyudpama present state or existence pratyudāvṛtta cease; suspend; resolved against

prathama bhava former being; prior pradipa light; illumination

pradiyate to be given or transmitted

prapañca provisional; mere description; a phenomenal play

of words or thought process; conceptual play

prabhrti et cetera; bringing forward

prayojana intention; purpose

pravibhāga distinction

prasama cessation; tranquillity

prasakta attached; resulting; "fallacious inference"

prasanga inclination; reductio ad absurdum

prasajyate to be the consequence of anything; to fall into an

error

prasiddha completion; effectuation

prahāṇa relinquishing; abandoning; destroying

prahiņoti convey; bestow prāg (prāñc) former; prior

prāpti attaintment; acquisition phala fruit; effect; result

phalavyatikrama passing over or going beyond the fruit or effect

phalastha one who has matured or arrived at

phalahetau cause and effect

baddha one who is bound; fettered entity; bondage

bahirdhā outside; external

bandhana to be bound; restricting

bija seed; impression buddhaśāsana Buddha's teaching

bodhi enlightenment; attainment

bodhisattvacaryā the way of the enlightened being bhanga cessation; destruction; breaking off

bhaya fear; apprehension bhaya becoming; existence

bhāva true condition; nature; reality; being

bhāvanā practicing; promoting; training in the enlightened

wav

bhūta that which is or exists; reality; the four great

elements; (earth, water, fire, wind)

bhūyas once again; moreover bhokt; one who enjoys; percipient

benevolence: tolerance: compassion maitra thought; imagined; understood mata

madhyamā pratipad middle way or path; the ontological principle

mandamedhas slow-witted

mirage; visionary illusion marīci

mother mātr way: path mārga

wrongly; improperly mithyā

mucvate to be released; delivered; freed musyate to take away: captivate: delude root origination; primal origination mūlotpāda

to die: cease mrivate

to seek or searching for mrgvamāna false; useless; feign; untrue mrsā

release: liberation moksa

mosadharma delusive factors: elements with delusive nature

moha delusion: folly: ignorance

to be fit or proper; justifiable; reasonable; possible vuivate

yuvan youth; young man

at the same time; simultaneous yugapad yoga act of yoking; combining; discipline rakta impassioned self; covetous self impassionable; desirous object rañjanīva tongue; tasting activity rasana

rāga covetousness; greed rūpa material form; shape; corporeality

laksana characteristics; distinguishing marks characterization; indicated; marked laksya

loka world; realm of existence vande bestowing honor; homage vara most excellent; precious

words and action vāgvispanda vācika verbal; vocal

vikalpa cogitation: false discrimination vikāṅksasi you so desire: aim at: seek for

vigraha contest; argumentation vicaksana the wise; experienced vicitra manifold; various

consciousness; discriminative knowledge viiñāna

vidyate to exist: to be cognized

vidyamāna presently existent; "being found" vidvā knowledge; magical spells; science; etc.

vidharma devoid of attributes or qualities vinā

separated; apart; without

vināśayati to cause to frustrate or ruin vinirmukta liberated; cut off; separated

viparīta, viparvayagata one who perverses

viparyaya, viparyāya perversion; false perception

vipranasyati to be lost; perish

vibhava without existence; bodiless; death force

vibhāga difference; distinction vimṛśasva consideration; deliberation

virati termination; cessation; abandonment viruddha inconsistent or incompatible; contradiction

viśeṣaṇa distinction; difference vismṛta forgotten; non-recollection

vihanyase frustrate; hinder; oppose; annihilate vedaka one who perceives or experiences

vedanā feeling; perception vyaya mutable; cease

vyavasthita abiding in a place; determined; resting; definite

vyavahāra common practice; ordinary life
vyasta discrete; singular; separated
vyākhyā explanation; exposition
vyutsarga refutation; rejection

 śaknuyāt
 capable; competent; potential

 śama
 extinction; tranquility; calm

 śānta
 tranquillity; quiescence

śāśvata constant; eternality; permanency

śāsana teaching; chastisement

śiras head

siva auspicious; benign; wonderful the way of the purity of action

śuci pure; radiant

śubha purity

śūnya thusness; "void"; "empty"; purity

śūnyatā thusness; suchness (related to the perceiving

"mind" or "self"); devoid of characteristics

śūnyatārtha aim or meaning of suchness

śesa remainder; residue śoka misery; anguish

śrotr listener

śravana ear; hearing activity

samgati coming together; union; concomitance

saṃghāta union or combination; mass saṃjñā primary imagery perception

samjñita made known; called

samtana continuity (as in burning flame); process

samnipāta combination; collision; coming together

samnivisate fix or establish in; entrust or commit anything

samprakāśa to shine; illuminate

sampravartate arise; evolve

sampravṛtti coming forth; appearance

saṃśaya doubt; uncertainty saṃsarga commingle; coalesce

samsaranti passing from one state to another; "transmigra-

tory" cycle of samsāra

saṃsāra the life-death cycle; empirical realm saṃsārāpakarṣaṇa relinquishing or overcoming saṃsāra saṃsṛjyamāna presently combining or coalescing

samsṛṣṭa "that which has combined"

samskāra mental conformation or creation; the inception of

imagery play

saṃskṛta created realm; conditioned nature; realm of

karmaic actions

samsrastr one who combines or coalesces

samvidyate be found or obtained

samvrti mundane; empirical; relative; "covered"

sattva living being; sentient sadā continually; perpetually

sadrša resembling; conformable; corresponding

saddharma truth; true nature of being sadbhūta real state of an entity or being

sabhāga matching; resembling sama same; identical

samanvāhāra assemblage; composite nature

samānadeśa same place or sphere

samāropa placing in or upon; establishment samāśrita resting upon or resorting to samavasthita fixed state or condition

samavastnita nxed state or condition

samasta compound; collective state; inherent in or pervad-

ing the whole of anything

samudaya coming together; assemblage
samudeşyate to rise up or come together
samupāśritya supported by; dependent upon
sambhava arise; occurrence; becoming
samyak proper; correct; wholesome

sarva all; whole

sarvatraga all-pervading; universal

sarvathā all; at all occasions or circumstances

sarvadā always; at all times

sarvasas collectively; all things or actions

Sanskrit Terms with English Translations

saha together or along with sahabhāva concomitance; co-existing

184

sākṣatkaraṇa intuitive or immediate perception sākṣikarma evidence; testimony; confirmation

sādhanopāya means of realization or accomplishment sādhya to be accomplished, effected or proved; contention

sāmagrī collection: assemblage

sāṃprata present moment; concomitance sārdha jointly; together; concretely

sāsrava evils of this world; the realm of defilement and

attachment; the flooding, clouding elements of

being

siddha accomplished; perfected; completed sukha bliss; joy; soothing wholesomeness susūksma minute; small; insignificant

skandha the five constituents of being; (rūpa, vedanā,

saminā, samskāra, vijnāna)

strī a girl; woman; wife sthāna remain; endure

sthitabhāva enduring entity sparšana touching activity

svapna dream

svabhāva self-nature; self-existence; self-essence; own-being

svayamkṛta self-caused svarga heaven

hetu general cause; root or primary cause hetu-pratyaya primary causal condition; root-condition

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following abbreviations are used:

Nanjio: A Catalogue of the Chinese Translation of the

Buddhist Tripitaka. Compiled by Bunyu Nanjio. Oxford, 1883. Daimin sanzō shōgyō mokuroku

(大明三藏聖教目錄).

Taishō: Taishō shinshū daizokyō (大正新脩大藏經) Taisho

Edition of the Chinese Tripitaka. 100 Volume work. Edited by J. Takakusu and K. Watanabe.

Tokyo: 1922-34.

Tohoku: A Complete Catalogue of the Tibetan Buddhist

Canons. Tibetto daizōkyō sōmokuroku (西藏大藏 經總目錄). Edited by Ui, Suzuki, Kanakura, and Tada. Two volumes. Sendai: Tōhoku Imperial

University, 1934.

