The Five Aggregates Understanding Theravada Psychology and Soteriology



Mathieu Boisvert



EDITIONS SR

Volume 17

The Five Aggregates Understanding Theravāda Psychology and Soteriology

Mathieu Boisvert

Published for the Canadian Corporation for Studies in Religion / Corporation Canadienne des Sciences Religieuses by Wilfrid Laurier University Press

Canadian Cataloguing in Publication Data

Boisvert, Mathieu, 1963-

The five aggregates: understanding Theravada psychology and soteriology

(Editions SR; 17)
Includes bibliographical references and index.
ISBN 0-88920-257-5

Theravāda Buddhism - Doctrines.
 Theravāda Buddhism - Psychology.
 Salvation (Buddhism).

I. Canadian Corporation for Studies in Religion.

II. Title. III. Series.

BO7235,B65 1995

294.3′91

C95-932239-6

© 1995 Canadian Corporation for Studies in Religion / Corporation Canadienne des Sciences Religieuses

Cover design by Leslie Macredie



Printed in Canada

The Five Aggregates: Understanding Theravada Psychology and Soteriology has been produced from a manuscript supplied in camera-ready form by the author.

All rights reserved. No part of this work covered by the copyrights hereon may be reproduced or used in any form or by any means—graphic, electronic or mechanical—without the prior written permission of the publisher. Any request for photocopying, recording, taping or reproducing in information storage and retrieval systems of any part of this book shall be directed in writing to the Canadian Reprography Collective, 214 King Street West, Suite 312, Toronto, Ontario M5H 3S6.

Order from:

WILFRID LAURIER UNIVERSITY PRESS Waterloo, Ontario, Canada N2L 3C5

Table of Contents

	List of Tables	V
	Acknowledgements	vii
	Foreword	ix
	Abbreviations	хi
	Introduction	1
1.	The Concept of Khandha	15
	Etymology of the Term Khandha	16
	The Five Aggregates and the Dhammacakkappavattana-	
	sutta	17
	Pañcakkhandhā and Pañcupādānakkhandhā	20
2.	The Rūpakkhandha	31
	The Four Primary Material Elements (Mahābhūta)	34
	The Secondary Material Elements (Upādārūpa)	37
	The Three Divisions of Matter	40
	Further Classifications of Matter	43
	Implications of the Previous Classifications	46
	Correlation between the Rūpakkhandha and the	
	Paţiccasamuppāda	48
3.	The Vedanäkkhandha	51
	The Eradication of Vedanā	53
	The State of Saññāvedayitanirodha	57
	The State of Vedanākkhaya	69
	Vedanā as Bifurcation Point	71
	Wholesome and Unwholesome Vedanā	73
4.	The Saññākkhandha	77
	Unwholesome Saññā	79
	Wholesome Saññā	84
	Wholesome Saññā and the Saññākkhandha	86

	Correlation between Saññā and the Pațiccasamuppāda	87
5.	The Sankhārakkhandha	91
	Polysemy of the Term Sankhāra	91
	Sankhāra as Sankhata	93
	Sankhāra as Paccaya	95
	Sankhāra Used in the Compound Ayusankhāra	98
	Sankhāra Used in the Compounds Asankhāra and	
	Sasankhāra	99
	General Meaning of the Term Sankhāra	102
	The Sankhārakkhandha	105
	Correlation between the Sankhārakkhandha and the	
	Paţiccasamuppāda	109
б.	The Viññāṇakkhandha	113
	The Function of Viññāṇa	116
	Viññāṇa and Mano	119
	Viññaṇa as Rebirth and Death Consciousness	123
	Correlation between Viññāṇa and the	
	Paṭiccasamuppāda	124
7.	Interrelation of the Aggregates	127
	The Position of Viññāṇa in the Enumeration	
	of the <i>Pañcakkhandhā</i>	128
	Paṭiccasamuppāda	130
	Inclusion of Saññā in the Pațiccasamuppāda Formula	136
	Vipassanā and the Pañcakkhandhā	142
	Conclusion	147
	Glossary	151
	Bibliography	155
	Index	163

List of Tables

	_	_
Tа	h	le

1.	The Twelve Links of the Chain of Dependent Origination	. 7
2.	The Three Temporal Divisions of the Paţiccasamuppāda	10
3.	The Twenty-three Secondary Elements (upādārūpa)	39
4.	The External Material Elements	44
5.	Classification of the Twenty-seven Material Elements	45
6.	The Fifty Elements of Sankhāra	107
7.	The Paţiccasamuppāda at a Glance	111
8.	Mano and Viññāṇa	122
9.	The Wheel of the Five Aggregates	129
10.	The Paţiccasamuppāda from a Mind and Matter Perspective	131
11.	The Emergence of Sensation (Vedanā)	138
12.	Correlation between the Paticcasamuppāda	142

This page intentionally left blank

Acknowledgements

Although most books are attributed to one single author, various individuals and many factors contribute to the development of any manuscript. As the theory of dependent origination suggests, there is no initial cause (or authorship), but merely a succession of inter-dependent events that are responsible for what comes into being. As an author, I am simply one of these necessary conditions, and I truly wish to express my gratitude to all those who have contributed directly or indirectly to my work.

More especially, I wish to thank my parents and my whole family who offered me the emotional and financial support needed to undergo all these years of study. Venerable Jāgara and S.N. Goenka also played a crucial role in providing the inspiration needed to pursue my objective. Richard Hayes' humble yet apposite comments proved to be pivotal in the elaboration of my argumentation, and in encouraging me to persevere. I am further indebted to A.K. Warder and Ravindra Panth, both of whom showed an extreme amount of patience in teaching me Pāli. My style and rhetoric have also been reviewed by a legion of editors, starting with Diana Allen, Raynald Prévèreau, Stephen Jones, Philip Moscovitch and Lisa Kosuta. The writing of this book would not have been possible without the help of many other individuals (and circumstances), for which I am extremely grateful.

This book has been published with the help of a grant from the Canadian Federation for the Humanities, using funds provided by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada. A grant in aid of publication was also provided by the *Comité des publications* of Université du Québec à Montréal.

This page intentionally left blank

Foreword

In Buddhist philosophy, the theory of the five aggregates ($pa\bar{n}cakkhandh\bar{a}$) of realities, or real occurrences known as "principles" (dhamma), is the analysis of what elsewhere is often called the "problem" of matter and mind. In Buddhism, to separate these would be to produce a dilemma like the familiar one of "body" and "soul" (are they the same or different?). But the resolution is different. Whereas the "soul," according to Buddhism, is a non-entity and the problem therefore meaningless, consciousness is as real as matter. The tradition emphasizes that consciousness is inseparably linked to matter: there can be no consciousness without a body; although there could be a body without consciousness, it would not be sentient.

Matter and consciousness are two of the "aggregates"; the other three link them, or rather show them inseparably bound together in a living being. These are, to use Boisvert's translations, "sensation" (vedanā, variously translated as "experience," "feeling," etc.), "recognition" (saññā or "perception") and "karmic activities" (sankhāra, "forces," "volition," etc.). Sensation — being either pleasant, unpleasant or neutral — can occur only in a body which is conscious. Similarly, recognition occurs solely when consciousness is aware of sensations. The karmic activities, sometimes restricted to volition (cetanā), were gradually elaborated to include about fifty principles, from "contact" (phassa, the combination of a sense organ, its object and consciousness), energy and greed to understanding, benevolence, compassion and attention.

In what are supposed by many to be the earliest Buddhist texts, the five aggregates are taken for granted, as if pre-Buddhist thought generally accepted them. Boisvert argues that they are a theory intrinsic to Buddhism and extracts from the texts the passages needed to explain them and show that these five, in this order, are required to describe and understand the process of "transmigration" (or "rebirth"). The greater part of the book (chaps. 2 to 6) clarifies the nature of the individual aggregates. "Recognition" has usually been found the most obscure, to the point of elision in translation. But Boisvert shows that this aggregate is central to the transmigration process since it links desire (tanhā, "craving") to sensation Release (nibbāna) requires that recognition be replaced by understanding (paññā). The reactions of the

aggregates with the external world are clarified by their interaction with each other. The ultimate argument relates the aggregates to conditioned origination (paticcasamuppāda), the essentially Buddhist description of transmigration. Through this analysis the proper sequence of the aggregates is established.

Boisvert has been able to use BUDSIR—the Bangkok Mahidol University Databank of 1989—to search exhaustively for contexts in Pāļi literature. It is to be hoped that he will search further and clarify more Buddhist terminology.

A.K. Warder Toronto

Abbreviations

References to primary sources are given by the abbreviation of the source used, followed by a lower-case Roman numeral indicating the volume number and an Arabic number indicating the page. For example, a quotation from the third volume of the *Dīghanikāya*, p. 238 would be listed as **D. iii, 238**.

A. Anguttaranikāya

AA. Anguttaranikāya commentary (Manorathapūranī)

AbhS. Abhidhammattasa ngaha

AbhA. Commentary on the Abhidhamma excluding the

Dhammasangani and the Vibhanga (Pañcappakara-

natthakathā)

AbhK. Abhidharmakośa

It. Itivuttaka Ud. Udāna

Kvu. Kathāvatthu
Th. Thera-Therigāthā
D. Dīehanikāva

DA. Dīghanikāya commentary (Sumangalavilāsinī)

Dh. Dhammapada

DhA. Dhammapada commentary

Dhs. Dhammasangani

DhsA. Dhammasangani commentary (Atthasālinī)

Nid. Niddesa (Mahā)
Net. Nettipakaraṇa
Ps. Patisambhidāmagga

PsA. Patisambhidāmagga commentary

Pug. Puggalapaññatti M. Majjhimanikāya

MA. Majjhimanikāya commentary (Papañcasūdanī)

Mil. Milindapañhapāli

Ymk. Yamaka

Vin. Vinayapi taka Vih. Vibhanga

VbhA. Vibhanga commentary (Sammohavinodanī)

Vsm. Visuddhimagga

xii The Five Aggregates

S. Samyuttanikāya

SA. Samyuttanikāya commentary (Sāratthappakāsinī)

Sn. Suttanipāta

SnA. Suttanipāta commentary

Introduction

The following study presents a detailed analysis of each of the five aggregates (pañcakhandhā); its primary intention is to establish how the Theravada tradition views their interaction. It therefore attempts to clarify the fundamentals of Buddhist psychology by analyzing one of the earliest classifications of the conditioned phenomena (sankhatadhamma)—the five aggregates—investigating the role that these aggregates play in the cognitive process and explaining how they chain us to the wheel of misery. Once the individual meaning of each of the five aggregates is conceptualized, we try to understand the relation that exists between each of them. This explains the reason for the nomenclature of the five aggregates in the specific order found in canonical literature. Evidence against both Mrs. Rhys Davids' view that "the primary reason for the khandha-division was practical ... and not scientific" and Th. Stcherbatsky's opinion that the order in which the aggregates appear is merely "a gradual progress from coarseness to subtleness" is also presented. By demonstrating that the customary taxonomy hints at a psycho-physical process present in every individual. I have clarified the significance of the traditional order of the five aggregates, and this significance is far greater than Stcherbatsky suggested. By using computer technology, I feel that the results of this

¹ C.A.F. Rhys Davids, trans., Buddhist Psychology: A Buddhist Manual of Psychological Ethics. A Translation of the Dhammasangani from the Abhidharmapitaka (Delhi: Oriental Books Reprint Corporation, 1975), p. 55.

² Th. Stcherbatsky, The Central Conception of Buddhism and the Meaning of the Word "Dharma" (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1970), p. 19.

By using a databank containing the whole Pāli canon [BUDSIR databank, designed by Mahidol University, Bangkok, 1989], I was able to make a thorough contextual analysis of the concept of pañcakkhandhā and of each of its members. This task was made possible by the Vipassanā Research Institute, Igatpuri, India, who allowed me to use their databank. Without this tool, I could have never accomplished what I had set out to do. Using "masks" [a "mask" is used in computerized searches to find variations on a word or string of characters; for example, searching for "*khandh*" will find "khandhā," "khandhānam," "pañcakkhandhā," "rūpakkhandhassa," etc.], I searched for every occurrence of the word khandha, standing on its own, in whatever declensions it appeared, or as a member of a compound—thus incorporating the more specific term of pañcakkhandhā. The same procedure was followed with each of the five aggregates. Whenever a reference was found, it was stored on disk with

2

research are exhaustive in the sense that they take into consideration the entire Pāli canon. These results not only explain the psycho-physical workings of the individual, but also shed light on the mental process which, according to the Pāli sutta (texts known as the discourses of the Buddha), constitutes the grounds of transmigration.

The aim of this study is not to discover what the Buddha actually said about the five aggregates, nor what his intended meaning was, for it is impossible to state with conviction that any particular texts were spoken by the Buddha himself. Although many scholars have attempted to offer a chronological classification of various canonical texts, a consensus has not been reached. For example, H. Saddhatissa claims that the Suttanipāta, a work mainly containing verses, "is one of the oldest collections of Buddhist discourses in the Pali canon,"4 while A.K. Warder is of the view that prose texts of the Dīghanikāya "are more authentic in their preservation of the utterances and dialogues of the Buddha." Moreover, it is very likely that advances in linguistics will raise questions about the originality of Pali texts. A definitive statement as to the originality of Pali canonical texts does not lie around the corner! My concern here is not so much with what the Buddha said, but rather with the position that the Theravada tradition supports. This school, which has regulated the lives and beliefs of millions of people for over two millennia, has elaborated an intricate scholastic and commentarial tradition. Undoubtedly, there is a huge chronological and geographical gap between the time the Buddha uttered his discourses (the fifth and sixth centuries B.C.E., in North India), and when they were written down for the first time (most probably the first century B.C.E., in Sri Lanka). It is highly probable that either certain elements present in the "original" canon were "forgotten," or that passages not

the actual paragraph in which the word occurred. Although many of these references were repetitions, the amount of data collected was enormous: more than seven megabytes. I then proceeded to catalogue these passages according to their implications. Most of the references only defined the five aggregates (pañcakkhandhā) as matter (rūpa), sensation (vedanā), recognition (sañkāa), karmic activity (sankhāra) and consciousness (viñnāṇa). Many others simply stated that the five aggregates—or any of them—are transient, or devoid of "self." Passages were then compiled and, through a detailed analysis, I was able to frame a structure that circumscribed the meaning and the function of each of these aggregates.

⁴ H. Saddhatissa, trans., The Suttanipāta (London: Curzon Press, 1985); note on back cover.

⁵ A.K. Warder, Introduction to Pali (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1980), p. viii.

uttered by the Buddha himself were "remembered." Another seven centuries separate the actual writing down of the canon and the elaboration of most commentaries. Again, this gap offers more grounds for those arguing that the exegetical literature is not necessarily consistent with "original" Buddhism. Since "original" Buddhism is a tradition that we have not yet discovered, we cannot prove whether the exegetical literature is or is not consistent with the primeval tradition.

We can postulate, however, that since the commentarial tradition was incorporated within the Theravāda tradition itself, the latter must have insured that the former was consistent with every aspect of its own theory. The Pāli sutta, the abhidhamma (the scholastic literature), and Buddhaghosa's commentaries have all been accepted as integral parts of the Theravāda tradition. Consequently, I have assumed that the Theravāda tradition itself must have assured the integrity of a text before accepting it. This study of the five aggregates will be based on the whole of the Pāli canonical literature, and will refer to the commentaries whenever certain canonical passages seem unclear. This book will therefore analyze the five aggregates within the Theravāda tradition as a whole.

According to Buddhist texts, the entire universe, including the individual, is made up of different phenomena (dhamma). Although all these phenomena are reduced to transitory entities by the theories of impermanence (anicca) and selflessness (anatta), Buddhism classifies them into different categories in order to explain the conventionally accepted concept of person. The three concepts of bases (āyatana), elements (dhātu), and aggregates (khandha) constitute different schemes for classifying the various phenomena. Although the aggregates are nothing but a "convenient fiction," the Buddha nevertheless made frequent use of the aggregate scheme when asked to explain the

In his Buddhist Dictionary, Nyānātiloka emphatically remarked that these five aggregates "merely form an abstract classification by the Buddha, but that they as such ... have no existence. [It is] Due to a lack of understanding ... that the five Khandhas are often conceived as too compact, too substantial, so to speak, as more or less permanent entities, whereas in reality, as already stated, they as such, never exist; and even their representatives have only an evanescent existence" (Nyānātiloka, Buddhist Dictionary [Colombo: Frewin, 1956] p. 77). These five aggregates are therefore classified under the heading of conventional truth (sammutisacca or vohārasacca) as opposed to "truth in the highest sense" (paramatthasacca) to which the theory of dependent origination (paticcasamuppāda) belongs. The Milindapañha clarifies the distinction between these two levels of truth (Mil. 160).

elements at work in the individual. According to this scheme, what we conventionally call a "person" can be understood in terms of five aggregates, the sum of which must not be mistaken for a permanent entity since beings are nothing but an amalgam of ever-changing phenomena. According to the Theravada sutta literature, the human personality is composed solely of the five aggregates, and to perceive any of these as the self leads to a particular kind of wrong view known as "the view that the body is existing [permanently]" (sakkāyadiṭṭhi).8 If the entire personality is confined within these five aggregates, the Buddhist theory of perception—and of "misperception" as well—should become clear through an understanding of their interrelation.

The five aggregates are variously translated as matter or form (rūpa); sensation, emotion or feeling (vedanā); recognition or perception (saññā); karmic activity, formation, or force (sankhāra); and consciousness (viññāna). Nevertheless, I believe that to rely solely on these standard translations is ultimately misleading, primarily because the concepts that some of these terms represent are heavily loaded with connotations inapplicable to the textual context in which the actual Buddhist aggregates were initially defined. For example, the term vedanā can be restricted neither to physical sensations nor to mental emotions or feelings, since the Pali tradition itself informs us that vedanā can arise both on the body and in the mind.9 Moreover, the Samyuttanikāva states that one should "dwell observing the impermanence of pleasant sensations on the body,"10 thus implying that the term vedanā refers not only to an emotional "feeling," as Mrs. Rhys Davids has put forward, but also to a physical sensation occurring on the body. However, other passages such as "all mental objects culminate (flow) into vedanā" stress the fact that vedanā is not a mere physical element, since it is influenced by mental contents. Yet

⁷ M. i, 229

⁸ M. i, 130, also M. i, 140-41 and A. ii, 128.

As we will see in Chapter 3, the Samyuttanikāya presents a fivefold classification of the concept of vedanā, where the first two divisions (sukhindriyā and dukkhindriyā) refer to pleasant and unpleasant physical vedanā, the third and fourth (somanassindriyā and domanassindriyā) are pleasant and unpleasant mental vedanā, and finally, the fifth (upekkindriyā) consists of neither pleasant nor unpleasant physical and mental vedanā (S. v. 210).

¹⁰ So kāye ca sukhāya ca vedanāya aniccānupassī viharati (S. iv, 211).

¹¹ Vedanāsamosaranā sabbe dhammā (A. iv, 339).

most scholars adopt a certain translation for vedanā without first clarifying this nuance, thus leading the reader to think that vedanā is solely either physical or mental.

This confusion may be partially due to the fact that Sanskrit and Pāli sources, in most instances, fail to provide descriptive definitions of the five aggregates, let alone any treatment of their interrelationship. It is essential, therefore, to establish the deeper meaning of each of these elements, and then to explain their complex interaction. Since the Pāli literature illustrates these concepts with words of the same etymology, determining their meaning is more difficult than if they were paraphrased. For example, the Majjhimanikāya explains the meaning of vedanā thus: "it is called 'sensation' because it 'senses.' "12 This problem is solved by discerning a definition of each aggregate through a systematic contextual analysis of every reference found in the Theravāda canon. By amalgamating all the passages where each of the aggregates is mentioned, I clarify their meanings and their implications to Buddhist doctrine

Another problem arising from the study of the aggregate theory is whether the order of their nomenclature is purely random or has a certain significance. The fact that the five aggregates are always presented in the same order throughout Pali literature does not necessarily imply that anything significant can be deduced from this very order. The Pali canon was not written down until three or four centuries after the death of the Buddha and certain mnemonic devices had to be elaborated to facilitate its memorization. The sequence, then, may have become standard primarily as a pedagogical means to ease memorization. As noted above, Rhys Davids and Stcherbatsky wondered why this particular order was chosen rather than another, and they each put forward a different explanation. Rhys Davids suggested that the order of the aggregates was purely practical and not scientific; but she did not elaborate on what she meant by "practical." Stcherbatsky, on the other hand, hypothesized that the order reflects a gradual process from coarseness to subtlety. While it is true that the order, starting with "matter" and ending with "consciousness," seems to reflect this gradual process, we will see that the "material" aggregate possesses elements which stand on the same level of subtlety as the "consciousness"

¹² Vedeti vedetīti kho āvuso, tasmā vedanā ti vuccati (M. i, 293).

aggregate.¹³ My intention, however, is not to refute Stcherbatsky's argument, but to show that the reason for the particular order of the aggregates is grounded in something much more important than this "gradual process." In fact, I show that there was an underlying reason for choosing this particular order: the nomenclature of these five aggregates had to be in total accord with the theory of dependent origination (paticcasamuppāda; literally "arising on the ground of a preceding cause"). Although the theory of dependent origination is traditionally approached as the highest truth, and the five aggregates as conventional truth, I present evidence that these levels of truth are not merely juxtaposable, but represent different expressions of the same process.

The paticcasamuppāda could very well be considered the common denominator of all the Buddhist traditions throughout the world, whether Theravāda, Mahāyāna or Vajrayāna. The canonical texts of the Theravāda tradition portray Bhikkhu Sāriputta as saying that "whoever understands the paticcasamuppāda understands the teaching of the Buddha, and whoever understands the teaching of the Buddha understands the paticcasamuppāda." In the Vajrayāna tradition, a similar view is expressed by the present Dalai Lama who states that the fundamental precept of Buddhism is this law of dependent origination. Regardless of the tradition, we can clearly see the importance attributed to this theory. The paticcasamuppāda seems to constitute a fundamental tenet of Buddhism, indispensable for realizing and understanding the implications of Buddhist philosophy.

The theory of dependent origination is usually divided into twelve links (nidāna), each of which conditions the following one. The order presented below, where one link conditions the next (for example: "on account of ignorance, karmic activities arise": avijjāpaccayā sankhārā), is traditionally referred to as the "normal" order

¹³ Such elements are included in the list of secondary material elements (upādārūpa) on p. 39.

¹⁴ After this statement, an implicit correlation between the paticcasamuppāda and the five aggregates is established: Yo paticcasamuppādam passati so dhammam passati, yo dhammam passati so paticcasamuppādam passatīti. Paticcasamuppannā kho pan' ime yadidam pañcupādānakkhandhā. "In fact, the five clinging-aggregates are dependently-arisen" (M. i, 190-91).

¹⁵ Gyatso, Tenzin, Freedom in Exile: The Autobiography of the Dalai Lama (New York: Harper Collins, 1990), p. 10.

(anuloma). ¹⁶ The paticcasamuppāda is also often presented in reverse order (patiloma), which simply indicates that if one link is eradicated, the next is also eradicated. ¹⁷

Table 1
The Twelve Links of the Chain of Dependent Origination

	4	
1.	Ignorance	(avijjā)
2.	Karmic activities	(sankhāra)
3.	Consciousness	(viññāṇa)
4.	Mind and matter	(nāmarūpa)
5.	Six sense-doors	(sa ļāyatanā)
6.	Contact	(phassa)
7.	Sensation	(vedanā)
8.	Craving	(taṇhā)
9.	Clinging	(upādāna)
10.	Becoming	(bhava)
11.	Birth secret Art 1	(jāti)
12 .	Old age, death,	(jaramaraṇa,)

The chain of dependent origination is often approached as a causal theory. We usually speak of causality when we say "there being this, there appears that." Yet we have to stress that a substantial cause from which the effect was generated cannot be deduced from the paticcasamuppāda. As Stcherbatsky remarked:

In this sense the logical law of Causation is the reverse of the real law of Causation. A cause is not a reason. The cause is not a sufficient reason for predicating (or predicting) the effect. But the effect is a sufficient reason for affirming apodictically the preceding existence of its cause.¹⁸

¹⁶ Literally [combing] "in the direction of the hair."

¹⁷ The usual wording of this reverse order would run thus: "From the thorough eradication of ignorance, karmic activities are eradicated." Avijjāya tveva asesavirāganirodhā sankhāranirodho.

¹⁸ Th. Stcherbatsky, Buddhist Logic (New York: Dover Publications, 1962), 1:311.

Each of the links of the chain of dependent origination is, therefore, necessary for the emergence of the next element; yet none can definitely be perceived as a cause sufficient to engender the following link.

Since this complex chain of causation is always said to give rise to suffering, 19 the deactivation of any of the twelve links is bound to break the causal process and to eliminate suffering. According to the Pāli canon, both the chain of dependent origination and the five aggregates are responsible for suffering (dukkha). The Buddha stated repeatedly that the root of all suffering lies in the five clingingaggregates. 20 which represent the psycho-physical constituents of the individual. This is further evidenced by the Mahāvagga of the Anguttaranikāya, 21 where an intimate relation between the five aggregates and the theory of dependent origination is established.²² In this specific discourse, a description of the four noble truths is offered in terms of the paticcasamuppāda. Therein, the first noble truth follows the standard canonical rendering and ends with the following phrase: "in short, the five clinging-aggregates are suffering."23 Yet the description of the two following truths does not comply with the paradigmatic rendition. Instead, they are depicted in terms of the theory of dependent origination. The noble truth concerned with the arising of suffering is simply explained by the paticcasamuppāda in normal order, while the noble truth of cessation of suffering is defined by the paticcasamuppāda in reverse order. It is clear, then, that the paticcasamuppāda, traditionally seen as an explanation for the arising and the eradication of suffering, is intimately related to the theory of the five aggregates.

The paticcasamuppāda is a theory that establishes the connectedness of all the phenomena. Since it deals with all the phenomena of existence, it becomes evident that the different schemes

^{19 &}quot;This [the paticcasamuppāda] is the origin of the entire mass of suffering." Evam etassa kevalassa dukkhakhandhassa samudayo hoti.

²⁰ The "clinging-aggregates" (upādānakkhandhā) are basically the same as the "five aggregates" except that the former are responsible for binding the individual to the cycle of birth, death and rebirth (samsāra). I shed more light on the nuances between the two concepts on p. 20 and following).

²¹ A. i, 176-77.

²² Étienne Lamotte has already noted this relation (Étienne Lamotte, "Conditioned Co-Production and Supreme Enlightenment," in O.H. de A. Wijesekera, ed., Buddhist Studies in Honour of Walpola Rahula [London: Gordon Fraser, 1980], p. 119).

^{23 ...} sankhittena pañc'upādānakkhandhā dukkhā (A. i. 177).

used to classify them can be traced within the paticcasamuppāda itself. The five aggregates are merely a classification of the various phenomena of existence, and this taxonomy ought to be applicable to the paticcasamuppāda as well. I therefore offer evidence supporting the correlation between the five aggregates and the links of the chain of dependent origination; the establishment of such a relationship will clarify the meaningfulness of the traditional nomenclature of the five aggregates.

The Theravada tradition holds that certain links of the chain of causation are limited either to the past, present or future. In other words, as exemplified in Table 2. different links constitute different temporal divisions.²⁴ Although this chronological division is not expressed explicitly in the Pali canonical literature itself, it is supported by Anuruddha, 25 and is taken for granted by the tradition. 26 What is unclear, however, is the reason for clear delineation and theoretical distinction among these three divisions. Since the past is nothing but the aging of the present, and the present the actualization of the future. each temporal division has to be seen as the paraphrasing of, or a different perspective on, the two other divisions. Furthermore, Étienne Lamotte, commenting on a diagram similar to the one below, stressed that "Le tableau dressé ici se refère à un groupe de trois existences découpé [sic] artificiellement dans la suite infinie des existences s'intégrant dans un Samsāra qui n'a pas eu de commencement."27 Since these divisions are merely arbitrary, the links of the paticcasamuppāda that were classified under a certain time period could have been easily classified under another. What comes under "past" could have been under "future" or "present," and vice versa. Therefore, it becomes evident that elements belonging to a specific time period represent a process similar to the one reflected by the elements

²⁴ Tattha tayo addhā ... Katham? Avijjā samkhārā atīto addhā jāti-jarā-maranam anāgato addhā majjhe at tha paccuppanno addhā ti tayo addhā. Anuruddha, "Abhidhammatthasangaha" (J.P.T.S., 1884, 1-46), p. 36. "There are three periods. Ignorance and karmic activities belong to the past; birth, old-age and death belong to the future and the middle eight [links] belong to the present."

²⁵ As Mrs. Rhys Davids pointed out in her revised edition of Shwe Zan Aung's translation of the Abhidhammatthasangaha (Shwe Zan Aung, trans., Compendium of Philosophy: Abhidhammatthasangaha [London: P.T.S., 1967], p. 189, n. 4).

²⁶ See Nyānātiloka, Buddhist Dictionary, p. 120.

²⁷ Étienne Lamotte, Histoire du bouddhisme indien: des origines à l'ère Saka (Louvain: Institut Orientaliste, 1967), p. 43.

10

belonging to another. Ignorance and karmic activities operate on the same principles as birth and old age and death, and as the eight middle links. The physical and psychological elements at work in the individual remain the same whether in the past, present or future. Stated differently, the theory of dependent origination could run thus: within one lifespan (links 11-12; birth and old age and death), one keeps generating karmic activities (link 2) because of ignorance (link 1), and this generation of karmic activities due to ignorance is more easily understandable by examining the process described by the eight middle links.

Table 2
The Three Temporal Divisions of the Paticcasamuppāda

Past	1. Avijjā (Ignorance)
	2. Sankhāra (Karmic activities)
	3. Viññāṇa (Consciousness)
	4. Nāmarūpa (Mind & Matter)
	5. Saļāyatanā (Six sense-doors)
	6. Phassa (Contact)
Present	7. Vedanā (Sensation)
	8. Tanhā (Craving)
	9. Upādāna (Clinging)
	10. Bhava (Becoming)
Future	11. Jāti (Birth; Rebirth)
	12. Jarāmaraņa (Old age and death)

Equally striking is that the division of the chain of causation into three time periods implies the presence of the five aggregates in each of these periods, for individuals (themselves composed of the five aggregates) must experience this process within each of the periods.²⁸

²⁸ This perspective was already put forward by Vasubandhu in his Abhidharmakośa: Ya esa skandhasantāno janmatrayāvastha upadis tah | sa pratityasamutpādo dvādaśāngas trikāndakah | pūrvāparāntayor dve dve madhye 's tau paripūrinah | | (AbhK. iii, 20). Louis de La Vallée Poussin has translated this passage as follows: "Cette série de

Although the interrelation between the temporal divisions and the working of the aggregates within each of the divisions could be demonstrated, my research has focussed on the middle division (i.e., links three to ten), for it is the most detailed temporal division and the one wherein the process is most readily observable. Through this study, I am able to clearly establish the correlation between Buddhist soteriology and psychology, depicted respectively by the paticca-samuppāda and the five aggregates. By correlating some of the links of the chain of dependent origination with the five aggregates, it becomes clear that these links share the same order as the traditional nomenclature of the five aggregates, and that the latter fulfill the same function as the links of the paticcasamuppāda.

No attempt has ever been made before to explicitly connect both doctrines, and to state which links of the theory of dependent origination refer to which particular aggregate. In fact, scholarly research on the five aggregates in general is almost nonexistent.²⁹ Although many works have been published on Buddhist psychology, very few deal with the Theravada tradition. While the mental process, in terms of the five aggregates, is a key aspect of Buddhism, it has never been thoroughly analyzed, nor been given more than the slightest academic attention. Most works on Buddhism enumerate the five aggregates and only offer a short description for each of them. David Kalupahana only devotes four continuous pages to the discussion of the five aggregates in his treatise entitled *The Principles of Buddhist Psychology*. Étienne Lamotte (*Histoire du bouddhisme indien*), A.K. Warder (*Indian Buddhism*), Steven Collins (*Selfless Persons*) and E.R.

skandhas que nous avons vu se développer dans trois existences, c'est le Pratītyasamutpāda qui a douze membres en trois parties, deux pour la première, deux pour la troisième, huit pour celle du milieu" (Louis de La Vallée Poussin, L'Abhidharmakośa de Vasubandhu [Bruxelles: Institut Belge des Hautes Études Chinoises, 1980], 2:60-61).

Beside H.V. Guenther's Philosophy and Psychology in the Abhidharma (Delhi: Motilal Barnarsidass, 1974); Ecstatic Spontaneity (Berkeley: Asian Humanities Press, 1993); and Wholeness Lost and Wholeness Regained (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1994); E.R. Sarathchandra's Buddhist Theory of Perception (Colombo: Ceylon University Press, 1958); Anagarika Govinda's The Psychological Attitude of Early Buddhist Philosophy (London: Rider and Company, 1961); R.N. Reat, Origins of Indian Psychology (Berkeley: Asian Humanities Press, 1990); and the first part of David Kalupahana's The Principles of Buddhist Psychology (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1987), the literature dealing with this precise subject is virtually non-existent.

Sarathchandra (Buddhist Theory of Perception) only mention them in passing. For example, Lamotte only explains succinctly the transitory and selfless character of these five aggregates without even trying to explain the role they fulfill.³⁰ The most extensive studies on the five aggregates so far are those of Bhikkhu Bodhi, 31 Jui-Liang Chang 32 and Rupert M. Gethin, 33 However none of these articles contains a rigorous examination of the nature and interrelation of each of the aggregates. Most of Gethin's and Bodhi's articles are devoted to the relation between the aggregates and the four noble truths and the difference between khandha and upādānakkhandha, whereas Jui-Liang Chang is primarily concerned with correlating the concepts of khandha. bases (āyatana) and elements (dhātu). This absence constitutes a gaping hole in the field of Buddhist studies, for although the five aggregates are seen as responsible for the arising of suffering, no academic research has established how the function of each of these aggregates chains beings to the cycle of birth, death and rebirth. I am convinced that without a thorough understanding of the five aggregates, we cannot grasp the liberation process at work within the individual, who is, after all, nothing but an amalgam of the five aggregates.

The first step, before proceeding to establish the function of each of the five aggregates, is to clarify what is meant by the Pāli concept of khandha and to describe the connotations of this concept at the time of the Buddha. The first chapter therefore focusses on explaining the concept of khandha itself and on contextualizing this conception within the wider Indian and Buddhist frameworks. It also clarifies the distinction between the "five clinging-aggregates" (pañcupādāna-kkhandhā) and the "bare" five aggregates (pañcakkhandhā). The five following chapters discuss each of the aggregates and hint at the place they could occupy among the eight middle links of the paticca-samuppāda. I follow the traditional order of nomenclature, starting with matter (rūpa) and ending with consciousness (viññāna), for my intention is also to show that this particular order reflects the eight middle links

³⁰ Lamotte, Histoire du bouddhisme indien, p. 30.

³¹ Bhikkhu Bodhi, "Khandha and Upādānakkhandha," Pali Buddhist Review 1(1) (1976): 91-102.

^{32 &}quot;An Analytic Study on Three Concepts of 'Skandha,' 'Ayatana' and 'Dhātu'" [Chinese: Che hs[e]ueh lun p[v]ing] (Philosophical Review 8 [January 1975]: 107-21).

^{33 &}quot;The Five Khandhas: Their Theatment [sic] in the Nikāyas and Early Abhidhamma," Journal of Indian Philosophy 52 (1986): 35-53.

of the paticcasamuppāda. In order to arrive at a clear and precise definition of each of the aggregates in these five chapters, I will first analyze the etymology of the terms and study the canonical references that shed light on their function. The seventh chapter is threefold. It first establishes a correlation between the five aggregates and the paticcasamuppāda. This correlation is then used as an argument to contest the theory that the traditional nomenclature of the five aggregates is purely random. The implication of these findings is finally briefly analyzed in light of the process involved in traditional Theravāda meditation (vipassanā).

This page intentionally left blank

Chapter 1

The Concept of Khandha

Buddhism differs from other religions in that no room is allotted for an ultimate reality corresponding to the concept of "self." Most Buddhist traditions view the entire universe (and the individual as well) as composed of different, irreducible phenomena (dhamma). Although these phenomena serve as a common denominator for different Buddhist doctrines, their number and classification vary from one school to another. Nevertheless, most schools have elaborated numerous approaches for the purpose of analyzing reality. One of these consists of the division of these elements into two categories: conditioned (sankhata) and unconditioned (asankhata). The larger conditioned category refers to all conditioned (that is, having a beginning and an end) phenomena of existence. The Anguttaranikāva describes the conditioned phenomena as possessing three characteristics: arising, passing away, and impermanence; while the unconditioned phenomena are referred to as causeless²—this being defined as nibbāna.³ The Theravadins and the Sarvastivadins differ as to the constituents of the unconditioned-group; the former allows only nibbana in this category. while the latter considers space (ākāśa) and two kinds of nibbāna (pratisamkhyānirodha and apratisamkhyānirodha⁵) as unoriginated principles. The phenomena in the major group, generally known as the conditioned-group, are responsible for elation and depression⁶ because they inherently lead to an inaccurate perception of reality. This group

¹ A. i. 152.

² Katame dhammā asankhatā? Yo eva so dhammo appaccayo—so eva so dhammo asankhato (Dhs. 193).

³ Katame dhammā asankhatā? Nibbānam—ime dhammā asankhatā (Dhs. 244).

⁴ Lamotte, Histoire du bouddhisme indien, p. 675.

This first type of nibbāna refers to the eradication through wisdom of already existing defilements, while the second type refers to the obstruction through meditation (dhyāna) of any future defilements.

⁶ M. iii, 299.

16

is further classified into five aggregates: ⁷ rūpa (matter), vedanā (sensation), sanāā (recognition), sankhāra (karmic activities) and vināna (consciousness)—which alone stand as the constituents of the individual

Etymology of the Term Khandha

The term khandha (or its Sanskrit equivalent, skandha) was already used in pre-Buddhist and pre-Upanisadic literature. One of the oldest Indian treatises on semantics and etymology, the Nirukta, holds that the general meaning of skandha in the Veda is restricted to "the branches of a tree" since they "are attached to the tree." It is interesting to note that the word "trunk," which stands for the union of all the branches of the tree, is one of the connotations of the Pāli term khandha as well. The author of the Nirukta also alludes to a secondary meaning, viz. "shoulder," which is derived from the same root (skandh = "to be attached"), and is used in this peculiar sense because the shoulder "is attached to the body." We find a similar usage in the Pāli canon: the Samyuttanikāya and the Visuddhimagga use the word khandha to designate shoulder. Some later pre-Buddhist texts, such as the Chāndogya Upanisad, use the word skandha in the sense of "branches" referring to the three branches of duty: trayo dharmaskandhāh yajāah

The Websicans

⁷ Sankhatam rūpam sankhatam rūpan ti yathābhūtam na pajānāti. Sankhatam vedanam. Sankhatam sankhate sankhāre, Sankhatam viññānam sankhatam viññānanti yathābhūtam na pajānāti (S. iii, 114).

⁸ Skandho vṛkṣasya samāskanno bhavati. Ayamapītaraskandha etasmādeva. Āskannam kāyo (Laksman Sarup, ed. and trans., The Nighanṭu and the Nirukta: The Oldest Indian Treatise on Etymology, Philology and Semantics: by Yakṣa [Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1977], vi 18).

⁹ S. i, 207; D. ii, 171-172; Sn. 282, etc.

Skandho vṛkṣasya samāskanno bhavati. Athamapītaraskandha itasmād eva. Āskannam kāye. Ahiḥ śayataupaparcanaḥ pṛthivyāḥ (Sarup, ed. and trans., The Nighanṭu and the Nirukta, vi, 18).

¹¹ Atha kho māro pāpimā kassaka-vannam abhinimminitvā mahantam nangalam khandhe karitvā. ... "So Mārā the evil one, taking the shape of a farmer, bearing a mighty plough on his shoulder" (S. i, 115). Tasmā pathamam sīsam makkhetvā khandhādīni makkhetabbāni. "Therefore, having first anointed the head, he should anoint the shoulders," etc. (Vsm. 100).

adhyayanam dānam.¹² In contrast, the Maitrī Upanisad uses the term skandha in the sense of a "mass" of smoke.¹³ A similar usage of the word is found in the Pāli canon: the sutta also use the word khandha to refer to a "mass" of fire and of water (aggikkhandha and udakakkhandha).¹⁴ This usage is widespread in Pāli literature, for we find constant references to the "mass of suffering" (dukkhakkhandha).¹⁵

The word khandha is also used in Theravāda literature to refer to the concept of "division," in the sense of a variety of constituent groups. The Dīghanikāya, for example, alludes to four khandha: morality (sīla), concentration (samādhi), wisdom (paññā) and release (vimutti). The same source mentions another association of three khandha which corresponds to the previous grouping less release. 17

In both pre-Buddhist and Buddhist literature, the number of meanings associated with the term *khandha* is striking. However, the most important usage of the term in Pāli canonical literature is in the sense of the *paācakkhandhā*, "the five aggregates." The importance of this meaning is evidenced by the fact that Nyānātiloka's *Buddhist Dictionary* provides only the definition referring to the five aggregates.¹⁸ It also must be stressed that this particular definition of the term is non-existent in currently available pre-Buddhist literature, whether Upanisadic or Vedic.

The Five Aggregates and the Dhammacakkappavattanasutta

The number of appearances of the term pañcakkhandhā in the sutta and the fact that the five aggregates are discussed in the first discourse of

[&]quot;There are three branches of duty. The first is sacrifice, study of the Vedas and almsgiving. The second is austerity. The third is a 'student of dharma' (brahmacārin) dwelling in the house of a teacher, settling himself permanently in the house of a teacher." Trayo dharmaskandhā yajnodhyayanam dānamiti prathamah, tapa eko dvitīyah, brahmacāryācāryakulavāsī tṛtīyotyantamātmānamācāryakulevasādayan (Siromani Uttamur T. Viraraghavacharya, ed., Chandogyopanishadbhashya [Tirupati: Sri Venkatesvara Oriental Institute, 1952], ii, 23).

¹³ J.A.B. Buitenen, trans., Maitrāyaṇīya Upaniṣad: A Critical Essay. With Text, Translation and Commentary (The Hague: Mouton, 1962), vii, 11.

¹⁴ Respectively, M. ii, 34 and S. iv, 179.

¹⁵ Vin. i, 1; S. ii, 95; S. iii, 14; A. i, 77; A. v, 184; etc.

¹⁶ D. iii, 229.

¹⁷ D. i, 206.

¹⁸ Nyanatiloka, Buddhist Dictionary, pp. 76-80.

18

the Buddha—the Dhammacakkappavattanasutta—would indicate their intrinsic Buddhist character. A careful reading of the Buddha's first discourse, however, casts some doubt on this assumption. Before preaching his first sermon, the Buddha's doctrine was unfathomable to people of that day and age. Yet he only briefly referred to the pañcakkhandhā in that discourse. This implies that their intricate connotations were already understood by those to whom the discourse was addressed. For example, in summarizing the various reasons for unhappiness, the Buddha concluded "in brief, the five clinging-aggregates lead to suffering." without elaborating on the term pañcakkhandhā any further. Neither of the two texts that contain commentaries on the Dhammacakkappavattanasutta, the Sāratthappakāsinī or the Samantapasādika, shed light on this matter. Therefore, the term pañcupādānakkhandhā (basically endowed with the same connotation as pañcakkhandhā as we will soon see) seems to have been a term in current use.

