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The Buddhist Intent of *Parārthānumāna* and its *Hetu*-Centric Commitment

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Abstract:

The paper discusses anumāna and its variety in general from the point of view of inferential cognition for the sake of oneself as well as for the sake of others; i.e. svārthānumāna and parārthānumāna as given in the Buddhist tradition of logic, especially with parārthānumāna, its nature and role. The paper argues that the Buddhist intent of division of anumāna into svārthānumāna and parārthānumāna was to bring Buddha-vacana-s under the category of parārthānumāna and to save them from being classified under Śabda pramāṇa. It contends that such a division was not just an epistemological demand, but had a deeper philosophical significance in the Buddhist conceptual framework. Such division is, therefore, intended to reject the role of Śabda as an extra causal means or pramāṇa. The paper identifies the logical commitment in Buddhist tradition as hetu-centric commitment as it differs from the Nyāya tradition of vyāpti-centric one.

Keywords: anumāna, svārthānumāna, parārthānumāna, Hetu, Vyāpti, śabdapramāṇa, hetvābhāsa, Hetucakra Damaru, Ekapada-paryudāsa, Dvipadaparyudāsa.

Prologue

In Indian epistemological tradition perception (*pratyakṣa*) is considered as the strongest reliable causal means of valid knowledge. It is so basic that no other casual means of knowledge can come into existence without the assistance of perception. Similarly, among indirect means inference (*anumāna*) has been given a status of superior causal means of knowledge. The superiority of

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inference is not just because it, beyond our limited perceptions, covers the wide range of our cognitive sphere more extensively but also because it is substantially supportive to other indirect casual means of knowledge. Perhaps, that is why Buddhist logicians thought it reasonable to somehow reduce all other means of indirect knowledge to inference itself. Not only this, in the very epistemological framework of Buddhist logic all determinate/conceptual/categorical knowledge have been included within the spectrum of inference. Generally, inference is divided into two types, namely, Svārthānumāna (inference for the sake of oneself) and Parārthānumāna (inference for the sake of others). In fact, being the knowledge for the sake of oneself i.e. Svārtha-form is obvious to all pramāna-s but the knowledge for the sake of other self-i.e. Parārtha-form is only possible to anumāna (inference). This also extends the scope of inferential cognition to a new dimension. Although there has been a long as well as ancient tradition of classifying anumāna into three types, namely *Pūrvavat*, *Śesvat* and *Sāmānvatodrsta*, it is Ācārya Dignāga who has classified *anumāna* as svārtha and Parārtha for the first time and thereafter this classification has got a common acceptance in Indian tradition of epistemic logic. No doubt, the division of anumāna into svārtha and Parārtha has its own epistemological significance. But it is Ācārya Dignāga who gave a foundational division with a deeper insight. That is to say, Buddha himself had no intention that his teachings be accepted as Śabdapramāṇa (verbal testimony) [9, verse. 3587]. That is precisely the cause that the Buddhist tradition doesn't categorize Buddha-vacanas as Śabdapramāna. Then, it will be pertinent to ask: under which kind of pramāṇas Buddha-vacanas and subsequent derived knowledge should be categorized? In fact, Buddha-vacana-s can be called as a set of statements or propositions producing Parārthānumāna because they were exhorted by Buddha not as commandments or instructions but as reasoned or rational statements. Therefore, the Buddhavacana-s and the derived knowledge thereof are grasped in the form of Parārthānumāna. Dharmakīrti has hinted something similar at the end of the first chapter of his *Pramānavārttika* [3, pp. 285-287] but Prajñākaragupta, in his *Pramānavārttikālankārabhāsya*, has clearly stated that Bauddha-àgamas are not commandments or instructions, rather their form is of Parārthānumāna [6, ch. 1/135, p.269].²