1. SANSKRIT WORKS

Āryadeva

"Catuḥśatakā by Ārya Deva." Edited by Pt. Haraprasād Sāstri in Memoirs of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. Vol. III, No. 8 (1914). pp. 449-514.

Etudes sur Āryadeva et son Catuḥśataka by P. L. Vaidya. Paris, 1923. Includes Chapters VIII to XVI edited with the lost kārikā reconstructed into Sanskrit from the Tibetan ("Red" or Peking edition). He has translated all the Kārikā into French. Meanwhile, G. Tucci has made an Italian translation from the Chinese; Rivista degli Studi Orientali, Vol. X (1925), pp. 521 ff.

"The Catuhéataka of Aryadeva." Extracts from the commentary of Candrakirti, reconstructed from the Tibetan version with an English translation of Chapter VII by V. Bhattacharya. Proceeding and Transactions of the Fourth Oriental Conference, Allahabad, 1926, Vol. 2. pp. 831-871.

The Catuhsataka of Aryadeva. Sanskrit and Tibetan Texts with copious extracts from the commentary of Candrakirti. Reconstructed and Edited by V. Bhattacharya. Calcutta: Visva-Bharati Bookshop, 1931. Inclusive of Chapters VIII through XVI.

Candrakirti

Prasannapadā nāma mādhyamikavṛtti. Edited by La Vallée Poussin, Louis as, Mūlamadhyamakakārikās (Mādhyamikasūtras) de Nāgārjuna avec la Prasannapadā

Commentaire de Candrakīrti. Bibliotheca Buddhica, No. IV. St. Petersbourg, 1903-13. Tōhoku 3860 (Taishō 1564 and Nanjio 1179 refer to Pingala's Commentary). Madhyamakāvatāra. Journal of Oriental Research, Madras, 1929-33. See Louis de La Vallée Poussin, infra.

Nāgārjuna

Ārya Śālistamba Sūtra; Pratityasamutpādavibhanga nirdeśasūtra; Pratityasamutpādagāthā sūtra. Edited with Tibetan versions, notes and introductions, etc. by N. A. Sastri. Madras Series, No. 76. Adyar Library, 1950.

Bhavasankrāntisūtra. Restored into Sanskrit from the Tibetan and Chinese versions by Pt. N.A. Sastri. Adyar Library, 1938

Der Sanskrit-text von Nāgārjuna's Pratītyasamutpādahṛdaya kārikā. Edited by V. V. Gokhale. Studia Indologica, Festschrift für Willibald Kirfel zur Vollendung seines 70. Lebensjahres. Bonn: 1955, S.101-106.

Mahāyānavimsika of Nāgārjuna. Sanskrit edition and English translation by G. Tucci in Serie Orientale Roma IX (1956); included in Minor Buddhist Texts; Part I, pp. 193-207.

Mahāyānaviṃśaka. Reconstructed Sanskrit text from Tibetan ("Black" or Narthang) and Chinese versions, with an English translation. By Pt. V. Bhattacharya. Visva-Bharati Studies. No. 1: Calcutta. 1931.

Mūlamadhyamaka-kārikā, Included in Candrakīrti's Prasannapadā edited by Louis De La Vallée Poussin.

Ratnāvalī of Nāgārjuna. Sanskrit text and English translation by G. Tucci. Journal of Royal Asiatic Society; 1934, pp. 307-25; 1936, pp. 237-52 and 423-35.

Vigraha-vyāvarttanī with the Author's own Commentary. Edited by K. P. Jayaswal and R. Sankrityayana as an appendix to the Journal of Bihar and Orissa Research Society, Patna, Vol. XXIII, 1937, Part III. G. Tucci's English translation with the Tibetan text appears in the Gaekwad Oriental Series, Part III. Baroda. There is also S. Yamaguchi's Traite de Nāgārjuna, pour ecarter les vaines discussion (Vigrahavyāvartanī), traduit et annote, Journal Asiatique, 1929, pp. 1-86. See also F. Streng's book, infra.

2. TIBETAN WORKS

Āryadeva

Bstan bcos bshi brgya pa shes bya bahi tshig lehur byas pa; Catuhśatakaśāstrakārikā-nāma (四百論と名づくる頃) [大乗廣百論本] Trans. by Sukṣmajñāna, Pa tshab ni ma grags (Suryakīrti). Taishō 1570; Nanjio 1189; Tōhoku 3846.

Bhāvaviveka

Dbu maḥi rtsa baḥi ḥgrel pa śes rab sgron ma; Prajnāpradipamūlamadhyamakavṛtti (根本中觀註智慧燈) [般若燈論釋] Trans. by Jūānagarbha, Cog ro kluḥi rgyal mtshan. Taishō 1566; Nanjo 1185; Tōhoku 3853. See Max Walleser, infra.

Buddhapālita

Dbu ma rtsa baḥi ḥgrel pa buddha pāli ta; Buddhapālitamūlamadhyamakavṛtti (佛陀波利多根本中觀註) Trans. by Jñānagarbha, Cog ro kluḥi rgyal mtshan. Tōhoku 3842. See Max Walleser. infra.

Candrakirti

Dbu ma la hjug pa shes bya ba; Madhyamakāvatāra nāma (入中觀) [入中論] Trans. by Tilakakalaśa, Pa tshab Ñima grags. Tibetan edition by La Vallée Poussin appears in Bibliotheca Buddhica; Vol. IX. St. Petersbourg, 1912. Tōhoku 3861.

Dbu ma rtsa baḥi ḥgrel pa tshig gsal ba shes bya ba; Mūlamadhyamakavṛtti-prasannapadā-nāma (根本中觀註明 語) Trans. by Mahāsumati, Pa tshab Ñi ma grags. Tōhoku 3860.

Nāgārjuna

Bses paḥi sprin yig; Suhrllekha (親友書翰) [龍樹菩薩爲禪 陀迦王說法要偈] Trans. by Sarvajñādeva, Dpal brtsegs. Taishō 1672, 1673, 1674; Nanjio 1464, 1440, 1441; Tōhoku 4496

Dbu ma rtsa baḥi ḥgrel pa ga las hjigs med; Mūlamadhya-makavrttyakutobhayā (根本中觀註無畏) Trans. by Jñāna-garbha. Tōhoku 3829.

Tibetan edition by Teramoto Enga. 西藏文龍樹造中論無畏疏 Kyoto: Teijiya-shoten, 1936. Also, see Max Walleser, infra.

Dbu ma rtsa baḥi tshig leḥur byas pa ses rab ces bya ba; Prajnā-nāma-mūlamadhyamakakārikā (根本中觀頌般若) [中論] Trans. by Jñānagarbha, Cog ro kluḥi rgyal mtshan. Taishō 1564; Nanjio 1179; Tōhoku 3824.

Hphags pa sā lu ljan paḥi tshig leḥur byas pa; Āryaśālistambaka-kārikā (聖稲芋頭) Translator unknown. Nanjio 280; Tōhoku 3985.

Hphags pa sā lu ljan pa shes bya ba theg pa chen poḥi mdoḥi rgya cher bśad pa; Ārya-śālistambaka(-nāma) mahāyānasūtraṭikā (聖稲芋と名づくる大乘經廣疏) Trans. by Dharmaśribhadra. Tōhoku 3986.

Rgyal po la gtam bya ba rin po cheḥi phren ba; Rāia-parikathāratnamālā (王譚寶鬘) [實行王正論] Trans. by Jñānagarbha, Kluḥi rgyal mtshan. Taishō 1656; Nanjio 1253; Tōhoku 4158.

Rigs pa drug cu paḥi tshig leḥur byas pa shes bya ba; Yuktiṣaṣṭhikakārikā·nāma (正理六十頃) [六十頃如理論] Trans. by Mutitaśri, Pa tshab Ñi ma grags. Taishō 1575; Nanjio 1307; Tōhoku 3825.