The absence of a definition of the Buddhist sense of the word khandha in pre-Buddhist literature leads us to three possible hypotheses: (1) the term existed then but was not recorded in the pre-Buddhist philosophical treatises available to us (or might have been incorporated in some of the Ajīvaka speculative works, sources which have not yet been discovered, if they exist); (2) the word khandha might have been a philosophical innovation introduced by the Buddha but, for literary reasons, the compilers of the Pali canon decided not to include the detailed explanation of the term in the Dhammacakkappavattanasutta even though the Buddha might have explained it then; or (3) the Dhammacakkappavattanasutta was not composed at the beginning of the Buddha's ministry, but later in his career (or even after his death) when the Buddhist meaning of the term pancakkhandhā had been established and was familiar to those within the tradition. The hypothesis that a well-developed doctrine was projected back into an earlier time to gain special authority is quite popular among Western scholars. It is also possible, however, that the abundant references to the term found in later discourses might have prompted the compilers to suppress its explanation here, so as to shape the first discourse of the Buddha into a concise and thorough summary of the entire doctrine.

Initially, the first hypothesis seems the most plausible, since a forerunner of the Buddhist khandha is found in early Brāhmaṇa and

¹⁹ Sankhittena pañcūpādānakkhandhā dukkhā (S. v. 421).

Upanisad, where five factors also compose the major divisions of the individual. The *Taittirīya Upanisad*²⁰ elaborates a division of the individual (purusah) into five different selves (ātmā)—the self made of food (annarasamavah), the self made of organic activities (ātmāprānamayah), the self made of the mind (atmamanomayah), the self made of cognition (ātmāvijnānamayah), and the self made of bliss (ātmānandamayah)—all of which are relatively similar to the five Pāli khandha. The rūpakkhandha could correspond to the "self made of food" since the Dīghanikāva describes rūpa as "being made of the four great elements which consist of gross food."21 The saññākkhandha and the viññāṇākkhandha could respectively be associated with the self made of mind and the self made of consciousness. The sankhārakkhandha, as K. N. Javatilleke has pointed out,²² could also be related to the self made of organic activities since the sankhārakkhandha is described in the Majjhimanikāya as including the "in and out breathing."²³ while the self made of organic activities resembles the Upanisadic meaning of prāna, the vital breath.²⁴ Only vedanākkhandha and the self made of bliss seem not to correspond. As with the Buddhist pañcakkhandhā. these five Upanisadic factors are united only during one's lifespan; at the moment of death, they separate.²⁵ Stressing the similarity between the Buddhist and Upanisadic interpretation of the components of the individual. Stcherbatsky said.

This difference [between the Buddhist and Upanisadic aggregates] bears witness of the enormous progress achieved by Indian philosophy during the time between the primitive Upanisads and the rise of Buddhism. In the Buddhist system we have a division of mental faculties into feeling [vedanā], concept [saññā], will [sankhāra] and pure sensation [viññāṇa], in which modern

²⁰ Swāmī Gambhīrānanda, trans., Eight Upaniṣads; With the Commentary of Śankharācārya (Calcutta: Advaita Ashrama, 1986), 1:223-397.

²¹ Tiţţh' atevāyam Poţţhapāda oļāriko attā rūpi cātummahābhūtiko kabalinkārāhārabhakkho (D. i, 186).

²² K.N. Jayatilleke, *The Early Buddhist Theory of Knowledge* (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1980), p. 221.

²³ Assāsapassāsā ... kāyasankhāro (M. i, 301).

²⁴ Bṛihadāranyaka Upaniṣad 3.9.26; Kaṭha Upaniṣad, 2.2.5. Extracted from R.E. Robert Ernest, trans., The Thirteen Principal Upanishads (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1985).

²⁵ Th. Stcherbatsky, The Central Conception of Buddhism and the Meaning of the Word "Dharma" (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1970), p. 61.

psychology would not have much to change. In the Upaniṣads it is a very primitive attempt, giving breath, speech, sense of vision, sense of audition and intellect as elements. But one point of similarity remains: the last, and evidently, the most important element is in both cases manas. The macrocosm, or the Universal Soul, is likewise analyzed by the Upaniṣads into five component elements. In the number of the Buddhist skandha and in the position of manas (= vijñāna) among them we probably have the survival of an old tradition.²⁶

As Stcherbatsky suggested, the term pañcakkhandhā might have been either a synonym for, or a popular term referring to, these five brāhmanic factors. Yet the context in which pañcakkhandhā is used in Dhammacakkappavattanasutta implies connotations impermanence and no-self, both of which are incongruent with the brahmanic tradition. If the concept of khandha had been one referring to the earlier brāhmanic division of the personality, the Buddha would not have attached so much importance to the difference in meaning implied by his own use of the term. This leads us to consider the second and third hypotheses as more probable—namely, that the Buddhist meaning attributed to khandha represented an innovation in Indian philosophy. It is impossible, however, to ascertain whether the Dhammacakkappavattanasutta originally included a detailed discussion on the pañcakkhandhā, subsequently suppressed for literary reasons, or whether the concept of pañcakkhandha was later included in the first discourse of the Buddha. But we do have sufficient grounds to assert that the term pañcakkhandhā is a philosophical innovation on the part of the Buddhists.

Pañcakkhandhā and Pañcupādānakkhandhā

So far, the terms pañcakkhandhā and pañcupādānakkhandhā have been used almost interchangeably. The only, but crucial, difference between these two forms of aggregates is that the group of the pañcupādānakkhandhā is potentially subject to biases (āsava) and clinging (upādāna), while the other is not. With regard to clarifying the meaning and the interrelation of the pañcakkhandhā by establishing a correlation with the theory of dependent origination, only a study of the pañcupādānakkhandhā would be relevant; those khandha not involved in the

²⁶ Stcherbatsky, Central Conception of Buddhism, p. 61.

multiplication of misery and the binding to the wheel of birth and rebirth are not related to the paţiccasamuppāda. Yet this study focusses on both the pañcakkhandhā and the pañcupādānakkhandhā, for the simple reason that our primary goal is to establish the function and clarify the interrelation between each of the aggregates. Since the aggregates of one group function in exactly the same manner as those of the other group—with the slight nuance that aggregates of the pañcupādānakkhandhā-group are still objects of clinging—this comprehensive approach is the most appropriate to achieve our aim.

The distinction, however, between the two sets of khandha ought to be clarified. The Atthasālinī explains the word ādāna (pañca + upa + ādāna + khandhā) by suggesting that it means "to catch hold of strongly," and that its prefix upa merely adds an emphasis, just as in the words despair (upāyasa) and denounced (upakkuṭṭha).²⁷ The Khandhāsutta of the Samyuttanikāya explicitly defines these two sets of "aggregates" without, however, comparing them:

And what, monks, are the five aggregates? Whatever matter, sensation, recognition, karmic activities, and consciousness, be it past, present, or future, internal or external, gross or subtle, inferior or superior, far or near, these are called matter, sensation, recognition, karmic activities and consciousness aggregates. ... And what, monks, are the five clinging-aggregates? Whatever matter, sensation, recognition, karmic activities, and consciousness, be it past, present, or future, internal or external, gross or subtle, inferior or superior, far or near, that are subject to cankers [āsava: biases], subject to clinging, these are called matter, sensation, recognition, karmic activities and consciousness "clinging-aggregates.²⁸

²⁷ Upādānan ti da lhagahanam, da lhattho hi ettha upasaddo upāyāsa-upakku t thādīsu viya (Dhs. 385).

Yam kiñci bhikkhave rūpam (vedanā, saññā, saṅkhārā, viññāṇam) atītānāgatapaccu-ppannam ajjhattam vā bahiddhā vā o lārikam vā sukhumam vā hīnam vā panītam vā yam dūre santike vā ayam vuccati rūpakkhandho—vedanākkhandha, saññākkhandha, saṅkhārakkhandha, viññāṇakkhandha, wiñnā khandha, wiñnā tahtam vā bahiddhā vā o lārikam vā saṅkhārā, viññāṇam) atītānāgatapaccuppannam ajjhattam vā bahiddhā vā o lārikam vā sukhumam vā hīnam vā paṇītam vā yam dūre santike vā sāsavam upādānīyam, ayam vuccati rūpupādānakkhandho—vedanupādānakkhandha, saññupādānakkhandha, viññānupādānakkhandha (S. iii, 47-48).

22

In his article "Khandha and upādānakkhandha," Bhikkhu Bodhi points out that "the fact that a differentiation is drawn between the two sets with the phrase sāsava upādāniva implies that a genuine difference in range does exist: that there are, in other words, aggregates of each sort which are anāsava anupādāniva."²⁹ This implies that certain aggregates are neither subject to biases (āsava) nor clinging (upādāna). I will borrow Bodhi's expression and refer to this particular set of aggregates as "the bare aggregates." Bodhi also points out that, since each of these pañcupādānakkhandhā is either an individual instance of matter, sensation, recognition, karmic activities or consciousness, we can postulate that they are all included among the pañcakkhandhā themselves.³⁰ For example, any matter (rūpa) belonging to the pañcupādānakkhandhā automatically belongs to the pañcakkhandhā. Pañcakkhandhā is therefore a generic term that includes both the pañcupādānakkhandhā and the "bare aggregates," those aggregates which are not subject to clinging.

The word $pa\bar{n}cup\bar{a}d\bar{a}nakkhandh\bar{a}$ is often translated as the "clinging aggregates," in the sense of "the aggregates that are clinging." However, according to the *sutta* literature, "clinging" can be divided into four categories: "clinging to sensual pleasures, clinging to wrong views, clinging to rites and rituals, and clinging to the theory of self." In fact, "clinging to sensual pleasures" is classified under the mental factor of greed (lobha), and the three other forms of clinging under the mental factor of wrong views (ditthi); and both these mental factors belong exclusively to the $sankh\bar{a}rakkhandha$. Accordingly, we cannot possibly state that all the five aggregates are "clinging," for only the $sankh\bar{a}rakkhandha$ is directly responsible for this activity. Therefore, this translation of $pa\bar{n}cup\bar{a}d\bar{a}nakkhandh\bar{a}$ as "the aggregates that are clinging" is misleading.

²⁹ Bhikkhu Bodhi, "Khandha and Upādānakkhandha;" Pali Buddhist Review 1(1) (1976): 94. Note that the hyphenated spelling of "clinging-aggregates" is used to refer to the pañcupādānakkhandhā since it leaves the expression in its original compounded form; whereas "clinging aggregates" is used to express a specific interpretation (karmadhāraya) of the compound which would then mean the "aggregates that are clinging."

³⁰ Bodhi, "Khandha and Upādānakkhandha," p. 94.

³¹ Cattāro 'me āvuso upādānā: kāmupādānam diṭṭhupādānam sīlabbatupādānam attavādupādānam (M. i, 51; also at M. i, 66; D. ii, 58, iii, 230; S. ii, 3).

³² Dhs. 212-13.

A more accurate translation of the term pañcupādānakkhandhā would be "the five aggregates which are the object of clinging." Since, by definition, a totally liberated person (an arahant or a buddha) does not generate any form of clinging, we could say that by extension this definition of the pañcupādānakkhandhā indirectly associates the five "clinging-aggregates" with the ordinary people (puthujjana) caught up in the wheel of samsāra, and the five "bare aggregates" with those who have escaped the cycle of birth and rebirth and have attained enlightenment. It is important to stress that these totally liberated "persons" generate neither craving nor aversion.

It would seem, therefore, that the concept of pañcupādāna-kkhandhā would not apply to liberated persons since none of their aggregates can possibly be the object of their own clinging which is, in theory, non-existent. In defining the five clinging-aggregates as those "that a person clings to as his personality," David Kalupahana supports this theory. By definition, upon realizing the state of streamentry (sotāpanna), one eradicates all the different types of "personality beliefs" (sakkāyadi t thi) and no longer perceives the aggregates as one's own self. According to this reasoning, enlightened persons who are alive on this mundane plane are not characterized by the five clinging-aggregates (pañcupādānakkhandhā), but rather by the "bare aggregates" which are beyond biases and clinging, and are not perceived as "one's own."

It would be wrong, however, to establish a parallel between the five "bare aggregates" and the aggregates of arahant and buddhas, as the Samvuttanikāva explicitly denies any such correlation:

An arahant, friend Kotthita, should examine these five clinging-aggregates with method as being impermanent, suffering, sick, as a swelling, as a dart, as ill-health, as alien, transitory, void and selfless. For the arahant, friend, there is nothing further to be done, nor is there return to upheaving of what is done. Nevertheless, these things, if practised and enlarged, conduce to a happy state [ditthadhammasukhavihāra] and to mindfulness and thorough understanding.³⁴

³³ David J. Kalupahana, The Principles of Buddhist Psychology (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1987), p. 17.

³⁴ Arahatā pi kho āvuso Koṭṭhita ime pancupādānakkhandhe aniccato dukkhato rogato gandato sallato aghato ābādhato parato palokato saññato anattato yoniso manasi kattabbā. Natthi khvāvuso arahato uttarikaraṇīyam katassa vā paṭiccayo. Api ca kho

This passage states that even arahant possess the five "clinging-aggregates" although, by definition, they do not generate clinging nor do they entertain any form of "personality beliefs." It therefore contradicts Kalupahana's definition of the clinging-aggregates as those to which an individual clings as one's own personality.

Where, then, can we find these "bare aggregates"? In his article, Bodhi suggests that the "bare aggregates" can be found only in "the happy state" (dit thadhammasukhavihāra), which he interprets as the "fruit of arahantship in which the world disappears and Nibbana remains."35 As with many Pāli words, the term dit thadhammasukhavihāra has several shades of meaning. Literally, it simply means "abiding in bliss owing to the dhamma being observed," yet it is often translated as "a pleasant abiding here and now." In the Devadaha Sutta of the Samvuttanikāva, for example, it seems extremely difficult to read anything more into the term than this peaceful abiding. But elsewhere, it is clearly used to refer to the absorptions (jhāna) themselves, 36 as well as to the attainment of the fruits of arahantship (arahattaphalasamāpatti).37 In private correspondence, Bhikkhu Bodhi explained that the correlation between dit thadhammasukhavihāra and the arahattaphalasamāpatti is supported by the fact that "insight" into the aggregates as impermanent, suffering, etc. is not required for entering into the absorptions, while it does lead to the attainment of fruition.³⁸ Therefore, in this particular context, Bhikkhu Bodhi's interpretation of di t thadhammasukhavihāra as the fruits of arahantship convincing, especially since the Visuddhimagga itself states that noble persons attain fruition "for the purpose of abiding in bliss here and now."39 Before proceeding any further, however, we need to clarify what is meant by "fruit of arahantship" in order to grasp the distinction between "clinging-aggregates" and "bare aggregates."

ime dhammā bhāvitā bahulīkatā diṭṭhadhammasukhavihārāya ceva samvattanti satisampajaññāya cāti (S. iii, 168; translation inspired by F.L. Woodward, trans., The Book of the Kindred Sayings [Samyuṭṭanikāya] [London: P.T.S., 1917-1922], 3:144).

³⁵ Bodhi, "Khandha and Upādānakkhandha," p. 94.

³⁶ M. i, 40-41; iii, 4.

³⁷ SA. ii, 239.

³⁸ Refer to Chapter 23 of the Visuddhimagga for a complete description of the practices required for entering into the jhāna. For a more elaborate discussion on jhāna, see Winston Lee King's Theravāda Meditation: The Buddhist Transformation of Yoga (University Park: Pennsylvania University Press, 1980).

³⁹ Kasmā samāpajjantī ti dit thadhammasukhavihārattham (Vsm. 700).

Theravada Buddhism claims that four levels of realization (the "fruits of the path," maggaphala) are attained before reaching final nibbāna: stream-entry (sotāpanna), or the fruits of one who falls in the stream—the person attaining this fruit will attain final nibbana within seven lives at the most: once-return (sakādāgāmī): non-return (anāgāmī); and arahantship (arahant). At the moment of entering the path of any of these four stages, the person leaves behind the defilements and the five aggregates that are consequent upon wrong views. 40 At that very moment, all the phenomena, except for mindproduced materiality (cittasamu t thanam rupam) are wholesome (kusala). 41 This implies that the five aggregates, which are a mere classification of the different elements (dhamma) of an individual experiencing this state, are free from biases and clinging at that specific time; none of the aggregates present is the result of wrong views. 42 It also seems that when someone reaps the fruit of any one of these four paths, one temporarily "surveys" nibbāna. According to Buddhaghosa. at the end of the fruition, the consciousness re-enters the life continuum, 43 and the person proceeds to review nibbāna in the following manner: "this is the state that I surveyed as an object."44 The passage from one level of realization to another is also called a change of lineage (gotrabhū), for one has (temporarily) eradicated the external signs of karmic activities (sankhāra) and becomes intent on the pursuit

⁴⁰ Sotápattimaggakkhane [sakadāgāmimaggakkhane, anāgāmīmaggakkhane, arahatta-maggakkhane] dassanaṭṭhena sammādiṭṭhi micchādiṭṭhiya vuṭṭhāti, tadanuvattakakilesehi ca khandhehi ca vuṭṭhāti (Ps. i, 71).

⁴¹ Sotāpattimaggakkhaņe jātā dhammā thapetvā cittasamut thānām rūpam sabbe va kusalā honti (Ps. i, 116).

⁴² Ps. i, 71. Strictly speaking, both path (magga) and fruit (phala) are specific citta, states of consciousness. In the cognitive series of the path, the maggacitta occurs for one mental moment, which destroys the defilements to be eliminated by that particular path. The maggacitta is followed immediately by two or three mindmoments of phalacitta, which experience the bliss of liberation accomplished by the magga. Thereafter, the mental process returns to the bhavanga. For a more elaborate discussion on the presence of the four mental aggregates while one is experiencing the fruits of the path, see the Visuddhimagga, Chapters 14 and 23.

⁴³ Phalapariyosāne pan'assa cittari bhavangarin otarati (Vsm. 676).

⁴⁴ Ayam me dhammo ārammanato pa tividdho ti amantam nibbānam paccavekkhati (Vsm. 676). Nibbāna is often classified as one of the five objects of thoughts dhammārammana. See Shwe Zan Aung, trans., Compendium of Philosophy (Abhidhammatthasangaha) (London: P.T.S., 1967), p. 3.

of *nibbāna*.⁴⁵ Although one may have undergone a change of lineage and surveyed *nibbāna*, however, as long as arahantship has not been attained, one has not reached the final goal. As the *Atthasālinī* says:

Although a gotrabhū has seen nibbāna, he is like one who came to see the king for a specific purpose. Having seen the king riding on an elephant on a certain road, and being asked whether he had seen the king or not, he replies that he had not, for he had not seen the king for the specific purpose he had come. In the same manner, although a person might have seen nibbāna, he cannot be said to have "insight" (dassana) because the impurities to be forsaken have not been eradicated yet. 46

Those experiencing any of these four fruits of the path are temporarily surveying nibbāna as an object, and dwell in a state where their four mental aggregates cannot be perceived by those who still have certain types of biases and clinging. It is in this state that the "bare aggregates" can be found, for those dwelling in it, whether they are mere streamenterers or arahant, are temporarily free of biases and clinging⁴⁷ as long as the time their "supramundane" experience lasts. Afterwards, they will assume the five clinging-aggregates again. The arahant, however, can induce this state of "surveying" by the mere contemplation of their five clinging-aggregates as suffering, impermanent, selfless and so on. A passage of the Samyuttanikāya even states that arahant involved in the practice of contemplating the breath (ānāpānasati) may also attain the state of ditthe dhamme sukhavihāra, 48 the fruit of arahantship.

⁴⁵ Bahiddhāsankhāranimittam abhibhuyyitvā nirodham nibbānam pakkhandatīti gotrabhū (Ps. i, 66).

⁴⁶ So hi paṭhamam nibbānam dassanato dassanan ti vutto. Gotrabhū pana kim cāpi paṭhamataram nibbānam passati? Yathā pana rañño santikam kenacid eva karaniyena āgato puriso dūrato va rathikāya carantam hitthikkhandhagatam rājānam disvā pi 'diṭtho te rājā ti' puṭtho disvā kattabbakiccassa akatattā 'na passāmī ti' āha, evameva nibbānam disvā kattabbassa kiccassa kilesappahānassābhāvā na dassanan ti vuccati (DhsA. i, 43).

⁴⁷ Sabbe [dhammā] 'va kusalā honti (Ps. i. 116).

⁴⁸ Ye ca kho te bhikkhave bhikkhū arahanto khīnāsavā vusitavanto katakaranīyā ohitabhārā anuppattasada t thā parikkhīnabhavasamyujanā sammadaññā vimuttā. Tesam ānāpānasatisamādhi bhāvito bahulīkato dit theva dhamme sukhavihārāya ceva samvattati satisampajaññāya ca (S. v, 326).

The passage of the Samyuttanikāya cited above alludes to the fact that arahant can still be characterized by the pañcupādānakkhandhā. Buddhaghosa clarifies the difference between pañcupādānakkhandhā and the "bare aggregates" in his commentary on the Dhammasangani, the Atthasālinī:

Although the aggregates of the arahat [sic] who has destroyed the cankers [āsava: biases] become conditions for clinging in others, when they say, for example, "Our senior uncle the Thera! Our junior uncle the Thera!," the noble paths, fruits, and Nibbāna [the navalokuttaradhammā; see p. 28] are not grasped, misapprehended, or clung to. Just as a red-hot iron ball does not provide a resting-place for flies to settle, so the noble paths, fruits or Nibbāna [navalokuttaradhammā], due to their abundant spiritual sublimity, do not provide a condition for grasping through craving, conceit, and wrong views.⁴⁹

This implies that, although those who do not generate any more clinging (the arahant) have totally eradicated the biases, they still possess the five clinging-aggregates in the sense that their five aggregates still constitute a ground for clinging in others. As a result, these aggregates are still clinging-aggregates. However, arahant do have the possibility of dwelling in a supramundane state of consciousness that "cannot be apprehended by a mind defiled with the biases and clinging due to their sublime purity, a purity flowing from the absolute purity of their object, nibbāna." Therefore, the aggregates can only exist as "bare aggregates" in beings dwelling in this state of consciousness which is neither accessible to, nor perceptible by, those who are still subject to clinging.

In order to shed light on this state of consciousness where "bare aggregates" are present, we need to review certain elements of Theravāda doctrine: the thirty-one levels of existence and the transcendental realm (lokuttara). This will offer an explanation as to

⁵⁰ Bodhi, "Khandha and Upādānakkhandha," p. 96; see also Dhs. 196, 213, 248, 258.



^{49 ...} khīṇāsavassa khandhā amhākam Mātulathero amhākam Cullapituthero ti vadantānam paresam upādānassa paccayā honti, maggaphalanibbānāni pana agahitāni aparāma t thāni anupādinnān' eva. Tāni hi yathā divasasantatto ayogu lo makkhikānam abhinisīdanassa paccayo na hoti evam evam tejussadattā tanhāmānadi t thivasena gahanassa paccayā na hontī ti. Tena vuttam: ime dhammā anupādinna-unupādānīyā ti (DhsA. 347). Translation taken from Bodhi's "Khandha and Upādānakkhandha," p. 96.

why the material aggregate cannot possibly be included as one of the "bare aggregates." According to the Sāratthappakāsinī, a commentary on the Samyuttanikāya, the material aggregate (rūpa) is only present in the kāmāvacara (realm of sensuality), while the remaining four aggregates (vedanā, saññā, sankhāra and viññāna) can be found in any of the four divisions: kāmāvacara, rūpāvacara, arūpāvacara and lokuttara. 51 The first three realms (avacara) comprise the thirty-one planes of existence constituting the mundane realms, whereas the fourth (lokuttara) includes the supramundane (nibbāna). The kāmāvacara is characterized by craving towards objects such as form, sound, odour, taste, touch and idea. This realm includes eleven planes of existence: the six celestial realms (sagga), 52 the human realm (manussaloka), and the four states of misery $(ap\bar{a}ya)$. 53 The material realm $(r\bar{u}p\bar{a}vacara)$ is characterized by the four absorptions (jhāna) and corresponds to the sixteen material heavenly planes, while the immaterial realm (arūpāvacara) is characterized by the four attainments (samāpatti) and corresponds to the four immaterial planes.⁵⁴ In two of the latter only the four mental aggregates can exist—they are devoid of material bodies.

The transcendental realm (lokuttara), on the other hand, refers to a sphere that is beyond or above (uttara) the mundane worlds (loka) and the three realms of existence; in other words, it refers to nibbāna. However, the word lokuttara is often used to refer to the nine supramundane elements (navalokuttaradhammā). In such a context, the word is used to designate the four paths and their respective fruits as well as nibbāna. The four paths are those that lead to the realization of the states of stream-entry, once-return, non-return and arahant; the fruits are the realizations themselves in which a sight of nibbāna is also

⁵¹ Rūpakkhandho kāmāvacaro cattāro khandhā catubhūmakā [sic] (SA. ii, 270). The term catubhūmakā should be read as catubhūmika; an enumeration of these four bhūmika is given in Buddhaghosa's Visuddhimagga (Vsm. 452, 475, 493).

⁵² The six celestial realms of the kāmāvacara are: catumahārājikadeva, tāvatimsa, yāma, tusita, nimmānarati, paranimmitavasavatti.

⁵³ These four states include hell (nirayaloka), the animal kingdom (tiracchānayoniloka), the ghost realm (petaloka), and the demon world (asuranikāyaloka).

⁵⁴ These planes are: ākāsānañcayatanūpagadeva, viññāṇañcāyatanūpagadeva, ākiñcaññāyatanūpagadeva, nevasaññānāsaṇṇāyatanūpagadeva. Only beings who have experienced the four attainments can be reborn in these planes.

⁵⁵ Katamo lokuttaro vimokkho? Cattāro ca ariyamaggā cattāri ca sāmañňaphalāni nibbānaň ca. Ayam lokuttaro vimokkho (Ps. ii, 40).

implied. According to the Patisambhidāmagga,⁵⁶ although the term lokuttara implies a certain dissociation and a crossing over from the world, it does not seem that the term refers to a totally transcendental experience, for the individual only dwells temporarily in the fruition states, and these states are still characterized by the four mental aggregates. However, it is impossible to detect any of the five aggregates within nibbāna without residue (nirupādisesa nibbāna) for that state is defined as the full extinction of the five aggregates (khandhaparinibbāna).⁵⁷ When the word lokuttara, then, refers exclusively to nibbāna without residue and not the four paths and their fruits, the term loka means the five aggregates, while uttara means beyond or above.⁵⁸

The Sāratthappakāsinī says that the material aggregate is only present in the realm of sensuality, and the remaining four aggregates can be found in any of the four divisions. Although the fourth division consists of the transcendental realm (lokuttara), it has to be understood as the first eight constituents of the nine supramundane elements (navalokuttaradhammā), where nibbāna without residue is excluded, for none of the aggregates can be present in that state. It is in the transcendental realm that the four mental aggregates (vedanā, saññā, saṅkhāra and viññāna) cannot be approached as objects of clinging (or as pañcupādānakkhandhā). This is so because, on the one hand, liberated individuals are totally free from the biases and clinging and, on the other hand, their four mental aggregates function on a different level of consciousness from those of ordinary people, since their mental aggregates have nibbāna as their object (nibbānārammanā).⁵⁹ Therefore, this level of consciousness cannot be apprehended by the common people.

Since the material aggregate exists only in its grosser form in the realm of sensuality, it always remains a clinging-aggregate in the sense that it is a potential object of clinging for beings dwelling in the sensual sphere. Therefore, the material aggregate can never be classified under the terminology of "bare aggregate," for it is always associated (at least potentially) with clinging. As Buddhaghosa stated in the Visuddhimagga,

⁵⁶ Ps. ii, 166-67.

⁵⁷ It., 41. A more elaborate discussion of nibbāna without residue is offered on p. 55.

⁵⁸ Mahā Thera Nārada, trans., A Manual of Abhidhamma: Abhidhammatthasangaha by Anuruddha (Rangoon: Printed by the Buddha Sasana Council, 1970), p. 11.

⁵⁹ Ps. i, 116.

the four mental aggregates (vedanā, sannā, sankhāra and vinnāṇa) can be free from biases while the material aggregate (rūpa) cannot. ⁶⁰ Technically, matter always falls into the category of the clinging-aggregates (pancupādānakkhandhā), but when seen in the global perspective of the four other "bare aggregates" (vedanā, sannā, sankhāra or vinnāṇa in the fruition states), it is classified as part of the "bare" pancakkhandhā simply for purposes of classification (rāsaṭṭhena). ⁶¹

The term pañcakkhandhā, then, is all inclusive. While the term pañcupādānakkhandhā refers only to those aggregates that are potential objects of clinging, the term "bare aggregates" cannot refer to that which could potentially become objects of clinging. Now that this distinction has been established, we shall analyze each of the khandha to discover what their respective functions are, and how they relate to the doctrine of dependent origination.

⁶⁰ Ettha ca yathā vedanādayo anāsavā pi atthi, na evarn rūpam (Vsm. 478).

⁶¹ Yasmā pan'assa rāsat thena khandhabhāvo yujjati, tasmā khandhesu vuttam; yasmā rāsatthena ca sāsavatthena ca upādānakkhandhabhāvo vuijati, upādānakkhandhesu vuttam. Vedanādayo pana anāsavā va khandhesu vuttā, sāsavā upādānakkhandhesu. Upādānakkhandhā ti c'ettha upādānagocarā khandhā upādānakkhandhā ti evam attho dat thabbo. Idha pana sabbe p'ete ekajjham katvā khandhā ti adhippetā (Vsm. 478). "Because rūpa can be described as a [bare] aggregate on account of its 'totalness,' it is classified amongst the [bare] aggregates. Because it can be described as a clinging-aggregate (upādānakkhandha) on account of its 'totalness' and its association with clinging, it is classified amongst the clingingaggregates. But vedanā, saññā, sankhāra and viññāna are classified as [bare] aggregates when they are free from clinging, and as clinging-aggregates (pañcupādānakkhandhā) when objects of clinging. The term upādānakkhandha should be understood as referring to aggregates that are subject to clinging. On the other hand, all the aggregates ('bare aggregates' and clinging-aggregates) taken together are encompassed by the expression 'five aggregates' (pañcakhandhā)."

Chapter 2

The Rūpakkhandha

At first glance, the sutta literature defines the rūpakkhandha—the material aggregate—in a concise and clear manner. "What is this material 'clinging-aggregate'? The four primary elements (mahābhūta) and secondary matter (upādārūpa). The four primary elements consist of earth, water, fire and air." The problem with this definition, however, is that nowhere in the nikāya is there a clarification as to the nature of the upādārūpa ("secondary elements"). The sutta simply offer a general definition of matter stating that all matter is either past, present or future, internal or external, gross or subtle, small or large, far or near.

In this chapter, I will first examine whether the general concept of $r\bar{u}pa$ can be correlated with the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$ and then establish a correlation between the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$ and some of the links of the $paticcasamupp\bar{u}da$. Later abhidhammic and commentarial literature will help clarify what is meant by primary elements and secondary elements. All the elements comprised in the terminology of $r\bar{u}pa$ will then be classified in order to help us deepen our understanding of the different categories of matter (e.g., internal, external; gross, subtle; far, near, etc.). With an understanding of these classifications as well as the threefold classification mentioned in the sutta literature itself, we will then be in a position to establish a classification of all the material elements and to gain insight into the meaning of "matter," as well as to correlate the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$ to some of the links of the $paticcasamupp\bar{u}da$.

According to Y. Karunadasa's study, Buddhist Analysis of Matter, four major meanings can be ascribed to the term rūpa: rūpa in the sense of generic matter, rūpa in the sense of what is visible, rūpa in the sense of the rūpadhātu (rūpaloka or rūpāvacara; see p. 28) and finally, rūpa in

¹ Katamo c'āvuso rūpupādānakkhandho: cattāri ca mahābhūtūni catunnañ ca mahābhūtūnam upādāya rūpam. Katame c'āvuso cattāro mahābhūtā: paṭhavīdhātu āpodhāru tejodhātu vāyodhātu (M. i, 185; a similar passage is also found in M. i, 53 and S. ii, 3-4; iii, 59).

² Atītanāgatapaccupannam ajjhattam vā bahiddhā vā oļārikam vā sukhumam vā hīnam vā panītam vā yam dūre santike vā, sabbam rūpam (S. iv, 382).

32.

the sense of four rūpajjhāna or the four absorptions (jhāna). As Karunadasa remarked, "These four may be represented as the generic, specific, cosmological and the psychological meanings of the term." Mrs. Carolyn Rhys Davids, Surendranath Dasgupta and S.Z. Aung argue that not all of the elements that constitute "generic matter" are part of the rūpakkhandha. Karunadasa claims, however, that they have misinterpreted a passage from the Yamaka. The passage reads,

Is matter the material aggregate? Pleasant matter (piyarūpam) and agreeable matter (sātarūpam) are rūpa, but do not belong to the material aggregate; whereas the material aggregate is both matter and the material aggregate. What is neither the material aggregate nor matter? Pleasant matter (piyarūpam) and agreeable matter (sātarūpam) do not belong to the material aggregate but are matter; everything except matter and the material aggregate is neither matter nor the material aggregate.⁸

According to this, everything that comes under the heading of $r\bar{u}pa$, except pleasant $(piyar\bar{u}pa)$ and agreeable matter $(s\bar{a}tar\bar{u}pa)$, belongs to the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$. Both Rhys Davids and Dasgupta agree with Aung's interpretation of this passage, in which Aung explains the terms $piyar\bar{u}pa$ and $s\bar{a}tar\bar{u}pa$ as the eighty-one worldly classes of consciousness and their concomitants that are attractive and pleasant. These eighty-one classes of consciousness do not, according to Aung, belong to the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$, which is made up solely of twenty-seven material qualities (the four primary elements and the twenty-three secondary elements). This interpretation suggests that the Yamaka's definition of the term $r\bar{u}pa$ is not limited to matter, but also includes mental states (the eighty-

³ Y. Karunadasa, Buddhist Analysis of Matter (Colombo: Department of Cultural Affairs, 1967), p. 1.

⁴ Ymk. i, xi.

⁵ Surendranath Dasgupta, A History of Indian Philosophy (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1975), 1:94.

⁶ Shwe Zan Aung, trans., Compendium of Philosophy (Abhidhammatthasangaha) (London: P.T.S., 1967), p. 273.

⁷ Karunadasa, Buddhist Analysis of Matter, pp. 4-5.

⁸ Rūpam rūpakkhandho ti? Piyarūpam sātarūpam rūpam, na rūpakkhandho; rūpakkhandho rūpam ceva rūpakkhandho ca. ... Na rūpam na rūpakkhandho ti? ... Piyarūpam sātarūpam na rūpakkhandho, rūpam; rūpam ca rūpakkhandham ca thapetvā avasesā na ceva rūpam na ca rūpakkhandho (Ymk. i, 16-17).

⁹ Aung, Compendium of Philosophy, p. 273.

one classes of consciousness). However, this particular interpretation is based, it would seem, on speculation as it is not supported by any textual evidence. Karunadasa has pointed out¹⁰ a further weakness in this interpretation, since elsewhere in the abhidhammic literature we find a definition of *pivarūpa* and *sātarūpa* which includes the six internal and external sense-doors. 11 all of which are included in the rūpakkhandha. 12 There seems to be a contradiction between the Yamaka, which asserts that pivarūpa and sātarūpa do not belong to the rūpakkhandha, and the Vibhanga, which implicitly includes pivarūpa and sātarūpa in the rūpakkhandha since the six sense-doors, which are part of the rūpakkhandha, are included in the definition of these two terms. However, Karunadasa indicates that the two seemingly contradictory statements of the Yamaka and the Vibhanga are not mutually exclusive because the former belongs to a method of exposition particular to the Yamaka—a method that cannot be used to define the rūpakkhandha.¹³ The Yamaka passage, therefore, is not relevant to a discussion of the similarity between rūpa and the rūpakkhandha.

In the Visuddhimagga, Buddhaghosa defines $r\bar{u}pa$ (in Karunadasa's sense of "generic matter") as the four primary elements and the matter derived from them. As we saw on. 31, this is the standard definition of the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$. Here, Buddhaghosa not only applies the definition of the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$ to the concept of $r\bar{u}pa$, but also urges his reader to refer to his previous discussion on the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$ in order to clarify the meaning of $r\bar{u}pa$. On the basis of this statement by as established an authority as Buddhaghosa, we may proceed with the assumption that, at least traditionally, the $r\bar{u}pa$ -

¹⁰ Karunadasa, Buddhist Analysis of Matter, p. 5.

¹¹ In order to avoid confusion, we will, from now on, refer to the "internal sense-doors" as "sense-organs" (eye, ear, nose, tongue, body, mind), and the "external sense-doors" as the "sense-objects" (forms, sounds, smells, tastes, touches, thoughts).

¹² Kiň ca loke piyarūpam sātarūpam? Cakkhum loke piyarūpam sātarūpam etth'esā taṇhā uppajjamānā uppajjati, ettha nivisamānā nivisati. Sotam ... pe ... ghānam ... jivhā ... kāyo ... mano ... rūpā ... saddā ... gandhā ... rasā ... phot t thabbā ... dhammā loke piyarūpam sātarūpam etth'esā taṇhā uppajjamānā uppajjati, ettha nivisamānā nivisati (Vbh. 101-102).

¹³ Explaining Karunadasa's argument is not necessary. However, those desiring further clarification can refer to Karunadasa's *Buddhist Analysis of Matter*, pp. 5-8.

¹⁴ Rüpan ti cattāri mahābhūtāni catunnañ ca mahābhūtānam upādāya rūpam (Vsm. 558).

¹⁵ Tesam vibhago Khandhaniddese vutto yevā ti (Vsm. 558).

34

kkhandha has not been seen as different from rūpa in the sense of "generic matter."

While most Indian philosophical systems claim that there are five primary elements, the Buddhist and Jain traditions postulate only four. These two traditions, however, do not consider space $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa)$ to be a primary element. The Theravāda school, however, incorporates space into its list of "secondary elements" $(up\bar{a}d\bar{a}r\bar{u}pa)$.¹⁶

The Four Primary Material Elements (Mahābhūta)

In a discussion with his son, 17 the Buddha concisely explains the four primary elements and their particular qualities. The earth element (pathavīdhātu) is described as whatever is hard and solid (kakkhalam kharigattam), such as the hair, nails, teeth, and other parts of the body. The water element (āpodhātu) is characterized by liquid (āpogatam), as in the case of blood, tears and saliva. The Buddha describes the fire element (tejodhātu) as that which is hot, like the heat that digests food. And finally the air element (vāyadhātu) is characterized by motion, like the different gases in the stomach and the abdomen. 18 According to a different source, the first three primary elements (earth, fire and air) also share the fundamental characteristic of solidity (patigha)19 in the sense that there is bound to be an impact, a shock, when two of these material particles collide. This quality of solidity (Skr. pratighāta) is defined in the Abhidharmakośa as "l'impénétrabilité, le heurt ou résistance (pratighāta), l'obstacle qu'un rūpa oppose à ce que son lieu soit occupé par un autre rūpa."20

Buddhaghosa, in the commentary on the *Dhammasangani* and the *Visuddhimagga*, offers us a more extensive definition of these four primary elements. According to the commentator, the earth element is

¹⁶ See p. 39.

¹⁷ Mahārāhulovādasuttam (M. i, 420); a similar description is found in the Mahāhatthipadopamasutta (M. i, 185).

¹⁸ Strangely enough, a discussion of the ākāsadhātu follows the description of these four elements just as if it belonged to primary matter. However, as we mentioned, the ākāsadhātu is not included in the Buddhist list of primary elements, but belongs to secondary matter.

¹⁹ Implied by Dhs. 147. For a further discussion on the term patigha, please refer to p. 41.

²⁰ La Vallée Poussin, Abhidharmakośa, 1:24-25.

so called because it "is spread out," and it is the platform that supports the other three elements. In commentarial literature, the earth element is literally perceived as a support for the other three primary elements, just as the earth is a support for mountains and trees.²³ According to Buddhaghosa, the water element is thus termed because of its characteristic of flowing (appoti), gliding (āpiyati) and satisfying (appāyati). The validity of the definition is questionable. however, for the Theravada commentarial literature tends to define words through the use of terms that share the same etymology. For example, the earth element (pathavi) is described as patthat atta, and matter (rūpa) is often characterized by the verb ruppati.²⁴ These apparently false etymological interpretations could, in fact, simply be mnemonic devices that were never intended to be linguistically accurate. As for the definition of the water element, however, we know that the verb appoti is derived from the root ap, while apivati and appayati seem to be connected to the Sanskrit root r—which is not etymologically linked to apo. However, the Dhammasangani uses the terms sineha and bhandana (which have no apparent or real etymological link with apo) to define the water element.²⁵ These two words support Buddhaghosa's previous definition by implying that the water element is endowed with the characteristic of liquidity (sineha) and binding (bhandana). The fire element is defined by Buddhaghosa as that which possesses the characteristic of temperature $(teja)^{26}$ but, as with the water element, the Dhammasangani and the Atthasālinī offer a definition that does not restrict itself to providing a cognate word: "the fire element has the quality of heat (usmā or unhā)."27 The air element represents the most

²¹ Patthațattā pathavī [sic] (Vsm. 364). The word pațhavī may have been misspelled; on the other hand, this "error" may have been a conscious alteration on the part of Buddhaghosa in order to indicate the etymological derivation of paṭhavī from patthata.

²² Tattha kakkhaļattalakkhaņā paṭhavīdhātu patiṭṭhānarasā sampaṭicchanapaccupat thānā (DhsA. 332).

²³ Tarupabbatādīnam pakatipaṭ havī viya sahajātarūpānam patiṭ ṭ hānabhāvena pakkhāyati, upaṭ ṭ hātī ti vuttam hoti. Anuruddha, Abhidhammatthasangaha, p. 110.

²⁴ The reader may wish to refer to the discussion on p. 46.

²⁵ Kataman tain rūpam āpodhātu? Yam āpo āpogatam sineho sinehagatam bandhanattam (Dhs. 177).

^{26 &}quot;It heats therefore it is called fire-element." Tejatī ti tejo (Vsm. 364).

²⁷ Yam tejo tejogatam usmā usmāgatam usmam usumāgatam (Dhs. 177); a similar definition is found in DhsA. 332.

dynamic of the four primary elements in that it is primarily characterized by mobility and fluctuation.²⁸

It is of crucial importance that none of the four primary elements can exist without the presence of the other three. Fire, for example, is not merely composed of the fire element, nor does water consist solely of the water element. The primary elements cannot exist independently of one another;²⁹ all four are present in every material particle. The *Paramatthamañjūsā*, a commentary on the *Vīsuddhimagga*, expands upon this point:

... likewise their [the four primary elements] undemonstrability, since they are not found inside or outside of each other for support. For if these elements were found inside each other, they would not each perform their particular functions, owing to mutual frustration. And if they were found outside each other, they would be already resolved (separate), and that being so, any description of them as unresolved (inseparable) would be meaningless. So although their standing place is undemonstrable, still each one assists the other by its particular function—the functions of establishing, etc., whereby each becomes a condition for the others as conascence condition and so on.³⁰

Karunadasa stresses that all four primary elements appear in equal quantity in every manifestation of matter.³¹ What renders different manifestations of matter distinct is not the quantitative, but rather the qualitative or "capability" (sāmatthiya) proportion of the primary elements. The difference between water and fire does not reside in the quantity of the fire element or water element found therein, but rather in the intensity of these two elements.