Noticeably, it is a great characteristic of Bauddha āgamas (texts containing Buddha vacanas) that they were compiled and grasped as reasoned and argumentative statements of Buddha. They are different from other agamas in that they are not commandments or instructions. This is why, despite being said by the Omniscient one, they cannot be categorized as Śabda Pramāṇa (verbal testimony). They are, rather, productive of *Parārthānumāna*. Hence, Dignāga's strategy of dividing anumāna (inference) into svārtha and parārtha should be understood as demand of Buddhist conceptual framework to keep Buddha-vacana-s free from the category of Śabda Pramāṇa (verbal testimony). That is to say that reason behind such a division was not just an epistemological demand but had a deeper philosophical demand of Buddhist conceptual framework. Here one might argue that if *Parārthānumāna* is actually the propositional articulation (for the sake of others) of svārthānumāna itself then, are Budddha-vacana-s like svārthānumāna, and not direct knowledge? In reply, it can be maintained that it is well known that Buddha attained enlightenment in the form of direct (sāksāt) knowledge but this direct knowledge is non-categorical (nirvikalpaka) or indeterminate in nature. When non-categorical or indeterminate knowledge is revealed through language it naturally takes the form of categorical / propositional knowledge and comes under the domain of anumāna. Again, svārthānumāna, being prior to parārthānumāna, is not a rule. It is just the case that only argumentative or rational statements can lead to parārthānumāna.

I

Although *svārthānumāna* and *parārthānumāna* both are *anumāna*, still Buddhist logicians differentiated their nature and called first one as epistemic and second as verbal [4, Svārthānumāna Pariccheda-1, p.87].³ Importantly, here the adjectives – epistemic and verbal – should be understood in the sense of 'for the sake of oneself' and 'for the sake of others' respectively and not in the sense of non-categorical and categorical or unverbalizable and verbalizable. When a person attains

inferential knowledge arguing in his own mind it is called *svārthānumāna*, e.g. we come to know (inferring in our mind) that there is fire on the hill while seeing smoke on the hill. But when we wish to convince others in debate or simply want to make others know the same thing, e.g. 'fire is on the hill' or 'hill is fiery' we use syllogistic propositions/statements, it is called *parārthānumāna*. In fact, exteriorization (verbalization) or language-use is the only medium through which we can convey our knowledge to others. *Parārthānumāna* is verbal only in this sense.

Here one might ask that if exteriorization (verbalization) or language-use is the only medium through which we can provide others the same knowledge then perception should also be classified or divided into svārtha and parārtha like anumāna. For instance, when we see a calf running in the field, it is our svārtha-pratyakṣa (perception for one's own sake). But when we are telling others by pointing at calf as 'the calf is running in the field' why should it not be called parārthapratyakṣa? Durveka Miśra [7, p. 89]⁴ has discussed this question in his Dharmottarapradīpa. He holds that the statement 'the calf is running in the field' cannot be called productive of parārthapratyakṣa unlike sentences indicating vyāpti (invariable concomitance) between hetu or linga (reason/middle) and sādhya (probandum); i.e. pakṣadharma of hetu (presence of hetu in pakṣa, i.e. smoke on the hill) are productive of parārthānumāna. For, in this statement the report of auxiliary causal ingredients like senses, light etc. which are productive of perception, are not included. At most, the sentence 'the calf is running in the field' produces the desire to see or visualize in others and orient them towards it. In this way it can be maintained that Indian epistemological tradition has no trend of dividing the means of knowledge other than anumāna into svārtha and parārtha. It is a different matter that such a question has neither been raised in an elaborated manner nor has its epistemological possibilities been properly explored.

In fact, no open deliberation on the possibilities of division of perceptual knowledge into *svārtha and parārtha* along with its possible implications is not a mistake unknowingly done; rather it was a well-considered move. By disclosing this move the epistemological uniqueness of *anumāna* (inference) and through this, the logical departure in Indian epistemology too can be highlighted. Notably, for letting others attain the same knowledge which we have attained, i.e. for making others aware of the same knowledge through exteriorization (verbalization), either resultant aspect of knowledge or causal aspect of knowledge. There is no other way.