Rten cin hbrel bar hbyun bahi sñin pohi tshig lehur byas pa; Pratityasamutpādahrdayakārikā (緣起心頸) [因緣心論 頃] Translator unknown. Taishō 1654(a); Tōhoku 3836.

Rten cin hbrel bar hbyun bahi shin pohi rnam par bśad pa; Pratityasamutpādahṛdayavyākhyāna (綠起心解說) [因緣心論釋] Trans. by Ānanda, Grags hbyer śes rab. Taishō 1654(b); Tōhoku 3837.

Rtsod pa bzlog paḥi tshig lehur byas pa shes bya ba; Vigrahavyāvartanīkārikā-nāma (評題頃) [廻諍論] Trans. by Jānangarbha (847), Ska ba Dpal brtsegs. Taishō 1631; Nanjio 1251; Tōhoku 3828.

Rtsod pa bzlog pahi hgrel pa; Vigrahavyāvartanīvṛtti (諍 廻註) [廻諍論] Trans. by Jňānagarbha, Dpal brtsogs rakṣita. Tōhoku 3832; (Taishō 1631; Nanjio 1251).

Shib mo rnam par hthag pa shes bya bahi mdo; Vaidalyasutra nāma (摧破と名づくる經) [廣破論] Trans. by Ananda, Grags hbyor ses rab. Tōhoku 3826.

Shib mo rnam par ḥthag pa shes bya baḥi rab tu byed pa; Vaidalya nāma prakarana (摧破と名づくる論) [慶破論] Trans, by Jayānanda, Khu mdo sde hbar. Tōhoku 3830.

Srid pa hpho ba; Bhavasamkrānti (轉有) [大乘破有論] Trans. by Zla ba gshon nu. Taishō 1574; Nanjio 1305; Tōhoku 3840, 4162, 4558.

Ston pa ñid bdun cu paḥi tshig leḥur byas pa shes bya ba; Śūnyatāsaptatikārikā nāma (空性七十頃) Trans. by Gshon nu mchog, Gñan Dar ma grags. Tōhoku 3827.

Ston pa nid bdun cu paḥi hgel pa; Śūnyatāsaptativṛtti (空性七十註) Trans. by Jinamitra, Ye ses sde. Tōhoku 3831.

Theg pa chen po ni śu pa; Mahāyānavimṣikā (大乘二十) [大乘二十頌論] Trans. by Candrakumāra. Taishō 1576; Nanjio 1308; Tōhoku 3833, 4551.

Yi ge brgya pa; Akṣaraśataka (百字) [百字論] Chinese authorship is Āryadeva. Trans. by Gshon nu śes rab. Taishō 1572; Nanjio 1254; Tōhoku 3834.

Yi ge brgya pa shes bya baḥi ḥgrel pa; Akṣaraśataka nāma vṛṭṭi [百字論] Chinese authorship is Āryadeva. Trans. by Gshon nu śes rab. Taishō 1572; Nanjio 1254; Tōhoku 3835.

Rāhulabhadra

Byan chub sems dpahi spyod yul yons su dag pahi mdohi don mdor bsdus pa; Bodbisattvagocaraparisuddhisūtrūrtha-

samgraha (菩薩行境清淨經義略攝) Trans. by Sakyaśribhadra, Gnubs Byams pahi dpal. Tōhoku 3965.

3. CHINESE WORKS

Āryadeva

Kuang-pai-lun-pen 廣百論本 1 chuan. (Catuḥśataka-śāstrakārikā nāma) Trans. by Hsuan-tsang in 650 A.D. Taishō 1570; Nanjio 1189; Tōhoku 3846.

Pai-lun 百論 2 chuan. (Śataka śāstra) Trans. by Kumārajīva in 404 A.D. Trans. into English by Tucci, infra. Taishō 1569: Nanjio 1188.

Pai-tsu-lun 百字論 1 chuan. Trans. by Bodhiruci. (Akṣaraśataka) Tibetan authorship is Nāgārjuna. Taishō 1572; Nanjio 1254; Tōhoku 3835.

T'i-p'o-p'u-sa-shih-leng-ch'ieh-ching-chung-wai-tao-hsiao-ch'eng-nieh-p'an-lun 提婆菩薩釋楞伽經中外道小乘涅槃論 1 chuan. A commentary on the Lankāvatara sūtra. Trans. by Bodhiruci between 508 and 535 A.D. Taishō 1640; Nanjio 1260.

T'i-p'o-p'u-sa-p'o-leng-chieh-ching-chung-wai-tao-hsiao-cheng-ssu-tsung-lun 提婆菩薩破楞伽經中外道小乘四宗論 1 chuan. Another commentary on the Lankāvatara sūtra. Trans. by Bodhiruci between 508 and 535 A.D. Taishō 1639; Nanjio 1259.

Asanga

Shun-chung-lun 順中論,順中論義入大般若波羅蜜經初品法門 2 chuan. Trans. by Prajñāruci in 543 A.D. Sanskrit title is various; Madhyāntanugama śāstra; Madhyamaka-anusāra śāstra; Madhyantānusāraśāstra; Dr. Ui Hakuju reconstructs as follows: Madhyamaka-śāstra-artha-anugata-mahāprajñāpāramitāsūtra - ādiparivarta - dharmaparyāya-braveśa. Taishō 1565; Nanjio 1246.

Bhāvaviveka

Pan-jo-teng-lun-shih 般若燈論釋 15 chuan. (Prajāa-pradīpa-mūlamadhyamakavṛtti) Trans. by Prabhākarami tra_between 630 and 632 A.D. Japanese translation by R. Hadani, Kokuyaku Issaikyō Chūganbu, Vol. 2, Tokyō: Daitō Shuppansha, 1930. Taishō 1566; Nanjio 1185; Tōhoku 3853.

Chi-tsang

Chung-kuan-lun-su (chung-lu-su) 中觀論疏 (中論疏) 10 chuan. "A Commentary on the *Madhyamaka Śāstra*" Written in 616 A.D.? Taishō 1824.

Erh-ti-i 二諦義 3 chuan. "Essay on the Double Truth or Twofold Truth". Taishō 1854.

Pai-lun-su 百論疏 9 chuan. "Commentary on the Śataka Śāstra". Written in 608 A.D. Taishō 1827.

San-lun-hsuan-i 三論玄義 1 chuan. "A Compendium of the San-lun (Three Treatises)". Taishō 1852.

Shih-erh-men-lun-su 十二門論疏 3 chuan. "Commentary on the Dvādaśanikāya Śāstra". Taishō 1825.

Ta-shêng-hsuan-lun 大乘玄論 5 chuan. "A Treatise on the Mahāyāna". Taishō 1853.

Dharmapāla

Ta-shêng-kuang-pai-lun-shih-lun 大乘廣百論釋論 10 chuan. This is a commentary on Āryadeva's Catuḥśataka. Trans. by Hsuan-tsang in 650 A.D. Taishō 1571; Nanjio 1198.

Fa-tsang

Shih-erh-men-lun-tsung-chih-i-chi 十二門論宗致義記 2 chuan. Notations on Nāgārjuna's Dvādašanikāva Šāstra. Taishō 1826.

Kumārajīva

Lung-shu-p'u-sa-ch'uan 龍樹菩薩傳 1 chuan. "Biography of Bodhisattva Nāgārjuna". Trans. between 402 and 412 A.D. Taishō 2047; Nanjio 1461.

T'i-p'o-p'u-sa-ch'uan 提婆菩薩傳 1 chuan. "Biography of Bodhisattva Āryadeva". Trans. between 402 and 412 A.D. Taishō 2048: Nanjio 1462.

Nāgārjuna

Hui-cheng-lun 廻諍論 1 chuan. (Vigraha-vyāvartanī). Trans. by Vimokṣaprajñā and Prajñāruci in 541 A.D. Taishō 1631; Nanjio 1251; Tōhoku 3828.