The last aspect of the primary elements that I would like to mention is their deceptiveness. According to the Theravada tradition, these four primary elements and their respective qualities are inherent in every material particle. Matter is composed of nothing else, yet we not only perceive material particles as warm or cold, stable or moving,

²⁸ Yam vāyo vāyogatam chambhitattam thambhitattam (Dhs. 177).

²⁹ Na ca tam nissāya na tit thantī ti (Vsm. 367).

³⁰ Paramatthamañjūsā, 363. Quoted from Ven. Nāṇamoli, trans., The Path of Purification (Visuddhimagga) by Bhadantācariya Buddhaghosa (Kandy: B.P.S., 1979), p. 400, n. 38.

³¹ Karunadasa, Buddhist Analysis of Matter, p. 26. The Abhidharmakośa supports this thesis by maintaining that "les grands éléments (mahābhūtas) sont, entre eux, sahabhūhetu" (La Vallée Poussin, Abhidharmakośa, 1:248-49).

hard or soft or spread or coagulated, but also as imbued with other qualities, such as colour. The primary elements, then, appear in a variety of forms apparently unrelated to their own qualities. Buddhaghosa explains this by resorting to one of his favourite methods of clarification: he makes a play on the word mahābhūta by comparing the four primary elements to a great magician:

Just as a magician (mahābhūta) turns water that is not crystal into crystal, and turns a clod that is not gold into gold, and shows them, and being himself neither a spirit or a bird, shows himself as a spirit or a bird so too, being themselves [the four mahābhūta] not blue-black, they turn themselves into blue-black derived materiality [secondary elements], being themselves not yellow ... not red ... not white, they turn themselves into white derived materiality [secondary elements] and show that. In this way they are primary elements (mahābhūta) in being like the great creatures (mahābhūta) of a magician.³²

Thus, these primary elements are the foundations which support the secondary elements.

The Secondary Material Elements (Upādārūpa)

The difference between primary and secondary elements is adumbrated in the *sutta* literature itself,³³ yet no specific description of the secondary elements is found in the *nikāya*. Although the *Abhidhamma-piṭaka* has elaborated a scheme of twenty-three secondary elements,³⁴ I have found neither such an elaboration, nor even a passing mention

³² Yathā māyākāro amaņim yeva udakam maņim katvā dasseti, asuvanņam yeva leddum suvanņam katvā dasseti;—yathā ca, sayam neva yakkho na yakkhī samāno, yakkhabhāvam pi yakkhibhāvam pi dasseti, evam eva sayam anīlan' eva hutvā nīlam upādārūpam dassenti, apītāni alohitāni anodātān' eva hutvā odātam upādārūpam dassentī ti māyākāramahābhūtasāmañānato mahābhūtāni. Vsm. 366-67. Translation from Ñāṇamoli, The Path of Purification, p. 98. A similar passage is found in DhsA. 299.

³³ Such as in M. i, 53, 185; S. ii, 3-4, 59.

³⁴ Dhs. 167. Some commentarial literature recognizes a twenty-fourth "secondary matter," the heart-basis (hadayavatthu). The heart-basis seems to be a post-canonical development since it is only mentioned in literature compiled during or after Buddhaghosa. To my knowledge, this element is not mentioned in the sutta literature. Since the mainstream canonical literature does not list this last element, I will not include it in the discussion of matter.

of the exact meaning of the secondary elements in the sutta. However, one passage found in a few instances in the sutta offers us a hint as to the nature of these secondary elements: "the four primary elements and the matter derived (upādānaya rūpam) from them are called rūpa."35 The P.T.S Dictionary³⁶ renders the term upādāva as "derived" and "secondary," thereby implying a prior substratum from which it could be "derived" (the primary elements). The Atthasālinī explains what is meant by the "matter derived" from the four great elements: "matter which is dependent on, is derived from, and is still attached to the four great elements. What is known as 'all matter' consists of the four great elements and the twenty-three derived material 'things' shown in due order."37 These two references indicate that the secondary elements are always dependent on, and therefore secondary to, the four primary elements.

The list of the twenty-three secondary elements is given in the Vibhanga³⁸ and the Dhammasangani. The elements can be grouped into seven different categories, as indicated in Table 3.

Discussing every one of the twenty-three secondary elements would be far too tedious. Two points concerning them, however, merit some discussion. The first is the exclusion of bodily impressions (phot thabbayatana) from the list of the various elements that constitute secondary matter. Since touch is one of the sense-organs, it would be natural to expect its respective sense-object to be included in the enumeration. The reason for its exclusion lies in the fact that this particular sense-object is constituted by three of the primary elements earth, fire and wind.³⁹ According to the Theravada tradition, these three primary elements can be known by the tactile sense-door.⁴⁰ We

³⁵ Cattāri ca mahābhūtāni catunnam ca mahābhūtānam upādāya rūpam, idam vuccat' āvuso rūpam. Found in M. i, 53, 185; S. ii, 3-4, 59.

³⁶ T.W. Rhys Davids and William Stede, The Pāli Text Society Pāli-English Dictionary (London: P.T.S., 1979).

³⁷ Cattāri mahābhūtāni upādāya nissāya amuñcitvā pavattarūpan ti attho. Idam vuccati sabbam rūpan ti, idam cattāri mahābhūtāni padapatispāṭiyā niddiṭthāni tevīsati upādārūpānī ti sattavīsatipabhedam sabbam rūpam nāma (DhsA. 300).

³⁹ Phot thabbadhātu pana pathavī-tejo-vāyo-vasena tayo dhammā ti sankham gacchati. Vsm. 488. Similar statements are found in Dhs. 143, 179; Vbh. 72.

⁴⁰ Not all Buddhist traditions, however, agree on this point. The Abhidharmakośa, for example, maintains that all the four primary elements are tangible: "Le tangible est de onze espèces. Onze choses sont des choses tangibles (sprastavyadravya): les quatre grands éléments (mahābhūta), le doux, le rude, le lourd, le léger, le froid, la faim et la soif" (La Vallée Poussin, Abhidharmakośa, 1:18).

Table 3 The Twenty-three Secondary Elements (upādārūpa)

A	The first five sense-organs (internal sense-doors):					
1.	cakkhāyatana	(organ of sight)				
2.	sotāyatana	(organ of hearing)				
3.	ghānāyatana	(organ of smell)				
4.	jivhāyatana	(organ of taste)				
5.	kāyāyatana	(organ of touch)				
В	The first four se	ense-objects (external sense-doors):				
6.	rūpāyatana	(the visible)				
7.	saddāyatana	(sound)				
8.	gandhāyatana	(smell)				
9.	rasāyatana	(taste)				
C	The three facult	ies:				
10.	itthindriya	(faculty of femininity)				
11.	purisináriya	(faculty of masculinity)				
12.	rūpajīvitindriya	(material faculty of life)				
D	The two modes	of self-expression:				
13.	kāyaviññatti	(bodily expression)				
14.	vacīviññatti	(vocal expression)				
E	The three chara	cteristics of matter:				
15.	lahutā	(lightness)				
16.	mudutā	(elasticity)				
17.	kammaññatā	(adaptability)				
F	The four phases	es of matter:				
18.	ирасауа	(growth)				
19.	santati	(continuity)				
20.	jaratā	(decay)				
21.	aniccatā	(impermanence)				
G	The two unclass	two unclassified elements:				
22.	ākāsadhātu	(space-element)				
23.	āhāra	(food)				
		· ,				

cannot say, therefore, that the Theravada tradition excludes the bodily impressions from its list of the different elements that constitute secondary matter, since it is implicitly included by the presence of the first three primary elements.

The second problem related to this enumeration is that Buddhism admits six sense-organs, the sixth being the mental organ (mano). However, we have seen that only the first five sense-organs are discussed and that the mental organ as well as its respective object, the mental object (dhammāvatana), are not included in the list of elements that constitute secondary matter. The reason for this exclusion is not. as David Kalupahana has suggested, that the mental organ and its respective object (dhammāyatana) belong to the viññānakkhandha rather than to the rūpakkhandha. 41 Kalupahana's interpretation is most likely grounded in the theories of the Sarvāstivāda. Sautrāntika and Yogācāra systems, according to which the mental organ (Skr.: dharmāvatana) is not part of the rūpaskandha (Pāli; rūpakkhandha). According to the Theravada tradition, however, while it is true that the mental organ belongs to the viññānakkhandha, 42 its respective object, the mental object, belongs to the rūpakkhandha itself. Since the range of the mental object is extremely wide, it does not limit itself to secondary matter. The mental object includes one primary element as well as fifteen of the elements that constitute secondary matter (numbers ten to twenty-three in the above list), which are collectively termed dhammāvatanaparivāpannarūpa. 43 Therefore, since the mental object is composed of these sixteen elements of matter, it clearly does belong to the rupakkhandha rather than to the viññānakkhandha.

The Three Divisions of Matter

According to the Sangītisutta of the Dīghanikāya, matter is divided into three dual categories: visible and "resisting"; invisible and "resisting";

⁴¹ Kalupahana, The Principles of Buddhist Psychology, p. 29.

⁴² However, as mentioned in n. 34 on p. 37, post-canonical literature has incorporated a twenty-fourth element into the list of the elements that constitute secondary matter: the heart-basis (hadayavatthu). This twenty-fourth element is recognized by Theravada scholasticism as the physical basis for the mental organ (VsmA. 449-50). The term hadaya itself, not as belonging to the secondary matter category, is also sometimes used as a synonym of mano and manoviññana (Vbh. 87, 88, 144).

⁴³ Dhs. 179; Vbh. 14, 72.

and, finally, invisible and "unresisting."44 This threefold division occurs only once in the nikāya literature, and no explanation is given for it. The commentary on this particular sutta does not shed much light on the topic either. 45 The Dhammasangani, however, clarifies the meaning of the terms. According to this abhidhammic text, the term visible (sanidassanam) is restricted to what is visible (rūpāyatana)—the only material element which can actually be perceived by the eve. 46 All the other elements of matter (primary or secondary) are considered anidassanam, for they are invisible.⁴⁷ This statement may seem to conflict with the sutta definition of the primary elements (see p. 34) according to which the earth element finds expression in, for instance, hair, nails, etc., and the water element in blood, tears, and so on-all of which are visible. The Abhidharmakofa resolves this apparent contradiction by claiming that although all four primary elements are invisible, we can actually see them in partial manifestations, for their visibility is understood from the perspective of common usage. In reality, the elements themselves are invisible:

Dans l'usage commun, ce qu'on désigne par le mot "terre," c'est de la couleur et de la figure; de même pour l'eau et le feu; le vent, c'est ou bien l'élément vent, ou bien de la couleur et de la figure. En effet, on parle de "vent noir," "vent circulaire"; mais ce qu'on appelle "vent" dans le monde, c'est aussi l'élément vent 48

The elements classified under "resisting" (sappa tigham) are the five sense-organs and their respective objects, for they can actually or potentially come in contact with one another.⁴⁹ We notice that bodily impression (phot thabbāyatana) is included in the list of resisting

⁴⁴ Tividhena rūpa-samgaho. Sanidassana-sappaṭigham rūpam, anidassana-sappaṭigham rūpam, anidassana-appaṭgham rūpam (D. iii, 217).

⁴⁵ DA. 997.

⁴⁶ Kataman tarin rūparin sanidassanarin? Rūpāyatanarin—idan tarin rūparin sanidassanarin (Dhs. 146).

⁴⁷ Katamam tam rūpam anidassanam? Cakkhāyatanam ... pe ... kabaļinkāro āhāro—idan tam rūpam anidassanam (Dhs. 146. See also Kvu. 331ff.).

⁴⁸ La Vallée Poussin, Abhidharmakośa 1:23-24.

⁴⁹ Kataman tam rūpam sappatigham? Cakkhāyatanam, sotāyatanam, ghānāyatanam, jivhāyatanam, kāyāyatanam, rūpāyatanam, saddāyatanam, gandhāyatanam, rasāyatanam, phoṭṭhabbāyatanam -idan tam rūpam sappaṭigham (Dhs. 147).

elements while not being explicitly part of the enumeration of the twenty-seven elements of rūpa—the four primary elements and the twenty-three elements that constitute secondary matter. Although bodily impression does not seem to be a constituent of the list, it is implicitly included, for the three primary elements of earth, fire and air do in fact constitute bodily impression. Bodily impression is probably excluded out of a desire to avoid duplication; since the first three primary elements constitute bodily impression, there is no need to mention this element again in the enumeration. Therefore, when the Dhammasangani says that bodily impression is resisting (sappatigham), the first three elements of earth, fire and air are intended. The unresisting elements (appatigham), on the other hand, are all those which are not resisting: 50 water and all the fourteen elements that follow, including femininity (itthindriva). Therefore, the classification of visible and resisting (sanidissanam; sappatigham) refers only to what is visible, while that of invisible and resisting (anidassanam; sappatigham) designates all the sense-organs and the sense-objects (with the exception of the rūpāyatana and the inclusion of the first three primary elements as bodily impression). And, finally, that of invisible and unresisting (anidassanam; appatigham) stands for all the remaining elements, i.e. water, femininity, masculinity, faculty of life, bodily expression, vocal expression, lightness, elasticity, adaptability, growth, continuity, decay, impermanence, space and food.

To summarize the implication of the classification of matter in the Sangūtisutta, we can say that the twenty-seven material elements are invisible (anidassanam) except, of course, rūpāyatana (the visible) which is visible (sanidassanam) by definition. The first five sense-organs and their respective objects, which include the first three primary elements as bodily impression, are resisting (sapatigham) and invisible (anidassanam), while all the other elements are non-resisting (apa tigham) and invisible (anidassanam). The reason for this first division of the material elements will become apparent at the conclusion of a discussion of the various categories of matter.

⁵⁰ We become more and more aware of inherent tautologies in etymologically grounded definitions.

Further Classifications of Matter

All the elements of matter can be further classified, as we have seen, according to different categories such as past/present/future, internal/external, gross/subtle, small/large, and far/near. In this section, we will briefly look at the implications of three of these categories, namely (1) internal and external (ajjhatta and bahiddhā), (2) gross and subtle (olārika and sukhuma) and (3) far and near (dūre and santike).

The first category establishes a distinction between internal or personal (aiihatta) and external or foreign (bahiddhā) elements. This first distinction will prove to be of great import for correlating the five aggregates with the paticcasamuppāda. This classification is not restricted to the material aggregate, but is also applicable to the other four khandha,⁵¹ for the distinction between external and internal lies simply in the fact that internal elements are those which "belong" to the individual while the external elements are those which "belong" to other individuals.⁵² The first five sense-organs are the only material elements which are internal.⁵³ According to the same source, the external material elements (see Table 4) include the four primary elements (literally the sphere of the tangible [phot thabbavatana] and the water element), the four sense-objects enumerated under the twenty-seven elements of rūpa, and all the following elements that constitute secondary matter.

The two following categories, gross and subtle, and far and near are used, as Karunadasa points out, 54 as a method for distinguishing the elements constituting mental object 55 from the other elements of $r\bar{u}pa$. According to Buddhaghosa, the meanings of "far" and "near" are not at all linked, as we would expect, to the notion of spatial proximity, but rather to the capacity of being perceived.

⁵¹ Dhs. 187.

⁵² Katame dhammā ajjhattā? Ye dhammā tesam tesam sattānam ajjhattam paccattam niyatā paṭipuggalikā upādiṇṇā rūpā vedanā saññā sankhārā viññāṇam—ime dhammā ajjhattā. Katame dhammā bahiddhā? Ye dhammā tesam tesam parasattānam parapuggalānam ajjhattam paccattam niyatā paṭipuggalikā ... pe ... viññāṇam—ime dhammā bahiddhā (Dhs. 187-88).

⁵³ Dhs. 154ff.

⁵⁴ Karunadasa, Buddhist Analysis of Matter, p. 38.

⁵⁵ See p. 40.

Table 4 The External Material Elements

pathavī earth element (part of bodily impression) fire element (part of bodily impression) teio air element (part of bodily impression) vāvo water element āро the visible rūpa sadda sound gandha smell taste rasa faculty of femininity ìtthindriva purisindriya faculty of masculinity material faculty of life rūpajīvitindriva kāyaviññatti bodily expression vacīviññatti vocal expression lahutā lightness mudutā elasticity adaptability kammaññatā ирасауа growth continuity santati iaratā decay aniccată impermanence ākāsadhātu space-element āhāra food

Gross [olārikam] means thick, that which may be seized by impact of the sensitive surface, because it has become the basis and the object of thought. Subtle [sukhuma] should be understood as the contradictory of what has been said. Remote: (an object may be) far [dūre] even though it stands near. This is when there is a difficulty of cognizing, because it is not to be seized by way of impact [ghaṭṭana]. The other term near [santike] (may apply to an object) though it stands far. This is when there is ease of cognizing, because it may be seized by way of an impact [ghaṭṭana]. ⁵⁶

Karunadasa, in turn, comments that:

⁵⁶ Pe Tin Maung, trans., The Expositor (Atthasālinī) (London: P.T.S., 1976), p. 438.

Table 5 Classification of the Twenty-seven Material Elements

Only the five previously discussed categories are listed. If an element possesses a certain quality, a "Y" is given under that particular quality. If an "N" is given, this element is characterized by the opposite quality.

Opposite qualities

mahābhūta		>		upādārūpa		
patigh	ia (sappaṭigha)	>		appatigha		
	ajjhatta		>		bahiddhā sukhuma	
	o ļārika		>			
santike	santike		>			
	mahābhūta	paṭigha	ajjhatta	o ļārika	santike	
	(primary elements)	(resisting)	(internal)	(gross)	(near)	
1. pathavī	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	
2. tejo	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	
3. vāyo	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	
4. <i>āpo</i>	Y	N	N	N	N	
5. cakkhu	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	
6. sota	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	
7. ghāna	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	
8. jivhā	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	
9. kāya	N	Ÿ	Y	Y	Y	
10. rūpa	N	Ÿ	N	Ÿ	Ÿ	
11. sadda	N	Ÿ	N	Ÿ	Y	
12. gandha	N	Y	N	Y	Y	
13. rasa	N	Ÿ	N	Ÿ	Y	
14. itthindriya	N	N	N	N	N	
15. purisindriy	a N	N	N	N	N	
16. rūpajīvitina		N	N	N	N	
17. käyaviññat		N	N	N	N	
18. vacīviññati		N	N	N	N	
19. lahutā	N	N	N	N	N	
20. mudutā	N	N	N	N	N	
21. kammañña	atā N	N	N	N	N	
22. upacaya	N	N	N	N	N	
23. santati	N	N	N	N	N	
24. jaratā	N	N	N	N	N	
25. aniccatā	N	N	N	N	N	
26. äkäsadhäti		N	N	N	N	
27. āhāra	N	N	N	N	N	

because of their being thus easily known (gahanassa sukarattā), they are styled santike (proximate). For this self-same reason they are also called oṭārika. The dhammāyatana-rūpa [elements constituting mental object] cannot be known through the medium of any of the first five sense-organs; their existence is known by a process of inference. In this sense they are not easily known (dupparinneyya). Hence they are described as dūre (far). For this self-same reason they are also called sukhuma (subtle).⁵⁷

Therefore, the material elements constituting mental objects are described as far and subtle because they are not easily perceptible. Buddhaghosa's definition of far and subtle revolves around the concept of lack of impact (ghattana), for there is no direct contact between the first five sense-organs and the mental objects. The concept of lacking an impact is similar to that of unresisting (appatigham; see p. 42) and, therefore, it is no surprise to learn that the fifteen material elements classified as far and subtle refer to the exact same elements that are classified as unresisting, i.e., those that constitute mental objects.

Implications of the Previous Classifications

Many scholars, including F.L. Woodward,⁵⁸ S.Z. Aung⁵⁹ and S. Dasgupta,⁶⁰ have been puzzled by a certain canonical definition stating that $r\bar{u}pa$ has a definite "subjective" element: $R\bar{u}pam$ ruppati (or literally: " $r\bar{u}pa$ affects"). Although I agree with Woodward that ruppati cannot be considered as the proper etymology for the word $r\bar{u}pa$, I feel that this particular definition sheds light on the nature of matter, since matter is not simply an objective reality independent of the perception of the individual.

The distinctions that we have covered so far between the different kinds of "matter" emphasize the deep empirical sense that characterizes Buddhism. It seems that Theravāda Buddhism stresses that for something to be present for someone, it needs to be perceived. Unless there is perception of the object (be it perception of the object itself or perception of its mere conceptualization), it is absolutely

⁵⁷ Karunadasa, Buddhist Analysis of Matter, p. 38.

⁵⁸ F.L. Woodward, trans., The Book of the Kindred Sayings (Samyuttanikāya) (London: P.T.S., 1917-22), 3:73.

⁵⁹ Aung, Compendium of Philosophy, p. 273.

⁶⁰ Dasgupta, A History of Indian Philosophy, 1:94.

meaningless for that person—it is absent. Absence does not deny the absolute reality of the object when unperceived by a subject, but stresses that the object is of no significance to such a subject. Understanding this, we can now make sense of the distinctions between the different kinds of matter.

The division of matter into internal and external has strong implications for this study, for it also establishes a distinction between matter endowed with ontological reality independent of its being perceived, and matter whose reality is dependent on a potential perception. The elements of matter in the internal classification are the five sense-organs (vision, audition, smell, taste and touch), and they are endowed with reality whether or not they are perceived. These five sense-organs are also dependent on the primary elements, which constitute their foundation. The four primary elements, therefore, are also endowed with the same reality. The category "external" refers to the material elements whose reality is dependent on a potential perception. It is easy to understand why four of the sense-objects (visible forms, sounds, smells and tastes) are included in this division, for they can all potentially be perceived by an individual.

The inclusion in this division of the four primary elements and the last fourteen elements that constitute secondary matter may seem problematic at first. Furthermore, the exclusion of bodily impressions and of mental objects (dhammāyatana) from the "external" category would seem equally odd. We must recall, however, that bodily impression is made up of the first three great elements (earth, fire and air). Although all the four great elements have a reality independent of potential perception, they become factors in the bodily impression only when they can be perceived by an individual, that is, only when there can be an actual contact between an individual and the first three elements. In other words, these three great elements are not always bodily impression, although the bodily impression itself is always composed of them.

As for the mental objects, they are only apparently left out since they are described by the fifteen elements: the fourth primary element (water) and the last fourteen elements that constitute secondary matter (water, femininity, masculinity, faculty of life, bodily expression, vocal expression, lightness, elasticity, adaptability, growth, continuity, decay, impermanence, space and food). The same reasoning employed above regarding the bodily impression is applicable to the mental object: the

mental object is always composed of one or more of the fifteen elements given above.

With respect to the paticcasamuppāda, the most important of the various divisions of matter is that between internal (objective) and external (subjective) matter. The first refers to material reality (as well as our five sense-organs) existing independently of the potential perception of it, and the second to the form that matter takes in order to be apprehended by the senses. In other words, this twofold division can be expressed as (1) the five sense-organs as well as the four primary elements, and (2) the six sense-objects. The first four sense-objects are explicitly listed in the Pali canon as categories of matter, while the last two (bodily impression and mental object) are implicitly included by, respectively: (1) the first three primary elements, and (2) the water element and the last fourteen elements that constitute secondary matter. It is these six sense-objects that constitute the "subjective" aspect of matter—subjective in the sense that they can potentially be perceived by, and affect (ruppati), the individual.

Correlation between the Rūpakkhandha and the Paticcasamuppāda

There is a direct relation between the rūvakkhandha and the fifth and sixth links of the chain of dependent origination: the six sense-doors (sa lāyatanā) and contact (phassa). The six sense-doors (sa lāyatanā) are usually understood in terms of "internal" and "external"—respectively, the six sense-organs and the six sense-objects. However, it is widely understood that in the formula of the paticcasamuppāda itself, the term salāyatanā includes only the six sense-doors and not their respective objects. 61 The sutta, abhidhammic and commentarial literature support this view. 62 There is, therefore, a direct correlation with the six sensedoors link of the paticcasamuppāda and the five sense-organs that partly constitute the rūpakkhandha. The problem that we face, however, is that the six sense-doors include six sense-organs, whereas the rūpa-

⁶¹ Karunadasa, Buddhist Analysis of Matter, p. 79; Bhikkhu Nanamoli, trans., The Guide (Nettippakaranam) (London: P.T.S., 1977), p. 48, n. 164/5; Nyānātiloka, Buddhist Dictionary, p. 25, 123.

⁶² Katamañca bhikkhave salāyatanam. Cakkhāyatanam sotāyatanam ghānāyatanam jiyhäyatanam käyätanamam manäyatanam. Idam vuccati bhikkhave saläyatanam (S. ii, 3). Tattha katamari nāmarūpapaccayā saļāyatanari? Cakkhāyatanari ... pe ... manāyatanam; idam vuccati nāmarūpapaccayā salāyatanam (Vbh. 164. See also a similar interpretation in Vsm. 565).

kkhandha only admits five of them by excluding the mental organ from its list, the latter belonging to the $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}anakkhandha$. However, the mental sense-organ has already been implicitly introduced into the chain of dependent origination by the two preceding links, $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ and $n\bar{a}ma-r\bar{u}pa$, anallowsiana and, as we will now see, the following link, contact (phassa), explicitly requires the presence of the mental organ.

Contact is usually defined as the meeting of consciousness (viññāṇa), a sense-organ (indriya) and an external stimulus (visaya).64 In keeping with this understanding, contact not only requires the presence of a consciousness, 65 but also of the sense-organs and the sense-objects. The sense-objects are presumably excluded from the six sense-doors link as it seems to be an explanation of our personal bondage to misery; since sense-objects, when unperceived, have no influence on our binding to samsāra, it is understandable that they are not included. However, they are included in the link of contact, for here, by actually being perceived, they have a direct influence on the individual. There is a further correlation between the sense-objects discussed in the rūpakkhandha and those of contact. In the rūpakkhandha the sense-objects are potential objects of perception, while here, because of the congregation of consciousness, sense-organs and sense-objects, they are actual objects of perception. The conjunction of these three implies that contact is bare sensory experience, devoid of any subjective inclinations. Contact therefore refers to bare percept. It is important, however, to note the difference between contact and the sense-objects. While the latter can potentially be perceived, the former is actually perceived.

In our discussion of the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$, we have seen that, when divided into the categories of sense-organs and sense-objects, matter can be correlated to two links of the $paticcasamupp\bar{a}da$ —namely the six sense-doors $(sal\bar{u}yatan\bar{u})$ and contact (phassa). The sense-organs (except the mental organ) belong to the six sense-doors, while the sense-objects along with the mental organ are included in contact. When these sense-objects are actually perceived, they constitute, along

⁶³ The exact interrelation among viññāṇa, nāmarūpa, mano and the other sense-organs and the following links of the chain will be explained in the chapter on viññāṇa.

⁶⁴ Cakkhuñ c'āvuso paṭicca rūpe ca uppajjati cakkhuviññāṇaṁ tiṇṇaṁ saṅgati phasso (M. i, 111. A similar passage is found in S. iv, 32).

⁶⁵ As we will see in the chapter on viññāṇa, there are six types of consciousness, one of which is the manoviññāṇa.

with consciousness and the sense-organs, "contact"—which I would describe as bare sensory experience, devoid of any subjective inclination. This experience can potentially turn into a sensation $(vedan\bar{a})$, 66 the aggregate discussed in the next chapter.

⁶⁶ Phassapaccayā vedanā (M. ii, 32); stated slightly differently at M. iii, 242. See also M. iii, 17 and its commentary MA. iv, 78.

Chapter 3

The Vedanākkhandha

The whole of the rūpakkhandha, as we saw in the previous chapter, is contained by "the six sense-organs" (sa ļāyatana) and contact (phassa). According to the formula of the paticcasamuppāda, phassa is a necessary condition for the arising of vedanā (sensation). The principal difference between contact and vedanā should be noted carefully: the former is the mere perception of external stimuli—a perception devoid of any subjective interpretation; the latter, however, has a definite subjective content, for it must either be pleasant, unpleasant or neutral. It is this subjectivity that differentiates vedanā from contact.

According to the Yamaka, there is no distinction between the terms vedanā and vedanākhandha,² and nowhere in the canon is such a distinction elaborated. The Majjhimanikāya explains the meaning of the term vedanā by "vedeti vedetīti kho āvuso, tasmā vedanā ti vuccati":³ "it is called 'sensation' because one 'senses.'" Here again, a Pāli text defines a term through the use of etymologically related terms, thus hindering a clear understanding. However, the Pāli Text Society Dictionary agrees with the canonical statement holding that the word vedanā is derived from the root "ved" or the verb "vedeti," both meaning "to know" or "to experience." If the word vedanā is indeed related to vedeti, the implication is that vedanā means either physical or mental experience.

Several divisions of *vedanā* into categories ranging in number from two to one hundred and eight can be found in the Pāli Canon.⁴

¹ Katamā pan' ayye sukhā vedanā, katamā dukkhā vedanā, katamā adukkhamasukhā vedanā ti. Yam kho āvuso Visākha kāyikam vā cetasikam vā sukham sātam vedayitam ayam sukhā vedanā ... (M. i, 302).

² Vedanā vedanākkhandho ti? Āmantā (Ymk. 17).

³ M. i. 293.

^{4 &}quot;Oh, Ānanda, according to one classification, vedanā are classified in two, according to another, in three, according to another, in five, to another, in six, according to another, in eighteen, to another, in thirty-six, to another, in one hundred and eight." Dve p'Ānanda vedanā vuttā mayā pariyāyena tisso pi vedanā vuttā mayā pariyāyena, pañca pi vedanā vuttā mayā pariyāyena, cha pi vedanā vuttā mayā pariyāyena, at thādasa pi vedanā vuttā mayā pariyāyena, chattimsāpi vedanā vuttā mayā pariyāyena, at thasatam vedanāsatam pi vuttam mayā pariyāyena (M. i, 398; also at S. iv, 224).

Of these, the most important classifications group vedanā into categories of three, five and six. The Majihimanikava clarifies the threefold division of vedanā into pleasant, painful and neither pleasant nor painful. By further distinguishing these three sorts of vedanā between those experienced either on the body or in the mind, we arrive at a sixfold division. 5 The Samvuttanikāva elaborates a similar classification 6 which takes into consideration whether the vedanā is mental or physical in nature. This classification is usually known as the pañcindriva. where the five indriva refer to the five types of vedanā: these are not to be confused with the five moral strengths (pañcabalā) of the same name (pañcindrivā). As pañcindrivā, vedanā are divided into five groups: the first two refer to pleasant (sukhindrivā) and painful (dukkhindrivā) bodily vedanā, the third and fourth are pleasant (somanassindrivā) and painful (domanassindrivā) mental vedanā, and finally the fifth consists of neither pleasant nor painful (upekkhindriyā) bodily and mental vedanā. 8 Vedanā are also grouped into six divisions based on the

⁵ M. i, 302.

⁶ S. v. 210.

Almost no difference is found between the five faculties, pañcindriyā, and the five strengths, pañcabalā; both refer to the exact same qualities. The only semantic nuance found in the texts is one pertaining to the quality and opposite quality of each of the indriva. The faculties of (1) faith, (2) effort, (3) mindfulness, (4) concentration and (5) wisdom, respectively, have as qualities and opposite qualities: (1) determination and disbelief, (2) energy and idleness, (3) establishing and negligence, (4) calmness and agitation and (5) knowledge and ignorance (Ps. iii, 22-23). These pairs of qualities play a critical role in the distinction between bala and indriva because the meaning of these two terms is defined in reference to these qualities and opposite qualities. The Sāratthappakāsinī seems to derive its interpretation of indriva from the word inda, meaning ruler [Indra in Sanskrit refers to the wrathful god who held a powerful position in the vedic pantheon, hence the Pali meaning] since each of the five faculties is regarded as the controlling factor, a ruler of its respective quality (SA. iii, 247). For example, the faculty of faith is considered an indriva because of its perfect control over the characteristic of determination. The same source explains the use of bala, or strength, because it is unshakable by the opposite faculty. The bala of faith is so-called because its steadiness when confronted with its opposite quality, disbelief (SA. iii, 247). The Patisambhidāmagga commentary gives a very similar definition, with the distinction that the author has replaced the word inda by adhipati, which also means "ruler" (PsA. iii, 618-19). The Patisambhidāmagga commentary's definition is copied verbatim in the Visuddhimagga (Vsm. xxii, 37). Although the nuance identified in the commentaries is worth noting, it does not indicate any major distinction between indriva and bala.

particular sense-organ (āvatana) through which the vedanā is "perceived." The first five sense-organs—eye, ear, nose, tongue and body—are physical, while the sixth sense-organ—the mind—is mental. Although there is a clear distinction between mental and physical vedanā, this arrangement from the Majihimanikāva—with its predominance of bodily vedanā—implicitly underscores the aggregate's physical aspect. Since only the *vedanā* triggered by the sixth sense-organ (the mental organ) has a stronger mental content, it is logical to assume that most of the vedanā are physically based. However, it is important to stress that even those vedanā related to the five physical sense-organs do have a mental function, for vedanā is different from mere percept in that a certain interpretation of the stimuli must have taken place. Vedanā, as stated previously, are always either pleasant, unpleasant or neutral, a characteristic that differentiates them from objective percept. Therefore, my use of the term "sensation" as a translation for vedanā does not, it should be stressed, refer to an anoetic sentience, or a bare experience devoid of personal inclinations.

In order to understand the role that *vedanā* plays within the theory of dependent origination, it is of crucial importance to examine the states which are deprived of *vedanā*, for these attainments have been the objectives of most Theravāda Buddhist practitioners. They are also those that are attained when any link of the *paṭiccasamuppāda* is deactivated. In the next pages we will therefore clarify the distinctions with two types of *nibbāna* and with a state that resembles it—*saññā-vedayitanirodha*.

The Eradication of Vedanā

Pāli texts repeatedly refer to a state beyond sensation or, more literally, a state characterized by the eradication of saññā and vedanā (saññā-vedayitanirodha), which Buddhaghosa and Dhammapāla have compared to nibbāna. An understanding of the nature of this state will have a

Cha vedanākāya veditabbā ti iti ... paṭicca vuttam? Cakkhuň ca paṭicca rūpe ca uppajjati cakkhuviññāṇam, tiṇṇam samgati phasso, phassapaccayā vedanā; sotañ ca paṭicca sadde ca uppajjati sotaviṇṇāṇam; ghānañ ca paṭicca gandhe ca uppajjati ghānaviṇṇāṇanam; jivhañ ca paṭicca rase ca uppajjati jivhāviṇṇāṇam; kāyañ ca paṭicca phoṭṭhabbe ca uppajjati kāyaviṇṇāṇam; manañ ca paṭicca dhamme ca uppajjati manoviññāṇam, tiṇṇam samgati phasso, phassapaccayā vedanā. Cha vedanākāya veditabbā ti iti yan tam vuttam idam etam paṭicca vuttam. Idam pañcamam chakkam (M. iii, 281).

direct impact on our understanding of Buddhist soteriology and of *nibbāna* itself. I begin my investigation of *saññāvedayitanirodha* by examining the textual evidence describing it, and then looking at some modern interpretations of the state.

Since nibbāna, according to the Theravāda tradition, is possessed of a single nature, without division, there is a certain irony to the heated debates among scholars as to its exact nature. Some equate nibbāna with the state of consciousness attained by Siddhattha Gotama at the age of thirty-five under the Bodhi tree; this state is also experienced upon attaining arahanthood. Others perceive nibbāna as a state that can be attained only upon death, since it is often described as a condition beyond mind and matter (nāmarūpa), transcending the five aggregates. A third group interprets nibbāna as being synonymous with the mental state known as saññāvedayitanirodha (literally "the cessation of recognition and of sensation"). The last interpretation falls somewhere between the first two, for it is clearly described as an experience beyond mind and matter but wherein the experiencer continues to live after exiting the trance. (It is worth noting, however, that the experiencer is clinically dead during the trance.)

A Bhāradvāja brāhmana once asked the Buddha: "How can one untangle this mess?" Considering the tradition's seemingly conflicting opinions regarding the true interpretation of nibbāna, this is a question we could ask too! I will look at subtle distinctions between these apparently different states. An examination of the distinction between the nibbāna that the Buddha attained at the age of thirty-five and the nibbāna he entered into at the time of death, followed by a study of traditional and academic controversies associated with saññāvedayitanirodha, will shed light on the question of whether the interpretation of

¹⁰ AbhS. vi,14.

¹¹ Th. Stcherbatsky represents the followers of this perspective: "Buddha and Nirvāna are different names for the same thing" (Th. Stcherbatsky, The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāna [Varanasi: Bharatiya Vidya Prakashan, 1968], p. 79).

¹² As Louis de La Vallée Poussin stated in one of his lectures at Manchester College: "It may therefore be safely maintained that Nirvāṇa is annihilation" (The Way to Nirvana: Six Lectures on Ancient Buddhism as a Discipline of Salvation [Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979], p. 117).

¹³ Anto jaṭā bahi jaṭā jaṭāya jaṭitā pajā: tam tam Gotama pucchāmi: ko imam vijaṭaye jaṭan ti. S. i, 13; 165. Also quoted in Buddhaghosa's introduction to his Visuddhimagga (Vsm. 1).

saññāvedayitanirodha is consistent throughout the tradition, and on the role of vedanā in the attainment of the Buddhist ideal.

Most Buddhist schools hold that the historical Buddha experienced enlightenment under the Bodhi tree at the age of thirty-five and, according to certain scholars, 14 reached nibbāna simultaneously. According to others, however, he only entered into nibbāna when he passed away at the age of eighty. These two perspectives on nibbāna are not, however, mutually exclusive; there are said to be two types of nibbāna, namely sopādisesa (with residue) and nirupādisesa or anupādisesa (without residue).

According to Pāli texts, nibbāna has a single nature and is thus without division or distinction. But for analytical purposes, and in order to describe the attainment of nibbāna, the concept can be divided into two categories: with residue and without residue. ¹⁵ This apparent paradox is thoroughly explained by Buddhaghosa in the Visuddhimagga:

But this [single goal, nibbāna] is firstly called with result of past clinging left (sopādisesa) since it is made known together with the [aggregates resulting from the past] clinging still remaining [during the arahant's life], being thus made known in terms of the stilling of defilement and the remaining [result of the past] clinging that are present in one who has reached it by means of development. But [secondly, it is called without result of past clinging left (nirupādisesa)] since after the last consciousness of the arahant, who has abandoned arousing [future aggregates] and so prevented kamma from giving result in a future [existence], there is no further arising of aggregates of existence, and those already arisen haven disappeared. So the [result of past] clinging that remained is non-existent; and it is in terms of this non-existence,

^{14 &}quot;Aussi bien quand le Bouddha est parvenu du même coup à la Clairvoyance et au Nirvâna, c'est un cri de triomphe et d'allégresse qui s'échappe de ses lèvres à l'idée qu'il a enfin brisé les chaînes du Destin et s'est pour toujours libéré de la prison corporelle" (A. Foucher, La Vie du Bouddha d'après les textes et les monuments de l'Inde [Paris: J. Maisonneuve, 1987], p. 326).

¹⁵ Tad etam [nibbānam] sabhāvato ekavidham pi, saupādisesanibbānadhātu anupādisesanibbānadhātu ceti duvidham hoti kāranapariyāyena (Abhs. vi, 14). The text further classifies nibbāna into three modes: void, signless and absolute content. This division, however, does not influence our discussion. See S.Z. Aung's translation of the Abhiddhammatthasangaha entitled Compendium of Philosophy (London: P.T.S., 1979), p. 166.

in the sense that "there is no [result of past] clinging here, that the [same goal is called] without result of past clinging left." 16

The Itivuttaka—upon which the previous passage of the Visuddhimagga probably bases its interpretation—mentions that one who has attained nibbāna with residue continues to possess the five senses and to experience both pleasant and painful sensations, 17 while the attainment of nibbāna without residue is characterized by the eradication of all becomings (bhava), 18 implying that no emergence from this state is possible.

On the other hand, the state of sopādisesa nibbāna, as the words themselves imply, is nibbāna with residue in the sense that subtle kamma still remain. These kamma are not strong enough to propel the arahant into another rebirth, but merely sufficient to maintain the life process. Liberated persons cease to produce further kamma, for the kamma-process (kammabhava) has been eradicated. They have eradicated all kamma-results (kammavipāka) that may lead to another life, but must still reap some subtle kamma-results in this life. It is these kamma-results that maintain both the regeneration of the five aggregates and the kamma-process itself. Therefore, nibbāna with residue could be correlated to a state of mind that alters our perception of the world, or rather, enables us to really perceive the world as it is (yathābhūta).

Nirupādisesa nibbāna, on the other hand, is "nibbāna without residue" in the sense that all kamma have been completely eradicated and, consequently, no fuel remains to perpetuate life. Nibbāna without residue is usually referred to as a total extinction of the five aggregates (khandhaparinibbāna). The state of nibbāna without residue is beyond mind and matter and no different from the state of nibbāna that the Buddha attained at the moment of death.

Correlations are often made between the terms nirupādisesa nibbāna (without residue) and parinibbāna, and between sopādisesa

Nāṇamoli, The Path of Purification, pp. 580-81. This subject is further elaborated in the Itivuttaka (38-41) as well as in Kamaleswar Bhattacharya's article, "Upadhi, upādi et upādāna dans le canon bouddhique pāli," in Mélanges d'indianisme à la mémoire de Louis Renou (Paris: Publications de l'institut de civilisation indienne, 1967), pp. 81-97.

¹⁷ Disesā nibbānadhātu (It. 38).

¹⁸ Anupādisesā pana samparāyikā yamhi nirujjhanti bhavāni sabbaso (It. 38).

nibbāna and "plain" nibbāna. However, there is no sound textual justification for such an identification. In the sutta literature the term parinibbana is restricted to the passing away of arahant—the attainment of nibbāna without residue. Yet the substantive in these particular passages functions as an elegant or polite term for an arahant's death rather than entering into nibbana without residue itself. We often find the verb form parinibbāvati being used to mean the attainment of arahantship itself without implying the passing away of the arahant at that particular moment. 19 Furthermore, commentarial literature mentions two kinds of parinibbāna: (1) kilesaparinibbāna, the extinction of defilements which is equated with nibbana with residue, and (2) khandhaparinibbana. or the extinction of the aggregates—the passing away of the arahant, nibbana without residue. As Peter Masefield pointed out in his article "The Nibbāna-Parinibbāna Controversy."20 not even the past participle parinibbuta refers exclusively to the state of nibbāna without residue. 21 Because of its dubious significance. I prefer not to use the term parinibbana. The concepts of without residue (nirupādisesa) and with residue (sopādisesa) are the precise technical terms that refer respectively to the total eradication of the aggregates at the time of the death of the arahant, and to the state attained by a living arahant.