Now the nature and status of the causal means of knowledge like perception etc. is such that while transmitting it to others through exteriorization (verbalization) we can transfer only the resultant aspect of knowledge to others. Its causal aspect can neither be made available nor be transmitted to others. But here it is worth noticing that when we make it available to others the resultant aspect of knowledge attained by any means, say through its recitation/utterance, it becomes the object of verbal knowledge for others; and in this way, it is just like śabdapramāṇa (verbal testimony) for them. We see a calf running in the field and when we make available this particular svārtha – pratyakṣa to others by stating 'the calf is running in the field'; it doesn't become parārthapratyakṣa for the listener. Rather, it becomes, in certain circumstances, a means of producing desire in listener to see the object or of being oriented towards the object. But, where there is no circumstance in accordance with producing desire to see, the knowledge occurs through verbal reporting that 'the calf is running in the field'. Hence, if making available the causal aspects of non-inferential casual means of knowledge to others were possible, the division of such prāmāna-s into svārtha and parārtha would have been in proper sense.

But the case of anumāna (inference) is quite different. Its nature and state are not like pratyakṣa and other non-inferential means of knowledge. Really, we use to transmit the causal aspect of our (inferential) knowledge into other's consciousness by verbalizing it in a particular way. When svārthānumāna is recited or reported through syllogisms of pratijñā (proposition), hetu (reason), udāharaṇa (explanatory example), upanaya (application of example) and nigamana (statement of conclusion), it is causal ingredients of that knowledge which is transmitted to other's consciousness through such procedure. Perhaps, such facility is not available with any means of knowledge other than anumāna. This is the reason why the knowledge produced as parārthānumāna is neither a borrowed knowledge nor is knowledge produced out of mere listening

of words; rather it is an independent knowledge (*pramiti*) caused in the consciousness of a person. This is the uniqueness of *anumāna* (inference) and because of which it remains as *anumāna* despite being other-oriented (*partaḥ*), whereas means of knowledge other than *anumāna* when made other-oriented (*partaḥ*), they all, in a sense, are transformed into mere *śabdapramāṇa* (verbal testimony). In this context, it wouldn't be unjustified to make a comment on *śabdapramāṇa* (verbal testimony) that *pauruṣeya* (man-given) *śabdapramāṇa* in itself is nothing but full exteriorization of the trustworthy speech of the resultant aspect of perceptual (*sākṣāt*) knowledge.

Understanding pauruṣeya śabda pramāṇa (man-given verbal testimony) in this way resolves the binding of taking śabda (word) as an extra means of knowledge in any epistemology. This assertion of taking śabda (verbal testimony) as a causal means of knowledge may cause a problem for Cārvaka-s and Vaiśeṣika-s but there is no room for such difficulty in Buddhist epistemology. The reason is that on the one hand, Buddhist notion of pratyakṣa is nirvikalpaka (non-categorical or indeterminate) and therefore its exteriorization (verbalization) is not possible and on the other hand, Buddhist logicians successfully subsume all non-perceptual cognitions (cognitions other than perception) under anumāna (inference).

II

When anumāna is verbalized we state its causal-ingredients in the form of syllogism. There may be a debate about number of premises in a syllogism and it may be increased or decreased as per the suitability of the respective schemes of epistemologies. But it is incontrovertible that each syllogism is in itself a speech-form and its members have an essential inter-relation among them. That is why they collectively become the producer of knowledge as parārthānumāna (inference for others). Hence it can be called knowledge deduced from a logical process, since logic as a mode of knowledge itself is fundamentally a science of speech-forms. Therefore, it can be maintained that logical departure of Indian epistemology begins with parārthānumāna (inference for others). However, it is maintained without implying the superiority or fundamentality of parārthānumāna over svārthānumāna since cognitive as well as certificatory force of knowledge-claims come from svārthānumāna itself which is later shaped in linguistic and logical form in parārthānumāna for the sake of others to attain the same inferential cognition. It is where logic begins. Importantly, a conception of epistemic moral responsibility is attached here with this departure of logic. That is, as the moral condition of exteriorization (verbalization) of resultant knowledge caused by direct perception (śākṣātjñāna) of the trustworthy person (yathābhūtaupdeṣṭā), likewise, the moral condition of exteriorization (verbalization) of resultant knowledge caused by svārthānumāna (inference for oneself), i.e. of transmitting causal aspects of this knowledge through syllogistic propositions into others, is non-blemishing of syllogistic propositions; and the pre-condition of nonblemishing of syllogistic propositions is the validity of svārthānumāna (inference for oneself). Perhaps, it is for this reason that we find an ideal commitment of maintaining the non-blemishing and truthfulness of syllogistic propositions in Indian logico-epistemic traditions. Hardly there is any other section of Indian epistemology wherein such an epistemological commitment of maintaining its non-blemishing and truthfulness has been shown with heroic attempt.