I-shu-lu-chia-lun 聲輸盧迦論 1 chuan. (Ekaśloka Śāstra). Trans. by Prajňāruci between 538 and 543 A.D. Taishō 1573; Nanjio 1212.

Liu-shi-sung-ju-li-lun 六十頭如理論 1 chuan. (Yuktiṣa-sṭikā-kārikā). Trans. by Danapāla. A German translation by Phil Schaeffer, Nāgārjuna, Yukti-ṣaṣṭikā, infra., and a Japanese translation by Ryōtai Hadani, infra. Taishō 1575; Nanjio 1307; Tōhoku 3825.

Lung-shu-p'u-sa-ch'uan-chieh-wang-sung 龍樹菩薩勸誠王頭 1 chuan. "Friendly Epistles" (Suhṛllekha). Trans. by I-tsing between 700 and 712 A.D. Taishō 1674; Nanjio 1441; Tōhoku 4496.

Lung-shu-p'u-sa-ch'uan-fa-chu-wang-yao-chieh 龍樹菩薩勸發 諸王要偈 1 chuan. Another version of The Suhrllekha. Trans. by Saṃghavarman in 534 A.D. Taishō 1673; Nanjio 1440; Tōhoku 4496.

Lung-shu-p'u-sa-wei-ch'an-t'o-chia-wang-shuo-fa-yao-chieh 龍 樹菩薩爲禪陀迦王說法要偈 1 chuan. (Aryanāgārjuna-bodhisattva-suhṛllekha). Trans. by Guṇavarman in 431 A.D. Taishō 1672 (also 1673 and 1674); Nanjio 1464; Tōhōku 4496.

Ma-ho-pan-jo-po-lo-mi-ching-shih-lun 摩訶般若波羅蜜經釋論 100 chuan. (Mahāprajňāpāramitā-upadeśa-śāstra). This work is also known as the Chih-tu-lun 智度論 or the Ta-chih-tu-lun 大智度論 Trans. by Kumārajiva between 402 and 405 A.D. Taishō 1509; Nanjio 1169. See translations by E. Lamotte and K.V. Ramanan.

Pao-hsing-wang-cheng-lun 實行王正論 1 chuan. (Ārya-ratnāvalī). "Buddhist Teachings to a King". Trans. by Paramārtha between 558 and 569 A.D. Taishō 1656; Nanjio 1253; Tōhoku 4158.

P'u-t'i-tzu-liang-lun 菩薩資糧論 6 chuan. "Treatise on the Materials for Bodhi". Trans. by Dharmagupta between 605 and 616 A.D. Taishō 1660; Nanjio 1181.

Shih-erh-men-lun 十二門論 1 chuan. (Dvādaša-dvāra Śāstra or Dvādaša-nikāya Śāstra). "Twelve Gates". Trans. by Kumārajīva in 409 A.D. Taishō 1568; Nanjio 1186.

Shi-chu-p'i-p'o-sha-lun +住毘婆沙論 17 chuan. (Daśa-bhūmi-vibhāṣa Śāstra). "Exposition of the 10 Stages of Bodhisattvahood". Trans. by Kumārajīva in 405 A.D. Taishō 1521; Nanjio 1180.

Shi-pa-k'ung-lun 十八空論 1 chuan. (Aṣṭādaśākāśā Śāstra or Aṣṭādaśaśūnyatā Śāstra). "Treatise on the Eighteen Kinds of Śūnyatā". Trans. by Paramārtha between 557 and 569 A.D. This work treats the subject matter from the Vijāānavāda standpoint and therefore may not be the work of Nāgārjuna. Taishō 1616; Nanjio 1187.

Ta-shêng-erh-shih-sung-lun 大乘二十頭論 1 chuan. (Mahā-yāna viṃśaka). "Twenty Verses on the Great Vehicle". Trans. by Dānapāla. Taishō 1576; Nanjio 1308; Tōhoku 3833, 4551.

Ta-shēng-p'o-yu-lun 大乘破有論 1 chuan. (Bhavasaṃ-krānti). "Refutation of the Concept of Being in the Mahāyāna". Trans. by Dānapāla. Taishō 1574; Nanjio 1305.

Ta-chih-tu-lun 大智度論 100 chuan. (Mahāprajnāpāra-mitā Śāstra). "Commentary on the Great Prajnāpāra-mitā Śāstra". Confer Mo-ho Pan-jo Po-lo-mi-ching Shihlun, supra.

Yin-yuan-hsin-lun-sung-yin-yuan-hsin-lun-shih 因緣心論題 因緣心論釋 1 chuan. "Verses on the Central Conception of Conditional Origination". Translator unknown Taishō 1654; Tōhoku 3836(a), 4553(b).

Piṅgala (Piṅgalākṣa) Chung-lun (Chung-kuan-lun) 中論, 中觀論 4 chuan. (中論註釋) (Madhyamaka Śāstra). "A Commentary on the Verses of the Fundamental Middle (Śūnyatā)". Trans.

by Kumārajiva in 409 A.D. Taishō 1564; Nanjio 1179; Tōhoku 3860.

Seng-chao Chao-lun (肇論) Taishô XXXXV, No. 1858. English translation by W. Liebenthal, The Book of Chao, infra.

See also R. Robinson's book, infra.

Sthiramati Ta-shéng-chung-kuan-shih-lun 大乘中觀釋論 9 chuan.

(Mūlamadhyamakasandhinirmocana-vyūkhyā). "A Commentary on the Mahāyāna Fundamental Middle". Trans. by Wei-ching and others (Dharmarakşa) between 1009

and 1050 A.D. Taishō 1567; Nanjio 1316.

4. JAPANESE WORKS

Anchō Chūron shoki (chūgwanron shoki) 中論疏記 (中觀論疏記)

8 chuan. "Commentary Notes on the Mādhyamika Sūtra".

Taishō 2255.

Kaiken Chūgwan ronhon shaku (Chūgwanron nijūshichihon bessha-

ku) 中觀論品釋 (中觀論二十七品別釋) 1 chuan. "Commentary on the Chapters of the Mādhyamika Sūtra".

Commented on in 1527 A.D. Taichō 2256.

Zōkai Jūni monron sho monshi ki 十二門論硫闡思記 1 chuan.

"Notations on the Commentary of the Dvādašanikāya

Śāstra". Taishō 2257.

5. MODERN WORKS

A. BOOKS

Chatterjee, Heramba Nath

(Editor)

Mūla-Madhyamaka-Kārikā of Nāgārjuna. English Translation work. Part I (Chapters I-V), Part II (Chapters VI-VII). Calcutta: Sanskrit College, 1957 (Part I), 1962 (Part II). Translation is still in progress.

Conze, Edward

Buddhist Thought in India; London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1962. Confer 238-249 on the Mādhyamika.

Thirty Years of Buddhist Study; University of South Carolina Press, 1968. Collection of some excellent arti-

cles on prajňāpāramitā thought.

Dasgupta, Surrenadrath A History of Indian Philosophy; Vol. I. London: Cambridge University Press, 1922. pp. 138-145.

De Jong, J.W.

Cinq Chapitres de la Prasannapadā. Translation from Tibetan into French of chapters XVIII, XIX, XX, XXI, & XXII. Tibetan text of the above chapters on pp. 87-155. Buddhica, documents et travaux pour l'etude du Bouddhisme. Paris: Librairie Orientaliste. Paul Geuthner, 1949.

Fung, Yu-lan

A History of Chinese Philosophy; Vol. II. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1953. pp. 258-299.

Gard. Richard A.

Mādhyamika Buddhism: Introductory lectures on its History and Doctrines. Bangkok: Mahāmukūta University Press. 1956.

Gokhale, Vasdev

The Hundred Letters (Akşara Satakam). A Mādyhamika text by Arya Deva, after Chinese and Tibetan materials. Translation by V. Gokhale. Heidelberg, 1930.