The State of Saññāvedayitanirodha

Although the distinction between these first two kinds of $nibb\bar{a}na$ is clear, the problem associated with the state of $sa\bar{n}\bar{n}\bar{a}vedayitanirodha$ is not so simple. Pāli texts repeatedly refer to this state beyond sensation—a state characterized by the eradication of recognition and sensation ($sa\bar{n}\bar{n}\bar{a}$ and $vedan\bar{a}$) which Buddhaghosa and Dhammapāla compare to $nibb\bar{a}na$. In order to better understand this mysterious state,

¹⁹ See M. i. 67.

Peter Masefield, "The Nibbāna-Parinibbāna Controversy," Religion 9 (Autumn 1979):
 216.

²¹ See the two following references. Sukham vā yadi va dukkham adukkhamasukham sahā ajjhattañ ca bahiddhā ca yam kiñci atthi veditam etam 'dukkhan' ti ñatvāna mosadhammam palokinam phussa phussa vayam passam evam tattha virajjati vedanānam khayā bhikkhu nicchāto parinibbuto ti (Sn. 144). Samāhito sampajāno sato buddhassa sāvako vedanā capajānāti vedanānanca sambhavam. Yattha cetā nirujjhanti maggañca khayagāminam vedanānam khayā bhikkhu nicchāto parinibbuto ti (S. iv, 204; similar passage at S. v, 57).

I will now examine pertinent textual evidence, and respond to some modern interpretations.

The life of Siddhattha Gotama just prior to his enlightenment. as portraved in the Arivaparivesanasutta, offers numerous references to "trancelike" states. According to this text, the bodhisattva visited many saints who were engaged in different types of penance, the most eminent being Ālārakālāma and Uddaka Rāmaputta. Gotama first approached Alarakalama and mastered the third attainment (the stage of ākiñcāyatanasamādhi) which was the highest known to his teacher. When he realized this state did not correspond to final liberation, he left Ālārakālāma and went to study under Uddaka Rāmaputta. With the latter, he quickly mastered the fourth attainment (nevasaññānāsaññā samādhi)—again, the highest he could learn from him. The bodhisattva did not regard this condition as final liberation either and thus left to pursue his goal independently.²² Only then did he finally experience nibhāna²³ and become a buddha. The text states explicitly that Gotama had attained all the eight stages—the four absorptions and the four attainments—and that he attained an even higher state: nibbana. In this same sutta. Gotama is portraved as instructing the monks, not only as to how to attain each of these eight absorptions, but also how to reach a state higher than these eight. This state is called saññāvedayitanirodha,²⁴ the eradication of recognition and sensation. At first glance this state seems to be the same as nibbana. As La Vallée Poussin says:

Ils [les bouddhistes] pensent que ce neuvième [recueillement] a été découvert par le Bouddha; ils le nomment, non pas recueillement d'inconscience ("sans samjñā"), mais recueillement de destruction de la conscience et de la sensation ("samjñā-vedayitanirodha") ou, plus simplement, recueillement de la destruction (nirodhasamāpatti); ils lui donnent un caractère nettement bouddhique en le définissant comme une prise de contact avec le Nirvāna (ou avec une entité semblable au Nirvāna).²⁵

²² Nāyarīn dhammo nibbidāya, na virāgāya na nirodhāya na upasamāya na abhiññāya na sambodhāya na nibbānāya sarīnvattati (M. i, 165).

²³ M. i, 167.

²⁴ M. i, 174-75.

²⁵ Louis de La Vallée Poussin, "Musīla et Nārada; Le chemin du nirvāṇa," in Mélanges chinois et bouddhiques (Bruxelles: Institut Belge des Hautes Études Chinoises, 1937), p. 212.

Yet many modern scholars, such as Rune Johansson, hold that saññā-vedayitanirodha is different from nibbāna:

... saññāvedayitanirodha is not included and it is not identified [in Pāli texts] with nibbāna. There are texts that would seem to imply a very close relationship, but they are exceptions. Nirodha is frequently mentioned as an aid to the attainment of nibbāna; but nibbāna can be attained on the other levels just as well, even without meditation [the author probably means the practice of the jhāna and samāpattī]; what is important is the destruction of the obsessions.²⁶

Yet the Ariyapariyesanasutta depicts the Buddha teaching his disciples how to successively reach the eight absorptions, the same eight that he had himself attained, and how to experience saññāvedayitanirodha. According to this text, the Buddha establishes a parallel between the various attainments his disciples achieve, and his own. From a rhetorical perspective, then, it would be strange for the ninth attainment of the Buddha—nibbāna—to be described as radically different from the ninth attainment of his disciples, saññāvedayitanirodha. Theoretically, there should not be any major difference between the two, especially since saññāvedayitanirodha is described in the same way that nibbāna often is. Both are described as "crossing over the entanglement of the the world," and as being out of reach of the Evil One (Māra).²⁷

If the correlation between saññāvedayitanirodha and nibbāna were based solely on this hypothesis, of course, it would not stand on firm ground. However, the correlation finds strong support in the commentarial literature—texts that Johansson may have overlooked. For example, in a chapter devoted to the discussion of saññāvedayitanirodha, the Visuddhimagga states that certain monks enter into this "trance" thinking: "Let us dwell in bliss by being without consciousness here and now and reaching the cessation that is nibbāna." A few pages later, the same text reiterates that saññāvedayitanirodha is "an attainment which a noble one may cultivate; the peace it gives is reckoned as

²⁶ Rune E.A. Johansson, *The Psychology of Nirvana* (London: George Allen and Unwin, 1969), pp. 49-50.

²⁷ M. i, 175.

²⁸ Ditth' eva dhamme acittakā hutvā nirodham nibbānam patvā sukham viharissāmā ti samāpajjanti (Vsm. 705); translation from Nāṇamoli, The Path of Purification, p. 828.

nibbāna here and now."29 The commentary of the Visuddhimagea goes even further by introducing a vague correlation between the term sannāvedayitanirodha and nibbāna without residue: Nibbānam patvā ti anupādisesanibbānam patvā viva.30 is noteworthy Tt commentator's introduction of the particle viva suggests similarity rather than identity. The passage should therefore be translated thus: "[in this particular context of the Visuddhimagga, the expression attaining nibbāna' means attaining [a state] similar to nibbāna without residue." Dhammapäla established no more than a correlation between saññāvedavitanirodha and nibbāna without residue (anunādisesanibbāna): he did not establish a one-to-one correlation between the two terms, but only stated that they are "similar."31 However, Buddhaghosa mentions that the mind of one who has emerged from saññāvedavitanirodha tends towards nibbāna.32 This suggests that the "trance" is a kind of adumbration of nibbana that bends the mind towards achieving nibbana itself rather than being a state resembling it.

Although commentarial literature vaguely links saññāvedayita-nirodha with nibbāna without residue, this equation is often questioned by scholars. For example, David Kalupahana stated that "scholars more conversant [than William James] with the Buddhist tradition go to the extent of equating the state of cessation (saññāvedayitanirodha) with freedom (nibbāna)." According to Kalupahana, these two states cannot, in any way, be equated. There seems, however, to be a flaw in Kalupahana's argument against correlating saññāvedayitanirodha with nibbāna. While he correctly points out that the former ought to be experienced by the body (kāyena sacchikaranīyā), his preceding remark is misleading; Kalupahana argues that the Ariyapariyesanasutta, in which the Buddha refused to equate freedom with the state of cessation, should serve as a corrective to this misidentification by James

²⁹ Iti santam samāpattim imam ariyasevitam, ditth' eva dhamme nibbānam iti sankham upāgatam. Vsm. 709; translation from Ñāṇamoli, The Path of Purification, p. 833.

³⁰ VsmA. 902.

³¹ Vasubandhu, in his Abhidharmakośa, seems to have been as careful as Dhammapăla in his definition of saññāvedayitanirodha: he stated only that it is similar (sadṛśa) to nibbāna (AbhK. ii, 44).

³² Vuțțhitassa kin ninnam cittam hotī ti nibbānaninnam (Vsm. 708).

³³ Kalupahana, The Principles of Buddhist Psychology, p. 76.

³⁴ Which is interpreted by the commentator as arising simultaneously with the mental body (nāma). Kāyena ti sahajātā-nāma-kāyena (D.A. iii, 1023).

and others.³⁵ A careful reading of the *Ariyapariyesanasutta*, however, shows that the Buddha never refused to equate *nibbāna* with *saññā-vedayitanirodha*. What we do find in this particular text is simply a statement that none of the eight absorptions can be equated with *nibbāna*:

This dhamma [the teaching of Alara Kalama] does not lead to disregard, nor to dispassion, nor to cessation, nor to tranquillity, nor to super-knowledge, nor to awakening, nor to nibbāna, but only as far as reaching the plane of "no-thing."³⁶

Kalupahana seems to have mistakenly associated saññāvedayitanirodha with the four absorptions and the four attainments, perhaps because it is sometimes described as the ninth absorption³⁷ or because it is one of the eight deliverances (vimokkhā).³⁸ It is important to recall, however, that saññāvedayitanirodha is not usually even mentioned along with the eight absorptions except when it is described as being higher than any of them. Moreover, the Ariyapariyesanasutta does not mention the attainment of saññāvedayitanirodha in this specific passage,³⁹ and taking it for granted as implied is risky. It is, therefore, far from clear that the Buddha refused to equate saññāvedayitanirodha with nibbāna.

Saññavedayitanirodha is known as a state beyond mind and matter, as is nibbāna without residue. However, one notable difference between the two is that the latter can only be experienced after death, while the former requires that one be alive. Alive, yes, but not apparently so. For all intents and purposes, one dwelling in saññāvedayitanirodha exhibits the same features as a deceased person, with the slight exceptions that life (āyu) and bodily heat are still present, and

³⁵ Kalupahana, The Principles of Buddhist Psychology, p. 94.

³⁶ Nāyam [Ā ļārakālāmassa] dhammo nibbidāya na virāgāya na nirodhāya na upasamāya na abhiññāya na sambodhāya na nibbānāya samvattati, yāvad-eva ākiñcaññāyatanūpapattiyā ti (M. i, 165); translation inspired by I.B. Horner, trans., The Collection of the Middle Length Sayings (Majjhimanikāyā) (London: P.T.S., 1959), 1:209. The same is said about the teaching of Uddaka Rāmaputta with the slight nuance that this latter leads no further than to the state of "neither-perception-nor-non-perception" (see M. i, 166).

³⁷ For example, the *Dīghanikāya* describes nine successive "cessations," which consist of the four absorptions, the four attainments and saññāvedayitanirodha (D. iii, 266).

³⁸ A. iv, 306.

³⁹ That is, M. i, 166-67.

62.

that the sense-organs are purified.⁴⁰ Thus the experiencer is technically but not actually dead.

We saw earlier that nirupādisesa nibbāna is sometimes defined as the total extinction of the five aggregates. Nibbana without residue is also comparable to saññavedayitanirodha in that the five aggregates are almost completely deactivated and become temporarily latent. As the name saññāvedayitanirodha implies, this state is devoid of saññā and vedanā. Without the existence of these two aggregates, neither of the two remaining mental aggregates (sankhāra and viññāṇa) can be present in their active form. According to the paticcasamuppāda, sankhāra is necessary for the arising of the viññāna, which has the potential to turn into vedanā. Thus, if vedanā is eradicated, there can be no sankhāra, for the three links of the paticcasamuppāda that follow vedanā (tanhā, upādāna and bhava) are members of the sankhārakkhandha. 41 Furthermore, in the absence of sankhāra, viññāna cannot arise. This argument is implicitly supported by the Visuddhimagga in its definition of saññāvedayitanirodha: "What is the attainment of cessation [saññāvedayitanirodha]? It is the disappearance of consciousness (citta) and its mental factors (cetasika) owing to their progressive eradication."42 Noteworthy is that abhidhamma literature synonymously interchanges the terms citta and viññāna, 43 while cetasika comprises not only vedanā and saññā, as we would expect from saññāvedayitanirodha, but also the fifty factors that constitute sankhāra. It follows that since sannāvedayitanirodha is devoid of citta and cetasika, it is therefore devoid of viññāṇa, vedanā, saññā and sankhāra as well. Only the remaining aggregate, the rūpakkhandha, must continue to be present, for the body remains alive and must be sustained by the material faculty of life (rūpajīvitindriya), one of the twenty-three elements that constitute secondary matter. Therefore, saññāvedayitanirodha is not simply a "more radical negation

⁴⁰ Āyu aparikkhīņo, usmā avūpasantā, indriyāni vippasannāni (M. i, 296).

⁴¹ See my article on "A Brief Survey of the Relation between the *Paticcasamuppāda* and the *Paācakkhandhā*", in K.I. Koppedrayer, ed., *Contact Between Cultures: South Asia* (Lewiston: Edwin Mellen Press, 1992), p. 237.

⁴² Tattha kā nirodhasamāpattī ti yā anupubbanirodhavasena cittacetasikānam dhammānam appavatti (Vsm. 702).

⁴³ Nyanatiloka, Buddhist Dictionary, p. 37.

of apperceptions [$sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$]," as Tilmann Vetter suggests,⁴⁴ but a radical negation of all four mental aggregates. In this sense, neither can it be equated, as Winston King advances,⁴⁵ with the fruits of the paths, for these are still characterized by the four mental aggregates, while $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ -vedayitanirodha is completely devoid of them.

It is said that while in the state of saññavedavitanirodha, the body is entirely protected from injury. Pāli texts offer the startling example of Mahānāga, who was dwelling in this trance when the house in which he was temporarily living caught fire. The blaze persisted until the villagers put it out: Mahānāga, meanwhile, was oblivious. After all. without the four mental aggregates, he could not possibly have been aware of anything! It is said that only the house burned; the monk was left untouched by the flames. It is interesting to note that when describing the villagers' attempt to quench the fire with water. Buddhaghosa employed the causative form (nibbāpetvā), which shares the same etymology as nibbāna. Emerging from saññāvedayitanirodha, Mahānāga made a pun ("I am discovered!").46 While in the trance, Mahānāga's own fire (i.e., his five aggregates) was temporarily quenched: after he emerged from saññavedavitanirodha and realized that the villagers were trying to extinguish the fire, he exclaimed "I (meaning the five aggregates metaphorically associated with the fire) am discovered," thus stressing the crucial polarity between fire and water, the five aggregates and nibbana. He then flew away.

Unfortunately, the sensational (albeit deprived of sensation) state of saññāvedayitanirodha is not available to just anyone. According to the Visuddhimagga, only the non-returner and the arahant who have

^{44 &}quot;Probably in a period already dominated by the method of discriminating insight some persons wished to make use of this wasteland and discovered in the cessation of apperceptions and feelings [saññāvedayitanirodha] a state (or rather a name) not yet touched by any criticism. 'Neither apperception nor non-apperception' [the fourth samāpatti] now becomes the last but one stage and its description is to be understood as a middle-way formulation allowing for a more radical negation of apperceptions" (Tilmann Vetter, The Ideas and Meditative Practices of Early Buddhism [Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1988] p. 68).

⁴⁵ Saññavedayitanirodha "is the maximum possible temporal extension of those nibbāna realizations contained in Path and fruition awareness as well as the experiential ultimate, nibbāna itself, tasted in one's present existence" (Winston Lee King, Theravāda Meditation: The Buddhist Transformation of Yoga [University Park: Pennsylvania University Press, 1980], p. 104).

⁴⁶ Vsm. 706.

successively passed through the eight absorptions can enter it.⁴⁷ This point is extremely important, for many scholars argue that equating saññavedavitanirodha with nibbana is impossible since, according to the Theravada tradition, nibbana can be experienced only by means of wisdom (paññā) and discriminative insight (vipassanā), while the eight absorptions can be attained simply by practising concentration (samatha). However, the fact that it is compulsory to be either a nonreturner or an arahant in order to experience saññāvedayitanirodha implies that a certain amount of wisdom and discriminative insight have been acquired. In fact, only those who have perfected these two qualities could be capable of experiencing the state of saññāvedavitanirodha. 48 As Winston King emphasizes, "only those who have attained the Path can attain cessation. It cannot be repeated too often that cessation is an integral blending of the two [insight (vipassanā) and concentration (samatha)]."49 Therefore, non-returners and arahant who have reached the goal (sopādhisesanibbāna) but have not followed the path of the absorptions cannot reach this state.

Paul J. Griffiths disagrees with this position so strongly that he devotes an entire book to refuting it. According to Griffiths, only the path of discriminative insight leads to nibbāna, and only the path of concentration leads to the absorptions and to saññāvedayitanirodha. The two are distinct and thus can never be blended, as King suggests, in order to attain either goal. Griffiths claims that Buddhaghosa and other commentators wrongly attempt to reconcile these two paths by correlating saññāvedayitanirodha with nibbāna without residue and by stating that in order to experience cessation, one must have already perfected wisdom through discriminative insight to the level of non-returner. His disagreement with Buddhaghosa is so intense that he

⁴⁷ Ke tam samāpajjanti, ke na samāpajjantī ti sabbe pi puthujjanā sotāpannā sakadāgāmino, sukkhavipassakā ca anāgāmino arahanto na samāpajjanti. Aṭṭha samāpattilābhino pana anāgāmino khīnāsavā ca samāpajjanti: dvīhi balehi samannāgatattā tayo ca sankhārānam paṭippassaddhiyā solasahi ñānacariyāhi, navahi samādhicariyāhi vasībhāvatā paññā nirodhasamāpattiyā ñāṇam ti hi vuttam (Vsm. 702). The reader might want to refer to the section of the Visuddhimagga (pp. 702-709) which explains how one can enter saññāvedayitanirodha, what the requirements are and how one emerges from that state, etc.

⁴⁸ See A. iii, 192; Vsm. 705.

⁴⁹ King, Theravāda Meditation, p. 108.

comes close to accusing him of heresy.⁵⁰ Griffiths' statement is rather fierce, and I do not feel his arguments bear out the charge.

Griffiths presents two major arguments against the identification of saññāvedayitanirodha and nibbāna. The first is based on the following statement from the Visuddhimagga: "Why do they attain nirodha? ... they attain it thinking: 'let us live happily [sukham] by being mindless in this very moment and having attained cessation which is nibbāna'." According to Griffiths,

it is unclear how a condition in which no mental events occur can possess affective tone as appears to be suggested [by Buddhaghosa]. Presumably it would be more accurate to describe the attainment of cessation as a condition which is free from both happiness and sadness and indeed from all affective tone whatever ⁵²

The remark is accurate; saññāvedayitanirodha is a state where none of the mental aggregates function, making it impossible to experience either pleasant or unpleasant sensations. However, Griffiths' reference does not give proper consideration to Dhammapāla's commentary to the Visuddhimagga. According to Dhammapāla, the word happiness (sukham) in this particular passage simply means the absence of suffering. The commentator believes that this is what Buddhaghosa intended when he said that those wishing to attain cessation do so in order to "live happily." The first noble truth postulates the universality of suffering. Suffering does not merely result from unpleasant sensations, physical or mental, but is inherent in all compounded phenomena (sankhāra)—all psycho-physical phenomena of existence, all five aggregates. These are characterized by constant change. They arise and pass away; they are transitory (anicca). Because of this inherent instability, they are subject to suffering. Moreover, suffering is often

⁵⁰ Paul J. Griffiths, On Being Mindless: Buddhist Meditation and the Mind-Body Problem (Illinois: Open Court, 1986), p. 29. See p. 66 below for Griffiths' actual charge.

⁵¹ Kasmā samāpajjantī ti ... ditth' eva dhamme acittakā hutvā nirodham nibbānam patvā sukham viharissāmā ti samāpajjanti (Vsm. 705).

⁵² Griffiths, On Being Mindless, p. 29.

⁵³ Sukham ti niddukkham (VsmA. 1673.22).

⁵⁴ As stated in the Samyuttanikāya: "What do you think, monks: is rūpa permanent or impermanent?" "Impermanent, Sir." "And that which is impermanent, is it suffering or pleasant?" "Suffering, Sir." Tam kim maūūatha bhikkhave rūpam niccam vā

directly correlated with the five clinging-aggregates (sankhittena pañc-upādānakkhandhā pi dukkhā). Although the state of saññāvedayita-nirodha, defined as being beyond any of the four mental aggregates, can certainly not be characterized by pleasant and unpleasant sensations, it can be understood as a "pleasant" experience in Dhammapāla's sense, for it transcends the suffering that is inherent in all types of sensations.

Griffiths' second argument is that Buddhaghosa's identification of nibbāna with saññāvedayitanirodha "seems to approach uneasily close to a standard Buddhist heresy ... for it ... encourages some version of the annihilation view."55 In the Theravada tradition, the annihilation view (ucchedadit thi) is defined as the belief (held by non-Buddhists, of course) that there is an unchanging self that remains constant throughout life and which, at the time of death, simply disappears. Of course, Buddhism categorically rejects the view that there is a permanent entity which is identified with the five aggregates:⁵⁶ the tradition denies the truth of this presupposition altogether by affirming that there is merely a sequence of similar events that are causally related, but that this similarity can in no way be perceived as identity. Furthermore, Buddhism also repudiates the view that there is absolutely no existence after death, 57 but rather that there exists a continuum from one life to another, wherein the last consciousness of the present life (cuticitta) engenders the first consciousness of the next (pațisandhiviññana). The only possible way to exit this cycle of birth, death and rebirth is to eradicate all karmic activities (sankhāra) during the lifetime and to attain nibbana; otherwise the samsaric cycle is perpetuated. This being standard Buddhist doctrine, I do not see how Griffiths can make a statement such as "many Buddhist texts, especially those which discuss the question of the nature of nibbana, do in fact read as though they embrace just this 'annihilation view,' "58 It is true that nibbana is most often described using negative terms, but reaching the goal is often the

aniccam vāti. Aniccam bhante. Yam panāniccam dukkham vā tam sukham vā ti. Dukkham bhante (S. iii, 67). The same mode of questioning is used for the four other mental aggregates.

⁵⁵ Griffiths, On Being Mindless, p. 29.

⁵⁶ Rüpam vedayitam saññam viññānam yañca sankhatam n'eso aham asmi (S. i, 112).

⁵⁷ Such as portrayed in D. i, 55.

⁵⁸ Griffiths, On Being Mindless, p. 29.

result of many lives of practice;⁵⁹ this very point indicates that there is some sort of continuum from one existence to another, a view that the nihilists would reject. "However this may be," as Griffiths continues, "it certainly seems as though this text of Buddhaghosa's, identifying the attainment of cessation with nibbāna, is one of those that encourages some version of the 'annihilation view.' "60 It is not the association of saññāvedayitanirodha with nibbāna which should be considered in this light, but nibbāna per se, as it is the latter (or at least nibbāna without residue) which is described as being beyond the five aggregates —a statement resembling the annihilation view in the sense that all constituents of the individual are destroyed, but contradicting it in that there is still something left (perfect bliss; paramam sukham), and that something existed prior to the attainment.

The Theravāda commentarial tradition has established a vague relationship between saññāvedayitanirodha and nibbāna without residue, in the sense that in the particular passage of the Vīsuddhimagga referred to earlier, Buddhaghosa does not seem to be making a straightforward doctrinal statement that saññāvedayitanirodha is nibbāna. He simply states that certain monks enter this trance thinking: "let us dwell in bliss by being without consciousness here and now and reaching the cessation that is nibbāna." The rhetorical device of placing the statement in the mouths of others is not typical of Buddhaghosa when writing in a strictly analytical manner and when supporting a doctrinal point. Perhaps the statement is meant to be understood metaphorically. Hence the commentator, Dhammapala, rushes in to prevent misunderstanding by explaining that "reaching the cessation that is nibbāna" means "as though reaching nibbāna without residue."

con view."

⁵⁹ For example, the Jātaka offers the biographies of hundreds of the previous lives of the bodhisattva on his way to enlightenment.

⁶⁰ Griffiths, On Being Mindless, p. 29.

^{61 &}quot;But [secondly, it is called without result of past clinging left (nirupādisesa)] since after the last consciousness of the Arahant, who has abandoned arousing [future aggregates] and so prevented kamma from giving result in a future [existence], there is no further arising of aggregates of existence, and those already arisen have disappeared. So the [result of past] clinging that remained is non-existent; and it is in terms of this non-existence, in the sense that there is no [result of past] clinging here, that the [same goal is called] without result of past clinging left" (Nāṇamoli, The Path of Purification, pp. 580-81).

⁶² Vsm. 705.

68

However, according to Pāli sources, there is a major distinction between saññāvedayitanirodha and nibbāna. On the one hand, nibbāna is not merely a meditative state, but a phenomenon which exists by itself (sabhāvadhamma). As an ontological phenomenon, sibbāna differs from all other dhamma in that it is unconditioned, unborn, 63 undying, 64 etc. It is realized by practitioners when they attain the paths and fruits, but its existence is by no means dependent on anyone's attainment. Nibbana exists and remains as such whether or not it is realized. On the other hand, saññāvedavitanirodha is not a phenomenon which exists by itself since it has no individual essence and it is produced (nipphanna). For the simple reason that it has no individual essence, according to the Visuddhimagga, it is not classifiable as formed or unformed, mundane or supramundane. 65 According to Pali literature, nibbana is a real phenomenon (dhamma), base (āyatana), and element (dhātu), while saññavedavitanirodha is not. The latter is simply the cessation of mental factors reached through the procedure described in the Visuddhimagga.66 In the light of these canonical definitions of saññavedayitanirodha and nibbāna, the equation of these two states becomes almost impossible.

Finally, a few words must be said with regard to a final hypothesis, put forward by Louis de la Vallée Poussin⁶⁷ regarding saññāvedayitanirodha and its place within Buddhism. In his article, de La Vallée Poussin explores the debt of Buddhism to the ancient form of Samkhyā-yoga where the practice of complete withdrawal of the senses was the only means of achieving cessation of the mental activities (cittavṛttinirodha), which was in turn the only means of attaining liberation (kaivalya). He argues that the early Buddhists wanted to show that having incorporated every kind of practice into their system, they had reached an attainment higher than any of those associated with

⁶³ Dhs. 2; Sn. 362; It. 87; Ud. 80, etc.

⁶⁴ Vsm. 507.

⁶⁵ Nirodhasamāpattisankhatā asankhatā ti 'ādi pucchāyam pana sankhatā ti pi asankhatā ti pi lokiyā ti pi lokuttarā ti pi na vattabbā. Kasmā? Sabhāvato n' atthitāya (Vsm. 709). A similar statement regarding the mundane and supramundane classification of sannāvedayitanirodha is found in the Kathavatthu, p. 516.

⁶⁶ Vsm. 705ff.

⁶⁷ Louis de La Vallée Poussin, "Le Nirvāṇa d'après Āryadeva," in Mélanges chinois et bouddhiques (Bruxelles: Institut Belge des Hautes Études Chinoises, 1932), 1:127-35.

other practices.⁶⁸ Therefore integrating saññāvedayitanirodha into the Buddhist tradition may have been simply the result of an attempt to make Buddhism appear superior to rival practices.

As mere scholars with limited resources at our disposition, it may be impossible to determine with certainty whether nibbana and sannavedavitanirodha are truly one and the same; but we can be sure of the existence of profound controversies on the subject! I have argued. however, that Kalupahana and Griffiths, both of whom challenge the commentarial correlation between the two terms, fail to provide adequate support for their positions. Nor do the Pāli texts seem to be in total accord on this matter: the sutta literature does not explicitly equate saññāvedavitanirodha with nibbāna, the abhiddhamma seems to stress the difference between these two stages, and the commentarial and sub-commentarial literature imply a similarity between them. Yet, one point seems clear: nibbana and saññavedavitanirodha both share a "blissful feeling"69 (which itself may again be interpreted in various ways). The peace generated by saññāvedayitanirodha "is reckoned as nibbāna here and now" for it shares nibbāna's peaceful quality. However, saññavedavitanirodha cannot be identical to nibbana, for it has no individual essence (sabhava) and it is produced (nipphanna). It could simply be a kind of blissful foretaste of the nibbana element without residue, but on this matter as well, the texts remain unclear. One certain thing, however, is that saññāvedavitanirodha is a state where the four mental aggregates are temporarily deactivated.

The State of Vedanākkhaya

Now that we have discussed saññavedayitanirodha, we also ought to mention another kind of elimination of sensation. This, however, is not termed eradication (nirodha), but rather destruction (khaya), and refers to a slightly different state. We find passages including this term in the Suttanipāta:

⁶⁸ This hypothesis of "appropriation" was also advanced by Martin Wiltshire regarding other Buddhist doctrines. See Ascetic Figures Before and in Early Buddhism: The Emergence of Gautama as the Buddha (New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 1990).

⁶⁹ Blissful in the sense that it is devoid of sensation rather than being characterized by a pleasant feeling.

⁷⁰ VsmA. 833.

Whatever sensations one experiences, pleasant, unpleasant or neutral, inside or outside, they should be understood as suffering, as illusory, as destined for destruction. Realizing that whenever there is contact, sensations pass away [as soon as they arise], one is free from passion, has destroyed the sensations and is fully liberated (parinibbuto).⁷¹

Similar passages are found in the Samyuttanikāya:

A disciple of the Buddha, with concentration, awareness and constant thorough understanding of impermanence [sampajāno] knows with wisdom the sensations, their arising, their cessation and the path leading to their destruction. One who has reached the destruction of sensation is freed from craving, is fully liberated (parinibbuto).⁷²

According to the texts, people "destroying sensations" are fully liberated, yet nowhere is it stated, as it is with the state of saññā-vedayitanirodha, that in order to undertake this practice and attain the goal, one must have previously attained the eight absorptions. Therefore, a difference seems to be implied between the state of destruction of sensations (vedanākkhaya) and saññāvedayitanirodha. Moreover, people who have accomplished the state of destruction of sensations are still alive and interact with the world, whereas those dwelling in the state of saññāvedayitanirodha are characterized by a complete alienation from experience.

As was pointed out by Padmasiri de Silva,⁷³ the state of destruction of sensations (vedanākkhaya) does not imply the destruction of all sensations. According to the Samyuttanikāya, vedanā can be classified into eight types. The first four are caused by bodily disturbances such as those originating from bile (pitta), phlegm (semha),

⁷¹ Sukham vā yadi va dukkham adukkhamasukham sahā ajjhattañ ca bahiddhā ca yam kiñci atthi veditam etam 'dukkhan' ti ñatvāna mosadhammam palokinam phussa vayam passam evam tattha virajjati vedanānam khayā bhikkhu nicchāto parinibbhuto ti (Sn. 738-39).

⁷² Samāhito sampajāno sato buddhassa sāvako | vedanā capajānāti vedanānanca sambhavam | yattha vetā nirujjhanti magganca khayagāminam | vedanānam khayā bhikkhu nicchāto parinibbuto ti | | (S. iv, 204. Another similar passage is at S. v, 57).

⁷³ Padmasiri de Silva, "Kamma and vedanānupassanā," in *The Importance of Vedanā and Sampajañña* (Igatpuri: Vipassanā Research Institute, 1990), n.p. (paragraph 11 of the article).

wind (vata), and a combination of them all (sannipātika). The fifth originates from climatic conditions (utuparināmaiā). The sixth arises from disagreeable things coming together (visamaparihārajā) such as sitting too long or an improper combination of food. The seventh is caused by injuries and external attacks (opakkamika), such as being bitten by a snake. And finally, the eighth type of vedanā is caused by the ripening of one's own kamma (kammavipākajāni vedavitāni).⁷⁴ Of all these types, it is only the last, those sensations generated by past kamma, that are destroyed when the expression vedānākkhavā is used. The other seven types of vedanā are still functioning. When one has attained the state of destruction of sensations, one still functions normally, but no vedanā arises because of past kamma. Furthermore, those vedanā that arise do not lead to the production of any new kamma, for those who have attained this state are, as stated in the two passages quoted above, fully liberated (parinibbuto). This attainment of full liberation, as long as one is alive, is no different from nibbana with residue, 75 for it can be considered a state of mind, or more accurately. the state of a purified mind.

Vedanā as Bifurcation Point

The place that vedanā occupies in Buddhist soteriology is crucial, since vedanā constitutes the bifurcation point from which diverge the road leading to the multiplication of unhappiness and the road leading to the eradication of misery. Because of the Buddhist pivotal theory of dependent origination (paticcasamuppāda), vedanā is often misunderstood as not only being the basis for, but also as inevitably leading to, craving. However, if we carefully examine the Great Discourse on Causation (Mahānidānasutta) where each of the twelve links of the theory of dependent origination is explained, we do not find any textual

⁷⁴ S. iv. 230.

⁷⁵ Arahattapattito paṭṭhāya kilesavaṭṭassa khepitattā sa-upādisesena carimacittanirodhena khandhavaṭṭassa khepitattā anupādisesena cā ti dvīhi pi parinibbānehi parinibbutā anupādāno viya padīpo apannattikabhāvam gatā (DhA. ii, 163).

⁷⁶ Vedanāya kho Vaccha annānā vedanāsamudaye annānā vedanānirodhe annānā vedanānirodhagāminiyāpat ipadāya annānā. Evam imāni anekavihitāni dit t higatāni loke uppajanti. "Vaccha, it is from the lack of knowledge in reference to the arising of sensations, to the eradication of sensations and to the path leading to the eradication of sensations that various wrong views regarding the universe arise" (S. iii, 258). Wrong views are said to bind one to misery.

72

evidence stating that *vedanā* necessarily leads to craving. All that is said is:

"With sensation as condition, there is craving. This, Ānanda, should be understood in this way. If there were no sensation at all, of any kind, anywhere—i.e., no sensation arising from eyecontact, no sensation arising from ear-contact, no sensation arising from body-contact, and no sensation arising of mind-contact—then, no sensation would be present; with the cessation of sensation, would craving be discerned?" "Definitely not, bhante." "Therefore, Ānanda, sensation is the cause, source, origin and condition for craving."

This passage explicitly states that $vedan\bar{a}$ is a condition for craving, and that if no $vedan\bar{a}$ is found, craving cannot arise. But it does not state that $vedan\bar{a}$ is the only causal factor involved in the production of craving. The fact that craving cannot be produced without the presence of a $vedan\bar{a}$ does not imply that craving is necessarily produced when a $vedan\bar{a}$ is present. As Kalupahana noted:

While it is true, and this is actually the position held by the Buddha, that pleasant sensations *could* give rise to craving and lust, and unpleasant sensations (dukkhā vedanā) can be the cause of aversion and hatred (dosa), the causal relation is not a one-to-one relation.⁷⁸

^{77 &}quot;Vedanāpaccayā taṇhā ti' iti kho pan' etam vuttam, tad Ānanda iminā p'etam pariyāyena veditabbam yathā vedanāpaccayā taṇhā. Vedanā va hi Ānanda nābhavissa sabbena sabbam sabbathā sabbam kassaci kimhici, seyyathīdam cakkhu-samphassajā vedanā, sota-samphassajā vedanā, ghāna-samphassajā vedanā, jivhā-samphassajā vedanā, kāya-samphassajā vedanā, mano-samphassajā vedanā, sabbaso vedanāya asati vedanā-nirodhā api nu kho taṇhā paññāyethāti? No h'etam bhante'. 'Tasmā ih'Āmanda (sic) es'eva hetu etam nidānam esa samudayo esa paccayo taṇhāya, yadidam vedanā'" (D. ii, 58). A similar passage is repeated for each of the twelve links.

Kalupahana, The Principles of Buddhist Psychology, p. 46. Th. Stcherbatsky supports this view by saying that the "pratityasamutpāda can hardly be called causation in the sense in which it is usually understood. It really means dependently co-ordinated-origination or dependent existence. According to it every momentary entity springs into existence in co-ordination with other moments. Its formula is 'asmin sati idam bhavati' there being this, there appears that! According to this, there could be neither causa materialis, nor causa efficiens. An entity is not really produced, it is simply co-ordinated" (The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāṇa, p. 9).

Vedanā itself is devoid of the connotation that many have read into the paticcasamuppāda; vedanāpaccavā tanhā does not imply that vedanā is a sufficient condition for the arising of tanhā (craving), but simply that it is a necessary condition. For example, when narrating his experience before he attained enlightenment, the Buddha mentioned to Aggivessana that while dwelling in ihanic ecstasy, he was not affected by the pleasurable *vedanā* that characterize such states.⁷⁹ and was not. therefore, generating craying. The Buddha was experiencing sensations. but was not producing any kamma or craving. A further example is found in the Majjhimanikāva where the Buddha is described as experiencing the arising and fading away of sensations.80 Since a Buddha, by definition, is completely free from craving, the vedanā that arise within him cannot give rise to craving. Hence, vedanā itself is not a sufficient condition for the emergence of craving; rather, the perspective from which sensations are approached plays a crucial role in the emergence of craving. In fact, the Majihimanikaya states that those vedanā approached as impermanent, sorrowful and subject to the vicissitudes of life (viparināmadhamma) eradicate the tendency of reacting to sensations with greed. 81 which would ultimately generate craving.

Wholesome and Unwholesome Vedanā

This particular soteriological approach to sensations is further described in the *Samyuttanikāya* as leading away from craving and any other defilements. Describing a monk in contemplation, the Pāli sources say:

He is aware of the *vedanā* thus: "there has arisen in me one of the five types of *vedanā*. Now this has its condition, its cause, its reasons, and has been conditioned. That this *vedanā* should arise without these is impossible." Thus he comes to know fully the *vedanā*, its arising and its ceasing: and; thereafter, when a *vedanā*

⁷⁹ Evarūpā pi kho me Aggivessanauppannā sukhā vedanā cittam na pariyādāya tiṭṭhati. Literally: Thus, Aggivessana, my mind was standing not having been overpowered by the pleasurable vedanā previously arisen (M. i, 247).

⁸⁰ Yampi, bhante, Bhagavato viditā vedanā uppajanti, viditā upaṭṭhahanti, viditā abbhattham gacchanti (M. iii, 124).

⁸¹ M. iii, 218-20.

74

arises, it comes to cease without remainder,—that also he fully knows.⁸²

The Maiihimanikāya further states that a "certain kind" of vedanā which kind may still be either pleasant, painful or neutral—is conducive to the development of unwholesome states (akusalā dhammā), while "another kind" of vedanā leads to the cultivation of wholesome states.83 This passage does not reveal which kind of vedanā is conducive to either wholesome or unwholesome states, but its commentary, the Papañcasūdanī, clarifies this point. This source defines the sensations leading to the unwholesome states as belonging to the householder (gehasitā), 84 but makes no mention of those leading to the wholesome state. In another sutta of the Majihimanikāva, however, unwholesome states are contrasted with those belonging to the renouncer (nekkhamasitā);85 it seems that those belonging to the renouncer are conducive to wholesome states since their very quality lies in the way they are approached. They are perceived as "they really are," i.e., as painful and impermanent. This distinction between these two types of vedanā is not intrinsic to the vedanā themselves, but rather results from the way one approaches the vedanā. However, we have to be careful not to be misled by the terms. Although the words gehasitā and nekkhamasitā literally refer to the household life and that of renunciation respectively, they concern the mental disposition of a person rather than their outer dress or apparent condition. Nothing prevents a householder from attaining stages that certain monastics have failed to reach due to their lack of practice. As is stated in the

⁸² So evam pajānāti. Uppannam kho me idam domanassindriyam (and for all the other indriya). Tanca kho sanimittam sanidānam sasankhāram sappaccayam. Tam vata animittam anidānam asankhāram appaccayam domanassindriyam uppajjissatīti netam thānam vijjati. So domanassindriyam ca pajānāti domanassindriyasamudayanca pajānāti. Domanassindriyanirodham ca pajānāti. Yattha cuppannam domanassindriyam aparisesam nirujjhati tanca pajānāti (S. v. 14). I have taken the liberty of translating the term indriya as vedanā since the term pancindriyāni, in this particular context, refers to the five types of vedanā. See p. 52 for a discussion of these five indriya.

⁸³ Idha' ekaccassa evarūpam sukham vedanam vediyatoakusalā dhammā abhivaḍḍhanti kusalā dhammā parihāyanti, idha pan'ekaccassa evarūpam sukham vedanam vediyato akusalā dhammāparihāyanti kusalā dhammā abhivaḍḍhanti. ... The same is given in respect to painful and neutral vedanā (M. i, 475).

⁸⁴ Evarūpam sukham vedanam pajahathā ti idam cha gehasitasomanassavasena (MA. ii, 187).

⁸⁵ M. iii, 217ff.

Dhammapāda: "Even though one may be highly dressed—in other words, not wearing the simple monastic habit and therefore being a householder—if one is poised, calm, controlled and established in the holy life, having laid aside the rod towards all beings, this person is truly a brahmana, a recluse, a bhikkhu."86 This passage supports the popular adage habitus non facit monachum (clothes don't make the monk). The Păli canon even apprises us of certain householders who had attained a higher development than certain monks. For example, Citta Gahapati, who remained a householder throughout his life, possessed a thorough understanding of the teaching of the Buddha⁸⁷ and had attained a stage that was superior to many who had become monastics.88 Equally, there are cases of monks who remained as undeveloped at the mental level as an ordinary householder (putthujana). For example, the venerable Nanda was tormented by thoughts of his former wife.89 and his mental state did not reflect the calm of the true renunciate, but rather the agitation of the householder. Therefore, we have to stress that the terms nekkhamasitā and gehasitā refer to ways of approaching the vedanā rather than to physical appearance and social status.

The Papaācasūdanī further interprets these two terms of gehasitā and nekkhamasitā as being similar to the terms āmisā and nirāmisā, also used to describe vedanā. The Satipat thānasutta, a text essentially concerned with meditative practices, also uses these terms of āmisā and nirāmisā vedanā. The term āmisā is derived from the Sanskrit āmiṣa or āmis, both meaning "raw flesh," and the word nirāmisā literally means "without raw flesh." We might easily say that the Buddhist meaning of the terms has been extended respectively to "nonvegetarian" and "impure" and to "vegetarian" and "pure." However, as Seyfort Ruegg established in his article "Ahimsa and Vegetarianism in

⁸⁶ Alankato ce'pi samam careyya santo danto niyato brahmacārī sabbesu bhūtesu nidhāya dandam so brāhmano, so samano, so bhikkhu (Dh. 142).

⁸⁷ A. i, 26.

⁸⁸ Vsm. 442.

G.P. Malasekera, Dictionary of Pāli Proper Names, vol. 2 (London: P.T.S., 1974),
 p. 10.

⁹⁰ MA. i, 278. The kinds of vedanā that the Papañcasūdanī is referring to are described in detail in the Saļāyatanavibhangasutta (M. iii, 219).

⁹¹ M. i, 59 also at A. iii, 411 and D. ii, 298.

⁹² V.S. Apte, The Practical Sanskrit English Dictionary (Kyoto: Rinsen Book Company, 1986), p. 346.

the History of Buddhism," the establishment of vegetarianism in Buddhism is closely connected to "a specific religious and philosophical teaching: the tathāgatagarbha doctrine," which was elaborated much later than the Satipat thānasutta. It seems that, at the time the Satipat thāna was composed, meat-eating was not yet perceived as "corrupting." We cannot therefore establish a relation between the meaning of these two words and the connotations implied by eating meat. However, it is very clear from this particular sutta that the vedanā represented as nirāmisā symbolize those vedanā which are not conducive to further defilements such as craving or aversion.