This epistemic moral commitment implicit in the formulation of *parārthānumāna* (inference for others) has been maintained and practiced successfully in both the traditions of logic, the Nyāya and the Buddhist. The *Naiyāyikas* took the approach of *vyāpti* (invariable concomitance) centricity and the Buddhist logicians took the approach of *hetu* (reason/middle) centricity so far as the logical formulation of *parārthānumāna* is concerned. Since the Naiyāyikas' debate on *anumāna* has been *vyāpti*-centric, texts like *Vyāptipañcaka* were written in the tradition and the idea of *bahirvyāpti* was advocated by the Nyāya logicians to a great extent. Not only this, the idea of *hetvābhāsa* (blemish [inappropriately called in English *fallacy*] of reason/inference) was discussed a lot and subsequent revisions were made in the Nyāya tradition. However, the need for discussing the idea of *pakṣābhāsa* and *dṛṣṭāntābhāsa* was not felt. The only reason again was the adoption of *vyāpti*-centric approach to *anumāna*. Also, on account of the fact of inference being *vyāpti*-centric the

object of inference has been *vhanni-sāmānya* (fire-universal) in the Nyāya tradition. Opposite to this, in the Buddhist tradition of logic, from the beginning to the end, the *hetu*-centric approach to inference was adopted and developed. This is why, for the identification of *siddhahetu* (proven reason/middle) texts like *Hetucakra Damaru* and *Hetubindu* were written and the idea of *antarvyāpti* (internal concomitance) were advocated in the Buddhist tradition of logic. Along with this, attempts with full force were made in the tradition to identify *pakṣābhāsa*, *hetvābhāsa* and *dṛṣṭāntābhāsa* [5]. Acceptance of *vhanni-viṣisṭa* (fire-particular) as the object of *anumāna* shows *hetu*-centricity in the Buddhist logic replacing *vyāpti*-centricity of the Nyāya. In fact, there have been these two prominent streams of debate on *anumāna* in Indian logic and epistemology. Both have their own commitments and specialities. They have tremendously enriched Indian epistemology and its systems of logic.

Ш

In Buddhist logic, the main components of hetu-centric anumāna are three types of hetu and three conditions of hetu. The hetu which leads to the indirect inferential knowledge can either be svabhāva-hetu or kārya-hetu or anuplabdhi-hetu. These are three types of hetu. The condition of being good or valid for each of these hetu is that it must be in pakṣa, also in sapakṣa and never be in vipakṣa. These are the three forms or conditions of hetu. Any deviation in these three conditions of hetu is considered by the Buddhist logicians as hetvābhāsa (defects of reason). Therefore, the Buddhist logic which is entirely free from possible states of hetvābhāsa and the statement anumeyethatatulyesadbhāvonāstitāsati has been accepted by them as the right defining features of three-formed *hetu* as stated by Dignāga. This definition or characteristics of *hetu* in its collective form is the most balanced definition of hetu. Durveka Miśra [7, p. 90]⁶ informed that Buddhist scholars eliminated six-fold alternatives by using the method of exclusion of one-term (ekpadaparyudās) and exclusion of two-term (dvipadaparyudās) within this definition adopted this seventh alternative as a true characteristic of three-formed hetu. In Udyotkara's Nvāyavārttika [10, p. 56]⁷ the reference of this method is found as *Hetu Vārttika*. Vācaspati Miśra [8, p. 194] has beautifully explained and analyzed with suitable examples that how in this collective characteristic of hetu as mentioned by Dignaga, the seventh alternative is achieved by eliminating one-one and two-two terms. According to him, this characteristic or definition collectively consists of three terms. Among three terms when one-one term is eliminated three pakṣa-s or conditions are formed and when two-two terms are eliminated again three pakṣa-s conditions are formed. In these six types of paksa there are six-fold exclusionary states of three-fold hetu. When these six-fold states are eliminated the seventh (alternative) characteristic of hetu known as siddhānta- Laksana is manifested, according to Dignaga. How six-fold cases are formed within the *Lakṣaṇa* (definition); how, by eliminating them and taking three terms within characteristic collectively, the seventh variety/case of hetu manifests right nature of three-formed hetu, can be demonstrated as the following:

- 1. If by performing exclusion of two terms (*dvipadaparyudāsa*) only this much is said, *Anumeye Sadbhāvaḥ* then *dharma*, absent in *sapakṣa* and present in *vipakṣa*, will be called *hetu*. e.g. *śabda* (word) is eternal, by being effect.
- 2. If by performing exclusion of two terms (*dvipadaparyudāsa*) only this much is said, *Tattulye Sadbhāvaḥ* then dharma, present in *vipakṣa* and absent in *pakṣa*, will become *hetu*. e.g. *śabda* (word) is eternal, by being the object of eyes, like universal.
- 3. If by performing exclusion of two terms (*dvipadaparyudāsa*) only this much is said, *Nāstiā Asati* then dharma, absent in *pakṣa* and absent in *sapakṣa* too, will become *hetu*. e.g. *śabda* (word) is eternal, by being *asatva*.
- 4. If by performing exclusion of one term (*ekapadaparyudāsa*) only this much is said, *Anumeye Ata Tattulye* then *dharma* present in *vipakṣa* will also be called *hetu*. e.g. *śabda* (word) is non-eternal, by being *prameya* (knowable).

- 5. If by performing exclusion of one term (*ekapadaparyudāsa*) only this much is said, *Anumeye Atha Nāstitā Asati* then *dharma* absent in *sapakṣa* will become *hetu*. e.g. *śabda* (word) is eternal, by being produced (*jātimān*) and heard.
- 6. If by performing exclusion of one term (*ekapadaparyudāsa*) only this much is said, *Tattulye Nāstitā asati* then dharma absent in *pakṣa* will be called *hetu*. e.g. atoms are non-eternal, by being effect.
- 7. If by taking all three terms of definition collectively this is said, Anumeyethtattulyesadbhāvonāstitāsati then dharma, present in paksa, present in sapaksa and absent in vipaksa will be called right hetu. e.g. śabda (word) is non-eternal, by being produced, like a pitcher.

In this way, the *trairūpya* (three-formed) *hetu* is formulated in seven-fold *hetu* (*hetu-saptaka*) and then by eliminating six unwanted and fallacious cases the seventh case is obtained; and this is how, in Buddhist logic, the *siddhānta Lakṣaṇa* of three-formed *hetu* is revealed. This method of seven-fold *hetu* must have been existed and practiced in Buddhist logic as is indicated by Durveka Miśra in his *Dharmottara Pradīpa*. However, he has not given any clear outline of it. Thanks to Vācaspati Miśra who has elaborated and preserved this unique methodology of Buddhist logic in his *Nyāyavārttikatātparyatīka*.