Haseoka, Kazu

Ryūju no jōdokyō shisō 龍樹の淨十数思想 (The Pure Land Doctrine of Nāgārjuna). Kyoto: Hōzōkan, 1957.

Hatani, Ryōtai

Sanron kaidai to honyaku 三論解題と翻譯 (Translations and Critical Analysis of the Three Treatises of the Mādhyamika); in Kokuyaku Issaikyō 國譯一切經 Chūganbu. Vol. I. Tokyo: Daito-shuppan-sha, 1930. The volume also includes Japanese translations of the Chung-lun, Pai-lun and the Shih-erh-men-lun.

Volume II (1930) of the same Kokuyaku Issaikyō Chūganbu, includes the Japanese translations of the Pan-jo-tenglun-shih of Bhāvaviveka.

Volume III (1932) of the same Kokuyaku Issaikyō, Chūganbu, includes the following Japanese translations: Pai-tzulun, I-shu-lu-chia-lun, Ta-ch'eng-p'o-yu-lun, Liu-shi-sungju-li-lun, Ta-ch'eng-erh-shi-sung-lun, Kuang-pai-lun-pen.

Hurvitz, Leon

Chih-I. An Introduction to the Life and Ideas of a Chinese Buddhist Monk. In Mélanges chinois et bouddhiques. Douzième volume: 1960-1962. Bruxelles: Juillet, 1962.

Ikeda, Chōtatsu

Kompon chūron sho muiron yaku chū. 根本中論疏無毘論譯 # (Translation and Commentary on the Mulamadhyamakavṛttyakutobhaya [Dbu ma rtsa baḥi ḥgrel pa ga las hiigs medl). Tokyo: Toyō Bunko Ronsō Series (Oriental Library), Vol. 16, 1932.

Keith. A. Berriedale Buddhist Philosophy in India and Ceylon. Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1923. Chapter XIII, The Negativism of the Madhyamaka.

Lamotte, Etienne

Le Traité de la grande Vertue de Sagesse, de Nagarjuna. French translation of the Chinese Ta-chih-tu-lun (大智度 論) Bibliothéque du Museon, Vol. XVIII in two volumes (chaps. 1-30). Louvain, 1944-49. Translation is still in progress.

La Vallée Poussin, L. de

Madhyamakāvatāra. Traduction d'apres la version tibetaine. Le Museon, N.S. 8(1907), pp. 249-317; 11(1910), pp. 271-358; 12(1911), pp. 235-328.

Liebenthal, Walter The Book of Chao (肇論) An English translation of the Chao-lun. Monumenta Serica, Monograph XIII. Peiping:
The Catholic University of Peking, 1948. Second revised edition by Hongkong University Press, 1968.

May, Jacques Candrakīrti: Prasannapadā Madhyamakavṛtti. Douze chapitres traduits du sancrit et du tibetain. Paris: Adrien-Maisonneuve, 1959.

Miyamoto, Shōson Chūdo shisō oyobi sono hattatsu. 中道思想及びその發達 (Middle Way Doctrine and Its Development). Tokyo and Kyoto: Hōzōkan, 1944.

Kompon chū to kū. 根本中と空 (The Fundamental Middle and Śūnyatā). Tokyo: Daiichi Shobō, 1943.

Murti, T.R.V. The Central Philosophy of Buddhism. A study of the Madhyamaka System. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1955.

Potter, Karl H. Presuppositions of India's Philosophies. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prenticehall, Inc., 1963. Chapter 11, Leap Philosophies.

Radhakrishnan, S. *Indian Philosophy*, Vol. I. London. George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1923. Especially pp. 643-669.

Ramanan, Nāgārjuna's Philosophy. As presented in the Mahā-K. Venkata Prajnāpāramitā-śāstra. Rutland, Vt. — Tokyo: Charles E. Tuttle Co., Inc., 1966.

Robinson, Early Mādhyamika in India and China. Madison: The Richard H. University of Wisconsin Press, 1967.

Saigusa, Mitsuyoshi *Chūron: Bon-kanzō Taishō goi*. 中論, 梵漢藏對照語彙 (An (with Kuga Jun) index to the Kārikā in Sanskrit, Chinese, and Tibetan).

Tokyo: Sanseido, 1959.

Saigusa, Mitsuyoshi Studien zum Mahāprajāāpāramitā (upadeśa) śāśtra. Tokyo: Hokuseido Verlag, 1969.

Schaeffer, S. Yuktisastikā; die sechzig Satse des Negativismus nach des chinesischen Version ubersetzt. Materialien zur Kunde des Buddhismus, No. 3. Heidelberg, 1923.

Schayer, Stanislaw Ausgewahlte Kapitel Aus Der Prasannapadā. (Selected Chapters from the Prasannapadā; V, XII, XIII, XIV, XV, XVI). Einleitung, Ubersetzung und Anmerkungen. W. Krakowie, Polska Akademja Umiejectności, 1931.

Feur und Brennstoff. Ein Kapital (X) aus dem Mādhyamika-Śāstra des Nāgārjuna mit der Vṛtti des Candrakīrtì. Roeznik Orientalistyczny, No. 7 (1929–1930).

Sharma, Dialectic in Buddhism and Vedānta. Banaras: Nand Chandradhar Kishore and Brothers, 1952.

Stael-Holstein. Baron A. von

A Commentary to the Kāśyapaparivarta. Edited in Tibetan and Chinese. Peking: The National Library of Peiping and the National Tsinghua University, 1933.

Kāśyapa Parivarta. A Mahāyāna Sūtra of the Ratnakūţa Edited in the original Sanskrit, Tibetan and Chinese Shanghai: Commercial Press. 1926.

Stcherbatsky, Theodor

The Conception of Buddhist Nirvana. Appendices contain English translations of Nagarjuna's Madhyamaka Sastra (Chapters I & XXV) and Candrakirti's Mādhyamika-vṛtti (Prasannapadā, Chapters I & XXV). Leningrad: Publishing Office of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, 1927.

Streng, Frederick J. Emptiness. A Study in Religious Meaning. Nashville and New York: Abingdon Press, 1967. Appendix A: Translation of the Mūlamadhvamakakārikā. Appendix B: Translation of the Vigrahavyāvartanī.

Suzuki, Daisetz T. Essays in Zen Buddhism. 3rd Series. London: Rider & Company, 1953. Especially Chapters V and VI on the philosophy of prajnāpāramitā. Outlines of Mahāyāna Buddhism. London: Luzac and Co., 1907; Reprinted in New York: Schocken Books, 1963.

Takakusu, Iunjirō The Essentials of Buddhist Philosophy. Edited by W. T. Chan and Charles A. Moore. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1947. Chapter VII, The Sanron School.

Teramoto, Enga Ryūju zō chūron muisho. 梵漢獨對校西藏文和譯龍樹造· 中論無畏疏 A Comparative Study of Nāgārjuna's Dbu ma rtsa bahi hgrel pa ga las hjigs [Mūlamadhyamakavrttyakutobhaya.] The comparative study includes: Sanskrit, Chinese (Kumārajīva), German (Walleser), Tibetan, and his own Japanese translation from the Tibetan. Tokyo: Daitō Shuppan-sha, 1937.

The History of Buddhist Thought. London: Routledge & Thomas, Edward J. Kegan Paul Ltd., 1933. Chapter XVII, The Doctrine of the Void.

Jöron kenkyū 整論研究 (Studies in the Chao Lun). Kyoto: Zenryū (editor) Hözökan, 1960. It has interesting essays on the historical and philosophical aspects of Seng-chao and the Chao Lun. See W. Liebenthat, supra.

Tsunemoto, Kenyū Kūgan tetsugaku 空觀哲學 (The Philosophy of Śūnyatā). Tokyo: Daiichi Shobō, 1942.