In this chapter, we have discussed the states of saññāvedavitanirodha and of vedanākkhaya. The former is a state comparable to nibbana without residue, for none of the mental aggregates can be found therein. The latter is more comparable to nibbāna with residue. for the five aggregates of a person experiencing such a state are still functioning. We have also discussed many classifications of vedanā such as nirāmisā, nekkhamasitā, āmisā and gehasitā. We came to the conclusion that a certain means of approaching vedanā would transform them into nirāmisā or nekkhammasitā vedanā, which are of an inoffensive nature, while an alternative approach would transform vedanā into āmisā or gehasitā vedanā, which are endowed with a negative connotation since they will act as potential agents in the future arising of craving and aversion. The factor responsible for this particular approach to vedanā is the next aggregate: recognition (saññā). It is this third aggregate that will transform sensations into nirāmisā (nekkhamasitā) or āmisā (gehasitā), a transformation that will be either responsible for the generation or eradication of craving.

⁹³ D. Seyfort Ruegg, "Ahimsa and Vegetarianism in the History of Buddhism," in Buddhist Studies in Honour of W. Rahula, ed. O.H. de A. Wijesekera (London: Gordon Fraser, 1980), pp. 236-37.

Chapter 4

The Saññākkhandha

As we saw in the previous chapter, $vedan\bar{a}$ is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for the arising of craving $(tanh\bar{a})$. Craving depends not only on the occurrence of sensation, but also on the occurrence of a particular type of $sann\bar{a}$. My aim in this chapter is twofold: first, to circumscribe the meaning of the term $sann\bar{a}kkhandha$ and second, to show how it contributes to the emergence of craving within the framework of the chain of dependent origination.

Like vedanā, saññā is usually defined with respect to the six sense-doors (āyatana) through which the faculty is applied. Thus, saññā is classified in terms of (1) visible object (rūpasaññā), (2) sound (saddasaññā), (3) smell (gandhasaññā), (4) taste (rasasaññā), (5) touch (phoṭṭhabbasaññā), and (6) mental object (dhammasaññā). Moreover, as with vedanā, the canonical definition of saññā does not shed much light on the meaning of the term since the verb used to define it (sañjānāti) refers to the root from which the term saññā is derived. Fortunately, the Samyuttanikāya offers us a glimpse of what saññā could mean by expanding on the former definition: "It is called 'recognition' because it 'recognizes.' What does it 'recognize'? It 'recognizes' [regarding the organ of sight] such things as blue, yellow, red, white, etc. Because it 'recognizes', it is therefore called 'recognition.'"

Words such as "to be conscious" and "consciousness" or "to perceive" and "perception" are often used to translate the term saññā. However, my translation is grounded in the belief that both "perception" and "consciousness" carry misleading connotations with

¹ A. iii, 413.

² Sanjānātisanjānātīti kho avuso, tasmā sannā vuecati (M. i, 293).

³ Kiñca bhikkhave saññam vadetha? Sañjānātīti kho bhikkhave tasmā saññā ti vuccati. Kiñ casañjānāti? Nīlam pi sañjānāti pītakam pi sañjānāti lohitakam pi sañjānāti odātam pi sañjānātīti kho bhikkhave tasmā saññā vuccati (S. iii, 87).

⁴ As F.L. Woodward translated these two words in The Book of the Kindred Sayings (London: P.T.S., 1917-22), 3:74.

⁵ As I.B. Horner rendered them in The Collection of the Middle Length Sayings, 1:352.

regard to saññā. The word "recognition," on the other hand, tends to imply that the subject imposes certain categories upon the percept in order to classify it. The term "recognition" can definitely not be mistakenly ascribed to the concept of viññāṇa. To use our reference from the Samyuttanikāya as a supporting example for this decision, we may say that the words "to perceive" and "to be conscious of" would suggest that the blueness, yellowness or redness of the object is inherent in the object itself, whereas saying "to recognize" implies that the colour (which may not be exactly blue, yellow or red, if such pristine colours indeed exist) is "categorized" by being linked to previous labellings. In fact, the word blue names nothing but a concept, and different people form different concepts to describe the same sensation. For example, one person may call two colours with different tones blue, while another may recognize these colours as indigo and aquamarine. Both have an extremely similar sensory experience, yet their recognition differs. The classic dialogue between King Milinda and Nagasena on the definition of a chariot further exemplifies this point.6 Milinda is unable to define the chariot without referring to all its constituent parts. The chariot is a mere category, a mental conceptualization used by the saññā to order, to classify the various sensory experiences resulting from contact with the external object that we normally term chariot. This faculty of recognition leads to the formation of concepts, usually rendered in Pāli by the expression paññattī.7 The Anguttaranikāya supports the analogy by elaborating on the result of saññā, saying that "saññā always results in a 'concept' [vohāra, expression of worldly usage]: whatever is conceptualized has previously been 'saññanized.' "8 This is very similar to the Sanskrit equivalent of the term saññā (samjñā) which usually means "name," "technical term" or "notion."9

⁶ Mil. 27ff. This simile had already been used by the Therī Vajirā in her discussion with Māra. Nayidha sattūpalabbhati. Yathā hi angasambhārā. Hoti saddo ratho iti. Evam khandhesu santesu. Hoti satti sammuti (S. i, 135).

⁷ For further information on paññattī, refer to A.K. Warder's article on "The Concept of a Concept," Journal of Indian Philosophy (1971), especially p. 189.

⁸ Katamo ca bhikkhave saññānam vipāko? Vohāravepakkāham bhikkhave saññā vadāmi; yathā yathā nam sañjānāti, tathā tathā voharati 'evam saññī ahosin' ti (A. iii, 413-14).

⁹ Vasubandhu says that one is aware of blue (nīlam vijānāti), but one ascribes the notion of blue to the perception (nīlam iti samjānāti). "La notion (samjān) consiste dans la préhension des caractères" (La Vallée Poussin, Abhidharmakośa, 1:28).

The Vibhanga classifies saññā into three categories: wholesome (kusala), unwholesome (akusala) and neutral (avyākata). Neither canonical nor commentarial literature sheds much light on these classifications. However, before establishing a correlation between saññā and the paṭiccasamuppāda, I will attempt to clarify what the text means by "unwholesome" and "wholesome" saññā.

Unwholesome Saññā

Like vedanā, saññā can also be perceived as an obstacle to spiritual progress. While the Vibhanga does not clarify what constitutes wholesome and unwholesome saññā, the Suttanipāta mentions that "one has not even the slightest saññā as regards to what is seen, heard or said; how can anyone in the world here doubt about such brāhmaṇa—i.e., one who has not even the slightest saññā—who does not hold a view (diṭthi)?" This passage implies, first, that true brāhmaṇa are free from the control of saññā; and second, that saññā is associated with the generation of views—these emerge from ignorance (avijjā) and are therefore linked to craving and conducive to an unwholesome future. By emancipating themselves from the hold of the saññā, these brāhmaṇa have automatically eradicated the possibility of the arising of new views and of craving. The Suttanipāta also states that "the destruction of sorrow follows from the eradication of saññā." This

¹⁰ Tividhena saññākkhandho: atthi kusalo, atthi akusalo, atthi avyākato (Vbh. 28).

¹¹ Tassīdha diṭṭhe va sute mute vā pakappitā n'atthi aṇū pi saññā: tam brāhmaṇam diṭṭhimanādiyānam denīdha lokasmim vikappayeyya (Sn. 802).

¹² In Buddhist terminology, the term brāhmaṇa is not limited to the members of a particular social group. Instead, the sutta literature defines a "true" brāhmaṇa as one who is established in sīla, samādhi and paññā (see Kūṭadantasutta, D. i, 127-49). Brāhmaṇa in the Buddhist sense is often employed as a synonym of arahant.

¹³ S. i, 145; ii, 153.

¹⁴ A. i, 22-23.

^{15 ...} saññāya uparodhanā evam dukkhakkhayo hoti (Sn. 732).

የበ

view is grounded in the fact that $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ is seen as the cause of "obsession" (papa $\tilde{n}ca$), which hinders spiritual progress.¹⁷

A brief look at the word papañca will help us understand more thoroughly the negative aspect of saññā. The term papañca itself is problematic, for it seems to have been used differently in the sutta, abhidhammic and commentarial literatures. In the sutta, the term obsession seems interchangeable with wrong views (ditthi). For example, the Suttanipāta clearly states that the ground of obsession lies in the belief that "I am the thinker." The Samyuttanikāya goes even further by stating that most human beings approach reality with obsessions, but if one has removed the worldly things (gehasitā) which are the product of the mind, one moves towards renunciation (nekkhammasitā). The Sāratthappakāsini vaguely explains the term papañcasaññā, as used in this particular passage, as the notion of obsession created by unwholesome saññā. This leads us to a narrower

¹⁶ Saññānidānā hi papañcasankhā (Sn. 874). The Niddesa equates papañcā and papañcasankhā, Papañcā veva papañcasankhā (Nid. i. 280; 344). The term papañca literally means "proliferation" and may refer to the proliferation of thoughts that govern our behaviour without our being aware of it. This is why I translate the term as "obsession." However, as Richard Hayes notes, "the term 'prapañca,' when used in the context of a Buddhist work is virtually devoid of any precise meaning. [The terms 'prapañca' and 'drs ti' may be regarded as variables that are capable of being given a more or less precise meaning by the Buddhist who uses them. Despite being variables, they do have a constant feature, which is that every Buddhist uses these words to connote wrongful uses of the mind. So, whenever we encounter the terms in a given text, all we can know for sure is that they refer to mental habits that have to be got rid of if we are to attain the greatest good" (Dignaga on the Intrepretation of Signs [London: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1988], p. 68, n. 35). For a detailed analysis of the term, however, the reader should refer to Bhikkhu Nanananda's Concept and Reality in Early Buddhist Thought (Kandy: B.P.S., 1986), a work devoted entirely to the study of papañca.

¹⁷ M. 1, 65; S. i, 100; iv, 52, 71; A. ii, 161; iii, 393, etc.

¹⁸ Mantā ham asmi (Sn. 916).

¹⁹ This is a loose translation of the following verse: Papañcasaññā itarītarā narā | papañcayantā upayanti saññino | manomayam gehasitañca sabbaṁ | panujja nekkhammasitam irīyati | | (S. iv, 71).

²⁰ Kilesasaññāya papañcasaññā nāma hutvā (SA. ii, 382). It is interesting to note that the term kilesa is often associated with the mind-defiling passions. See Nyānātiloka, Buddhist Dictionary, p. 80.

interpretation of the term, where *papañca* is used, more or less, as a synonym for desire, wrong views and conceit.²¹

The Pāli Text Society Dictionary translates the compound papaācasaānā as idée fixe, a translation which renders the meaning of the term very adequately, for the Papaācasūdanī explains the term as "the faculty of recognition associated with the obsessions related to wrong views and craving." However, clarifications on obsession are found in the Majjhimanikāya where the term is used as part of a small causal chain reflecting a psychological process:

Visual consciousness arises on account of visual forms and the eye, the meeting of these three is contact (phassa). On account of contact there is a sensation ($vedan\bar{a}$). What one senses (as a sensation), one recognizes ($sa\bar{n}j\bar{a}n\bar{a}ti$, from $sa\bar{n}n\bar{a}$). What one recognizes, one "thinks about" (vitakka).²³ What one thinks about, one is obsessed with. What obsesses one is the cause of the number of obsessions which assail a person with regard to past, present or future visual forms cognizable by the eye.²⁴

According to this and other examples, contact is a necessary element for the arising of sensations, and sensations in turn are needed for the recognition to arise. However, recognition constitutes a further precondition for the appearance of "thinking about" and obsessions. This passage demonstrates that the saññākkhandha definitely follows vedanākkhandha and precedes obsessions.

The concept of obsession is also closely associated with desire. As one of the verses of the *Theragathā* reports: "one who follows [his] obsessions is [like] a deer delighting in obsessions who has failed to

²¹ Taṇhādiṭṭhimānappabhedam papañcam (SnA. II, 431). Similar at Nid. i, 280; 344-45 and Net. 37.

²² Papañcasaññā ti taṇhādiṭ thipapañcasampayuttā saññā (MA. ii, 75).

²³ On the term vitakka, see D. ii, 277. In his translation of the Dīghanikāya, Maurice Walshe supports the translation of the term as "thinking." See Walshe, Thus Have I Heard (London: Wisdom Publications, 1987), p. 587, n. 611.

²⁴ Cakkhun c'āvuso paṭicca rūpe ca uppajjati cakkhuviññānam tinnam sangati phasso, phassapaccayā vedanā, yam vedeti tam sanjānāti, yam sanjānāti tam vitakketi, yam vitakketi tam papañceti, yam papañceti tato nidānam purisam papañcasankhā samudācaranti atītānāgatapaccuppannesu cakkhuvinneyyesu rūpesu (M. i, 111-12). Similar occurrences of the formula also appear at M. i, 259; S. iv, 67, etc.

attain nibbāna, the peace from bondage and the unsurpassable."²⁵ This metaphorical passage does not directly point to the association of obsession with craving. However, E.R. Sarathchandhra expands the image to arrive at the following: one ruled by his obsessions is comparable to a deer who follows a mirage thinking that it is a pool of water; the deer is thirsty and believes that the mirage (papañca) will quench its thirst, just as people seek happiness and are convinced that sensual pleasure will fulfil their desire. Although obsession cannot be directly correlated with craving, it can be associated with the emergence of craving because, as the Sakkapañhasutta states, envy (issā) and avarice (macchariya), as well as desire (chanda²⁷), have their origin in papañcasaññā. Therefore, it would seem that both saññā and the more precise papañcasaññā are necessary conditions for the arousal of craving—the link of the paticcasamuppāda that follows vedanā.

However, it must be stressed that obsession and papaācasañāā are not elements of the sañāākkhandha itself. As we have seen, the sañāākkhandha is seen as the cause (or one of the causes) of obsessions, 29 but these are never said to be part of the sañāākkhandha. Furthermore, the causal chain of the Majjhimanikāya mentioned above implies that sañāā is a necessary condition for thinking about (vitakka), which in turn is responsible for obsessions. It is also worth noting that this same causal chain implicitly establishes a distinction between the sañāākkhandha and the sankhārakkhandha since, as we will see later, thinking about is one of the members of the sankhārakkhandha and it would be illogical if obsessions, which follows thinking about, belonged to the sañāākkhandha. 30

According to the sixth book of the Abhidhamma, the saññā-kkhandha needs to be distinguished from recognition of views (diṭṭhi-

²⁵ Yo papañcam anuyutto papañcābhirato mago, cirādhāyī so nibbānam yogakkhemam anuttaram (Th. i, vs. 989).

²⁶ E.R. Sarathchandra, Buddhist Theory of Perception (Colombo: Ceylon University Press, 1958), p. 10.

²⁷ Chanda is equated in the commentary with craving (tanhā).

²⁸ D. ii, 277-78.

²⁹ Sn. 874.

³⁰ In fact, if we adopt the *sutta* hypothesis mentioned on p. 80 that *papañca* is a synonym of *dit thi*, *papañca* is automatically classified under the *sankhārakkhandha* category, for *dit thi* is explicitly described as one of the fifty elements that fall into the category of *sankhārakkhandha* (see p. 107).

saññā). Only the Yamaka refers to this nuance, while other texts, such as the Dhammasangani, imply that the faculty of recognition, the fact of having recognized and the state of having perceived all belong to the saññākkhandha. The Dhammasangani does not seem to admit a distinction between the various saññā, while the Yamaka does. This apparent contradiction might be due primarily to a semantic misunderstanding of the term diṭthisaññā. The Pāli Text Society Dictionary translates the word diṭthi as "view, theory, belief, dogma" and stresses that unless preceded by the adjective sammā, it usually carries a negative connotation. To my knowledge, however, the compound diṭthisaññā is almost never used in the sutta literature and seems to be particular to the Yamaka. The Yamaka commentary elucidates the term by equating it with the concept of papañcasaññā³³ which, as we have seen, is intimately related to craving.

This first distinction between the saññākkhandha and recognition of views (dit thisaññā)—defined as papañcasaññā by the Pañcappakaranatthakathā—indicates that the saññākkhandha does not include obsessions and that craving is not inevitably generated by the saññākkhandha itself. In fact, obsessions—as well as recognition of views would fall into the category of sankhārakkhandha and not of the saññākkhandha, for, as the Nettipakarana states, "obsessions are craving, views, conceit and whatever sankhāra are activated by them."34 The same text further supports this statement by saving that "whatever is obsession, whatever are the sankhāra and whatever are the delighting in the past, future and present, all these are the same."35 The Yamaka does not classify recognition of views (and obsessions) as saññākkhandha because it belongs to the sankhārakkhandha. As noted previously, saññā is often seen as the cause of obsessions. The saññākkhandha is the ground for the development of obsessions (as views, ditthi). I must stress, however, that obsession itself does not belong to

³¹ Katamo tasmiri samye saññākkhandho hoti? Yā tasmiri samaye saññā sañjānā sañjānitattari—ayari tasmiri samaye saññākkhandho hoti (Dhs. 17).

³² One occurrence of the term has been found in the Mahāniddesa of the Khuddakanikāya where it is equated to wrong views (Nid. 93).

³³ Saññāyamake tāva diṭ thisaññā ti papañcasaññā ti ādīsu āgatā diṭ thisaññā (C.A.F. Rhys Davids, ed., Pañcappakaranatthakathā, Journal of the P.T.S. 6 (1910-12): 59.

³⁴ Papañcā nāma taṇhādiṭṭhimānā tadabhisankhātā ca sankhārā (Net. 37).

³⁵ Yo cāpi papañco, ye ca sankhārā yā ca atītānāgatapaccuppannassa abhinandana, idam ekattam (Net. 38).

the saññākkhandha, for the latter is merely a function that triggers the arising of the former, which, in fact, partakes of the saṅkhārakkhandha.

Wholesome Saññā

Saññā is not always represented as a hindrance to salvation. The Anguttaranikāya, for example, provides us with an example of the positive value of saññā. Once, the closest disciple of the Buddha, Ānanda, came to report that the monk Girimānanda had been struck by a serious illness. The Buddha then told Ānanda to visit Girimānanda and recite "ten saññā" to the sick man; from this mere recitation, he says, "there are grounds to believe that the sickness will be allayed." These ten saññā consisted of (1) the recognition of impermanence (aniccasaññā), (2) the recognition of selflessness (anattasaññā), (3) the recognition of unpleasantness (asubhasaññā), (4) the recognition of danger (ādīnavasaññā), (5) the recognition of abandoning (pahānasaññā), (6) the recognition of dispassion (virāgasaññā), (7) the recognition of cessation (nirodhasaññā), (8) the recognition of disenchantment with the entire world (sabbaloke anabhiratasaññā), (9) the recognition of the impermanence in reference to all compounded things (sabbe sankhāresu aniccasaññā), and (10) the mindfulness of breathing (ānapanasati).

We may wonder why the Buddha thought that there were grounds to believe that the mere recitation of these ten recognitions might alleviate the suffering of Girimānanda. The Asibandhakaputtasutta³⁷ demonstrates that the Buddha did not believe that the power of words could alter one's destiny; hence for him to say that the mere recitation of the ten saññā would improve Girimānanda's future seems incongruous. However, it is possible that he simply meant that hearing the ten saññā might encourage Girimānanda to develop these recognitions—this would result, if not in a cure for the sickness itself, in alleviating the unhappiness that caused it.

Just as there are two types of vedanā—āmisā and nirāmisā—we also find two kinds of saññā: those that lead to sorrow and unhappi-

³⁶ Sace kho tvam Ānanda Girimānandassa bhikkhuno upasankamitvā dasa saññā bhāseyyāsi, thānam kho pan' etam vijjati, yam Girimānandassa bhikkhuno dasasaññā sutvā so ābādho thānaso pat ipassambheyya (A. v, 108).

³⁷ S. iv, 310.

ness³⁸ because of their generating of obsessions, and those that improve one's future by approaching reality through the three characteristics of existence (anicca, anatta, and dukkha)³⁹ and seven other perspectives which, taken all together, constitute the ten saññā enumerated in the Girimānandasutta. The Girimānandasutta is not the only text to refer to this wholesome aspect of saññā. For example, these wholesome saññā are classified in categories of seven in the Dīghanikāya, where it is said that they are conducive to [spiritual] prosperity,⁴⁰ in categories of six in the Anguttaranikāya, where they are qualified as integral constituents of knowledge (vijjā),⁴¹ in categories of five, in the Dīghanikāya, where they are described as leading to the maturity of liberation,⁴² and finally, in the Anguttaranikāya,⁴³ where they are described as being very fruitful, merging in and leading to the deathless (nibbāna).

To my knowledge, the whole Pāli canon along with its commentaries support the view that saññā can be wholesome when it is geared towards the recognition of elements essential for liberation. What is important to note is that three main elements are explicitly or

³⁸ As mentioned in Sn. 732; 802.

³⁹ Dukkha is indirectly implied by the reference to asubha and ādīna.

⁴⁰ Yāvakīvañ ca bhikkhave bhikkhū anicca-saññam bhāvessanti, anatta-saññam bhāvessanti, asubha-saññam bhāvessanti, ādīnava-saññam bhāvessanti, pahāna-saññam bhāvessanti, virāga-saññam bhāvessanti, nirodha-saññam bhāvessanti, vuddhi yeva bhikkhave bhikkhūnam pāṭikankhā no parihāni (D. ii, 79). The seven recognitions mentioned by this passage are those of impermanence, non-self, non-beautiful, danger, overcoming, dispassion and cessation. It seems clear that prosperity is used in the "spiritual" sense in this context for the Buddha is addressing a monastic audience.

⁴¹ Cha yime bhikkhave dhammā vijjābhāgiyā. Katame cha? Aniccasaññā, anicce dukkhasaññā dukkhe anattasaññā, pahānasaññā, virāgasaññā, nirodhasaññā (A. iii, 334). These six recognitions are: impermanence, suffering amidst what is impermanent, not-self amidst what is suffering, overcoming, dispassion and cessation.

⁴² Pañca vimutti-paripācaniyā saññā. Aniccasaññā, anicce dukkhasaññā, dukkhe anattasaññā, pahānasaññā, virāgasaññā. These are the recognitions of impermanence, of suffering amidst impermanence, selflessness amidst suffering, overcoming and of dispassion (D. iii, 243).

⁴³ Pañc'imā bhikkhave saññā bhāvitā bahulīkatā mahapphalā honti mahānisamsā amatogadhā amatapariyosānā. Katamā pañca? Asubhasaññā maraṇasaññā ādīnavasaññā āhāre paṭikkūlasaññā sabbaloke anabhiratasaṇṇā (A. iii, 79). These are the recognitions of unpleasantness, death, danger, unwholesomeness with regard to food and disenchantment with the whole world.

implicitly incorporated in all of these lists: the recognition of impermanence (anicca), of suffering (dukkha) and of selflessness (anatta). As hinted above, these three main elements constitute the basis for wisdom. In order to attain the goal, whether nibbāna with or without residue, or even saññāvedayitanirodha, what is definitely required by the practitioner is to have developed wisdom through vipassanā, insight, which in turn is cultivated by the awareness of impermanence, suffering and selflessness. As Buddhaghosa states in the Visuddhimagga, there are eighteen major kinds of vipassanā⁴⁴ and six of these eighteen are among the various enumerations of wholesome saññā seen above. These are impermanence, selflessness, suffering, dispassion, eradication and danger (ādinava). The cultivation of these wholesome saññā will not lead to the further generation of craving, but will help to develop wisdom through which one can break away from the cycle of life and death and the chain of dependent origination.

Wholesome Saññā and the Saññākkhandha

At this point, we may wonder whether or not this wholesome saññā does, in fact, belong to the saññākkhandha. Buddhaghosa argues in the Visuddhimagga that the function of saññā as one of the aggregates is simply to recognize objects as "blue," "yellow" and so forth. The saññākkhandha, according to this particular text, cannot lead to the penetration of the characteristics of existence: one could not, through the faculty of recognition, grasp at the deepest level the characteristics of impermanence, suffering and selflessness.⁴⁵ Buddhaghosa goes on to establish, through a metaphor, a radical difference between the saññākkhandha and wisdom (paññā). While the former merely recognizes the appearance of objects, the latter analyzes every object and perceives it as it is—that is, from a Buddhist point of view, as impermanent, painful and selfless. According to the Visuddhimagga, the deeply apprehend these saññākkhandha itself cannot characteristics of existence. Yet, the discussion of the various

⁴⁴ Vsm. 695. The eighteen contemplations (anupassanā) enumerated there are those of impermanence, suffering, selflessness, aversion, detachment, cessation, abandoning, destruction, vanishing, change, unconditioned, desirelessness, emptiness, higher wisdom regarding all phenomena, knowledge and vision of reality as it is (yathābhūtañāṇadassana), danger, reflecting and turning away. Those that are italicized are included in at least one of the enumerations of wholesome saññā.

⁴⁵ Vsm. 437.

wholesome $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ indicates that there can be a recognition of impermanence $(aniccasa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a})$, of suffering $(dukkhasa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a})$ and of selflessness $(anattasa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a})$. As evidenced by the $Sumangalavil\bar{a}sin\bar{\iota}$, ⁴⁶ there are "five $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ leading to liberation." Also interesting to note is that three of these five $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ are contemplations of the three characteristics of existence. ⁴⁸ The $Sumangalavil\bar{a}sin\bar{\iota}$ implies not only that the object of $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ can be the three characteristics of existence, but also that these very recognitions can lead to liberation through the development of wisdom.

The Visuddhimagga, as I have noted, claims that the primary function of the saññākkhandha is to interpret by means of a sign (nimitta).49 The term nimitta, in this context, refers to the outward appearances of an object and excludes the more subtle attributes that characterize every phenomenon of existence. For example, a particular kind of deliverance described as signless (animitta) is interpreted in the Atthasālinī as being the result of the practice of the threefold contemplation.⁵⁰ By observing the three characteristics of existence, one attains the deliverance known as the "signless." The signs, in this context, are the beliefs in permanence, delight and self, which are all outward appearances not reflecting reality as it really is—as characterized by impermanence, suffering and selflessness. While the saññākkhandha itself is concerned with recognizing the outward appearances, the signs, the wholesome saññā apprehend the "signless." Therefore, since wholesome saññā do not apprehend signs, they cannot be classified as members of the saññākkhandha, for the latter only deals with appearances.

Correlation between Saññā and the Paticcasamuppāda

According to the paticcasamuppāda, vedanā is a necessary condition for the arising of the next link, craving. However, in the chapter on vedanā

⁴⁶ DA. iii, 1033.

⁴⁷ Pañca vimutti-paripācaniyā saññā. In this expression, the term "liberation" (vimutti) is explicitly correlated to the state of arahanthood.

⁴⁸ DA. iii, 1033.

⁴⁹ Sañjānapaccayanimittakaraṇarasā (Vsm. 462).

⁵⁰ Animittavipassanam kathesi. Vipassanā hi niccanimittam sukhanimittam attanimittan ca ugghāṭeti, tasmā animittā ti (DhsA. 221).

we saw that not all sensations generate craving.⁵¹ Depending on the response to a sensation, craving will either arise or not arise. Saññā is primarily responsible for the way in which the individual approaches sensations.

Whenever something is sensed, it is also recognized. Saññā always accompanies and follows vedanā, but depending on the particular orientation of the saññā, one may generate craving or start cultivating wisdom. The saññākkhandha lies between two links of the paticcasamuppāda: vedanā and taṇhā. We have just seen that it follows the vedanākkhandha, and the causal chain of p. 81 implies that it also precedes taṇhā. As we will see in the next chapter, taṇhā and the following two links of the paticcasamuppāda fall into the category of the sankhārakkhandha. That causal chain, then, places saññā between vedanā and thinking about (vitakka). Since thinking about belongs to the sankhārakkhandha, it is evident that the saññākkhandhā finds its place in between the vedanākkhandha and the sankhārakkhandha.

Saññā imposes categories on our sensations and classifies them. The texts usually give the example that a certain sensation is interpreted as "blue" or "yellow." But this categorization goes much further by classifying sensations as "worth craving," and "worth hating." However, if the recognition that interprets the sensation is one of the positive saññā, no craving or aversion will be generated, for the recognition itself will signal that this particular sensation is not "worth craving for" since it is impermanent, suffering and selfless. Yet, if the sensation is interpreted by a recognition that leads to obsessions (similar to views, ditthi), one will suffer under the illusion that this particular sensation is permanent, a source of pleasure or associated with the self. According to Buddhism, it is these particular views that are responsible for misperception of reality and bondage to samsāra, for they are grounds for craving.

As Buddhaghosa states in the *Visuddhimagga*, the *saññākkhandha* (necessarily associated with obsessions) has the function of interpreting by means of signs that are apprehended, like the blind men who

⁵¹ See pp. 71ff.

⁵² Yam vedeti tam sañjānāti (M. i, 111-12). Similar occurrences also appear at M. i, 259; S. iv. 67, etc.

⁵³ This is also evidenced by the causal chain described on p. 81.

⁵⁴ S. iii, 87.

describe an elephant.⁵⁵ The comparison with the blind men probably refers to a story of the *Udāna*⁵⁶ where men blind from birth are asked to describe an elephant by touching only a certain part of the animal.⁵⁷ The blind men are all partially correct, but since their interpretation is based on their limited experiences, they cannot perceive the totality of the truth and the reality as it is (yathābhūtañāṇadassana).⁵⁸ However, if the unwholesome saññā were replaced by one or many of the various wholesome saññā, craving would not be generated, proper understanding of reality would arise and wisdom would be developed.

In this chapter, we have seen that the main function of the $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}kkhandha$ is to recognize and interpret sensations through the imposition of categories. I have distinguished between two types of $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$. The wholesome $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ are recognitions of, in short, the three characteristics of existence. These do not belong to the $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}kkhandha$ as such. The unwholesome $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$, on the other hand, are simply certain interpretations of reality that are not conducive to insight and that generate obsessions. The $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}kkhandha$ is essentially constituted of these unwholesome $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$. Unless the $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ of an individual are governed by the wholesome $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$, that person is likely to generate craving, aversion, clinging and becoming, all of which fall under the next aggregate: $sankh\tilde{a}ra$.

⁵⁵ Yathā gahitanimittavasena abhinivesakaranapaccupat thānā, hatthidassaka-andhā viya (Vsm. 462).

⁵⁶ Ud. 68-69. Although the simile found in the Udāna was used by the Buddha to explain to the king why different ascetics perceive the doctrine differently, Buddhaghosa has appropriated this parable and made it relevant to the function that saññā performs.

⁵⁷ Te ediso hatthī, n'ediso hatthī, n'ediso hatthī, ediso hatthī' ti aññamaññam muṭṭhīhi saṃyujjhimsu (Ud. 69).

⁵⁸ Noteworthy is that knowledge and vision according to reality (yathābhūtañāṇadassana) is one of the eighteen major kinds of insight (vipassanā) mentioned in n. 44 on p. 85.

This page intentionally left blank

Chapter 5

The Sankhārakkhandha

My purpose in this chapter is, primarily, to uncover the basic meaning that links the various contexts in which the term appears: and. secondarily, to arrive at a precise interpretation of sankhārakkhandha and its function with respect to the theory of dependent origination. I will not attempt to find one English translation with which to render all the connotations of sankhāra since, as we saw above, such an undertaking would be doomed to failure. Rather, I will attempt to adduce an extensive (and, I hope, comprehensive) explanation of sankhāra that will provide an understanding of the general meaning of the word by stressing the simultaneous presence of its causal and effective dimensions. To achieve this task, I will first use the fivefold division to analyze the different contexts of the word. I will not discuss sankhārakkhandha within the scheme. Once the different contexts have been presented, and the meaning of the term within them has been clarified. I will proceed to discuss the general sense of the term sankhāra. Finally, I will examine the specific function of sankhāra as one of the vañcakkhandhā. This methodology will offer us both a general understanding of the term sankhāra and of the sankhārakkhandha.

Polysemy of the Term Sankhāra

In order to unravel the specific function of the sankhārakhandha, I will first explore the meaning of the word sankhāra in its larger context. Sankhāra is one of the Pāli words most highly endowed with philosophical implications. Stcherbatsky remarks that "the word and conception samskāra performs a conspicuous part in all Indian philosophical systems. It usually means some latent mysterious power, which later on reveals itself in some potent fact." In her introduction to the translation of the Majjhimanikāya, I.B. Horner refers to a passage from the Pāli Text Society Dictionary in order to stress the semantic depth of the word sankhāra. It is "one of the most difficult terms in Buddhist metaphysics, in which the blending of the subjective-

¹ Stcherbatsky, The Central Conception of Buddhism, p. 18.

² Horner, The Collection of the Middle Length Sayings, 1: xxiv.

92

objective view of the world and of happening, peculiar to the East, is so complete, that it is almost impossible for Occidental terminology to get at the root of its meaning in a translation." Mrs. Rhys Davids also expresses her bewilderment regarding the significance of the term:

We are only at the threshold of its problems, and it is hence not strange if we find them as baffling as, let us say, our own confused usage of many psychological terms—feeling, will, mind—about which we ourselves greatly differ, would prove to an inquiring Buddhist. If I have not attempted to go into the crux of the sankhāra-skandha [sic], it is because neither the Manual [the Dhammasangaṇi] nor its Commentary brings us any nearer to a satisfactory hypothesis.⁴

The exact meaning of this "mysterious power" still remains obscure. As Bandusena Madanayake points out in his doctoral thesis, "thirty scholars have put forward as many different meanings" for this single term. One of the reasons for this diversity of translations might be the fact that within the Pāli language itself, sankhāra possesses many meanings. Surendranath Dasgupta explains the polysemy encountered in the Pāli canon by the fact that

The Buddha was one of the ... earliest thinkers to introduce proper philosophical terms and phraseology with a distinct philosophical method and he had often to use the same word in more or less different senses. Some of the philosophical terms at least are therefore rather elastic when compared with the terms of precise and definite meaning which we find in later Sanskrit thought.⁶

Yet many scholars, such as Hans Wolfgang Schumann, suggest that the rather wide semantic field associated with the word sankhāra was nonexistent at the time of the Buddha. According to Schumann, this diversity of meanings resulted from the growth of exegesis on the earlier sutta literature and from the development of an intricate and systematic

³ Rhys Davids and Stede, P.T.S. Pāli-English Dictionary, p. 664.

⁴ C.A.F. Rhys Davids, trans., Buddhist Psychology: An Inquiry into the Analysis and Theory of Mind in the Pāli Literature (London: Luzac, 1924), p. lxxxi.

⁵ Bandu W. Madanayake, "The Study of Sankhāras in Early Buddhism" (Ph.D. diss., University of Toronto, 1987), p. 2.

⁶ Dasgupta, A History of Indian Philosophy, 1:86.

philosophical system that arose many centuries after the death of the $Buddha^{7}$

I.B. Horner divides sankhāra into four different categories, each having a different meaning. This classification consists of sankhāra (1) as one of the aggregates, (2) as one of the links of the paticca-samuppāda, (3) as a sort of activity associated with the body, speech and mind (kāya, vacī and citta) and finally (4) as properties when associated with the term life (āyu). Schumann, in his thesis Bedeutung und Bedeutungsentwicklung des Terminus Samkhāra im frühen Buddhismus, elaborates a similar scheme by classifying the various interpretations of the term into four categories. Using Horner's and Schumann's classifications as a starting point, I have developed a more extensive scheme consisting of five categories: (1) sankhāra as a sankhatadhamma, as synonym of its cognate form sankhata, (2) as a paccaya, (3) as āyu-sankhāra, (4) as part of the compounded words sasankhāra and asankhāra, and finally, (5) as one of the five aggregates.

Sankhāra as Sankhata

Throughout the Pāli canon, the concept of sankhāra is closely associated with that of sankhāta. The usual definition of the term runs thus: "it is called sankhāra because it 'produces' sankhāta." Because the Pāli word for what I have translated as "to produce" is abhisankhāroti, a cognate of sankhāra, the deciphering of this definition is rendered more difficult. The Atthasālinī provides us with a description of sankhāta that may clarify the above definition of sankhāra. "The sankhāta are made, having been assembled by conditions, and whatever is not sankhāta is asankhāta." S.Z. Aung, in his appendix to the translation of the Abhidhammattasangāhā, emphasizes that, although the notion of being compounded is implied by the term sankhāta, the idea of being conditioned and having been caused is the closest to the definition of

⁷ Hans Wolfgang Schumann, Bedeutung und Bedeutungsentwicklung des Terminus Samkhāra im frühen Buddhismus (Ph.D. diss., Bonn, Rheinishchen Friedrich-Wilhelms-Universität, 1957), pp. 84ff.

⁸ Horner, The Collection of the Middle Length Sayings, 1: xxiv-xxv.

⁹ Schumann, Bedeutung und Bedeutungsentwhicklung des Terminus Samkhāra in frühen Buddhismus, pp. 45ff.

¹⁰ Refer to p. 15 for a discussion of the sankhata and asankhata groups.

¹¹ Sańkhatam abhisańkharontiti bhikkhave tasmā sańkhārā ti vuccanti (S. iii, 87).

¹² Paccayehi samāgantvā katā ti sankhata, na sankhata ti asankhatā (DhsA. 47).

the term.¹³ These conditions, or causes, that produce the sankhata-dhamma seem to be sankhāra as well.

Clearly, there is a definite relation between the two concepts (viz. sankhāra as a cause, and sankhāra as an effect, i.e., sankhata-dhamma), but the texts go so far as to suggest that there is no difference at all between them. In the sutta literature, there are a few instances where the first two characteristics of existence—impermanence and suffering—are used to qualify the term sankhāra. In these same passages, however, the third characteristic of existence, selflessness, is an attribute of dhamma rather than sankhāra:

Sabbe sankhārā aniccā ti; All sankhāra are impermanent; Sabbe sankhārā dukkhā ti; All sankhāra are suffering; Sabbe dhammā anattā ti. All phenomena are selfless. 14

I do not think that, here, the term dhamma is used in a different sense than sankhāra. If the Buddha had said "sabbe sankhārā anattā," meaning that all the conditioned phenomena are substanceless, people might have wrongly inferred that the unconditioned phenomenon (asankhatadhamma) must have a permanent entity (atta). The unconditioned phenomenon which, in the Theravāda tradition, is restricted to a unique component (nibbāna), is also devoid of any permanent entity (atta). In order to avoid the misunderstanding that sabbe sankhārā anattā could potentially imply, the term sankhāra is replaced by dhamma in this particular context. Moreover, by stating "sabbe dhammā anattā," the text not only suggests that all the conditioned phenomena are anatta, but that the only unconditioned phenomemon—nibbāna—is anatta as well. The commentary on this passage also mentions that sankhāra is a synonym of sankhata, the latter referring to any element (dhamma) which has been conditioned. 15

Therefore, we may affirm that sankhāra, as a sankhata, refers to all the principles of existence except nibbāna (and other dhamma considered by other traditions as asankhata). Stcherbatsky presents an interesting theory as to why the conditioned phenomena are called sankhāra:

¹³ Aung, Compendium of Philosophy, p. 273.

¹⁴ S. i, 200; D. ii, 157; also Kvu. ii, 531.

¹⁵ Tattha aniccā vata sankhārā ti ādisu vutta sabbe pi sappaccaya dhammā sankhatā sankhāra nāma (DA. ii, 230).

The elements of existence were regarded as something more similar to energies (samskṛta dhamma [skr. equivalent for sankhata-dhamma]) than to substantial elements. ... Since the energies [sankhata-dhamma] never worked in isolation, but always in mutual interdependence according to causal law, they were called "synergies" cooperators (samskāra [skr. equivalent for sankhāra]). 16

Thus, in certain contexts, conditioned phenomena are synonymous with sankhāra because they were previously produced, they were conditioned and, most of all, because they do not subsist independently of other sankhata—they are "cooperators". This definition of sankhāra is valid for the entire universe: the individual microcosm (the five aggregates) is included in the term¹⁷ and so is the macrocosm, the entire phenomenal world we live in.¹⁸ Therefore, everything but nibbāna is sankhāra. Everything that has been compounded and has a cause is a sankhāra in the sense of conditioned phenomena (sankhata-dhamma).

Sankhāra as Paccava

Within the complex theory of dependent origination, sankhāra is inserted as a link between ignorance (avijjā) and consciousness (viññāṇa). 19 This means that on account of ignorance, sankhāra come into being and generate a consciousness. It seems that within the paţiccasamuppāda the term sankhāra has a meaning radically different from the one previously ascribed to "sankhāra as a sankhata" since there is no explicit textual evidence of conditioned phenomena producing consciousness.

The Vibhanga defines sankhāra produced by ignorance (and implicitly generating a future consciousness) as volition (cetanā).²⁰ The sutta literature also has a similar definition of sankhāra: the Sannyutta-

¹⁶ Th. Stcherbatsky, Buddhist Logic (New York: Dover, 1962), 1:5.

¹⁷ S. iii, 144.

¹⁸ The Sammohavinodanī correlates the words anekadhātu-nānādhātuloka with upādinnakasankhāraloka (VbhA. 456).

¹⁹ Avijjāpaccayā sankhārā; sankhārapaccayā vinnāņa (S. ii, 5).

²⁰ Tattha katamo avijjāpaccayā sankhāro? Yā cetanā sancetanā sancetayitattam, ayam vuccati avijjāpaccayā sankhāro (Vbh. 144; a similar passage is also found at Vbh. 173).

nikāya equates the term with the six groups of volition, which are defined therein with respect to the six sense-doors.²¹

Volition is clearly explained in the Anguttaranikāva, where the Buddha states that what he calls volition (cetanā) is simply kamma, and that one who "cetanizes" is one who generates kamma either by body. words or mind: "Monks, I say that volition is action. Having "cetanized," one acts by deed, word or thought."²² Another example of the relation between sankhāra (or volition) and kamma is symbolically exemplified in the Rathakāravagga of the Anguttaranikāva. In this sutta, a "wheel-maker" explains to the king that the wheel (and by analogy the kamma-concept) "kept rolling as long as the impulse that set the motion (abhisankhārassa gati) lasted. It then circled and fell to the ground."²³ The term abhisankhāra²⁴ is a synonym of volition and refers here to the dynamism and momentum usually associated with kamma. For this reason, Padmasiri de Silva points out that sankhāra is often considered synonymous with the concept of volition or kamma.²⁵ These pieces of textual evidence support the relation that the Burmese meditation teacher Sayagyi U Ba Khin drew between kamma and sankhāra:

In this connection, we should understand that each action—either by deed, word, or thought—leaves behind a force of action, sankhāra (or kamma in popular terminology), which goes to the credit or debit account of the individual, according to whether the action is good or bad. There is, therefore, an accumulation of sankhāra (or kamma) with everyone, which function as the supply-

²¹ Katamā ca bhikkhave sankhārā? Chayime bhikkhave cetanākayā. Rūpa ... sadda ... gandha ... rasa ... phoṭṭhabba ... dhammasañcetanā ime vuccanti bhikkhave sankhārā (S. iii, 60).

²² Cetanāham bhikkhave kammam vadāmi; cetayitvā kammam karoti kāyena vācāya manasā (A. iii, 415).

²³ Tam pavattitam samāņam yāvatikā abhisankhārassa gati tāvatikam gantvā cingulāyitvā bhūmiyam papati (A. i, 111).