IV

An advanced version of hetu-centric commitment in Buddhist logic is found in Ācārya Dignāga's Hetucakra Damaru (Hetucakra Nirṇaya) or Wheel of reason in which another unique method has been developed to identify sadhetu (good or valid reason) and hetvābhāsa-s by formulating trairūpyahetu (three-formed) into the logic of nine possible arguments or varieties (of cases). It is a small work of Dignāga which has not yet been found in its original form in Sanskrit. Dharmakīrti, while classifying pakṣa-dharma (hetu), has indicated about it as a method of providing an easy understanding of hetuprakaraṇa [3, Parārthānumāna Paricceda-189]. Its translation in Tibetan language is preserved. Based on this translation its Sanskrit restoration by Durgacharan Chatterjee and English translation (by Satishchandra Vidyabhusan and R.S.Y. Chi with some modifications in the text are available [11, p. 298, 1, pp. 266-272, 2, pp. xi-xii]. Some other scholars, Indian and Western, have written on Hetucakra Damaru in English and tried to understand Dignāga's classification of pakṣa-dharma in the light of Aristotelian logical system, predicate logic and class calculus. In the original literature of Indian epistemology and logic, the method and structure of hetucakra Nirṇaya has been preserved, though not entirely but in concise form, in Vācaspati Miśra's Nyāyavārttikatātparyatīka [8, page 289-290]. Signitis is as follows:

Hetu which is dharma of paksa can acquire place in three possible cases, namely its presence, absence and both absence-presence (dvedhābhāva) (i.e. being in a space (part) of sapakṣa and also not being in another space (part) of sapaksa). Again, the same hetu which is the dharma of pakşa can have three cases in vipakşa, namely, presence, absence and absence-presence both (dvedhābhāva) in vipaksa. Now, there can be three classes of each case of hetu among its three cases in sapakṣa and three classes of each case of hetu among its three cases in vipakṣa, thus calculatedly we get three classes of each case, of three-fold hetu i.e. total nine variety of cases. For example – 1) hetu (pakṣa-dharma) present in sapakṣa remains present in vipakṣa, 2) remains absent in vipakṣa, 3) remains present as absence-presence both (dvedhābhāva) in vipakṣa. Again, 4) hetu absent in sapakṣa (as pakṣa-dharma) remains present in vipakṣa, 5) remains absent in vipakṣa, 6) remains present as absence-presence both (dvedhābhāva) in vipaksa. Similarly, 7) hetu (as paksadharma) being absent-present both (dvedhābhāva) in sapaksa remains present in vipaksa, 8) remains absent in *vipakṣa*, 9) remains present in *vipakṣa*, as absent-present both (*dvedhābhāva*). Dignāga, in his *Hetucakra Damaru*, has shown the formulations of *trairūpya* (three-formed) *hetu* in these nine varieties of cases and also demonstrated hetu (reason), Sādhya (probandum) and dṛṣṭānta (instance) of each case. (In Vācaspati's presentation dṛṣṭānta has not been mentioned). It is as follows:

1. The paksa-dharma (hetu) which is present in sapaksa and present in vipaksa too; e.g. śabda (word) is eternal, by being known (prameya), like ether (sapaksa) and pitcher (vipaksa). 2. The pakṣa-dharma (hetu) which is present in sapakṣa but absent in vipakṣa; e.g. śabda (word) is noneternal, by being produced, like pitcher (sapaksa) and ether (vipaksa). 3. The paksa-dharma (hetu) which is present in sapakşa and present in vipakşa as absence-presence both (dvedhābhāva); e.g. śabda (word) is produced through effort, by being non-eternal, like pitcher (sapakṣa) and lightening and ether (vipakşa). 4. The pakşa-dharma (hetu) which is absent in sapakşa but present in vipakşa; e.g. śabda (word) is eternal, by being produced, like ether (sapaksa) and pitcher (vipaksa). 5. The paksa-dharma (hetu) which is absent in sapaksa and absent in vipaksa too; e.g. śabda (word) is eternal, by being heard, like ether (sapakṣa) and pitcher (vipakṣa). 10 6. The pakṣa-dharma (hetu) which is absent in sapaksa and present in vipaksa as absence-presence both (dvedhābhāva); e.g. śabda (word) is eternal, by being produced through effort, like ether (sapaksa) and pitcher and lightening (vipaksa). 7. The paksa-dharma (hetu) which is present in sapaksa as absence-presence both (dvedhābhāva) and present in vipakṣa; e.g. śabda (word) is without effort, as being noneternal, like lightening and ether (sapakṣa) and pitcher (vipakṣa). 8. The pakṣa-dharma (hetu) which is present in sapaksa as absence-presence both (dvedhābhāva) and absent in vipaksa; e.g. śabda (word) is non-eternal as being produced through effort, like pitcher and lightening (sapakṣa) and ether (vipakṣa). 9. The pakṣa-dharma (hetu) which is present in sapakṣa as absence-presence both (dvedhābhāva) and present in vipakṣa too as absence-presence both (dvedhābhāva)- e.g. śabda (word) is eternal, by being untouchable, like ether and atoms (sapaksa) and action or karma (vipakṣa).¹¹