Pre-Dinnaga Buddhist Texts on Logic from Chinese Sources. Contains English translations of the Vigrahavyavartani of Nāgārjuna from the Chinese and Tibetan text and the Satasastra of Aryadeva from the Chinese. Gaekwad's Oriental Series, XLIX. Baroda Oriental Institute, 1929.

Tsukamoto.

Tucci, Guiseppe

The Ratnavali of Nagariuna. English translations in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1934, pp. 307-325; 1936: pp: 237-252, 423-435.

Ueda, Yoshifumi

Bukkyō shisōshi kenkyū 佛教思想史研究 (Studies in the History of Buddhist Thought). Kyoto: Nagata Bunshōdō, 1951.

Daijō bukkyō shisō no kompon kōzō 大乘佛教思想の根本構造 (The Fundamental Construct of Mahāyāna Buddhist Thought). Kyoto: Hyakkaen, 1957.

Ui, Hakuju

Indo tetsugaku kenkyū 印度哲學研究 (Studies in Indian Philosophy). Tokyo: Kōshisha, 1924. Vol. I, Chapter 7, On Ārvadeva's Catuhśataka, Sata-śāstra-vaipulya, and śataka-śāstra.

Sanron Kaidai to honyaku. 三論解題と翻譯 (Translations and Critical Analysis of the Three Treatises of the Mādhyamika); in Kokuyaku Daizōkyō; Rombu, Vol. V. Tokyo: Kokumin Bunko Kankō-kai, 1921.

Tōyō no ronri 東洋の論理 (Logic of the East). Tokyo: Aoyama Shoin, 1950. Contains a lengthy discussion of Nāgāriuna's "logic of śūnya" and also a Japanese translation of the Kārikā.

Vaidya, P.L.

Études sur Aryadeva et son Catuhsataka. (Chaptres 8-16) Paris: Geuthner, 1923.

Walleser, Max

Buddhabālita's Mūlamadhvamakavrtti. Tibetische Übersetzung. Bibliotheca Buddhica, No. 16. St. Petersbourg: 1913-1914.

Die Mittlere Lehre (Mādhyamika-śāstra) des Nāgārjuna. Nach der tibetischen Version ubertragen. Heidelberg. 1911.

Die Mittlere Lehre des Nagarjuna. Nach der chinesischen Version ubertragen. Heidelberg, 1912.

Ga la shijigs med. Die tibetische Version von Nägärjuna's Kommentar Akutobhaya zur Madhyamakakārikā. Nach der Pekinger Ausgabe des Tanjur; Materialien zur Kunde des Buddhismus, No. 2. Heidelberg, 1923.

Prajnā-pradīpa. A Commentary on the Madhyamaka Sūtra by Bhāvaviveka. Bibliotheca Indica Work, 226; N.S. No. 1396. Calcutta: 1914.

Prajāt Pāramitā. Quellen der Religions-Geschichte. Gottingen-Leipzig, 1914.

Wogihara, Unrai

Prasannapada wayaku. プラサンナパダー和譯 (Japanese Translation of the Prasannapada, Chapters XII-XVII); in Wogihara Unrai bunshū 获原雲來文集 (Posthumous Collected Works of Prof. Unrai Wogihara) pp. 556-628.

Tokyo: Taishō University Press, 1938.

Yamaguchi, Susumu Bukkyō ni okeru mu to u tono tairon. 佛教に於ける無と有との對論 (The Contrasting Involvement of the Concepts of Being and Non-being in Buddhism). Tokyo: Kōbundo Shobō, 1941.

Chūgwan bukkyō ronkō. 中觀佛教論攷 (Studies in the Mādhyamika). Tokyo: Kōbundō Shobō, 1944.

Chūron shaku. 「淨明句論」と名づくる月稱造中論釋一と二 (Prasannpadā nāma Mādhyamikavṛttiḥ of Candrakirti). Japanese translation with critical notations. Volume I (Chapters I & II), 1947. Volume II (Chapters III-XI), 1949. (Unfinished project). Tokyo: Kōbundo Shobō.

Dōbutsu to seibutsu 動機と靜佛 (Dynamic Buddha and Static Buddha). Tokyo: Risōsha, 1952.

Hannya shisō shi 般若思想史 (History of Prajñā Thought). Kyoto: Hōzōkan, 1951. 2nd Edition, 1956.

Yamaguchi, Yusuke Kū to benshōhō 空と辨證法 (Śūnyatā and Dialectics).
Tokyo: Risōsha, 1939.

Yasui, Kōsai Chūgan Shisō no Kenkyū 中觀思想の研究 (Studies in Mādhyamika Thought). Kyoto: Hōzōkan, 1961.

B. ARTICLES

Bhattacharya, A.R. "Brahman of Sankara and Sünyatā of Mādhyamikaa,"

Indian Historical Quarterly, XXXII (1956), pp. 270-285.

Conze, Edward "The Ontology of the Prajnaparamita," Philosophy East and West, III, No. 2 (1953), pp. 117-130.

"The Development of Prajiāpāramita Thought," Bukkyō to Bunka (Buddhism and Culture), edited by Susumu Yamaghchi. Kyoto: 1960. pp. 24-45.

De Jong, J. "Le Probleme de l'absolu dans l'ecole Madhyamaka," Revue Philosophique de la France et de l'Etranger, CXL (1950), pp. 323-327.

Gard, Richard A. "On the Authenticity of the Pai-lun (百論) and Shiherh-men-lun (十二門論)". Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies. (University of Tokyo). II, No. 2 (1954). pp. 751-742 (Western Section).

"On the Authenticity of the Chung-lun (中論)". Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies; III, No. 1 (1954). pp. 376-370 (Western Section).

Hachiriki, Hiroki "Purasannapadā no inyō kyōten (1) プラサンナバダーの 引用經典 (一) (On the Samādhirājasūtra quoted in the Prasannapadā). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XIV, No. 2 (1966), pp. 649-652. "Purasannapadā no inyō kyōten (2)" ブラサンナバダーの 引用經典 (二) (On the Ratnakūṭasūtra quoted in the Prasannapadā). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XV, No. 2 (1967), pp. 720-723.

Hatani, Ryōtai

"Dialectics of the Mādhyamika Philosophy," Studies on Buddhism in Japan; Vol. 1. Edited by the International Buddhist Society. Tokyo: 1939, pp. 53-71.

Hikata, Ryūjō

"Daichidoron no sakusha ni tsuite" 大智度論の作者について (On the Author of Ta-chih-tu-lun [Mahāprajnāpāra-mitā-sūtra-vibhāsā or -śāstra]) Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies; VII, No. 1 (1959), pp. 1-12.

Hirakawa, Akira

"Jūjū bibasharon no chosha ni tsuite" 十住毘婆沙論の著者について (On the Author of the Daśabhūmika-śāstra) Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies; V, No. 2 (1957), pp. 504-509.

Ichigō, Masamichi

"Chūganha to suronha tono tairon"中觀派と數論派との 對論 (Mādhyamika's Criticism of the Soul-Theory of of Sāmkhya...as found in the *Prajnāpradīpa*) Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XV, No. 2 (1967), pp. 724-734.

Ikeda, Chōtatsu

"Is Nāgārjuna the Author of A-Kuto-Bhayā?" Commemoration Volume, the 25th Anniversary of the Foundation of the Professorship of Science of Religion in Tokyo Imperial University. Tokyo: The Herald Press, Ltd., 1934. pp. 291-293.

Inazu, Kizō

"Ryūju no chū no tetsugaku" 龍樹の中の哲學 (The Philosophy of *Madhyamāpratipad* in Nāgārjuna); in *Indogaku Bukkyōgaku Ronshū*, (Collection of Essays in Indology and Buddhology honoring Prof. Shōson Miyamoto). Tokyo: Sanseidō, 1954, pp. 269-276.

"Ryūju ni okeru sonzai no mondai" 龍樹に於ける存在の問題 (The Problem of Existence in Nāgārjuna). Shiso; No. 79 (1928), pp. 81-152.