²⁴ The interchangeability of the terms abhisankhāra and sankhāra is evidenced by the Samyuttanikāya (S. iii, 87) and the Dīghanikāya (D. i, 18) where the function of sankhāra is said to be "abhisankharoti."

²⁵ M.W. Padmasiri de Silva, Buddhist and Freudian Psychology (Colombo: Lakehouse Investments, 1973), p. 117; also see Aung, Compendium of Philosophy, p. 274.

source of energy to sustain life, which is inevitably followed by suffering and death.²⁶

The Vibhanga further states that sankhāra produced by ignorance are threefold: meritorious sankhāra (punnābhisankhāra), non-meritorious sankhāra (apunnābhisankhāra) and "unshakable" sankhāra (ānenjābhisankhāra). Meritorious sankhāra are defined as being profitable volitions—kamma—that will yield their results either in the sensual sphere or in the fine material sphere; these meritorious "actions" (of body, speech and mind) consist of charity, morality and meditation. The non-meritorious sankhāra are explained as being unprofitable kamma, the results of which will be reaped only in the sensual sphere. The unshakable sankhāra are said to be wholesome kamma producing a result in any of the four immaterial spheres. This division of sankhāra into meritorious, non-meritorious and unshakable further stresses the relation between sankhāra and kamma, since the Vibhanga states that these three divisions constitute the entire field of the kamma-process. The interiorious is the sankhāra and kamma, since the Vibhanga states that these three divisions constitute the entire field of the kamma-process.

The Vimohavinodanī elucidates the meaning of sankhāra as threefold: there are sankhāra of body, of speech and of mind. The sankhāra of body are initiated by the body and express themselves through it. The sankhāra of speech and mind are initiated by speech and the mind and express themselves through them.³² According to the

²⁶ Thray Sithu Sayagyi U Ba Khin, "The Essentials of Buddha-Dhamma in Meditative Practice," in Sayagyi U Ba Khin Journal: A Collection Commemorating the Teaching of Sayagyi U Ba Khin (Igatpuri: Vipassanā Research Institute, 1991), p. 31.

²⁷ Tattha katame avijjāpaccayā saṅkhārā? Puññābhisaṅkhāro apuññābhisaṅkhāro (Vbh. 135).

²⁸ Tattha katamo puññābhisankhāro? Kusalā cetanā kāmāvacarā rūpāvacarā dānamayā sīlamayā bhāvanāmaya, ayam vuccati puññābhisankhāro (Vbh. 135).

²⁹ Tattha katamo apuňňābhisańkhāro? Akusalā cetanā kāmāvacarā: ayaṁ vuccati apuňňābhisańkhāro (Vbh. 135).

³⁰ Tattha katamo āneñjābhisankhāro? Kusalā cetanā arūpavacarā: ayam vuccati āneñjābhisankhāro (Vbh. 135).

³¹ Tattha katamo kammabhavo? Puññābhisankhāro apuññābhisankhāro ñeñjābhisankhāro: ayam vuccati kammabhavo (Vbh. 137). The compound kammabhava literally means "kamma-process." However, this term is used in a technical sense and refers to links eight, nine and ten of the theory of dependent origination. See pp. 110ff. for further discussion of this concept.

³² Kāyena pavattito, kāyato vā pavatto, kāyassa vā sankhāro ti kāyasankhāro. Vacīsankhāra-citta-sankhāresu pi es' eva nayo (VbhA. 142).

Yamaka, the sankhāra of body are said to originate from breathing in and breathing out; the sankhāra of speech, from reflection and investigation which "denote the whole mental process of thinking",33 the mental sankhāra, from sannā and vedanā or, in other words, all the associated with the mind except reflection investigation.³⁴ I do not believe that body-sankhāra (kāyasankhāra) arise from the mere function of respiration, but since breathing is essential for the subsistence of the body and the performance of any other action, it is considered to be the precursor of any further bodysankhāra. Similarly, reflection and investigation are not inherently speech-sankhāra (vacīsankhāra) but, because these functions precede all verbal activities, they are regarded as the foundation that allows a person to speak and thereby generate speech-sankhāra. Since the mental sankhāra are said to arise from sannā and vedanā. 35 sankhāra as a paccava is not simply deeds, but also physical, vocal or mental actions that will yield certain consequences in the future. Both of these, the karmically charged action and the future consequences, are sankhāra in the sense of condtioned phenomena, but only the former can be classified under sankhāra as a paccava.

Sankhāra Used in the Compound Ayusankhāra

Another type of sankhāra is also mentioned in the Pāli canon. The Kathāvatthu alludes to the Buddha entering into parinibbāna only after he had "let loose" his āyusankhāra. The sutta literature, particularly in the discourses referring to the Buddha's death, also makes a few allusions to this word. The term bhavasankhāra also seems to have been used as a synonym of āyusankhāra. The Anguttaranikāya employs this expression to state that when the Buddha had released his bhava-

³³ Rhys Davids and Stede, P.T.S. Pāli-English Dictionary, p. 620.

³⁴ Tayo sankhārā: kāya-sankhāro vacīsankhāro cittasankhāro. Assāsapassāsā kāyasankhāro, vitakkavicārā vacīsankhāro, sanñā ca vedanā ca cittasankhāro, thapetvā vitakkavicāre sabbe pi cittasanpayuttakā dhammā cittasankhāro (Ymk. i, 229).

³⁵ Ymk. i, 229.

³⁶ Cāpāle cetiye āyusankhāro ossattho, Kusinārāyam Bhagavā parinibbuto ti? (Kvu. ii, 559).

³⁷ Such as in D. ii, 99; 108.

sankhāra, he broke apart the "coat of mail" that originates from one's own person. None of the commentaries explain the meaning of these two terms, yet the words themselves suggest a kind of "life principle," a vital energy which provides the neccessary fuel to produce rebirth and without which life ceases. This is reminiscent of our interpretation of sankhāra as paccaya, where the term sankhāra was correlated with the dynamism and momentum associated with the concept of kamma. The only difference is that the āyusankhāra (as well as the bhavasankhāra) refers to a specific force—not simply any karmic force, but the one responsible for rebirth. Both āyusankhāra and bhavasankhāra refer to the force responsible for generating a new existence.

Sankhāra Used in the Compounds Asankhāra and Sasankhāra

The fourth usage of the word sankhāra is found in the compounds "without sankhāra" (asankhāra) and "with sankhāra" (sasankhāra), the latter appearing in relation to the word parinibbāyin in the sutta literature, and usually in conjunction with the term citta in the Abhidhamma texts.

While discussing the different methods of attaining nibbāna, the Samyuttanikāya states that one who eradicates the five fetters of the lower sort attains nibbāna "without sankhāra" and, following a similar procedure, can achieve nibbāna "with sankhāra." Although the meaning of this sentence is obscure because no textual evidence is implied as to the distinction between the procedures to be followed in order to enter either nibbāna "with sankhāra" or nibbāna "without sankhāra," the meaning of these two terms seems fairly clear. Asankhāra means "without sankhāra," while sasankhāra means "with sankhāra." Therefore, the term asankhāra applied to nibbāna suggests that nibbāna has been reached while the experiencer still possesses a karmic

³⁸ Kavaca: the P.T.S. Dictionary (p. 200) says that the word applies to "existence," probably because the latter is made up of many factors and combinations, or, in other words, that life is the expression of an intricately knitted mail of conditioned phenomena.

³⁹ Tulan atulañ ca sambhavam bhavasankharam avassaji muni ajjhattarato samāhito abhindi kavacam iv' attasambhavan ti (A. iv, 312).

⁴⁰ No ce pañcannam orambhāgiyānam samyojanānam parikkhayā asankhāraparinibbāyī hoti. Atha pañcannam orambhāgiyānam samyoganānam parikkhayā sasankhāraparinibbāyī hoti (S. v, 70). The same passage is found at A. i, 233.

residue.41 According to tradition, the Buddha attained nibbana at the age of thirty-five, but remained alive some forty-five more years. Because he "came back" to teach in the kāmaloka, we might postulate that he still had certain stock of kamma which allowed (or caused) him to come back into this world; he had not vet entered nibbana without residue. When he reached that state, no more karmic residue was present thus no force could hold him to this world. The problem we encounter is that in the sutta, the words sasankhāra and asankhāra are used not in reference to nibbana, but to nibbana without residue. A further difficulty emerges from the fact that Pāli is a highly inflected language: we often find two or more declined words losing their case endings and being compounded (concatenated) together. Sometimes, it is only through a careful analysis (and often, speculation) that we can unveil the syntactic relation uniting the members of the compounds. The compounds sa-sankhāra-parinibbāyī and a-sankhāra-parinibbāyī are extremely ambiguous. From one perspective, the first element (asankhāra or sasankhāra) could be interpreted as an attribute of the word parinibbāyi, 42 hence meaning "one who has attained the state of parinibbāna which has (or has no) sankhāra." Although grammatically correct, this analysis is rejected by the Sumangalavilāsinī which holds that an instrumental case relation 43 links parinibbayi to asankhāra and sasankhāra, hence attributing quite a different meaning to the compounds: one who has attained parinibbana from (or because of) sankhāra (or from the lack of it in the case of asankhāraparinibbāyī). The commentator further elaborates by defining asankhāra as "without effort, with ease and pleasure," and sasankhāra as "with efforts, difficulty and dukkha."44

The Abhidhamma literature strengthens the commentarial definition of sasankhāra and asankhāra by emphasizing that one who has completely eradicated the fetters and thereby perceives the noble path "without efforts" is called a person who has achieved parinibbāna

⁴¹ The Atthasālinī apparently agrees with this interpretation since Buddhaghosa defines sasankhāra as "with sankhāra." Tass' attho saha sankhārenā ti sasankhāro (DhsA. 156).

⁴² Bahuvrīhī compound.

⁴³ Instrumental tatpurusa.

⁴⁴ Asankhārena appayogena akilamanto sukhena patto asankhāra-parinibbāyī nāma. Sasankhārena sappayogena kilamanto dukkhena patto sasankhāra-parinibbāyī nāma (DA. iii, 1030); similar definitions are found in the Sāratthappakāsinī (SA. iii, 143) and the Manorathapūranī (AA. ii, 350).

"without efforts"; similarly, one who eradicates the fetters through striving, and thereby perceives the noble path, is called a person who has achieved parinibbāna "with efforts". 45 The Atthāsalinī further elucidates the meaning of the term sasankhāra (which the commentator considers to be a new word in Buddhist terminology)46 with a narrative. A monk had certain duties to perform, such as sweeping the courtvard, taking care of an elderly monk and listening to the dhamma. but was not naturally inclined to fulfill them. Yet, either by selfinstigation or by being admonished by another monk, he realized the disadvantages of not performing his duties and the advantages of carrying them out, and ultimately performed what he had to do. This action of his, triggered by instigation and necessitating efforts on his part, is called an action which gives birth to a wholesome mental state because of sankhāra ("with effort"). 47 According to Mrs. Rhys Davids, all the thoughts (citta) which are not called sasankhāra are implicitly included in the concept of asankhāra.48

The story of Bāhiya Dārucīriya⁴⁹ serves as a good illustration of asankhāraparinibbayī within Theravāda Buddhism. The elderly ascetic Bāhiya, who was living in the vicinity of what is now Bombay, decided to travel all the way to Sāvatthi to seek advice from the Buddha. When he arrived in the capital city of Kosala, he met the Buddha and received a few words of inspiration. While he was listening, he suddenly reached enlightenment. Later, the Buddha said that Bāhiya Dārucīriya was the supreme example of those who comprehended the truth instantly (khippābhiñānam). This story exemplifies the unexpected attainment of nibbāna—a realization devoid of proximate conscious striving (asankhāra).

Both in the *sutta* and abhidhammic literature, the term *sasankhāra* seems to refer to a thought, action or state attained by instigation or mental efforts that constrain the natural tendencies of the

⁴⁵ So asankhārena ariyamaggam sanjaneti upari!!himānam sannojanānam [samyojanānam] pahānāya: ayam vuccati puggalo asankhāra-parinibbāyī. ... So sasankhārena ariyamaggam sanjaneti upari!!himānam sannojannām pahānāya: ayam vuccati puggalo sasankhāra-parinibbāyī (Pug. 17).

⁴⁶ Imamsim tāva dutiyacittaniddese sasankhārenā ti idam eva apubbam (DhsA. 156).

⁴⁷ Dhs. 156.

⁴⁸ C.A.F. Rhys Davids, Buddhist Psychology, p. lxvii.

⁴⁹ Malasekera, Dictionary of Pāli Proper Names, 2:281ff.

⁵⁰ A. i, 24.

individual, while asankhāra points to a thought, action or state that has arisen effortlessly, without instigation, in accord with personal inner tendencies. The Atthasālinī offers a list of synonyms of sasankhāra ("with energy, with preparation, with effort, with the grasping of a cause"⁵¹), all of which indicate that the term implies a conscious instigation on the part of the individual. We see that in the context of sasankhāra and asankhāra, the term sankhāra also refers to a certain dynamism or force of action, as with sankhāra as paccaya.⁵²

General Meaning of the Term Sankhāra

Now that we have looked at the meaning of sankhāra within the first four divisions of our fivefold classification, I will attempt to extract the essence of the term and to underline the general meaning of this puzzling concept.

We have seen that sankhāra, as a sankhata, refers to all the principles of existence, i.e., everything that exists except, of course, for nibbāna which is considered to be an unconditioned phenomenon. In this context, sankhāra is a synonym of conditioned phenomena since all of them are, by definition, conditioned. As mentioned before, this particular definition of sankhāra means "the entire universe," within and without; this includes the individual microcosm made up of the five aggregates, and the macrocosm—the entire phenomenal world we live in. In short, sankhāra as a sankhata refers to everything that causes and that is caused.

Sankhāra as a paccaya was defined in terms of two divisions. First we examined the various sankhāra divided into puñña, apuñña and āneñja, each being respectively described as meritorious kamma, unprofitable kamma and wholesome kamma producing a result in any of the four immaterial spheres. Then, the word was described in terms of kāya, vacī and citta, referring to physical, verbal and mental actions. In this context, sankhāra seems to mean any action that will ultimately bring about a result; here sankhāra is not different from

⁵¹ Tena sasankhārena saussāhena sappayogena sa-upāyena sappaccayagahaṇenā ti attho (DhsA. 156).

⁵² This leads to a further problem: can nibbana (an asankhatadhamma) be produced or caused by anything (such as the practice of the eightfold noble path)?

⁵³ Vbh. 135.

volition, which is often equated with kamma.⁵⁴ Sankhāra as a paccaya is the initiating action (mental, vocal or physical), and the karmic force that will yield an effect. However, this effect, although not included in sankhāra as paccaya, falls under the definition of sankhāra as a sankhata, for the result of a particular sankhāra (or kamma) is nothing but a conditioned phenomenon.

Sankhāra as āyusankhāra is a synonym of bhavasankhāra, the energy which is responsible for sustaining life. Here, it is important to mention that at the instant of death, the āyusankhāra is not necessarily extinct. In most cases, it is still present, and manifests itself as the energy that keeps an individual bound to the wheel of birth, death and rebirth. On the other hand, if eradicated, rebirth does not occur and the "person" enters into nibbāna without residue. Because the āyusankhāra and the bhavasankhāra are dependent on other activities, they are conditioned phenomena. And since they constitute the energy that will eventually lead to rebirth, they can also be seen as sankhāra as a paccaya, for they definitely are a force.

Sankhāra as it appears in the compounds asankhāra and sasankhāra is interpreted slightly differently in the sutta and abhidhammic literatures. In the former, these compounds are described mainly as attributes of the state of parinibbāna, while in the latter, they do not only qualify that state, but any conditioned phenomena as well. Although the qualified term varies depending on the piṭaka, the meaning of the qualifier remains the same. Asankhāra refers to that which has arisen effortlessly as a result of an individual's inner tendencies. On the other hand, sasankhāra points to something brought about by effort or striving. The meaning of sankhāra in these compounds is "conscious effort or instigation."

Sasankhāra means with effort or instigation, hence produced by. When used as a qualifier to parinibbāyin, it means that someone has attained parinibbāna through conscious effort. Asankhāra means the opposite. Within this context, the actual meaning of sankhāra implies production, whether it be of nibbāna or a conditioned phenomenon.

The four contexts outlined above point to a generic meaning for the term sankhāra. This underlying meaning is twofold: first, sankhāra is a productive force, like volition, which outflows from actions (mental, physical or verbal) and produces effects; second, it comprises everything that exists—all compounded things—these are conditioned phenomena.

⁵⁴ A. iii, 415.

Some (such as anger, love, etc.) result from the "productive force" and are likely to become themselves "productive forces." However, some of these conditioned phenomena (such as external objects) are independent of the personal psychological process and can by no means become "productive forces." We can also see this twofold division in terms of a distinction between active and passive. If we say that the meaning of sankhāra is "everything that is compounded," then we can divide these conditioned phenomena into "active" and "passive" components. The "active" sankhāra are those associated with the other four constituents of the individual (pañcakkhandhā), and are likely to produce more conditioned phenomena. The "passive" sankhāra (conditioned phenomena) would be those independent from any aggregate and incapable of producing anything except, of course, the process of decaying inherent in all compounded things.

The "mysterious" term sankhāra, as Stcherbatsky remarked, seems to have two distinct meanings. The first is sankhāra as "generating" and "producing" and, in this sense, it is a force of action (verbal, mental or physical), relying on the functioning of the four other aggregates (rūpa, vedanā, saññā and viññāna). Sankhāra in this sense cannot function independently of these four aggregates. The second meaning describes the term as whatever is produced by this force of action; this includes all conditioned phenomena. Let me offer an analogy that may clarify the twofold meaning of the term. Sankhāra could be compared to cooking. In fact, the verbal root samsky does, in some contexts, refer to food preparation.⁵⁵ An analysis of the word for cooking (pacati) does indeed shed light on the meaning of sankhāra. The Vaivakara nasiddhantakaumudi, one of the commentaries to Panīnī's Sanskrit grammar, explains the meaning of the word pacati as a complex activity. According to this Sanskrit text, the action of cooking requires undertaking several minor activities which ultimately lead to a result. For example, cooking rice, the commentary explains, involves putting the rice into the vessel, pouring water over it, washing the rice several times, placing the vessel on the fire with a suitable quantity of water. leaving it over the heat, testing a single rice grain, and so on. When all these minor activities are performed, the actual action of cooking is accomplished and leaves the performer with a specific result: in this case, soft and edible rice (viklittih). This rather intricate description of

⁵⁵ Refer, for example, to Sn. 241 where "well-prepared" (susamkhata) meat is mentioned.

"cooking" is provided by the commentator to show that the word cooking itself implies two major elements: (1) the bare action of cooking $(kriy\bar{a})$, including all the major activities it adumbrates, and (2) the result or the effect of these activities (phala). Similarly, the term $sankh\bar{a}ra$ implies these two elements: (1) what is understood as volition or, to be more precise, a conation resulting in a volitional effort and eventually in an action (mental, vocal or physical), and (2) the bare effect, the result outflowing from previous actions. Any action will yield a result so long as it is performed on the basis of craving sensations—in other words, if it is performed as the result of the activity of $sa\bar{n}\bar{n}\bar{a}$, or as a blind reaction towards the $vedan\bar{a}$.

Although these two meanings are distinct, our discussion of the four previous categories of sankhāra could be combined and shaped to form a general meaning. Sankhāra (as a producing force) generates other sankhāra (conditioned phenomena). Yet, these conditioned phenomena can, in turn, become a producing force and create more conditioned phenomena. Whenever these conditioned phenomena are associated with the four other aggregates (i.e., when the conditioned phenomena are mental states and not external objects), they may very well become active or productive sankhāra. But, if independent from the four aggregates, these conditioned phenomena will remain passive sankhāra.

The Sankhārakkhandha

Having ascribed a generic meaning to the concept of sankhāra, we are in a much better position to understand the sankhārakhandha. According to the Vībhanga, sankhāra, as one of the constituents of the personality, can be seen in many different ways. As "onefold," the sankhārakhandha is associated with the mind; as twofold, it is either caused or uncaused; as threefold, it is either positive, negative or neutral. The first approach suggests that sankhāra are always associated with the mind (citta). The Dhammasangani supports the Vībhanga by grouping the different kinds of sankhāra under three

⁵⁶ Bhattaji Diksita, ed., Vaiyākaraṇasiddhāntakaumudi (Varanasi: Caukhamba Samskrita Sirija Aphisa, 1969), p. 607.

⁵⁷ Tattha katamo sankhārakkhandho? Ekavidhena sankhārakkhandho: cittasampayutto. Duvidhena sankhārakkhandho: atthi sahetu, atthi na hetu. Tividhena sankhārakkhandho: atthi kusalo, atthi akusalo, atthi avyākato ... pe ... evam bahuvidhena sankhārakkhandho (Vbh. 72; there is also a similar passage at Vbh. 89).

106

distinct types of mind (kusala, akusala, and avyākata). This exhaustive listing of sankhāra classified under the only three possible kinds of mind implies both that sankhāra are associated with the mind, and that sankhāra are either good, bad or neutral—the third approach mentioned by the Vibhanga. (Refer to Table 6 for an overall view of these principles.) All these principles which arise in accordance with the paţiccasamuppāda, and which exclude the vedanākhandha, the sanñākhandha and the vinnānakhandha, fall under the sankhārakhandha category. A total number of fifty different principles fall under the category of sankhārakhandha. However, it is not necessary to analyze each of these independently here.

The second approach implied by the Vibhanga states that sankhāra can either be with or without cause (hetu). Here hetu refers to "the six roots of action," three being wholesome (non-aversion, non-craving and non-delusion) and three unwholesome (aversion, craving and delusion). This would imply that certain sankhāra can be "unconditioned," in the sense of not having a cause (ahetu). This is problematic, for, as we have seen, all sankhāra are conditioned. However, in this context, as A.K. Warder has pointed out, hetu is closer in meaning to mūla (root) than to "cause." Hetu, in this specific sense, is one of the twenty-four paccaya of the Paṭṭhāna; to wextension, ahetu would refer to whatever is not hetu, i.e., the twenty-three remaining paccaya. The author of the Vibhanga likely uses ahetu in the sense of the remaining twenty-three paccaya; otherwise his statement would contradict the rest of canonical literature.

As we have just seen, the *Dhammasangani* and the *Yamaka* strongly correlate *sankhārakkhandha* with the different types of mind, thereby implying that *sankhārakkhandha* is an activity restricted to the mental realm. Here we should call attention to our previous discussion

⁵⁸ See Dhs. 18 for kusala, Dhs. 84-85 for akusala, and Dhs. 118 for avyākata.

⁵⁹ When the list includes the saññākkhandha and the vedanākkhandha, the enumeration is known as the list of mental concomittants (cetasika); this is not the one exposed here.

⁶⁰ A.K. Warder, Indian Buddhism (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1980), p. 310.

⁶¹ For further clarification on sankhāra as hetu, one of the twenty-four paccaya, refer to Ps. i, 50ff.

Table 6
The Fifty Elements of Sankhāra

Avyākatacitta	Akusala	Kusala	
contact	contact	contact (phassa)	
volition	volition	volition (cetanā)	
life	life	life (jīvita)	
concentration	concentration	concentration (samādhi)	
fixed thought	fixed thought	fixed thought (manasikāra)	
thinking about	thinking about	thinking about (vitakka)	
consideration	consideration	consideration (vicāra)	
determination	determination	determination (adhimokkha)	
effort	effort	effort (viriya)	
joy	joy	joy (pīti)	
resolution	resolution	resolution (chanda)	
	delusion (moha)	wisdom (non-delusion; amoha)	
	shamelessness (ahiri)	shame (hiri)	
	unscrupulousness	scrupulousness (ottappa)	
	agitation (uddhacca)	faith (saddhā)	
	envy (issā)	attention (sati)	
	selfishness (macchariya)	balance of mind (tatramajjhattatā)	
	remorse (kukkucca)	non-anger (adosa)	
	greed (lobha)	non-greed (alobha)	
	views (diṭṭhi)	serenity of body (kāyapassadhi)	
	pride (māna)	serenity of mind (cittapassadhi)	
	sloth (thīna)	buoyancy of body (kāyalahutā)	
	torpor (middha)	buoyancy of mind (cittalahutā)	
	doubt (vicikicchā)	flexibility of body (kāyamudutā)	
	anger (dosa)	flexibility of mind (cittamudutā)	
	5 ()	alertness of body (maññatā)	
		alertness of mind (kammaññatā	
		fitness of body (kāyapaguññatā)	
		fitness of mind (cittapaguññatā)	
		straightness of body (kāyojukatā)	
		straightness of mind (cittojukatā)	
		refraining from unwholesome	
		bodily conduct (kāyiduccaritavirati	
		refraining from unwholesome mental conduct	
		(vāciduccaritavirati)	
		refraining from wrong livelihood (micchājīvavirati)	
		compassion (karuṇā)	
		sympathy (muditā)	

on sankhāra as a paccava62 and correlate sankhārakkhandha with sankhāra of mind. In that section, it was stated that "mental" sankhāra depend on vedanā and saññā, each being one of the five aggregates. Although there is a connection between sankhārakkhandha and "mental" sankhāra, it must be stressed that the realm of sankhārakkhandha is not restricted to "mental" sankhāra—it also includes verbal and physical sankhāra. As I noted above, verbal and physical sankhāra are both dependent on subtler activities, respectively "reflection and investigation" and "breathing in and breathing out." I would go even further by suggesting that both verbal and physical sankhāra also depend on "mental" sankhāra. As the first verse of the Dhammapāda indicates, "mind leads all actions" whether physical or verbal. 63 Any verbal or physical activity must be preceded by mental activity. Therefore, although we should understand sankhārakkhandha as a "mental" sankhāra, its comprehensive meaning adumbrates the whole realm of sankhāra as a paccava. Sankhārakkhandha is the same as sankhāra as a paccava.

The Visuddhimagga further clarifies our understanding of sankhāra as one of the aggregates by correlating the term with conditioned phenomena. Buddhaghosa holds that the sankhārakkhandha should be understood as whatever has the characteristic of forming (abhisankharanalakkhana) and heaping things together. The Atthasālinī, while using a different style, defines the term in the same manner. It is in complete accord with these sources to say that the function or energy that gives birth to conditioned phenomena is nothing but the sankhārakkhandha. Yet the Yamaka introduces an important distinction: not all sankhāra belong to the sankhārakkhandha. Rūpa, vedanā, saññā and viññāṇa (the other four aggregates) are sankhāra, but they are not sankhārakkhandha. We find a similar distinction introduced in the sutta literature itself. The Samyuttanikāya states that sankhāra (-kkhandha) is thus called for it conditions the five aggregates

⁶² Refer to the discussion on p. 97 on verbal, physical and mental sankhāra.

⁶³ Manopubbangamā dhammā manoseṭṭhā manomayā; manasā ce paduṭṭhena bhāsati vā karoti vā; tato nam dukkham anveti cakkam va vahato padam (Dh. i, 1).

⁶⁴ Yam pana vuttam, yam kiñci abhisankharanalakkhanam sabban tam ekato katvā sankhārakkhandho veditabbo ti, ettha abhisankharanalakkhanam nāma rāsikaranalakkhanam (Vsm. 462).

⁶⁵ Rāsaṭṭhena abhisankharaṇaṭṭhena eko va sankhārakkhandho (DhsA. 154).

⁶⁶ Ymk. 16.

of the next moment, or the next existence. 67 Although the sankhāra-kkhandha is associated with all the other sankhāra, these two groups have to be seen as distinct. This distinction elucidates the difference between sankhāra as an aggregate and sankhāra in general. The former is an active force, producing and gathering together the conditioned phenomena (sankhāra as a sankhata) while the latter is more comprehensive and consists of any of the five aggregates, as well as any of the conditioned phenomena.

The sankhārakkhandha is definitely a sankhāra in the sense of conditioned phenomena since it has been formed and conditioned. Yet not all sankhāra are sankhārakkhandha, since they are not all endowed with the capacity of "forming" or generating more conditioned phenomena. It seems to me that a conditioned phenomena—this term, of course, also includes sankhārakkhandha—can only produce other conditioned phenomena when working in conjunction with viññāṇa, vedanā, saññā and rūpa; in other words, only the sankhārakkhandha (which, by definition, is closely connected to the other four aggregates) can produce conditioned phenomena. This implies that sankhāra as a paccaya is simply a paraphrase of sankhārakkhandha. They both refer to a force that will generate an effect. The effect, however, although being sankhata in the sense that it has been caused, is not necessarily a paccaya or a sankhārakkhandha for it may not generate a further effect.

Correlation between the Sankhārakkhandha and the Paţiccasamuppāda

Each of the aggregates discussed so far has been directly correlated with distinct links of the theory of dependent origination. The rūpakkhandha was equated with the six sense-doors (saļāyatanā) and with contact (phassa), the vedanākkhandha with vedanā, and the saññākkhandha was introduced between vedanā and craving (taṇhā). As for the saṅkhāra-kkhandha, we can establish a relation between this particular aggregate and the second link of the paṭiccasamupāda, saṅkhāra, for we have seen

⁶⁷ Kiñca bhikkhave sankhāre vadetha? Sankhatam abhisankharontītī bhikkhave tasmā sankhārā ti vuccanti. Kiñ ca sankhatam abhisankharonti? Rūpam rūpattāya sankhatam abhisankharonti. Vedanam ... Sannam ... Sankhāre ... Vinnānam ... (S. iii, 87). A similar distinction is found in Vasubandhu's Abhidharmakośa: "Les sanskāras, c'est tout ce qui est conditionné, mais on réserve le nom de sanskāraskandha aux conditionnés qui ne rentrent ni dans les skandhas de rūpa, de vedanā, de sanijāā et de vijnāna" (La Vallée Poussin, Abhidharmakośa, 1:15).

in this chapter that sankhārakkhandha is the same as sankhāra as paccaya; both are forces that will generate a result. This work is primarily concerned with the eight middle links of the theory of dependent origination, the links that are traditionally held to be representative of the present life. Since the sankhārakkhandha is one of the five aggregates characterizing human existence, its function must also express itself within these eight links, in the present.

According to the commentarial tradition of Theravāda Buddhism, the paticcasamuppāda, as well as the whole process of existence, is usually divided in two: (a) the kamma-process (kammabhava) or the karmically active aspect of existence, which is the cause of rebirth, and (b) the regenerating or rebirth-process (uppattibhava) or the karmically passive aspect of existence, which arises due to the first process (kammabhava). The active aspect of existence (kammabhava) determines the passive aspect (uppattibhava). The first five links of the present period of the paticcasamuppāda—links three to seven: viññāṇa, nāmarūpa, salāyatanā, phassa and vedanā—are part of the passive aspect, while the last three links of the present period—links eight to ten: tanhā, upādāna and bhava—are part of the active aspect of existence. This is illustrated in Table 7.

According to this, craving, clinging and becoming are part of the kamma-process of the present existence. Since we have previously defined kamma-process as the sankhārakkhandha, we can state with confidence that the kamma-process is identical with craving, clinging and becoming, and arrive at a distinct correlation between these three links and the sankhārakkhandha.

This appears to present a problem: according to the Vibhanga, becoming is itself defined as being composed of kamma-process and of rebirth-process⁷⁰ and its commentary explains the terms in the same way as they have been defined here.⁷¹ This seems to imply that the sankhārakkhandha is only part of the concept of becoming, the one that is kamma-process.

⁶⁸ Vsm. 200; 579.

⁶⁹ Aung, Compendium of Philosophy, p. 43.

⁷⁰ Tattha katamo upādānapaccayā bhavo? Duvidhena bhavo: atthi kammabhavo, atthi uppattibhavo (Vbh. 136; 137).

⁷¹ VbhA. 183.

Past	1.	avijjā	ignorance	Kammabhava
	2.	sankhāra	(as a paccaya)	
	3.	viññāṇa	consciousness	
	4.	пāтагйра	mind and matter	
	5.	sa ļāyatana	6 sense-doors	Uppattibhava
Present	6.	phassa	contact	
	7.	vedanā	sensation	
	8.	taṇhā	desire	
	9.	upādāna	clinging	Kammabhava
	10.	bhava	becoming	
Future	11.	jāti	(re-) birth	Uppattibhava
	12.	jarāmaraņā	old age, death	

Table 7
The Paticcasamuppāda at a Glance

If we refer back to the list of fifty types of $sankh\bar{a}ra$ on p. 107, we see that thinking about and consideration are both included in $sankh\bar{a}ra$. These two terms are precursors to the concept of obsessions previously discussed; without any of these three, craving could not arise because, as the $Sakkapa\bar{n}hasutta$ states, envy $(iss\bar{a})$ and avarice (macchariya), as well as desire $(chanda)^{73}$ have their origin in obsessions. The commentarial tradition is correct in affirming that the three links of craving, clinging and becoming belong to the kamma-

⁷² As evidenced by the causal chain of the Majjhimanikāya: Cakkhun c'āvuso paṭīcca rūpe ca uppajjati cakkhuviññānam tinnam sangati phasso, phassapaccayā vedanā, yam vedeti tam sanjānāti, yam sanjānāti tam vitakketi, yam vitakketi tam papañceti, yam papañceti tato nidānam purisam papañcasankhā samudācaranti atītānāgatapaccuppannesu cakkhuviņņeyyesu rūpesu. Visual consciousness arises on account of visual forms and the eye. The meeting of these three is contact (phassa); on account of contact there is a sensation; what one senses (as a sensation), one recognizes; what one recognizes, one "thinks about" (vitakka); what one thinks about, one is obsessed with; what obsesses one is the cause of the number of obsessions which assail a person in regard to past, present or future visual forms cognizable by the eye (M. i, 111-12; similar occurrences of the formula also appear at M. i, 259 and S. iv, 67).

⁷³ Chanda is equated by the commentary of the text with tanhā, desire, craving.

⁷⁴ D. ii, 277-78.

process, for thinking about and consideration both precede craving, and these two elements are included in sankhāra. However, this statement does not reject the theory that becoming can itself be divided into kamma-process and rebirth-process. Logically, there is no reason why kamma-process could not occupy a certain place within becoming, while extending to more than one link of the paticcasamuppāda. Kamma-process (or the sankhārakkhandha) can and does belong to becoming and to craving and clinging.

In this chapter, we have seen that not all sankhāra belong to the sankhārakkhandha, since they are not all endowed with the capacity for forming or generating more conditioned phenomena. A conditioned phenomenon can only produce other conditioned phenomena when working in conjunction with viññāṇa, vedanā, saññā and rūpa; in other words, only the sankhārakkhandha can produce conditioned phenomena. This implies that sankhāra as a paccaya is simply a paraphrase of sankhārakkhandha. They both refer to a force that will generate an effect. The effect, however, although being sankhata in the sense that it has been caused, is not necessarily a paccaya or a sankhārakkhandha for it might not generate a further effect.

We have also situated the sankhārakkhandha within the present period of the paticcasamuppāda, namely, taking the place of the three links of craving, clinging and becoming. The next chapter discusses the element that is generated by this active force.

⁷⁵ Refer to the list of elements belonging to sankhāra on p. 107.

Chapter 6

The Viññānakkhandha

In the traditional enumeration of the aggregates, vinnana is fifth and is commonly translated as "consciousness." As with the previous four aggregates, six kinds of vinnana exist, with each designation dependent upon the sense organ through which the faculty performs its function. Therefore, we find vinnana associated with each of the six sense-doors. The canonical definition of this aggregate is, again, as obscure as those of the previous *khandha*. The Pāli canon tells us that vinnana is so called because it "vinnanizes." This definition could make sense only to native speakers of Pāli who had already interiorized through linguistic and cultural reinforcement the significance of "to vinnanize." Unfortunately, most of us are left without the slightest hint as to its meaning.

In looking elsewhere for clues that will help define this aggregate, we find that viñāṇa displays the characteristics of all conditioned phenomena: namely the truths of impermanence and selflessness. For example, the Cullavedallasutta condemns the attempt to regard not only viññāṇa but any of the five aggregates as the seat of individuality (atta), while the Alagaddūpamasutta stresses that viññāṇa itself is impermanent. And it is mentioned elsewhere that those who believe that viññāṇa has a destiny of its own, distinct from the other four khandha, are misled as to its true nature. Therefore, it is clear that within the realm of Pāli Buddhism, neither viññāṇa nor any of the

¹ Chayime āvuso viññāṇakāyā: cakkhuviññāṇam sotaviññāṇam ghānaviññāṇam jivhāviññāṇam kāyaviññāṇam manoviññāṇam (M. i, 53; also M. i, 259; iii, 216, 281).

² Vijānāti vijānātīti kho āvuso, tasmā viñnānan ti vuccatīti (M. i, 292).

³ Sutavā ariyasāvako ... na rūpam attato samanupassati ... na vedanam ... na saññam ... na sankhāre ... na viññānam attato samanupassati, na viññānavantam attānam, na attani viññānam na viññānasmim attānam (M. i, 300).

⁴ Tam kim maññatha bhikkhave. Viññāṇam niccam va aniccam vā ti? Aniccam bhante (M. i, 138; also S. iv, 67-68).

⁵ Yo bhikkhave evam vadeyya: aham aññatra rūpā aññatra vedanāya aññatra saññāya aññatra sakkhārehi viññānassa āgatim vā gatim vā cutim vā upapattim vā vuddhim vā virū!him vā vepullam vā paññāpessāmi ti n'etam ṭhānam vijjati (S. iii, 53.)

other aggregates can be considered as permanent or as occupying the place of an everlasting self.

Yet scholars such as Mrs. Rhys Davids⁶ argue that textual evidence does not always portray viññāna as an impermanent element. Their main argument is that viññana is often approached as the seat of individuality, the residing place of the self, or of a permanent entity. They support their theory by canonical evidence which, according to them, refers to viññāna in the sense of "self." There are at least two of these occurrences. After the death of certain monks who had reached arahanthood (Bhikkhu Godhika and Vakkhali), the evil spirit Māra searched in vain for their viññāna since the latter had utterly ceased to arise. According to Mrs. Rhys Davids, this definitely indicates that after death, the viññāna of a non-liberated person is expected to go somewhere before being "reborn"—therefore implying the existence of some sort of permanent entity which travels from body to body. Mrs. Rhys Davids also notes that the verb "to arise" (uppajiati or uppatti), usually used in reference to viññāna, is occasionally replaced by "to descend" (avakkhanti).8 Once again, she interprets this as alluding to a permanent entity, a kind of "soul" which descends into the body. Viewed in this manner, these few examples contradict the core doctrine of impermanence in general, the changing nature of viññāna itself,9 and the view that the body is existing permanently (sakkāyadi t thi). 10 Mrs. Rhys Davids suggests that, therefore, the notion of a transmigrating entity must have been an intrusion of popular belief into Buddhism—mere "folklore speech" 11—for, when contrasted with the emphasis given to the concepts of anicca and sakkāyadi t thi throughout the entire realm of Buddhist literature, these pieces of evidence are far too scarce to be taken seriously.

However, her interpretation of these passages is, I believe, a result of a misunderstanding of the concept of impermanence and of the core theory of dependent origination. Viññāṇa is characterized by impermanence in the sense that it arises and passes away at every

⁶ C.A.F. Rhys Davids, trans., Buddhist Psychology: An Inquiry into the Analysis and Theory of Mind in Pāli Literature (London: Luzac, 1924), p. 22.

⁷ S. iii, 124; S. i, 121.

⁸ Rhys Davids, Buddhist Psychology, p. 22.

⁹ S. ii, 94; iv, 67; D. i, 21.

¹⁰ M. i, 300.

¹¹ Rhys Davids, Buddhist Psychology, p. 22.

moment. Yet Buddhism stresses that new instances of viññāṇa continually arise in an unbroken causal sequence. As Richard Hayes remarks: "Accepting that a continuum of moments of mental events moves from one physical body to another, or even lives outside a physical body for a while, does not commit one either to a view of permanence or to a view that the continuum is a self." A continuing sequence of causally related viññāṇa needs not imply, as Rhys Davids suggests, any kind of permanence. This leaves us with no substantial grounds for affirming that the passages mentioned above represent an "intrusion of folklore speech." Furthermore, other passages are congruent with the mainstream canonical interpretation of viñāāṇa. As Lilian Silburn explains:

C'est autour de vijñāna [viññāṇa] que graviteront les erreurs de la continuité personnelle, à commencer par celle de Sāti, un des disciples du Buddha, jusqu'à celle des Bouddhologues occidentaux qui s'acharnent à découvrir une personne qui dure et transmigre dans un vijñāna que tant de textes pourtant décrivent comme conditionné et évanescent ... à chaque instant apparaît un vijñāna conditionné par un vijñāna précédent; il y a une certaine continuité parce que les moments de conscience dépendent de leurs conditions et se succèdent sans interruption; mais il n'y a pas de continuité d'un principe qui demeurerait essentiellement le même en dépit de ces changements.¹³

This concept of ever-changing viññāṇa, of "non-entity," seems also to be in complete accord with William James' understanding of consciousness:

To deny plumply that "consciousness" exists seems so absurd on the face of it—for undeniably "thoughts" do exist—that I fear some readers would follow me no further. Let me then immediately explain that I mean only to deny that the word stands for an entity, but to insist most emphatically that it does stand for a function.¹⁴

¹² Electronic-mail message, received from Richard Hayes on March 12, 1992.

¹³ Lilian Silburn, Instant et cause: le discontinu dans la pensée philosophique de l'Inde (Paris: Librairie Philosophique J. Vrin, 1955), pp. 207-208.

¹⁴ William James, Essays in Radical Empiricism (London: Longmans, Greens, 1912), p. 4.

Therefore, to elucidate the meaning of *viññāṇa* we should, as James recommends, approach it as an abstract function, an intangible mental operation, just as we have approached all the other mental aggregates.

The Function of Viññāṇa

Many scholars hold that the function of viññāna merely consists of apprehending the bare phenomenal world, "the immediately known thing which on the mental side is in opposition with the entire brain process." Stcherbatsky's interpretation is typical:

It [viññāṇa] represents pure consciousness, or pure sensation, without any content. Its content is placed in the objective part which contains the definite sensation (sparśa), feelings (vedanā), ideas (saṁiña), volition (cetanā). ...¹⁶

He continues:

... vijñāna and its synonyms, cittā, manaḥ, represent pure sensations, the same as the kalpanāpoḍha pratyakṣa of Dinnāga, and samijña corresponds to definite ideas. Every construction (kalpanā), every abstraction (udgrahana), every definite (parichinna) representation, such as blue and yellow, long and short, male and female, friend and enemy, happy and miserable—this is all brought under the head of ideas (samijña) as distinguished from vijñāna = pure sensation.¹⁷

Stcherbatsky's theory receives support from other scholars such as E.R. Sarathchandra, who advocates that when the term $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}a$ was "applied to the psychology of perception, it meant not full cognition, but bare sensation, a sort of anoetic sentience that occurs before the object is completely apprehended." Jayatilleke also agrees, quoting the Vibhangāṭṭhakatha, to the effect that visual consciousness means mere visual perception. 19

¹⁵ William James, Principles of Psychology (New York: Dover, 1950), p. 142.

¹⁶ Stcherbatsky, The Central Conception of Buddhism, p. 13.

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 16.

¹⁸ Sarathchandra, Buddhist Theory of Perception, p. 4.