It is noticeable that among above-mentioned nine-fold formulations of *trairūpya* (three-formed) *hetu* only the second and the eighth formulations are the ones which satisfy the conditions of *trairūpya* (three-formed) *hetu*. Therefore, only these two are the right *hetus*. The fourth and the sixth formulations are the examples of *viruddhahetvābhāsa*. The rest five formulations are counted as *aniścita* (uncertain) or *sandigdha* (doubtful) *hetvābhāsa* (blemishes of reason).

V

From what has been analysed and elaborated above, it appears that in Buddhist logic an inherent epistemological strategy of Dignāga was operative behind the classification of anumāna (inference) into svārthānumāna (inference for oneself) and parārthānumāna (inference for others). This is that, how the teachings of Buddha (Buddha-vacana-s) can be freed from the binding of taking them as śabdapramāṇa (verbal testimony); and while subsuming them into parārthānumāna (inference for others) and how it can be maintained that the status and role of Buddha vacana-s is that of assertions generating parārthānumāna. Parārthānumāna, in Buddhist logic, provides the epistemological framework for fulfilling this internal conceptual demand of the tradition. Another epistemological significance of this classification is that a new dimension of exteriorization or verbalization (i.e. transmission) of personal cognition for the sake of others is revealed through it. In other words, the epistemology of exteriorization (verbalization)/transmission of knowledge freed from being śabda pramāna (verbal testimony) are offered by parārthānumāna (inference for others). Such an epistemology of parārthānumāna was developed in two parallel streams in post-Dignāga era. Its development took place, in Buddhist tradition, with hetu-centric commitment and in Nyāya tradition, with vyāpti-centric commitment. It is better not to give any value judgement about them by evaluating one in the light of the other; rather it is better to grasp them as two streams of thought in Indian logic with their inherent intents and conclusions. However, at the end, we would like to emphasize that such hetu-centric epistemology of parārthānumāna is unparallel and it is not like Aristotelian logic or predicate logic or with a logical system having class calculus and therefore unique. In other words, because of its unique nature, it does not have any necessity of its being understood in the light of formal systems of logic and their formulations.

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Notes

^{1. &#}x27;Tāpāchhedācca nikaṣāt suvarņmiva panditeiḥ' [9, verse. 3587].

^{2.} Tataḥprathamamvimarśaḥpunarāgmetasyārthasyadarśanam, Parārthānumānarūpakenājñāmātrake [6, ch. 1/135].

^{3. &#}x27;Parārthānumāna Śabdātmakam, Svārthānumānam tu jñānātmakam' [4, Svārthānumāna Pariccheda-1].

^{4. &#}x27;Nanu ca parārthānumānotpādakvākyavadasti kiñcit vākyam yatparpratyaksopyogi', yatha 'esa kalbho dhāvati' iti vākyam. Atah parārthānumānvatparārtham prtyaksam kim na vyutpādyat iti? Atroccyate paroksārthapratipatteryāsāmagri - lingasya paksadharmatā sādhyavyāptiśca—tadākhyānāt vākyamupcārtah parārthānumānamucvate.