Kajiyama, Yuichi

"Bhāvaviveka's Prajfiāpradīpah (I. Kapitel)," Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde süd-und Ostasiens und Archiv für indische Philosophie. Band IX. 1964, pp. 100-130.

"Bhāvaviveka and the Prāsangika School," in *The Nava-Nalanda-Mahavihara Research Publication*, Vol. I, ed. by S. Mookerjee. (1957) pp. 289-331.

Kamata, Shigeo

"Kūgan no chūgokuteki heni," 空觀の中國的變異 (Chinese Modification of Śūnyatā-vāda). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XVI, No. 2 (1968), pp. 522-527.

Karambelkar, V.W. "The Problem of Nagarjuna," Journal of Indian History, XXX, No. 1 (1952), pp. 21-33.

Kitabatake. Toshichika

"Shōben to gesshō no nitairon" 清辨と月稱の二諦論 (The Twofold Truth of Bhavaviveka and Candrakirti). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XI, No. 1 (1963), pp. 66-71.

Kudō, Shigeki

"Chūgan ni okeru jishō no gainen" 中観に於ける自性の 概念 (On the Concept of Svabhāva in the Prasannapadā) Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, VII, No. 1 (1958), pp. 174-175.

Lamotte, Etienne

"Mādhyamakavrtti XVII Chaptre: Examen de l'acte et du fruit" Melanges chinois et bouddhiques, IV. Bruxelles, 1936, pp. 265-288.

La Vallée Poussin, L. de

"Le Nirvana d'aprés Arvadeva." Melanges chinois et bouddhiques; Bruxelles: No. 1 (1932), pp. 127-135.

"Les quatres odes de Nagarjuna," Le Museon, No. 14 (1913), pp. 1-18.

"Madhyamaka," in Hastings' Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics, Vol. VIII, pp. 235-237.

"Notes on Sūnyatā and the Middle Path," Indian Historical Quarterly, No. 4 (1928), pp. 161-168.

"Reflexions sur le Madhyamaka," Melanges chinois et Bouddhiques, II, pp. 4-59; Bruxelles, 1932-33.

"The Two Nirvana-dhatus According to the Vibhasa," Indian Historical Quarterly; No. 4 (1928), pp. 39-45.

"The Mādhyamika and the Tathatā," Indian Historical Quarterly, IX (1933), pp. 30-31.

Law, B.C.

"The Formulation of the Pratityasamutpada," Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1937, pp. 287-292.

May, Jacques

"Kant et le Mādhyamika" Indo-Iranian Journal, III (1959), pp. 102-111.

Mitsukawa, Toyoki "Chūganha ni okeru shaki no ito surumono," 中觀派に 於ける譲遣の意圖するもの (The Nature of Negation [Pratisedha] in the Madhyamika School). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, X, No. 1 (1962), pp. 255-260.

> "Chūganha to buha tono kankei,"中觀派と部派との關係 (On the Relation between the Mādhyamika School and the Hinayana). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, VIII, No. 1 (1960), pp. 186-187.

> "Prasannapapā ni mirareru gesshō sanmaikyō" Prasannapadā に見られる月燈三味經 (On the Citation of the Samādhirāja Sūtra in the Prasannapadā) Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XV, No. 2 (1967), pp. 715-719.

Miyamoto, Shōson

"A Re-appraisal of Pratitya-samutpāda" Indogaku Bukkyōgaku Ronsō, (Studies in Indology and Buddhology honoring Prof. Susumu Yamaguchi). Kyoto: Hōzōkan, 1955. pp. 152-164.

"The Buddha's First Sermon and the Original Patterns of the Middle Way," Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XIII, No. 2 (1965), pp. 855-845 (Western Section).

"The Logic of Relativity as the Common Ground for the Development of the Middle Way," Bukkyo to Bunka (Buddhism and Culture), commemorating the 90th Birthday of Dr. D.T. Suzuki. Ed. by S. Yamaguchi. Kyoto: 1960, pp. 67-88.

"Voidness and Middle Way," Studies on Buddhism in Japan, Volume one. Edited by the International Buddhist Society. Tokyo: 1939, pp. 73-92.

"The historico-social Bearings of the Middle Way." Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XIV, No. 2 (1966), pp. 996-969 (Western section).

Mizuno, Kõgen

"Jūni engi ni tsuite," 十二線起について (A Psychological Approval of Dvādaša-pratītyasamutpāda). Iournal of Indian and Buddhist-Studies: III. No. 1 (1954), pp. 11-22.

Mookerjee, Satkari "The Absolutist's Standpoint in Logic," in The Nava-Nalanda-Mahavihara Research Publication, Vol. I, ed. by S. Mookeriee. (1957) pp. 1-175.

Nagao, Gadiin M.

"Chugan tetsugaku no kompon teki tachiba," 中觀哲學 の程本的立場 (The Fundamental Standpoint of the Mädhyamika Philosophy). Tetsugaku Kenkyū; Vol. 31 (1947), No. 9, pp. 1-27, No. 11, pp. 16-49. Vol. 32 (1948), No. 1, pp. 1-41, No. 2, pp. 19-38.

"The Silence of the Buddha and its Madhyamic Interpretation," Indogaku Bukkyogaku Ronso (Studies in Indology and Buddhology honoring Prof. Susumi Yamaguchi). Kyoto: Hozokan, 1955, pp. 137-151.

Nakamura, Hajime "Buddhist Logic Expounded by Means of Symbolic Logic," Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, VII, No. 1 (1958), pp. 395-375 (Western Section).

Narain, Harsh

"Sunyavada: A Reinterpretation," Philosophy East and West, XIII, No. 4, pp. 311-338.

Nozawa, Jōsbō

"Hannya tōron shaku no nitai ronja" 般若般論釋の二舊 論者 (The Meaning of Ubhāya-ākāravādinah-Digambara and their Doctrines in the Praisid-pradita). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, III, No. 2 (1955), pp. 470-483.

"Tokue daibasetsuma no chūron sho no zankan" 複葉. 提婆設定の中論疏の殘骸 (A Commentary on the Mulamadhyamaka-kārikā by Devasarman and Gunamati, as quoted in the Prajñā-pradīpa). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, II, No. 2 (1954), pp. 443-448.

Obermiller. Evgenii E.

"Nirvana According to Tibetan Tradition." Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. X (1934), pp. 211-257.

"A Study of Twenty Aspects of Sūnyatā Based on Haribhadra's Abhisamayālamkarāloka and the Pancavimsatisahasrikā" Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. IX (1933), pp. 170-187.

"The Term Sūnyatā and its Different Interpretations" Based chiefly on Tibetan sources. Journal of the Greater Indian Society; Vol. I (1934), pp. 105-117.

Pandeva, R.C.

"The Mādhyamika Philosophy: A New Approach," Philosophy East and West, XIV, No. 1, pp. 3-24.

Pannikar, R.

"The Crisis of Madhyamika and Indian Philosophy Today," Philosophy East and West, XVI, Nos. 3 and 4, pp. 117-131.

Raju, P.T.

"The Principle of Four-cornered Negation in Indian Philosophy," Review of Metaphysics, Vol. 7 (1953-54), pp. 694-713.

Robinson. Richard H.

"Mysticism and Logic in Seng-Chao's Thought," Philosophy East and West, VIII, Nos. 3 and 4 (1958-1959), pp. 99-120.

"Some Logical Aspects of Nagarjuna's System," Philosophy East and West, VI, No. 4 (1957), pp. 291-308.

Saigusa, Mitsuyoshi "Daichidoron ni tokareta roku haramitsu ni tsuite" 大 智度論に設かれた六ハラツミについて (On the six paramitas in the Mahaprajnaparamita-śastra). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, II, No. 2 (1954), pp. 188-192.