¹⁹ Cakkhuviññāṇam pan' ettha dassanamattam viññāṇa eva hoti (Jayatilleke, The Early Buddhist Theory of Knowledge, p. 436).

The theory that correlates $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}an$ with bare sensations devoid of any content seems to be inconsistent with certain passages of the Pāli canon, since the $Majjhimanik\bar{a}ya$ indicates that the function of $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ is to "vi $\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ is pleasant, unpleasant and neither pleasant nor unpleasant. If, as Stcherbatsky and Sarathchandra propose, $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ is pure sensation without any content, then it would be impossible for the $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ to "vi $\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ " anything pleasant, unpleasant or neutral. This would be possible only if the pleasantness, etc., that the faculty $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ is pure sensation or mere external form) being approached. Nevertheless, if the pleasantness were intrinsic to the object, then no difference would be found between $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ and vedana, which is also said to be pleasant, unpleasant or neutral.

The Pāli canon also explains $vi\bar{n}n\bar{a}na$ differently. As Sarathchandra mentions, " $vi\bar{n}n\bar{a}na$ in the earliest texts was almost synonymous with $sa\bar{n}n\bar{a}$." One of the items of canonical evidence supporting this theory states that $vi\bar{n}n\bar{a}na$ is so called because it $vi\bar{n}n\bar{a}nizes$ flavours as sour and bitter, acid and sweet, salty and bland. Recalling our definition of $sa\bar{n}n\bar{a}$ (see p. 77), it is the recognition of a certain colour as blue, red or yellow which can be extended to the recognition of a certain sound as flute, drum or trumpet, or a certain flavour as sour, bitter or sweet, and so on. Hence, according to this interpretation, $vi\bar{n}n\bar{a}na$ seems almost identical to $sa\bar{n}n\bar{a}$.

These numerous different interpretations of viññāṇa have confused scholars who have attempted to circumscribe the meaning of the term. The general meaning of viññāṇa is pure consciousness, mere attention, but what remains obscure is whether this consciousness or attention is of pure percepts devoid of any categorization, of something pleasant, unpleasant or neutral, or of a certain categorization. By examining these three possible definitions for viññāṇa, we notice that (1) pure percepts refer to our definition of secondary matter or of

²⁰ Kiñ ca vijānāti: sukhan ti pi vijānāti, dukkhan ti pi vijānāti, adukkhamasukhan ti pi vijānāti (M. i, 292; M. iii, 242).

²¹ Sarathchandra, Buddhist Theory of Perception, p. 16.

²² Kiñca bhikkhave viññāṇam vadetha. Vijānātīti kho bhikkhave tasmā viññāṇan ti vuccati. Kiñca vijānāti. Ambilam pi vijānāti. Tittakam pi vijānāti. Kaţukam pi vijānāti madhukam pi vijānāti. Khārikam pi vijānāti. Akhārikam pi vijānāti. Loṇakam pi vijānāti. Aloṇakam pi vijānāti. Vijānātīti kho bhikkhave tasmā viññāṇan ti vuccati (S. iii, 87).

contact (see p. 49), (2) something pleasant, unpleasant or neutral can be correlated with our interpretation of vedanā, and (3) the categorization is in line with our explanation of saññā. I feel that it would be a mistake to assign the function of viññāṇa to only one of these three possibilities. Viññāṇa can be applied to contact, vedanā and saññā. The "mystical" sense of viññāṇa may be elucidated if looked at as a function which is applied throughout the mind and matter phenomenon. Viññāṇa is probably the faculty needed for the cognition of pure percept, of sensation and of conceptualization as well; it is not independent of any of these three aggregates. Since none of the aggregates has the capacity of being self-conscious, only viñāāṇa can be considered as performing the function of consciousness or attention.

In our discussion of contact (see p. 49ff.), we saw that in order for a stimulus to be perceived, the presence of three elements is required. There must be a sense-object (visaya), a sense-organ (indriya) and attention or consciousness (viññāṇa). Only when these three elements come together can a stimulus be perceived. This implies, however, that viññāṇa itself is present before the stimulus has appeared, and that the former is independent of the latter. Viññāṇa as pure consciousness or mere attention does not necessarily need to be conscious of or attentive to something in order to exist.

As pointed out by Jayatilleke, 23 another aspect of viññāṇa is its

As pointed out by Jayatilleke, ²³ another aspect of viññāṇa is its similarity to wisdom (paññā). The Mahāvedallasutta²⁴ correlates wisdom with viññāṇa since the former is also characterized by cognition, but in this case, the objects cognized are restricted to the four Noble Truths. However, the same source mentions a difference between the two terms: "while viññāṇa needs to be thoroughly understood, wisdom needs to be developed." As Jayatilleke concludes, this fifth aggregate "seems to be the general term for 'cognition,' while paññā is more or less restricted in connotation to the cognition of spiritual truths." Therefore, when I translate the term viññāṇa as "consciousness," it is essential to bear in mind that although the function of what we call "consciousness" is mere cognition, what is cognized is either pure percepts (rūpa), percepts loaded with either pleasant, unpleasant or

²³ Jayatilleke, The Early Buddhist Theory of Knowledge, p. 434.

²⁴ M. i, 292.

²⁵ Paññā bhāvetabbā viññāṇam pariññeyyam, idam nesam nānākaraṇam (M. i, 293).

²⁶ Jayatilleke, The Early Buddhist Theory of Knowledge, p. 435.

neutral connotations ($vedan\bar{a}$), or conceptualizations resulting from the activy of $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ on the sense-data.

Finally, there are two conditions without which "consciousness" cannot appear. As the *Majjhimanikāya* states:

Whenever there is a functioning sense-organ (eye, ear, tongue, nose, body and mind), a sense-object (visual form, sound, taste, smell, touch and thought) entering into the field of the sense-organ then, with these brought together, there is the manifestation of the part of consciousness referring to the specific sense-organ.²⁷

From this same Pāli passage, Jayatilleke reads three conditions: to the two we have mentioned, he adds "an appropriate act of attention on the part of the mind" which, he says, is the English equivalent of tajjo samannāhāro hoti.28 His elaboration of three conditions refutes the references found in the sutta literature, which mentions only two conditions, namely the sense-door and a respective sense-object.²⁹ Furthermore, while the Pāli Text Society Dictionary renders samannāhāro as "bringing together," Jayatilleke stretches the meaning to an "appropriate act of attention." Even if his English rendering of samannāhāro were correct, what would this "mind" which applies the "act of attention" be? No "entity" shapes the individual other than the five aggregates, and, because of our systematic discussion of the khandha, we know that neither rūpa, vedanā, saññā or sankhāra is responsible for anything that resembles "an appropriate act of attention." Rather, it seems that the "act of attention" is precisely the function of viññāna.

Viññāna and Mano

Many canonical and commentarial passages equate the terms viññāṇa and mano. For example, the Brahmajālasutta and the Visuddhimagga indicate that citta and mano are both synonyms of viññāṇa.³⁰ Bhikkhu

²⁷ Yato ca kho āvuso ajjhattikañ c'eva cakkhum aparibhinnam hoti bāhirā ca rūpā āpātham āgacchanti tajjo ca samannāhāro hoti, evam tajjassa viññāṇabhāgassa pātubhāvo hoti (M. i, 190).

²⁸ Jayatilleke, The Early Buddhist Theory of Knowledge, p. 435.

²⁹ Cakkhuñ ca pațicca rūpe ca uppajjati cakkhuviññāṇam (S. iv, 86; M. i, 259).

³⁰ Cittan ti va mano ti va viññāṇaṁ ti (D. i, 21). Viññāṇaṁ cittaṁ, mano ti atthato ekaṁ (Vsm. 452).

120

Nārada in the introduction to his translation of the Abhidhammattha-sangaha says that "citta, ceta, cittuppāda, nāma, mana, viññāṇa are all used as synonymous terms in Abhidhamma. Hence, from the Abhidhamma standpoint no distinction is made between mind and consciousness." However, I would be more inclined to say that within the sutta literature, these terms were used more or less synonymously and that only in later abhidhammic and commentarial sources did the distinctions between them become more important. Yet, we must acknowledge that even in the sutta an implicit distinction is established between these terms. 32

Since the concept of mano has already been discussed (see p. 40), I shall only stress the difference between the "mental senseorgan" (mano) and viññāna itself here. In the discussion of "secondary matter." we saw that matter, in general, forms the six sense-objects: touch (photthabbāyatana), sound (saddāyatana), taste (rāsāyatana), smell (gandhāvatana), visual form (rūpāvatana) and thought (dhammāvatana). There are also six faculties or sense-organs that allow us to perceive them: the tactile organ (kāyāyatana), the auditory organ (sotāyatana), the gustatory organ (jivhāyatana), the olfactory organ (gandhāyatana), the visual organ (cakkhāyatana), and finally, the mental sense-organ (manavatana). However, we have seen that such perception is only possible when there is a contact between the sense-object, the sense-organ and the respective consciousness (viññāna). Manāvatana on its own, without the function of viññāna, cannot induce perception. Like the other five sense-organs, manāyatana is dependent on viññāna to bring the object to the attention of the subject. Manāyatana is purely a sense-organ that cannot function without viññāna. However, there is a substantial difference between manavatana and the other sense-organs: while the latter can only apprehend their respective sense-objects, manāyatana apprehends only mental objects (dhammāyatana)—yet these very thoughts are derived from the contact of other sense-objects with their respective sense-doors. As Kalupahana elucidates this point:

In fact, its [mano's] function is to assist in bringing back the impression produced by the other sense faculties and, as such,

³¹ Nārada, A Manual of Abhidhamma, p. 9.

³² For a more detailed study of the distinction between mano, viññāṇa and other Pāli and Sanskrit concepts often translated by the English words "consciousness" or "mind," refer to Herbert V. Guenther, Philosophy and Psychology in the Abhidharma (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1974), pp. 15-49.

constitutes a form of "reflection." Mano, therefore, has "concept" $(dhamm\bar{a})$ as its objects, and these are generally considered substitutes for percepts. ... While mano is performing this special function, consciousness $(vi\bar{n}\bar{n}ana)$ continues to flow uninterrupted like a stream fed by all the faculties including mano.³³

The Unnābho Brāhmano Sutta of the Samyuttanikāya explains the function of mano. According to this text, each of the first five senseorgans has a different scope and range, none of which are interchangeable. In other words, the eve cannot perceive smell. Yet mano is common to them all in the sense that it is able to interact with all the other sense-organs.34 The text does not imply that mano perceives smells, visual forms, etc., but only that it can perceive the concept (dhamma) that was derived from the percept apprehended by one of the first five sense-doors. Table 8 will help further clarify the distinction of manāvatana and viññāna. It shows that mano is endowed with a special function distinct from that of all the other sense-doors: mano has the ability to survey the fields (gocara) of the other senses. The term "field" does not refer to the sense-object itself, but to the actual contact between the sense-object, the sense-door and the respective viññāna. The sense-object as such is merely a potential object of perception, and, as long as it has not been apprehended by the senses and the consciousness, it cannot become an object of mano. Once contact has taken place, a percept arises. This percept may be either visual, auditory, olfactory, gustatory or tactile. In its turn, the percept becomes a potential object of mano, potential in the sense that not all percepts come in contact with both mano and a viññana. However, when it does come in contact with these two other faculties, the percept itself is technically termed dhammāvatana for it becomes the direct object of mano.

The main distinction between viññāṇa and mano, however, is summed up in the following statement by Bhikkhu Nāṇamoli:

³³ Kalupahana, Principles of Buddhist Psychology, p. 30.

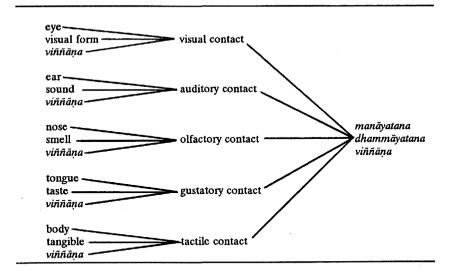
³⁴ Pañcimāni brāhmaņa indriyāni nānāvisayāni nānāgocarāni na aññāmaññassa gocaravisayam paccanubhonti. Katamāni pañca? Cakkhundriyam. pe ... Kāyindriyam. Imesam kho brāhmaņa pañcannam indriyānam nānāvisayānam nānāgocarānam na aññamaññassa gocaravisayam paccanubhontānam mano paṭisaraṇam mano ca nesam gocaravisayam paccanubhotī ti (S. v, 218).

Viññāṇa (rendered by "consciousness") is, loosely, more or less a synonym of mano and citta; technically, it is bare cognition considered apart from feeling [vedanā], perception [saññā] or formations [sañkhāra]. Mano (rendered by "mind"), when used technically, is confined to the sixth internal base for contact.³⁵

Mano is often employed as synonym of viññāṇa or citta, ³⁶ yet it seems that a slight nuance can be implied by these terms. Viñnāṇa is often associated with sense cognition in general, while mano frequently refers to the intellectual activity triggered by the contact of the mental objects and $viñnāṇa^{37}$ —a function similar to that of manas in Nyāya philosophy where it is "the instrument through which the objects of sense affect the soul."

Table 8

Mano and Viññāna



³⁵ Nanamoli, The Path of Purification, p. 507, n. 35.

³⁶ Such as in S. ii, 94: cittam iti pi mano iti pi.

³⁷ Refer to our previous discussion of mano on p. 40.

³⁸ Apte, The Practical Sanskrit English Dictionary, p. 1233.

Viññana as Rebirth and Death Consciousness

In later Buddhist scholasticism, viññāna is often interpreted as being either a rebirth-consciousness (patisandhiviññāna) or a death-consciousness (cuticitta)—more literally, a "departing" consciousness. 39 The death-consciousness constitutes the last consciousness of one's life. whereas the rebirth-consciousness consists of the very first consciousness of a being. It is the factor that triggers the stream of consciousness which characterizes one's existence and is wholly conditioned by previous sankhāra and kamma from previous lives. As Bhikkhu Nārada explains: "Dependent on past conditioning activities [sankhāra] arises relinking or rebirth consciousness in a subsequent birth. It is so called because it links the past with the present, and is the initial consciousness one experiences at the moment of conception."40 This idea of rebirth-consciousness may be misleading: it is not a permanent entity transferred from one body to another. As Venerable Nagasena explains to King Milinda, that which transmigrates from one life to another is neither the same nor another. 41 In the Visudhimagga, Buddhaghosa explains this "transmigration" of consciousness very clearly:

But it should be understood that it [the vinnana] has neither come here from the previous becoming nor has it become manifest without the kamma, the formations, the pushing, the objective field, etc., as a cause. And here, let the illustration of this consciousness be such things as an echo, a light, a seal, a seal impression, a looking-glass image, for the fact of its not coming here from the previous becoming and for the fact that it arises owing to causes that are included in past becomings. For just as an echo, a light, a seal impression, and a shadow, have respectively sound, etc., as their cause and come into being without going elsewhere, so also this consciousness. 42

The cuticitta and pațisandhiviññāṇa respectively stand for the death-consciousness and the rebirth-consciousness. However, their

³⁹ The term citta has been used instead of viññāna in the expression cuticitta. However, in this specific context, both terms are synonymous. With regard to the interchangeability of these two terms, see p. 119, particularly n. 30.

⁴⁰ Nārada, A Manual of Abhidhamma, p. 422.

⁴¹ Na ca so na ca añño (Mil. 40).

⁴² Nănamoli, The Path of Purification, p. 639.

meaning is not limited to these two particular types of consciousness, for viññāṇa in general is also subject to the three characteristics of existence. At every moment, each consciousness arises and passes away, continually yielding its place to a new one. Thus every consciousness must have the quality of both rebirth-consciousness, in the sense that it arose from the previous consciousness, and death-consciousness, in the sense that the rebirth-consciousness that has arisen must also die. The quality of this latter viññāṇa (which becomes a death-consciousness at the moment of death) will engender a new rebirth-consciousness. Birth, death and rebirth do not occur only at the beginning and the end of life. From a microcosmic point of view, the cycle repeats itself at each and every moment and each time a new consciousness is engendered.

Correlation between Viññāṇa and the Pațiccasamuppāda

Like the four previous aggregates, viññāṇa holds a specific place in the theory of dependent origination. As one of the links of the paţicca-samuppāda, viññāṇa is the third link of the chain, preceding mind and matter, the six sense-doors and contact; the last two being part of the rūpakkhandha. I will leave the explanation as to why viññāṇa, which is the fifth member in the traditional enumeration of the aggregates, occupies a place that precedes all the other aggregates in the paţicca-samuppāda for the next chapter. Here I will explain the function of viññāṇa in the paţiccasamuppāda and describe its relation to the viññāṇakkhandha.

We have to note that the explanation of the viññāna-link is often limited to the first consciousness that enters the mother's womb, ⁴³ which would be a rebirth-consciousness. To my knowledge, no such statement is found in the sutta literature itself. In later literature, however, we find that the viññāna-link is associated not only with the nineteen types of rebirth-consciousnesses, ⁴⁴ but also with the other types of consciousness that may arise from this "original" consciousness. The Vībhanga, for example, defines the viññāna-link as consciousness (citta, mano, viññāna, manoviñānadhātu), the mind base (manāyatana), the controlling faculty of mind (manindriya), and the viññānakkhandha

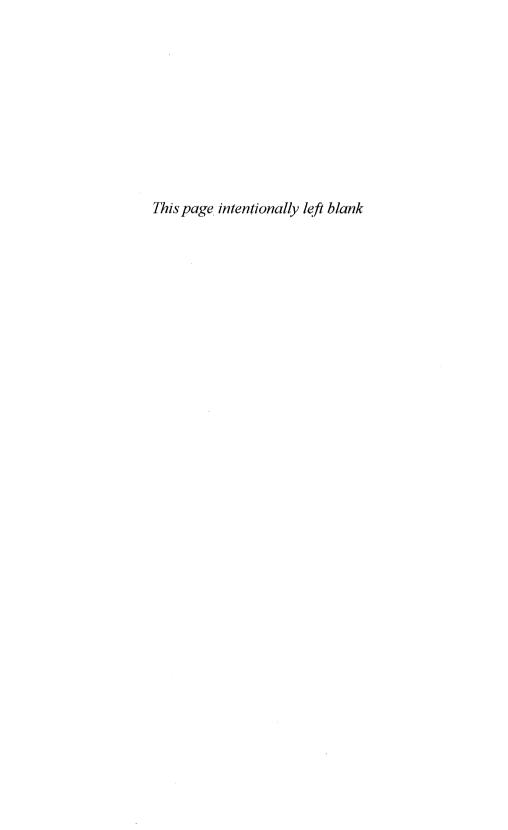
⁴³ See for example Nyānātiloka, Buddhist Dictionary, pp. 121-22.

⁴⁴ Nārada, A Manual of Abhidhamma, p. 361. These nineteen types of consciousness are described in Anuruddha's Abhidhammatthasangaha (ed. T.W.S. Rhys Davids, Journal of the P.T.S. [1884]: 21-23).

itself. Therefore, the third link of the paticcasamuppāda includes the whole viññānakkhandha and not merely the patisandhiviññāna.

In this chapter, we have seen that $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}an$ is variously translated. Some scholars hold that it means "bare sensation," some, "pure consciousness" and others, "the cognition of something pleasant, unpleasant or neutral." However, none of these theories seems to be completely accurate, since $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}an$ is responsible for the cognition of all of these. Hence we defined the term as mere consciousness, whether that consciousness is of $r\bar{u}pa$, $vedan\bar{a}$ or $sa\bar{n}\bar{n}a$. We have also seen the difference between mano—one of the six sense-organs—and $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ itself. Both are necessary for perception of thoughts or concepts (dhamma), but only the latter is necessary for the apprehension of stimuli from any of the other sense-organs. Finally, we have established a correlation between the third link of the $paticcasamupp\bar{u}da$ —the $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}ana$ -link—and the $vi\bar{n}\bar{n}anakkhandha$. Now that we have discussed the function of each of the five aggregates, let us turn to a discussion of their interrelation.

⁴⁵ Tattha katamam sankhārapaccayā viññāṇam? Yam cittam mano mānasam hadayam paṇḍaram mano manāyatanam manindriyam viññāṇam viññāṇakkhandho tajjā manoviññāṇadhātu: idam vuccati sankhārapaccayā viññāṇam (Vbh. 144).



Chapter 7

Interrelation of the Aggregates

In the previous chapters we discussed each of the five aggregates separately, without attempting to establish a detailed correlation between them. However, simply understanding the purport of these aggregates gives us merely a superficial insight into Buddhist psychology. The knowledge that $r\bar{u}pa$ is equated with the six sense-doors and bare perception, $vedan\bar{a}$ with sensation, $sa\bar{n}n\bar{a}$ with recognition, $sankh\bar{a}ra$ with any type of actions that will produce an effect, and $vi\bar{n}n\bar{a}na$ with consciousness fails to shed much light on either the workings of the mind or the path leading to salvation. On the other hand, this understanding of the relationship between each of the aggregates will considerably increase our insights into Buddhist psychology.

The order in which the five aggregates have been presented so far reflects their typical canonical enumeration. To my knowledge, canonical literature does not offer a different order for the aggregates. Unfortunately, aside from the traditional order in which the aggregates are enumerated, no hint as to their interrelation is given in the sutta literature. We must, then, deduce their operational process from the core theories of Buddhism. I will argue that the function of each of the aggregates, in their respective order, can be directly correlated with the theory of dependent origination—especially with the eight middle links. Three of the aggregates—sankhāra, viññāna and vedanā—as well as the entire psycho-physical phenomenon termed nāmarūpa, are included in the chain of dependent origination, indicating the intimate relation

¹ Rhys Davids and Stede state in their Pāli Text Society Pāli-English Dictionary (p. 233) that one incidence of a different enumeration has been found in the Samyuttanikāya: Rūpam vedayitam sañāam viññānam yañca sankhatam neso ham asmi netam me (S. i, 112). Yet, while the aggregate sankhāra seems prima facie to have been placed after viññāna, we must stress that the term sankhatam in this particular context comprises the four preceding elements. As the translation of this passage shows: "Matter, sensation, recognition, consciousness, that which is conditioned, is not I." Therefore, we could hardly say that this particular passage offers a different sequence in the enumeration of the aggregates. It simply states that matter, sensations, recognition and consciousness and that which is conditioned cannot be identified with the self.

between the latter and the five aggregates. In this chapter, I will first address the "order problem" that presents itself when trying to establish a correlation with the five aggregates and the eight middle links of the paticcasamuppāda. Second, I will examine each of the middle links of the paticcasamuppāda and point out which of the five aggregates can be correlated with them. This investigation will demonstrate that all the aggregates but saññā play an obvious role in this middle division. Third, I will attempt to adduce evidence supporting the implicit, yet crucial, presence of saññā between the two links of vedanā and tanhā. Finally, I will briefly explain the workings of the five aggregates within vipassanā meditation.

The Position of Viññāṇa in the Enumeration of the Pañcakkhandhā

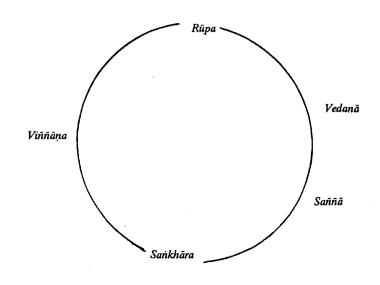
In the traditional enumeration of the pañcakkhandhā, viññāna appears as the last aggregate. This is puzzling, for how can the functions of rūpa, vedanā, saññā and sankhāra be accomplished if no prior consciousness is present to cognize and to come in contact with the external world? This would imply the impossibility of having either "mere perception," a sensation, or even a recognition imposed on sense-data, for nothing would have been cognized by a viññāna. The curious point remains as to why viññāna is listed as the final constituent of the five aggregates throughout the bulk of canonical literature. I believe, however, that there is a simple explanation.

The concept of re-evolution, which finds an expression in the theory of rebirth, is central to Buddhism. According to this theory, death is a natural and unavoidable sequence to birth, and it is inevitably followed by another birth—unless, of course, one has escaped the samsāric cycle by becoming an arahant. In many Buddhist enumerations—such as the five strengths (bala) and the eightfold noble path—the final element revolves and comes back to condition or reinforce the first member. However, there has been a controversy among scholars on whether the different elements of these enumerations are to be construed sequentially or cyclically. It is not my intent to prove that a

² K.N. Jayatilleke, in his work Early Buddhist Theory of Knowledge, deals with the concept of saddhā (trust) as the first member of the five strengths and shows that two distinct interpretative trends can be observed. Tilmann Vetter (The Ideas and Meditative Practices of Early Buddhism), on the other hand, offers evidence that the eightfold noble path can be construed both cyclically and sequentially.

cyclical perspective is definitively at work within the five strengths or the eightfold noble path. Such an approach is plausible, but establishing it would require a more exhaustive study. Moreover, whether the five strengths or the eightfold noble path can be approached from a cyclical perspective is not crucial for this study, since textual references indicate that the five aggregates are definitely subject to such an approach. This implies, therefore, that the last element of the five aggregates would also become the first, that viññāna revolves from its "last" position to become the "first" of the aggregates (see Table 9).

Table 9
The Wheel of the Five Aggregates



This theory finds support in the paticcasamuppāda itself, wherein viñāṇa is placed before the mind and matter link. The five aggregates themselves constitute the category of mind and matter. Since the last of the aggregates is viññāṇa, it will again engender a new set of aggregates until one breaks the chain of saṃsāra. The fact that consciousness "engenders" mind and matter emphasizes the cyclical aspect of the five aggregates. This theory is further evidenced by two major canonical

passages. The first is found in the Samyuttanikāya, where Sāriputta—the Buddha's disciple known as the commander-in-chief of Dhamma (Dhammasenapatti)³—explains to Mahākoṭthita that mind and matter are conditioned by viñāṇa and that the viñāṇa is also conditioned by mind and matter.⁴ The second passage is from the Dīghanikāya where the Bodhisattva Vipassī is said to have reflected on the nature of consciousness (viñāṇa) and of mind and matter. The result of his reflection is the same as that of Sāriputta: viñāṇa conditions mind and matter, and vice versa.⁵ This clearly shows that viñāṇa can either be approached as the last aggregate, as portrayed in the standard enumeration of the pañcakkhandhā, or as the first, for viññāṇa is necessary for the arising of the other four aggregates. Having shown that viñāāṇa can be placed as the first or last member of the pañcakkhandhā, we may begin our actual analysis of the paṭiccasamuppāda.

Correlation between Four Aggregates and the Pațiccasamuppāda

In Table 10, the twelve links of the chain of dependent origination are divided into three traditional categories—past, present and future. Each of these divisions represents an alternative means of explaining the concept of mind and matter when taken in its largest sense, inclusive of the five aggregates.⁶ For the purpose of this book, I will limit my analysis to the second division, where the presence of the five aggregates is clearest, and I will clearly demonstrate the presence of the

³ The Anupadasutta offers a long eulogy of Sāriputta by the Buddha (M. iii, 25ff.). Sāriputta is also known as chief among the disciples (aggasāvaka).

⁴ Apica [sic] viññāṇapaccayā nāmarūpanti. ... Api ca nāmarūpapaccayā viññāṇanti (S. ii, 113).

⁵ Atha kho bhikkhave Vipassissa Bodhisattassa etad ahosi: "Kimhi nu kho sati nāmarūpam hoti, kim paccayā nāmarūpan ti?" Atha kho bhikkhave Vipassissa Bodhissattassa yonisomanasikārā ahu paññāya abhisamayo: "Viññāne kho sati nāmarūpam hoti, viññānapaccayā nāmarūpan ti." Atha kho bhikkhave Vipassissa Bodhisattassa etad ahosi: "Kimhi nu kho sati viññānam hoti, kim paccayā viññānan ti?" Atha kho bhikkhave Vipassissa Bodhissattassa yonisomanasikārā ahu paññāya abhisamayo: "Nāmarūpe kho sati viññānam hoti, nāmarūpapaccayā viññānan ti" (D. ii, 32). It is interesting to note that this reflection of the Bodhisatta Vipassī involves a slightly different formula of the theory of dependent origination. This formula includes only ten links instead of twelve, excluding ignorance (avijjā) and karmic activities (sankhāra)—the first two links of the more well-known formula—from its list. A similar formula is also found at S. ii, 104.

⁶ See discussion on p. 9.

aggregates within these eight links. The eight elements linked in this second group can be considered a mere rewording or a more detailed explanation of the psychosomatic process set in motion by mind and matter.

Table 10
The Paţiccasamuppāda from a Mind and Matter Perspective

Mind and matter	 avijjā (ignorance) sankhāra (karmic activities) 	Past
Mind and matter	 viññāṇa (consciousness) nāmarūpa (mind and matter) saļāyatanā (six sense-doors) phassa (contact) vedanā (sensation) taṇhā (craving) upādāna (clinging) bhava (becoming) 	Present
Mind and matter	11. jāti (birth; rebirth) 12. jarāmaraņa (old age and deat	Future th)

The first link enumerated in the middle group of the theory of dependent origination is viññāna. While viññāna is the last member of the pañcakkhandhā, it can also very well be considered the first. According to the traditional interpretation of the theory of dependent origination, consciousness, as a member of the chain, is nothing but a rebirth-consciousness. But as we have seen, every consciousness is a rebirth-consciousness at the moment of its emergence, and a death-consciousness at the moment of its dissolution. As soon as the consciousness emerges, however, mind and matter arise. 8

⁷ Vsm. 528. For clarification on the term patisandhi, see p. 123.

⁸ Idha paṭisandhi viññāṇam okkanti nāmarūpam ... (Ps. i, 52; also found at Vsm. 600).
"Here [in this present life] there is a relinking which is consciousness, there is an appearance which is nāmarūpa." The word okkanti literally means descent, but can

Many passages explain the second link of the middle group, mind and matter ($n\bar{a}mar\bar{u}pa$), as that which comprises all the five aggregates. The term $n\bar{a}mar\bar{u}pa$ itself was already employed in pre-Buddhist philosophical systems. As Sarathchandra has pointed out:

The expression nāmarūpa, borrowed from the earlier upanishadic literature, possessed two meanings. In one sense it referred to the empirical individual who, in the Upanishads too, enjoyed only a relative reality. But sometimes it was used as a comprehensive term which included the entire phenomenal worlds comprising mind and matter?

Buddhism also ascribes these two meanings to the term. In the context of the paticcasamuppāda, however, the meaning of the term is limited to the psycho-physical structure of the individual. The authors of the Pāli Text Society Dictionary¹⁰ note that the commentary on the Dhammapada states that the four mental aggregates plus the material aggregate constitute mind and matter. Throughout Pāli literature, 12 numerous passages support this statement. Yet, oddly enough, we also find repeated an explicit contradiction of this definition of mind and matter. This has been noted by Étienne Lamotte who remarked that "par mentalité [nāma], il faut entendre les trois skandha mentaux à l'exclusion du vijñāna." Although matter is always characterized by the rūpakkhandha, the mind (nāma), in certain passages, is defined only in terms of three aggregates—vedanā, saññā and sankhāra—instead of

also imply appearance; certain translators such as Ñāṇamoli have juxtaposed the phrase "into the mother's womb" to the term. This addition was probably inspired by a sentence of the Dīghanikāya where it is explicitly stated that if a viññāṇa does not enter the mother's womb, mind and matter cannot be engendered: Viññāṇam va hi Ānanda mātu kucchim na okkamissatha, api nu kho nāmarūpam mātu kucchismim samucchissathāti (D. ii, 63).

⁹ Sarathchandra, Buddhist Theory of Perception, p. 7.

¹⁰ Rhys Davids and Stede, P.T.S. Pāli-English Dictionary, p. 350.

¹¹ Vedanādijam catunnam rūpakkhandhassa cā ti pañcannam khandhānam vasena pavattam nāmarūpam (DhA. iv, 100).

¹² Nāman ti cattāro arūpakkhandhā, rūpan ti rūpakkhandha (AA. ii, 154); a similar statement is also found at DhsA. 392.

¹³ Lamotte, Histoire du bouddhisme indien, p. 40.

four.14 This particular interpretation excludes viññāna from the mental category. Although there is an apparent contradiction, the problem might not be as serious as it seems, because the simple presence of the material aggregate along with the first three mental aggregates implies viññāna. Since sankhāra is listed as one of the mental aggregates. viññāna must naturally follow for, according to the paticcasamuppāda. sankhāra gives rise to viñnāna (sankhārapaccayā viñnānam). Moreover, as we have previously seen, the mind and matter category itself conditions viññana. Perhaps certain sources exclude viññana from the definition of mind and matter simply in order to avoid duplication, 15 or perhaps they assume its presence to be so self-evident that it does not warrant mentioning. Whether consciousness is explicitly mentioned in the list or not, its function is always and undoubtedly present: on the one hand, mind and matter arise on the ground of viññāna, and on the other, sankhāra inevitably generates a vinnāna. Therefore, the mind and matter category must contain all five aggregates.

The third link of this middle group is the six sense-doors $(sa \, l \, \bar{a}yatan \bar{a})$, usually described as the six organs of cognition; namely, the visual, auditory, olfactory, gustatory, tactile and thinking organs. Each of these sense-doors is then further divided into internal (ajjhatta) and external $(b\bar{a}hira)$. However, ¹⁶ within the $paticcasamupp\bar{a}da$ formula itself, the term $sa \, l \, \bar{a}yatan \, \bar{a}$ includes only the six sense-organs (ajjhatta) and not their respective objects. We can therefore establish a direct correlation with the six sense-doors link of the $paticcasamupp\bar{a}da$ and the five sense-organs that partly constitute the $r\bar{u}pakkhandha$.

The fourth link of the middle group, contact (phassa), arises from the six sense-doors. But as we saw, contact is bare sensory experience devoid of any subjective content. We can establish a further correlation here between the sense-objects (bāhirasa ļāyatanā) and the

¹⁴ For example, the Vibhanga excludes viññāna from nāma: Vedanākkhandho saññākkhandho sankhārakkhandho: idam vuccati viññānapaccayā nāmam (Vbh. 144). The Visuddhimagga also states that nāma only includes the three aggregates starting with vedanā: nāman ti ārammanābhimukham namanato vedanādayo tayo khandhā (Vsm. 558). This view is not shared by Vasubandhu who stated in his Abhidharmakośa that "les quatre skandhas immatériels, vedanā, samjñā, samskāras, vijñāna, sont nommés nāman, car nāman signific 'ce qui se ploie', namatīti nāma" (La Vallée Poussin, Abhidharmakośa, 2:94).

¹⁵ Although duplication was not a technique that the compilers of the Păli canon frowned upon.

¹⁶ See p. 48.

rūpakkhandha. The sense-objects, which belong to the rūpakkhandha, are potential objects of perception. But because of the congregation of consciousness, sense-organs and sense-objects, they become actual objects of perception and are termed contact.

Contact conditions the fifth link of the middle group, vedanā. To describe vedanā as one of the links is not necessary, since it has already been discussed as one of the aggregates, and we can rightly assume that the meaning of the term is the same in both contexts.

The sixth and seventh links which follow the vedanā-link are craving (tanhā) and clinging (upādāna). As Bhikkhu Ñāṇamoli points out in his translation of the Nettippakaranam, the literal translation of tanhā is "thirst," but the term tanhā itself is never used in Pāli literature to refer to "thirst" as such. Instead, the word pipāsa is employed when thirst is intended.¹⁷ Moreover, our common understanding of craving may be misleading, since tanhā refers to both craving and aversion. According to Buddhism, craving reflects our discontentment with the present moment, with reality as it is. We desire or crave something because of a deep inner dissatisfaction and because of our inability to accept reality as it presents itself. Craving is nothing but aversion towards our immediate situation. Similarly, aversion manifests itself as the craving for a better condition. The word tanhā refers to both craving and aversion and henceforth, whenever the word craving is employed, aversion is also intended since both are the two faces of the same coin. Clinging is usually defined as an intensified form of craving.¹⁸ Tanhā and upādāna can be dealt with together since both represent craving at different levels of intensity. Craving always expresses itself first at the mental level, but it only rarely remains confined to that realm; through verbal and physical deeds, craving shapes life. Since tanhā cannot express itself without a mental, verbal or physical action, we can equate both tanhā and upādāna with part of sankhāra, namely the activity that arises from a mental conation. To return to the simile used to describe sankhāra, 19 craving would correspond to the activity of cooking, but would not include the final cooked product.

¹⁷ Nanamoli, The Guide (Nettippakaranam), p. 15, n. 42.

¹⁸ According to the Visuddhimagga, "Clinging is characterized by 'seizing' (gahana), its property is not to release, and it manifests itself as a strong craving and as ditthi." Gahanalakkhanamupādānam, amuñcanarasam, tanhāda lhatta-ditthipaccupa thānam (Vsm. 528).

¹⁹ See p. 104.

The sutta literature mentions that craving is the conduit to becoming (bhavanetti);20 therefore craving leads us to the eighth link in our investigation—becoming (bhava). However, a distinction should be made between becoming as a general concept and becoming as one of the links of the paticcasamuppāda. According to Pāli literature. becoming in the general sense is divided into *kamma*-process and rebirth-process.²¹ The former refers to all actions that lead to becoming—what Nyanatiloka explains as "the karmically active side of existence ... while the latter refers to the ... karma-produced Rebirth or Regenerating Process, i.e. [sic] the karmically passive side of existence consisting in the arising and developing of the karma-produced and therefore morally neutral mental and bodily phenomena existence."22 Thus the rebirth-process is the result, the effect which outflows from the kamma-process and reproduces the five aggregates by generating a new viññāna.²³ Yet becoming, as one of the links of the paticcasamuppāda, does not include what we described as rebirthprocess, for it is only the kamma-process that is a condition for birth.²⁴ Furthermore, the kamma-process is not restricted to the eighth link (bhava), but includes the two previous links of the chain of dependent origination, craving and clinging,²⁵ for all the kamma leading to the general concept of becoming are included in kamma-process.²⁶

Here, again, there is an evident correlation with the pañca-kkhandhā: the saṅkhārakkhandha is connected to the concept of bhava. As we saw on p. 103, the underlying meaning of saṅkhāra is twofold. It is defined as a productive force and as whatever is compounded. The first aspect of saṅkhāra can be correlated with the kammabhava, i.e., to

²⁰ S. iii, 190; v, 432.

²¹ Vsm. 571; also Vbh. 137.

²² Nyānātiloka, Buddhist Dictionary, p. 28.

²³ The sutta state that the five aggregates have craving or desire as their root. Ime kho, bhikkhave, pañc' upādānakkhandhā chandamūlakā ti (M. iii, 16); also at S. iii, 100. Furthermore, Buddhaghosa briefly explains the uppattibhava as the [five] aggregates generated by kamma. Uppattibhavo pana sankhepato kammābhinibbattā khandhā pabhedato navavidho hoti (Vsm. 571).

²⁴ Bhavo ti pan'ettha kammabhavo va adhippeto, so hi jātiyā paccayo, na uppattibhavo (Vsm. 575).

²⁵ Vsm. 581.

²⁶ Sabbam pi bhavagāmikamman ti iminā pana cetanā sampayuttā abhijjhādayo vutta (Vsm. 571).

craving, clinging and the link of becoming itself, while the second aspect is nothing but the *uppattibhava*.

Through this simple analysis of the middle group of the $paticcasamupp\bar{a}da$, we have now assigned four of the aggregates to the eight links of the chain: with consciousness (vinnanaa), we have correlated the vinnanaa with mind and matter, the five aggregates; with the six sense-doors (salayatana), matter (rapa); with contact (phassa), matter as well; with vedana, sensation; and with craving (tanha), clinging (upadana) and becoming (bhava), sankhara. The only aggregate that has not been included is sanaa. Although it is not mentioned as a member of the chain of dependent origination, nor even alluded to by the twelve links, its implicit presence plays a crucial role.

Inclusion of Sañña in the Paticcasamuppada Formula

My work has already demonstrated²⁷ that saññā comes in contact with sensations after they have arisen, and that saññā plays an important role in the emergence of craving, attachment and becoming—the three links of the paticcasamuppāda that are correlated with sankhāra. This claim was based upon two major arguments. The first is supported by the canonical statement that unwholesome saññā leads to "obsessions" (papañca),²⁸ a concept similar to that of [micchā-] ditthi,²⁹ and by Buddhaghosa's statement that clinging (upādāna) is manifested as [micchā-] ditthi.30 It is important to stress that only unwholesome saññā (kilesasaññā) produce papañca.31 Since papañca is basically interchangeable with micchādit thi, we could easily paraphrase Buddhaghosa's statement and say that clinging is manifested as papañca. And, as the Suttanipāta affirms, unwholesome saññā is responsible for the arising of papañca. Therefore saññā must precede clinging. Since saññā always follows vedanā. 32 it must perform its function between vedanā and upādāna. Yet, we still ought to clarify whether saññā occurs between vedanā and craving, or between craving and clinging.

²⁷ Refer to pp. 87ff.

²⁸ Sn. 874.

²⁹ Refer to p. 80.

³⁰ Vsm. 528. Previously quoted in n. 18 on p. 134.

³¹ This was discussed on p. 80, and evidenced by the Sāratthappakāsini (SA. ii, 382).

³² Tam vedeti tam sanjānāti (M. i, 111).

This is where we used the second argument which is grounded in the causal chain of the Majjhimanikāya, 33 a psychological theory that E.R. Sarathchandra has qualified as one of the earliest Buddhist formulas of sense-consciousness. 34 According to this formula. 35 "visual consciousness (cakkhuviññāna) arises on account of visual forms (rūpa) and the eve (cakkhu). The meeting of these three elements is contact (phassa)" which is a necessary condition for the arising of the next link: vedanā. The formula continues by stating that "whatever is felt (vedeti) as a sensation is recognized (sanjānāti)," thus explicitly supporting our statement that saññā follows vedanā. Furthermore, this same formula affirms that "saññā is followed by three mental functions (vitakka, papañca and papañcasankhā)" that fall into the category of sankhārakkhandha. Therefore, this also implies that saññā operates precisely between the vedanākkhandha and the sankhārakkhandha. Since tanhā belongs to the sankhārakkhandha, 36 the activity of the sannākkhandha must take place before tanhā and after vedanā. The commentary on the Dhammasangani further supports this claim, for it places the activity of saññā between vedanā and cetanā.37 a synonym of sankhāra.38 Stcherbatsky provides a diagram which clearly shows that the function of $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$ is activated after the emergence of sensation (see Table 11).³⁹

As the chapter on *vedanā* demonstrates, 40 sensation in and of itself does not necessarily lead to craving. The *sutta* themselves distinguish between two kinds of sensations: those that are impure

³³ M. i, 111-12. Similar occurrences of the formula also appear at M. i, 259; S. iv, 67, etc. Previously discussed on p. 81.

³⁴ Sarathchandra, Buddhist Theory of Perception, p. 63. Sarathchandra quotes Mrs. Rhys Davids from Buddhist Psychology (p. 63) and includes in parentheses that this formula "is one of the earliest."

³⁵ Cakkhuň c'āvuso paṭicca rūpe ca uppajjati cakkhuviññāṇam tiṇṇam sangati phasso, phassapaccayā vedanā, yam vedeti tam sanjānāti, yam sanjānāti tam vitakketi, yam vitakketi tam papañceti, yam papañceti tato nidānam purisam papañcasankhā samudācaranti atītānāgatapaccuppannesu cakkhuviññeyyesu rūpesu (M. i, 111-12).