Natu tatra kathañcidngbhāvamātreņ, svasthyāderapi tathā prasañgāt. Idam punaḥ 'ayam kalabḥ' ityādivākyam na pratyasotpatteryā sāmagrīndriyālokādi tadbhidhānāttannimittam bhavattathā vyapadeśamśnute yen vyutpādyatāmpyaśnuvīta. Kim tarhi? kasyacid didrakṣāmātrajananena. Yathā kathañcitparapratykṣotpattāva ngbhāmātreņa tādrupye netrotsave vastuni sannihiteapi kathañcitparāñmukhasya pareṇayadibhimukhīkaraṇam śirsastadapi vacanātmakam parārthapratyakṣam vutpādyituvrutpidyamāpadyet. Etacca kaḥ svasthātmā manasi niveśayet. Kiñc bhavatu tathāvidham vacanam parārtha pratyakṣam [7, p. 89].

^{5.} Often this characteristic of Dignāga is referred from the second chapter of 'Pramānasamuccaya'. In Udyotkara's Nyāyavārttika too it has been called as characteristic of Dignāga's hetu.

^{6. &#}x27;Trirūpalingāditi cācakṣāṇenācāryeṇeikadvipadparyudāsena satpakṣīm pratikṣipya saptampakṣa parigrahaṇe lingasya lakṣaṇamabhipretam prakāśitamiti' [7, p. 90].

^{7.} yadyapi hetuvārtika bruvāņenoktam.... 'saptikāsambhave şatpratişedhādekadvipadaparyudāsen trilakṣaṇo heturiti' [10, p. 56].

^{8.} Vācaspati Miśra has mentioned the same method with which Dignāga formed nine-fold variety of cases of trairūpyahetu. Manorathnandi (in Pramānyārttika, Parārthānumāna Paricceda, 189) has also hinted the same, saying 'Sapakṣesannasandvedhā pakṣadharmaḥ punstridhā' [8, pp. 289-290].

^{9.} Vācaspati Miśra has presented the summary of Hetucakra Damaru as following (Nyāya Vārttika-Tātparya-Tīka, pp. 289-290): Atra Diñāgena -

^{&#}x27;Sapakse sannasan dvedhā paksadharmah punstridhā. Pratyekam sapakse ca sadasaddvividhtvatah.' Iti navapaksadharmān hetutadābhāsān darśayitvā

'Tatra yaḥ sansajātīye dvedhā cāsanstadtyaye. Sa heturviparītosmādviruddhoanyatvaniścitaḥ.' 'Iti hetutadābhāsaviveko darśitaḥ. Tasyārthaḥ. Yaḥ pakṣadharmaḥ sa sapakṣe sannasan dvedhā iti trividhaḥ, sa punarsapakṣe sadasaddvividhtvataḥ pratyekam tridhā bhavatīti, pakṣadharmaḥ sapakṣe san vipakṣe sadasaddvividhatvatstridhā, pakṣadharmaḥ sapakṣe sadasaddvividhatvatstridhā, pakṣadharmaḥ sapakṣe dvedhā sadasaddvividhatvatstridheti.'Atrodāharaṇām, 'Prameyakṛtkānityakṛtśrāvaṇyatnajāḥ. Anityayatnajāsparśā nityatvādiṣu te nav.'nityatvādiṣu sādhyeṣu prameyatvādayo navahetutadābhāsaḥ. Teṣām yathāsaṅkhyam nityatvādīni sādhyānyudāharanti 'Nityānityaprayatnotthmadhyamtrikaśāśvatāḥ, Ayatnānityanityāśca prameyatvādisādhanāḥ.' [8, pp. 289-290].

10. In restored text/translation of Durgacharan Chattarjee and S.C. Vidyabhusan it is read as 'anitya' (impermanent), whereas in the translation of R.S.Y. Chi and description of Vācaspati Miśra it is read as 'nitya' (eternal).

11. In restored text of Durgacharan Chattarjee it is read as 'amūrta' (incorporeal) and Randell and S.C. Vidyabhusan have put it as 'sparśaja' (touchable). R.S.Y. Chi has put it as 'amūrta' (incorporeal) and Vācaspati Miśra as 'asparśaja' (untouchable).