> "Engi no kōsatsu" 兼起の考察 (Consideration of Pratityasamutpāda as Related to Idappaccayatā). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies: VI, No. 2 (1958), pp. 344-355.

> "注 und Dharma in Kumārajiva's Mādhyamikakārikā," Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XIII, No. 1 (1965). pp. 419-412 (Western Section).

> "Ryūju no kū ni tsuite," 龍樹の空について (On the concept of śilnyatā in Nāgārjuna). Indogaku Bukkyōgahu Ronshū (Collection of Essays in Indology and Buddhology honoring Prof. Shōson Miyamoto). Tokyo: Sanseidō, 1954; pp. 277-290.

"Ryūju no Hōben Shisō" 龍樹の方便思想 (The Concept of Means [upāya] in Nāgārjuna). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, III, No. 1 (1954), pp. 232-235.

"Daichidron Shoshū geju to chūron ju," 大智度論所収傷 類と中論類 (Verses Quoted in the Mahāprajnāpāramitāśāśtra and the Madhyamakakārikās). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XV, No. 1 (1966), pp. 85-97.

"Chūron ni okeru buddakan," 中論に於けるブッダ觀 (The Conception of Buddha in the Mūlamadhyamakakārikās). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XVI, No. 1 (1967), pp. 24–29.

Sarkar, A.K.

"Nāgārjuna: On Causation and Nirvāṇa," Dr. S. Radhakrishnan Souvenir Volume. (Essays in honor of his 75th Birthday). Darshana, Moradabad, India, 1963, pp. 395-404.

Sastri, Haraprasād

"Fragments of Catuhsataka Mixed with Candrakirti's Commentary," Memoirs of the Asiatic Society of Bengal; III, No. 8, pp. 449-514.

Sastri, N.A.

"Nāgārjuna and Satkaryavāda of the Śāńkhyas," Sino-Indian Studies, IV (1950), pp. 47-50.

"Nāgārjuna on the Buddhist Theory of Causation," Prof. K.V. Rangaswami Aiyangar Commemoration Volume. Madras, 1940, pp. 485-492.

Schayer, Stanislaw

"Das Mahāyānistische Absolutum nach der Lehre der Mādhyamikas," Orientalistische Literaturzeitung, XXXVIII (1935), pp. 401-415.

Sengupta, B.K.

"A Study of Nagarjuna," Indian Historical Quarterly, XXXI, No. 3 (1955), pp. 257-262.

Tanaka, Junshō

"Kūgan no hatten," 空觀の發展 (The Development of the Madhyamaka theory). Nakano kyōju koki kinen ronbunshū; Studies in Indology and Buddhology (in honor of Prof. Gisho Nakano's 70th Birthday). Kōyasan. University, 1960, pp. 83–104.

"Kūgan no ronri" 空觀の論理 (The Logic of Śūnya). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies; II, No. 1 (1953), pp. 230-232.

"Sõe sõtai setsu no ichihihan" 相依相待説の一批判 (A Critical Examination of the Theory of Interdependence and Relativity). *Mikkyō Bunka*, (Kōyasan University publication) No. 23.

Tanji, Teruyoshi

"Gesshō ni okeru loka ni tsuite," 月稱に於ける loka について (Candrakīrti's Concept of "loka"). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XII, No. 1 (1958), pp. 176-177.

Thomas, F.W. and Ui, H.

"The Hard Treatise; (Hastavada) a work of Āryadeva,"

Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1918, pp. 267-374.

Tucci, Guiseppe

"English Translation of Mahāyāna-viṃśikā," Minor Buddhist Texts, Serie Orientale Roma, IX; Part I, pp. 204-207. Rome, 1956.

"Studi Mahāyānice, I: La versione cinese del Catuhsatake de Āryadeva confrontato col testo sanscrito e la traduzione tibetana," Rivista degli Studi Orientali; X, pp. 521-567.

"Two Hymns of the Catuh-stava of Nāgārjuna," Journal of Royal Asiatic Society; 1932, pp. 309-325.

Ueda, Yoshifumi

"Thinking in Buddhist Philosophy," Philosophical Studies of Japan, V, (1964). Published by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. Tokyo, pp. 69-94.

Uryūzu, Ryūshin

"Candrakirti no ātman hihan," チャンドラ キールティのアートマン批判 (Candrakirti's criticism of ātman). Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies, XI, No. 2 (1963), pp. 344-352.

Vidyabhusana, S. Ch. "History of the Mādhyamika Philosophy of Nāgārjuna," Journal of the Buddhist Text and Anthropological Society; No. 4, pp. 7-20.

"The Mādhyamika School," Journal of the Buddhist Text and Anthropological Society; No. 2, pp. 3-7; No. 3, pp. 9-23.

Walleser, Max

"The Life of Nāgārjuna from Tibetan and Chinese Sources," Hirth Anniversary volume; pp. 421-455. London, 1922.

Wayman, Alex

"Contributions to the Mādhyamika School of Buddhism," *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, Vol. 89, No. 1 (1969), pp. 141-152. Discussion of F. Streng's book.

Wenzel, Heinrich

"Bées pahi sprin yig," English translation as "Friendly Epistles", Journal of the Pali Text Society; 1886, pp. 1-32.

Yamaguchi, Susumu "Chūgan Bukkyō ni okeru ushinron no hihan," 中観佛 数に於ける有神論の批判 (Criticism by the Mādhyamika School on Theism). Bukkyō to Bunka (Buddhism and Culture), edited by S. Yamaguchi; Kyoto, 1960, pp. 68–97 (Japanese Section).

"Ejōron ni tsuite," 廻諍論について (On the *Vigrahavyā-vartanī*). *Mikkyō Bunka*, No. 7 (1949), pp. 1–19; No. 8 (1950), pp. 1–17; No. 9, 10 (1950), pp. 1–20; No. 12 (1950), pp. 23–31.

"Mahāyāna Viṃśaka of Nāgārjuna," An English translation with notes. The Eastern Buddhist; Vol. 4, Nos. 1-2 (1925); Vol. 5, Nos. 2-3 (1930).

Bibliography

"Traité de Nāgārjuna, pour écarter les vaines discussion (Vigrahavyāvartanī) traduit et annoté," Journal Asiatique, No. 215 (1929), pp. 1-86.

Yasui, Kōsai

"Chūgan setsu no tachiba to shite no nitai setsu" 中觀 說の立場としての二諦說 (The Significance of the Satyadvaya Theory as the Position of the Mādhyamika). The Annual Report of Researches of the Otani University, No. 8 (1955), pp. 59–143.

"Jūnimonron wa hatashite ryūju no chosaku ka?" 十二 門論は果して龍樹の著作か (Was the Dvādašamukha-šāstra Written by Nāgārjuna?) Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies; VI, No. 1 (1958), pp. 44-51.

continuous Nāgāriuna has held attention of Buddhist scholars in Asia since his own day.Even today he commands the greatest attention in the Western world insofar as philosophic tradition is concerned. Māhāvana Though he did not establish a school of a system of thought as such, he did attract such overwhelming interest and appeal on the part of the masses by way of his unique writings that a tradition of a sort soon arose during his lifetime and a large following in consequence of it. His ideas though subtle and profound, carried such deep understanding implications of fundamental Buddhist truths that they will influence, one way or another, all or most the subsequent Māhāyana developments in India, China,

scholars the unique thought of Nagarjuna in translation by way of his major work, the Mūlamadhyamakakārikā and by way introductory essay on his philosophy.The complete English translation of the Kārikā in 27 Chapters is sequence with presented in romanized version of the Sanskrit verses for easy reference short prefatory remarks to each chapter have been inserted in order to present the reader a quick glimpse of each chapter content.The book contains glossary of Sanskrit terms with their English meanings. The book is published in the Bibliotheca Indo-**Buddhica Series**

The present work lay bare before the

Kenneth K. Inada is presently Distinguished Service Professor at Department of Philosophy, State University of New York at Buffalo.

Tibet, Korea and Japan.