³⁶ See p. 110.

³⁷ Phassena pana phusitvā vedanāya vediyati saññāya sañjānati cetanāya ceteti (DhsA. 107).

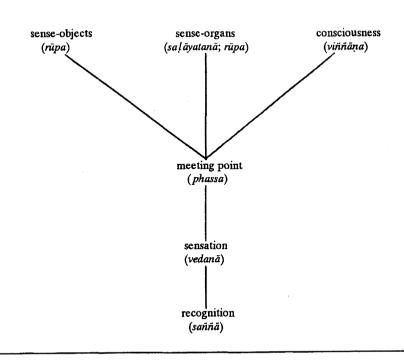
³⁸ As seen on p. 95.

³⁹ I have translated Stcherbatsky's Sanskrit terms into Pāli, and replaced some of the English equivalents by those that were used in this work (Stcherbatsky, Buddhist Logic, 2:311).

⁴⁰ See p. 71.

(āmisā) or belonging to the householder (gehasitā) and others which are pure (nirāmisā) or belonging to the renouncer (nekkhammasitā). The difference is that the former act as potential agents in the future arising of craving while the latter do not. A certain vedanā may engender craving only if it is accompanied by unwholesome saññā, for the latter is likely to give rise to obsessions. Because of this particular faculty of recognition, pleasant sensations are approached as likeable or unlikeable, and individuals very soon find themselves generating craving or aversion towards these sensations. Craving in turn generates more sankhāra and keeps the cycle of life and death rotating.

Table 11
The Emergence of Sensation (Vedanā)



The position traditionally attributed to saññā within the pañcakkhandhā is of crucial importance, since the relation between vedanā and saññā is responsible for human bondage as well as for liberation. The saññā of an ordinary person (puthujiana) interprets and approaches the sensations as one's own property, considers them responsible for one's sorrow or happiness, and sets in motion the wheel of becoming: this would be what the Sāratthappakāsini terms unwholesome saññā. 41 which in themselves constitute thegiri saññākkhandha. The Anguttaranikāya indirectly states that a wise person utilizes [wholesome] saññā to develop wisdom⁴² and, not being misled as to the nature of sensations. does not generate craving or aversion, therefore putting a halt to the cycle of life and death. This distinction between unwholesome and wholesome saññā is implicitly supported by many passages of the Majihimanikāya. The function of saññā, as we may recall, is to recognize and interpret perceptions through their signs (nimitta) and minor characteristics (anubyanjana). The texts state that those established in the noble discipline, when seeing a form with the eve, hearing a sound with the ears, etc., do not hold on to their signs and minor characteristics (anubvañiana) because doing so would lead to the arising of desire. 43 discontent and unwholesome states of mind. 44

Since the function of $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ is precisely to hold to the signs and minor characteristics, we could say, therefore, that unwholesome $sa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ is propitious to the emergence of desire. This is evidenced by another passage of the $Maijhimanik\bar{a}ya$:

When he has seen a material shape (rūpa) through the eye, he feels attraction for agreeable material shapes, he feels repugnance for disagreeable material shapes; and he dwells without mindfulness aroused as to the body with a mind that is limited (parittacetaso), and he does not comprehend that freedom of mind (cetavimutti) and that freedom through intuitive wisdom (pañāvimutti) as they really are, whereby those evil unskilled states (akusalā dhammā) of his are stopped without remainder. Possessed thus of compliance and antipathy, whatever feelings

⁴¹ A. ii, 382.

⁴² According to the Girimānandasutta, paññā is equated with the ten recognitions such as aniccasaññā, anattasaññā, asubhasaññā, and so on (A. v. 109).

⁴³ The word used is abhijjā which, according to the Pāli Text Society Dictionary, is synonymous with lobha and is closely connected with tanhā and upādāna.

⁴⁴ M. i. 180-81; i. 270; i. 273; iii. 34-35.

(vedanā) he feels—pleasant or painful or neither painful nor pleasant—he delights (abhinandati) in that feeling, welcomes (abhivadati) it and persists in cleaving (ajjhosāya tiṭṭhati) to it. From delighting in that feeling of his, from welcoming it, from persisting in cleaving to it, delight (nandī) arises; whatever is delight amid those feelings, that is grasping; conditioned by grasping is becoming; conditioned by becoming is birth; conditioned by birth, old age and dying, grief, sorrow, suffering, lamentation and despair come into being. Such is the arising of this entire mass of anguish.⁴⁵

This passage clearly suggests that when a person generates attraction or repugnance to sensations ($vedan\bar{a}$), craving—or actually, $nand\bar{a}$ —and clinging arise, and the rest of the links of the $paticcasamupp\bar{a}da$ are automatically called in. What is important to notice is that attraction or repugnance are directly linked to the activity of $sa\bar{n}\bar{n}\bar{a}$. When $sa\bar{n}\bar{n}\bar{a}$ is primarily focussed on the signs and minor characteristics of the object, it is very likely that attraction or repugnance will be generated, and that craving and attachment will then follow. This is what is meant by unwholesome $sa\bar{n}\bar{n}\bar{a}$. Tilmann Vetter, commenting on the above passage suggested that

One should not dwell on these impressions and thoughts a moment longer than is necessary to orientate oneself. If one goes too deeply into the signs of what is presented, or into minor features, then one cannot avoid the arising of desires and dejection and it will take a long time before these conditions disappear again.⁴⁶

However, Vetter seems to ignore the positive aspect of saññā. The Anguttaranikāya clearly states that greed (rāga) cannot arise in one who is totally focussed on the signs of asubha⁴⁷—as we have seen, asubha is one of the ten saññā described in the Girimānandasutta. Although Vetter interprets the concept of nimitta as the signs of an object, it must be stressed that the principal marks of any phenomenon are the three characteristics of existence—anicca, anattā and dukkha. Vetter uses the

⁴⁵ M. i, 266. Translation from Horner, The Collection of the Middle Length Sayings, 1:322-23.

⁴⁶ Vetter, The Ideas and Meditative Practices of Early Buddhism, p. 24.

⁴⁷ Asubhanimittan ti'ssa vacanīyam. Tassa asubhanimittam yoniso manasikarato anuppanno c'eva rāgo n'uppajjati uppanno ca rāgo pahīyatī ti (A. i, 200-201).

term *nimitta* in the sense of outward appearance, while its signification also includes other characteristics. In this sense, Vetter is correct: one focussing on the signs which only reflect the outside appearance of an object will eventually generate desire. However, one focussing on the essential characteristics of every object—the three characteristics of existence and the other "positive saññā"—will eradicate greed.

Therefore, when saññā is primarily focussed on these three characteristics of existence, craving cannot be generated, for the person will understand the true nature of the object as well as the danger of associating any form of delight (abhinandati) with it. The recognition of these three marks of existence, as well as the other characteristics described in the Girimānandasutta, is the function of saññā that we termed wholesome. We must stress, however, that these wholesome saññā do not belong to the saññākkhandha as such. As we saw on p. 87. the essential function of the saññākkhandha is to apprehend a nimitta (sign). The fact that the three characteristics of existence—anicca, anattā and dukkha—are never considered nimitta and that, furthermore, they are classified as animitta, implies that the wholesome saññā does not apprehend nimitta and, therefore, does not belong to the saññakkhandha. It becomes clear that saññā, as unwholesome or wholesome. plays a crucial role between vedanā and craving; craving will or will not arise depending on the kind of saññā present. The inclusion of saññā between these two links of vedanā and craving further clarifies the emergence of sankhāra.

As we have hitherto suggested, the first part of sankhāra does not refer to all activities, but only to actions that have previously been conditioned by the sanñā. In other words, any action performed with craving or aversion as its foundation—craving which arose due to the activity of sanñā—results in a sankhāra, since sanñā predisposes a blind reaction to the sensations. However, actions performed with wisdom as their foundation do not result in sankhāra since sensations approached as impermanent cannot give rise to craving and aversion.

Thus, a simple analysis of the eight middle links of the paticcasamuppāda explains each one of the paticcasamuppāda. Table 12 shows which elements of the middle link of the paticcasamuppāda are correlated with which aggregate.

We have seen, then, that each of the five aggregates finds a specific place in the theory of dependent origination. We have also explained that the $sa\bar{n}\bar{n}\bar{a}kkhandha$ plays a critical role in the multiplication of misery, for it seems to be the faculty that is indirectly

responsible for transforming vedanā into craving. When vedanā is coloured by the faculty of recognition, craving and attachment arise. 48 Yet, if one deactivates the inherently unwholesome sanāākkhandha, or transforms it into the ten recognitions mentioned in the Girimānandasutta, craving is no longer produced, because wisdom—and not wrong views (micchāditthi)—arises from the activity of this wholesome sanāā. The chain of dependent origination is thus broken and the final goal of enlightenment is ultimately reached. We will now explore how this theory is applied to Theravāda meditation practice as taught in Burma, Sri Lanka and Thailand.

Table 12
Correlation between the Paticcasamuppāda and the Aggregates

Elements of the Paticcasamuppāda viññāṇa (consciousness) nāmarūpa (mind and matter) saļāyatanā (the six sense-doors) phassa (sensory stimuli) vedanā (sensation)	Corresponding Aggregate viññāṇa the five aggregates rūpa rūpa vedanā saññā saṅkhāra saṅkhāra
taṇhā (craving) upādāna (clinging) bhava (becoming)	

Vipassanā and the Pañcakkhandhā

The paticcasamuppāda constitutes a fundamental tenet of Buddhism, indispensable for realizing and understanding the implications of the Buddhist goal, nibbāna. Since this complex chain of causation is always said to give rise to suffering, ⁴⁹ the deactivation of any of the twelve links of this chain is bound to break the causal process and eliminate suffering. The theory of dependent origination in its reverse order (patiloma) is consequently one version of the path leading to the eradication of misery. In fact, the meditation practice in Theravāda

ajajan Kawa

⁴⁸ See pp. 79ff.

^{49 &}quot;This [the paţiccasamuppāda] is the origin of the entire mass of suffering." Evam etassa kevalassa dukkhakhandhassa samudayo hoti.

countries is traditionally known to be an application of the process described by this reverse order. The five aggregates being nothing but a paraphrase of the theory of dependent origination, their function must therefore be apparent in the Buddhist meditation process.

Before tackling the subject, I need to clarify what is meant by meditation. The term meditation has a vast panoply of meanings within the Theravāda tradition, let alone the Buddhist tradition at large. However, since this study is solely focussed on the Theravāda, I will refer to the meditation technique most widely practised in Theravāda countries: vipassanā. Although there are differences in the various techniques labelled vipassanā, all their proponents link them unanimously to the Satipat thānasutta, the discourse in which four modes of attention are described: attention towards the body (kāya), sensation (vedanā), mind (citta) and mental contents (dhamma). In essence, the technique consists in observing objectively these four objects of attention. Some teachers may lay more emphasis on one than another, but in most cases, observation of breathing on one sensations are prevailing.

Through the observation of sensations, the practitioner becomes increasingly aware of the fleeting nature of existence; every sensation that arises eventually passes away. This awareness is the ground from which sprouts a certain understanding of the two other characteristics of existence; namely, suffering and selflessness. The transience of sensations and of the entire psycho-physical structure enables a meditator to become experientially acquainted with selflessness. Realization of impermanence also strengthens the belief that attachment to any sensation is doomed to produce misery, for that sensation will sooner or later pass away. Therefore, one attempts to simply observe the sensations objectively, without generating any form of desire or aversion towards them:

Here a bhikkhu, when feeling a pleasant sensation understands, "I am feeling a pleasant sensation"; when feeling a painful sensation, he understands, "I am feeling a painful sensation"; when feeling a neutral sensation, he understands, "I am feeling a neutral sensation." Now this awareness is firmly established in the present moment. This awareness develops to the extent that there is mere observation and mere understanding, nothing else, and he

⁵⁰ Observation of breathing (ānāpāna) is one of the numerous practices included in the first mode of attention (kāyānupassanā).

dwells in a state where he does not grasp anything, and there is nothing for him to grasp in the frame-work of the body. This is how a *bhikkhu* dwells observing bodily sensation in bodily sensation itself.⁵¹

From a purely technical perspective, this attitude comes within the scope of the paticcasamuppāda. When sensations are observed with equanimity, saññā is no longer active and craving is not generated. When the habit pattern of the mind is broken and sensations are perceived as impermanent, they are no longer approached as desirable or undesirable. In fact, having replaced saññā by wisdom (paññā), one does not react to the sensations, and new sankhāra cannot arise.

Of course, this process of liberation is gradual in the sense that liberation is not necessarily attained the instant that one ceases to generate saññā and begins to develop wisdom. Even when a person observes sensations with the understanding of their true nature (anicca, anatta and dukkha) and does not generate new cravings, the wheel of birth and death keeps turning. The force that activates the motion of the wheel results from sankhāra. Even when one does not produce new ones, old sankhāra will still continue to bear fruit in the form of new viññāna, rūpa, and vedanā. However, by failing to react or impose particular evaluations on these newly arisen vedanā, one does not generate new kamma, and so the fruits of the old sankhāra are eradicated. In the presence of constant awareness, keen diligence and strong wisdom arising from wholesome saññā, new sankhāra cannot arise from sensations, since unwholesome saññā no longer exist to react to sensations with craving and aversion. The old sankhāra will eventually all come up to the surface and pass away. As the Buddha told Ananda: "Indeed, all karmic activities are transient. Arising and passing away is their true nature. Having arisen, they are eradicated; the tranquillity attained from such eradication is the real happiness."52

Earlier, we compared sankhāra with cooking;⁵³ I now wish to extend the metaphor further by correlating the process of eradication of sankhāra with that of fasting. If one ceases to give food to the body,

⁵¹ D. ii, 298.

⁵² Aniccāvata sankhārā uppādavaya dhammino; uppajjitvā nirujjhanti, tesam vūpasamo sukho ti (D. ii, 199). This same passage was uttered by Sakka in the Mahāparinibbānasutta at D. ii, 156.

⁵³ See p. 104.

one does not die immediately after the first meal is missed. Rather, one can survive without eating for perhaps two or three months. This is possible even though the body has to feed itself at every moment, because the body is able to break down and digest the old stock of food, all the fat and muscle previously accumulated. Not until this storage of nutriment has been consumed and only skin and bones remain will the body finally die, no more sustenance being available. In a similar manner, the mind and matter phenomenon needs to be fed at every moment by sankhāra which are constantly resulting from craving and aversion towards vedanā.⁵⁴ But if one remains in a state of equanimity characterized by wisdom, and does not react to sensations, the past sankhāra that are responsible for the arising of these very sensations dissolve, and a time comes when not a single sankhāra is left to propel the cycle. It is at this moment only that one attains or enters into nibbāna without residue, the final goal of true liberation.

From the perspective of the five aggregates, this process might be more easily understood by referring to Table 9 (see p. 129) where they are presented from a cyclical perspective. Sankhāra is responsible for the arising of viññāna; viññāna for rūpa; rūpa, for vedanā; vedanā for saññā: and saññā for sankhāra, upon which another re-evolution of the constantly repeated cycle is begun. If, however, one deactivates sannā, new sankhāra are not created and the chain is broken. This constitutes the attainment of nibbana with residue. The individual is still alive and the five aggregates are still present, as in the case of the Buddha and all the arahant mentioned in the Pāli texts. The five aggregates are still present, for old sankhāra that were produced in the past continue to the surface and yield their fruits in the form of the four other aggregates. At this stage, the individual has transformed saññā into paññā and further sankhāra cannot be generated. The five aggregates—or the individual's life—are maintained simply by dint of the previously accumulated sankhāra, and this keeps the wheel rolling

⁵⁴ The Majjhimanikāya supports our simile by mentioning that four kinds of substance are found; namely, material food, phassa, sankhāra and viññāṇa. Kabaļinkāro āhāro oļāriko vā sukhumo vā, phasso dutiyo, manosamcetanā tatiyo, viññāṇam catuttho (M. i, 48). Although the term sankhāra is not used explicitly in this text, the word used (manosamcetanā) can be directly related to sankhāra. Such is the description of manosamcetanā of the Paramatthaṃaṇjūṣā (VsmA. 335; reported by Bhikkhu Nāṇamoli in his translation of the Visuddhimagga, The Path of Purification, p. 372, n. 2).

as long as the impulse that set the motion lasts.⁵⁵ This motion stops when all sankhāra—past and present—have been eradicated. From then onwards, none of the five aggregates can arise; this is the attainment of nibbāna without residue, achieved upon the death of the arahant.

This exact same process can also be understood from the perspective of the paticcasamuppāda. If one has totally transformed sañā into pañāa, sensations cannot be the grounds for the arising of further craving. Therefore, clinging, becoming and (re-)birth, all being necessarily dependent upon the presence of craving, cannot arise either. Although one may keep living for a certain period, rebirth is no longer possible. The life of such an individual is temporarily maintained by sankhāra—the link that precedes the eight middle links which characterize the present. When these past sankhāra are totally eradicated, the switch from nibbāna with residue to without residue can occur.

Whether we approach Buddhist soteriology from the angle of the paticcasamuppāda or of the five aggregates, it has become clear that the same process is at work: from the Theravāda texts that were analyzed in this work, the deactivation of saññā is the primary factor for the attainment of enlightenment. Of course, this deactivation can be expressed in different ways, such as the destruction of ignorance, the cessation of craving or the eradication of sankhāra, but they all necessarily imply an objective observation of sensations (mental or physical) which will not produce craving or sankhāra.

⁵⁵ The wheel "kept rolling as long as the impulse that set the motion (abhisankhārassa gati) lasted. It then circled and fell to the ground." Tam pavattitam samāṇam yāvatikā abhisankhārassa gati tāvatikam gantvā cingulāyitvā bhūmiyam papati (A. i, 111).

Conclusion

Although many scholars have referred to the five aggregates in their works on Buddhism, none have thoroughly explained their respective functions. By clarifying the importance of this previously untreated subject, this study has circumscribed the meaning and the role of each of the five aggregates and has established a correlation between each of the aggregates and certain links of the paticcasamuppāda.

In the chapter on the *rūpakkhandha*, I argued that the many classifications of this aggregate could be condensed and divided into two major categories: those elements belonging to the sense-organs, and those pertaining to the sense-objects. When approached from these two categories, the *rūpakkhandha* can be integrally correlated to two links of the *paticcasamuppāda*; namely, the six sense-doors and contact. All the sense-organs except the mental organ (*mano*) belong to the six sense-doors, while the sense-objects along with the mental organ are included in contact (*phassa*). When these sense-objects are actually perceived, they, along with consciousness and the sense-organs, constitute contact: bare sensory experience, devoid of any subjective inclination. Contact can potentially become a sensation *vedanā*.

I also suggested that no distinction is found between the vedanākkhandha and vedanā as a member of the chain of dependent origination. By exploring how vedanā, like rūpa, was also classified according to different schemes—such as pure (nirāmisā), belonging to the renouncer (nekkhamasitā), impure (āmisā) and belonging to the householder (gehasitā)—I came to the conclusion that a certain way of approaching vedanā would transform them into nirāmisā or nekkhammasitā vedanā—of an inoffensive nature—while an alternative approach would transform the vedanā into āmisā or gehasitā vedanā—endowed with a negative connotation because this type of sensation may act as an agent bringing about the future arising of craving and aversion. I have presented evidence which supports the idea that the factor responsible for this second approach to vedanā is the next aggregate: saññā (recognition). It is saññā that will transform the sensation into nirāmisā (or nekkhamasitā) or āmisā (or gehasitā), a transformation which will become responsible for generating or eradicating craving.

The main function of the saññākkhandha is to recognize and interpret sensations through the imposition of certain categories. Yet

not all saññā belong to the saññākkhandha. To clarify this nuance, it was again necessary to elaborate a scheme dividing saññā into two categories. The wholesome saññā are, in short, recognitions of the three characteristics of existence. These do not belong to the saññākkhandha as such for they do not apprehend signs (nimitta). The unwholesome saññā, on the other hand, are simply certain interpretations of reality through the major signs. The latter type of saññā is not conducive to insight; it generates obsessions, and essentially constitutes the saññākhandha. Upon realizing the presence of the saññākkhandha between the two links of vedanā and craving, the major function assigned to this aggregate in the arising of craving and aversion became evident: unless an individual's faculty of recognition is governed by the wholesome saññā, that person is likely to generate craving, clinging and becoming, all of which fall under the next aggregate: sankhāra.

The sankhārakkhandha was also analyzed in terms of different schemes. I came to the conclusion that the sankhārakkhandha is definitely a sankhāra in the sense of conditioned phenomena since it has been formed and conditioned. Not all sankhāra, however, belong to the sankhārakkhandha, for they are not all endowed with the capacity of forming or generating more conditioned phenomena. A conditioned phenomenon can only produce other conditioned phenomena when working in conjunction with viññāna, vedanā, saññā and rūpa; in other words, only the sankhārakkhandha, which, by definition, is closely connected to the four other khandha, can produce conditioned phenomena. This implies that sankhāra as a paccaya is simply a paraphrase of sankhārakkhandha. Both these terms refer to a force that will generate an effect. The effect, however, although being sankhata in the sense that it has been caused, does not necessarily belong to the paccaya or the sankhārakkhandha categories, for it might not generate a further effect. I have also correlated the sankhārakkhandha with three of the links of the paticcasamuppāda: craving, clinging and becoming the three links responsible for the emergence of a new existence, a new consciousness (viññāna).

We have seen that viñāanakkhandha is variously translated. Some scholars hold that it means bare sensation, some, pure consciousness, and others, the cognition of something pleasant, unpleasant or neutral. Since the viñāanakkhandha is responsible for the cognition of all of these, however, none of these suppositions is totally accurate. Consequently, the term was defined as "mere consciousness," whether that consciousness be of rūpa, vedanā or saññā. The difference between

the mental organ and viññāna itself was also examined. Both are necessary for perception of phenomena (dhamma), but only the latter is necessary for the apprehension of stimuli from any of the other senseorgans. A correlation between the third link of the paticca-samuppāda—viññānanidāna—and the viññānakkhandha was finally established.

By correlating the five aggregates, in the order they traditionally appear, with the theory of dependent origination, I have presented evidence supporting the significance of their traditional nomenclature. The traditional order of the five aggregates is in perfect harmony with the theory of dependent origination. If the order of the aggregates were arranged differently, there would be a definite contradiction between the two theories. Having correlated these two theories, I emphasized that viññāna, which can cyclically manifest itself as either the first or last member, is a necessary condition for the arising of matter, which in turn conditions sensations. Sensation is necessary for the emergence of saññā, which might lead to sankhāra if the saññā is unwholesome (and therefore belongs to the saññākkhandha)—or to wisdom (paññā) if the saññā is wholesome. If a sankhāra is generated, then the grounds for the arising of a new viññāna are prepared. Thus, the cycle is complete: from viññana to viññana. Beings are trapped within a quasi-eternal round of birth, death and rebirth.

The Buddhist tradition usually explains the process that binds beings to samsāra by the use of the twelvefold chain of dependent origination in direct order (anuloma). This same process when viewed in the reverse order (patiloma) is perceived as a soteriological indicator by virtue of the implication that the chain can be broken. Thus the doctrine of dependent origination plays an irrevocably crucial role in Buddhism: it elucidates not only the process that binds beings to samsāra, but also the one necessary for attaining enlightenment. It is probably for this reason that canonical literature states that "whoever understands the paticcasamuppāda understands the dhamma, and understands dhamma the understands samuppāda."2 While the theory of dependent origination has been allotted such great importance, the five aggregates have never received

dy maintes

With the sole exception of *viññāṇa* which appears as the last member and was moved to the first place, for reasons explained on pp. 127ff.

² Yo paţiccasamuppādam passati so dhammam passati, yo dhammam passati so pat iccasamuppādam passatīti (M. i, 190-1).

150

much emphasis in terms of the process that leads to nibbāna. Nevertheless, the paticcasamuppāda is a process that takes place within every individual, and since Buddhism describes the individual as constituted of the five aggregates, these aggregates must mirror the process hinted at by the paticcasamuppāda. Similarly, the five aggregates are reflecting a process of interdependence which must necessarily be in accordance with the paticcasamuppāda. By correlating the five aggregates with the theory of dependent origination, I have presented evidence that shows, on the one hand, the interdependence of the two theories and, on the other hand, how the process which binds beings to samsāra is reflected in the five aggregates, thus transposing Buddhist soteriology into a more concrete Buddhist psychological framework.

Glossary

The main purpose of this glossary is to refer the reader to the English equivalents of the Pāli or Sanskrit terms used in this book. Using the index, one may then locate the passage where the term is analyzed.

ajjhattta ākāsa āmisā

anāgāmin anāpānasati

anatta

anuloma

anupādisesa apāya āpodhādu

appa ṭ ighaṃ arahant

arahattaphalasamāpatti

arūpāvacara asaṅkhata

asankhatadhamma

āsava āvacara āvatana

. bahiddhā

bala bhava bhikkhu

cetanā cetasika citta

cittav ṛttinirodha

cuticitta

dhamma dhammāyatana internal

pure (vegeterian) non-returner

contemplation of breath

selflessness

normal order (of the paticcasamuppāda)

without residue (nibbāna) four states of misery water, water element

unresisting liberated person

attainment of the fruits of arahantship

immaterial realm unconditioned

unconditioned phenomenon (in the

Theravada tradition, nibbana is the only phenomenon)

bias realm

base; sense-organs

external

strength (the five strengths, powers)

becoming monk

volition

mental factors consciousness

cessation of mental activities

death-consciousness

phenomenon of existence; teaching

mental objects

dhātu dit thi di t thisaññā

dūre dukkha

gehasitä gotrabhü

hadavavatthu

hetu

indriva itthindriya

ihāna

kāmāvacara kammabhava kammavināka khandha

khandhaparinibbāna

khaya kusala lobha

lokuttara maggaphala mahābhūta mano

manussaloka

nāmarūpa

navalokuttaradhammā

nekkhamasitā nidāna nimitta nirāmisā nirodha

nirupādisesa nibbāna

o lārika

pañcakkhandhā

paññā papañca paramatthasacca

element

views (wrong-views) recognition of views

far suffering

belonging to the householder

change of lineage

heart basis cause

sense-organ femininity absorptions

realm of sensuality kamma-process kamma-result aggregate

total extinction of the five aggregates

destruction wholesome

greed

transcendental realm

levels of realization primary elements (4) mental organ

human realm

mind and matter

nine supramundane elements belonging to the renouncer link of the paticcasamuppāda

sign

impure (non-vegetarian)

eradication

nibbāna without residue

gross

five aggregates wisdom obsession highest truth

paṭhavīdhātu
paṭiccasamuppāda
paṭiloma
paṭisandhiviññāṇa
phassa
phoṭṭhabbāyatana
puthujjana

rūpa rūpāvacara

sa ļāyatanā sabhāvadhamma sagga

sakādāgāmin sakkāyadi ṭ ṭhi

samādhi samāpatti samatha sammutisacca saṃsāra saṅkhāra

sankhata
sankhatadhamma
sannā
sannākkhandha
sannāvedayitanirodha
santike
sappa tigham
sīla
sopādisesa

sopaaisesa sotāpanna sukhuma sutta

taṇhā tejodhātu

ucchedadi į į hi upādāna upādānakkhandhā

upādārūpa uppattibhava earth, earth element dependent origination

reverse order

rebirth-consciousness

contact

bodily impression ordinary people

matter

material realm

six sense-doors

phenomenon which exists by itself

celestial realm once-returner

view that the body is existing (perma-

nently]
concentration
attainments (4)
concentration
conventional truth

cycle of birth, death and rebirth

carmic activities [compounded

phenomena] conditioned

conditioned phenomena

recognition

recognition aggregate

extinction of recognition and sensation

near resisting morality

with residue (nibbana)

stream-enterer

subtle discourse

craving

fire, fire element

annihilation view

clinging

clinging-aggregate secondary matter rebirth-process

154 The Five Aggregates

vāyadhātu vedanā vedanākkhava

vimutti viññāna

vipassanā

visaya vitakka voharasacca air, air element

sensation

state of destruction of sensations

release

consciousness

discriminative insight; one of the

theravada medition techniques

sense-object thinking about conventional truth

Lind har to the state of

Bibliography

Primary Sources (Pāli and Sanskrit Texts)

- Abhidhammattasangaha. T.W.S. Rhys Davids, ed., Journal of the Pali Text Society (1884) 1:1-48
- Abhidharmakośa and Bhāsya with Sphutārthā Commentary of Ācārya Yośomittra. Swāmī Dwārikādās Śastri, ed. Varanasi: Bauddha Bharati, 1981.
- Anguttaranikāya. R. Morris and E. Hardy, eds. 2 vols. London: Pali Text Society (P.T.S.), 1961.
- Atthasālinī. E. Müller, ed. London: P.T.S., 1979.
- BUDSIR. Entire Pāli Canon on CD-ROM. Designed at Mahidol University, Bangkok: 1989.
- Chandogyopanishadbhashya. Siromani Uttamur T. Viraraghavacharya, ed. Tirupati: Sri Venkatesvara Oriental Institute, 1952.
- Dhammapada and Khuddakapā tha. C.A.F. Rhys Davids, ed. London: P.T.S., 1931.
- Dhammapada Commentary. H.C. Norman, ed. London: P.T.S., 1906-14.
- Dhammasangani. E. Müller, ed. London: P.T.S., 1987.
- Dhātukathā with Commentary. E.R. Gooneratne, ed. London: P.T.S., 1963.
- Dīghanikāya. T.W.S. Rhys Davids and J.E. Carpenter, eds. 3 vols. London: P.T.S., 1910.
- Itivuttaka. E. Windisch, ed. London: P.T.S., 1890.
- Kathāvatthu. A.C. Taylor, ed. London: P.T.S., 1979.
- Majjhimanikāya. V. Trenckner and R. Chalmers, eds. 3 vols. London: P.T.S., 1902.
- Manorathapūra nī. M. Walleser and H. Kopp, eds. 4 vols. London: P.T.S., 1973.
 Milindapañhapāli. Swāmī Dwārikādās Śastri, ed. Varanasi: Bauddha Bharati, 1979.
- Mohavicchedani. A.K. Warder, ed. London: P.T.S., 1961.
- Nettipakarana. E. Hardy, ed. London: P.T.S., 1902.
- Niddesa (Mahā). L. de La Vallée Poussin and E.J. Thomas, eds. London: P.T.S., 1978.
- Pañcappakara natthakathā. C.A.F. Rhys Davids, ed. Journal of the P.T.S. 6. 1910-12.
- Papañcasūdanī. J.H. Woods, D. Kosambi and I.B. Horner, eds. 4 vols. London: P.T.S., 1977.
- Patisambhidāmagga. A.C. Taylor, ed. London: P.T.S., 1979.
- Pațisambhidāmagga Commentary. C.V. Joshi, ed. 3 vols. London: P.T.S., 1979.
- Puggalapaññatti. R. Moris, ed. London: P.T.S., 1883.

Saddhammappakāsinī. C.V. Joshi, ed. 3 vols. London: P.T.S., 1947.

Samantapāsādikā. J. Takakusu and M. Nagai, eds. 7 vols. London: P.T.S., 1947. Samvuttanikāya. L. Feer, ed. 4 vols. London: P.T.S., 1898.

Samyuttanikaya. L. Feer, ed. 4 vois. London: P.1.S., 1898.

Sāratthappakāsinī. F.L. Woodward, ed. 3 vols. London: P.T.S., 1937.

Sumangalavilāsinī. T.W.S. Rhys Davids, J.W. Carpenter and W. Stede, eds. 3 vols. London: P.T.S., 1971.

Suttanipāta. Dines Andersen and Helmer Smith, eds. London: P.T.S., 1913.

Suttanipāta Commentary. Helmer Smith, ed. 3 vols. London: P.T.S., 1918.

Theragāthā and Therīgāthā. H. Oldenberg and R. Pischel, eds. London: P.T.S., 1966.

Udāna. Paul Steinthal, ed. London: P.T.S., 1948.

Vaiyākaraņasiddhāntakaumudi. Bhattaji Diksita, ed. Varanasi: Caukhamba Samskrita Sirija Aphisa, 1969.

Vibhanga, C.A.F. Rhys Davids, ed. London: P.T.S., 1904.

Vibhanga commentary (Sammohavinodanī). Ven. A.P. Buddhadatta, ed. London; P.T.S., 1923.

Vinayapitaka. H. Oldenberg, ed. 4 vols. London: P.T.S., 1883.

Visuddhimagga. C.A.F. Rhys Davids, ed. 2 vols. London: P.T.S., 1975.

Yamaka. C.A.F. Rhys Davids, ed. 2 vols. London: P.T.S., 1913.

Translations

- L'Abhidharmakośa de Vasubandhu. 6 vols. Louis de La Vallée Poussin, trans., Étienne Lamotte, ed. Bruxelles: Institut Belge des Hautes Études Chinoises, 1980.
- The Book of Analysis: A Translation of the Vibhanga from the Abhidharmapi taka. Ven. U Thittila, trans. London: P.T.S., 1969.
- The Book of the Discipline (Vinayapitaka). 6 vols. I.B. Horner, trans. The Sacred Books of the Buddhists Series (vols. 10, 11, 13, 14, 20, 25). London: P.T.S., 1982-86.
- The Book of the Gradual Sayings (Anguttaranikāya). 5 vols. F.L. Woodward, trans. of vols. 1, 2 and 5; E.M. Hare, trans. of vols. 3 and 4. London: P.T.S., 1979-86.
- The Book of the Kindred Sayings (Samyuttanikāya). 5 vols. C.A.F. Rhys Davids, trans. of vols. 1 and 2; F.L. Woodward, trans. of vols. 3, 4 and 5. London: P.T.S., 1917-22.
- Buddhist Psychology: A Buddhist Manual of Psychological Ethics. A Translation of the Dhammasangani from the Abhidharmapi taka. C.A.F. Rhys Davids, trans. Delhi: Oriental Books Reprint Corporation, 1975.
- The Collection of the Middle Length Sayings (Majjhimanikāya). 3 vols. I.B. Horner, trans. London: P.T.S., 1959.
- Compendium of Philosophy (Abhidhammatthasangaha). Shwe Zan Aung, trans.; C.A.F. Rhys Davids, rev. and ed. London: P.T.S., 1967.

- Dialogues of the Buddha (Dīghanikāya). 3 vols. C.A.F. Rhys Davids, trans., F. Max Müller, ed. Sacred Books of the Buddhists Series (vols. 2-4). London: Luzac, 1969.
- Discourse on Elements: A Translation of the Dhātukathā from the Abhidharmapi taka. Mahā Thera Nārada, trans. London: P.T.S., 1962.
- The Discourse on the All-Embracing Net of Views: The Brahmajāla Sutta and Its Commentarial Exegesis. Bhikkhu Bodhi, trans. Kandy: Buddhist Publication Society (B.P.S.), 1978.
- The Discourse on the Root of Existence: The Mülapariyaya Sutta and Its Commentarial Exegesis, Bhikkhu Bodhi, trans, Kandy, B.P.S., 1980.
- Eight Upaniṣads. With the Commentary of Śankharācārya. 2 vols. Swāmī Gambhīrānanda, trans. Calcutta: Advaita Ashrama, 1986.
- Elder's Verses (Theragāthā and Therīgāthā). 2 vols. K.R. Norman, trans. London: P.T.S., 1969.
- The Expositor (Atthasālinī). Pe Tin Maung, trans. London: P.T.S., 1976.
- The Great Discourse on Causation: The Mahanidana Sutta and Its Commentarial Exegesis. Bhikkhu Bodhi, trans. Kandy: B.P.S., 1984.
- The Group of Discourses (Suttanipāta). K.R. Norman, trans., with alternative translations by I.B. Horner and Walpola Rahula. London: P.T.S., 1984.
- The Guide (Nettippakaraṇam). Bhikkhu Naṇamoli, trans. London: P.T.S. 1977.
- Maitrāya nīya Upanis ad: A Critical Essay. With Text, Translation and Commentary. J.A.B. Buitenen, trans. The Hague: Mouton, 1962.
- A Manual of Abhidhamma: Abhidhammatthasannaha. By Anuruddha. Mahā Thera Nārada, trans. Rangoon: Printed by the Buddha Sasana Council, 1970.
- Milinda's Questions (Milindapañha). I.B. Horner, trans. Sacred Books of the Buddhists, 22, 23. London: P.T.S., 1964.
- The Minor Readings (Khuddakapā tha). Ven. Naṇamoli, trans. London: P.T.S., 1978.
- The Nighanțu and the Nirukta: The Oldest Indian Treatise on Etymology, Philology and Semantics. By Yakṣa. Lakśman Sarup, ed. and trans. Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1977.
- The Path of Discrimination (Pațisambhidāmagga). Ven. Ñāṇamoli, trans. London: P.T.S., 1982.
- The Path of Purification (Visuddhimagga) by Bhadantācariya Buddhaghosa. Ven. Nāṇamoli, trans. Kandy: B.P.S., 1979.
- Points of Controversy or Subjects of Discourse: A Translation of the Kathāvatthu from the Abhidharmapiṭaka. Shwe Zan Aung and C.A.F. Rhys Davids, trans. London: P.T.S., 1979.
- The Suttanipāta. H. Saddhatissa, trans. London: Curzon Press, 1985.
- The Thirteen Principal Upanishads. Robert Ernest Hume, trans. Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1985.
- Thus Have I Heard: The Long Discourses of the Buddha (Dīghanikāya). Maurice Walshe, trans. London: Wisdom Publications, 1987.

Secondary Sources

158

- Apte, Vaman Shivaram. The Practical Sanskrit English Dictionary. Revised and enlarged ed. Kyoto: Rinsen Book Company, 1986.
- Bhattacharya, Kamaleswar. "Upadhi-, upādi- et upādāna- dans le canon bouddhique pāli." In Mélanges d'indianisme à la mémoire de Louis Renou. Paris: Publications de l'institut de civilisation indienne, 1967.
- Bodhi, Bhikkhu. "Khandha and Upādānakkhandha." *Pali Buddhist Review* 1(1) (1976): 91-102.
- Boisvert, Mathieu. "A Brief Survey of the Relation between the Paţiccasamuppāda and the Pañcakkhandhā." In Vol. 2, Contact Between Cultures; South Asia, ed. K.I. Koppedrayer. Lewiston: Edwin Mellen Press, 1992.
- ——. "A Comparison of the Early Forms of Buddhist and Christian Monastic Traditions." *Journal of Buddhist-Christian Studies* (November 1992).
- . "Le Processus métaphorique du Milindapañhapāli." Religiologiques (April 1993).
- ——. "Saññāvedayitanirodha: An Endless Controversy." The Pacific World: Journal of the Institute of Buddhist Studies 9 (New Series) (1993).
- —... "La Contemplation de la mort dans le bouddhisme Theravāda." Actes du 1^{er} Congrès international de psychiatrie transculturelle (Le processus de guérison: par-delà la souffrance ou la mort). Québec: Éditions HWM (1994).
- "Maraṇasati: Texutal Interpretation and Contemporary Practice."

 Buddhist Studies Review (forthcoming).
- Brahmachari, Silananda. An Introduction to Abhidhamma: Buddhist Philosophy and Psychology. Calcutta: Jadab Barua Publications, 1979.
- Buddhadatta, A.P. Concise Pāļi English Dictionary. Colombo: The Colombo Apothecaries Co., 1968.
- Carrithers, Michael, Steven Collins and Steven Lukes, eds. The Category of the Person: Anthropology, Philosophy, History. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985.
- Chang, Jui-Liang. "An Analytic Study on Three Concepts of 'Skandha,' 'Ayatana' and 'Dhātu'" (in Chinese: "Che hs[e]ueh lun p[v]ing"). Philosophical Review 8 (January 1975): 107-21.
- Collins, Steven. Selfless Persons: Imagery and Thought in Theravāda Buddhism. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982.
- Cousins, L.S. "Buddhist Jhāna: Its Nature and Attainment According to the Pali Sources." Religion, A Journal of Religion and Religions 3 (1973): 115-31.
- Dasgupta, Surendranath. A History of Indian Philosophy. 4 vols. Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1975.

- Demiéville, Paul. "L'Origine des sectes bouddhiques d'après Paramartha." In *Mélanges chinois et bouddhiques*. Vol. 1. Bruxelles: Institut Belge des Hautes Études Chinoises, 1932.
- Foucher, A. La Vie du Bouddha d'après les textes et les monuments de l'Inde. Paris: J. Maisonneuve, 1987.
- Gabaude, Louis. Une herméneutique bouddhique contemporaine de Thaîlande: Buddhadasa Bhikkhu. Paris: Publications de l'École Française d'Extrême-Orient, 1988.
- Gethin, R.M. "The Five Khandhas: Their Theatment [sic] in the Nikāyas and Early Abhidhamma." Journal of Indian Philosophy 52 (1986): 35-53.
- Govinda, Anagarika Brahmacari. The Psychological Attitude of Early Buddhist Philosophy. London: Rider, 1961.
- Griffiths, Paul. "Concentration and Insight: The Problematic of Theravāda Buddhist Meditation-Theory." *Journal of the American Academy of Religion* 49 (1981): 606-24.
- ——. On Being Mindless: Buddhist Meditation and the Mind-Body Problem. Illinois: Open Court, 1986.
- Guenther, Herbert V. Philosophy and Psychology in the Abhidharma. Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1974.
- ----- Ecstatic Spontaneity. Berkeley: Asian Humanities Press, 1993.
- ——. Wholeness Lost and Wholeness Regained. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1994.
- Gyatso, Tenzin. Freedom in Exile: The Autobiography of the Dalai Lama. New York: HarperCollins, 1990.
- Hayes, Richard P. Dignaga on the Interpretation of Signs. London: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1988.
- Hume, Robert Ernest. The Thirteen Principal Upanishads. Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1985.
- James, William. Essays in Radical Empiricism. London: Longmans, Greens, 1912.
- Jayatilleke, K.N. The Early Buddhist Theory of Knowledge. Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1980.
- Johansson, Rune E.A. *The Psychology of Nirvana*. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1969.
- Kalupahana, David J. Buddhist Philosophy: A Historical Analysis. Honolulu: University Press of Hawaii, 1976.
- ——. The Principles of Buddhist Psychology. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1987.
- ——. A History of Buddhist Philosophy: Continuities and Discontinuities. Honolulu: University Press of Hawaii, 1992.
- Karunadasa, Y. Buddhist Analysis of Matter. Colombo: Department of Cultural Affairs, 1967.

- Kāśyapa, Jagadīśa, Bhikkhu. The Abhidhamma Philosophy: or, The Psycho-Ethical Philosophy of Early Buddhism. Delhi: Bharatiya Vidya Prakashan, 1982.
- King, Winston Lee. "The Stucture and Dynamics of the Attainment of Cessation in Theravada Meditation." Journal of the American Academy of Religion 45 (1977): 707-25.
- -----. Theravāda Meditation: The Buddhist Transformation of Yoga. University Park: Pennsylvania University Press, 1980.
- Krishan, Y. "Buddhism and Belief in Atma." Journal of the International Association of Buddhist Studies 7(2) (1984): 117-36.
- Lamotte, Étienne. "Conditioned Co-Production and Supreme Enlightenment." In *Buddhist Studies in Honour of Walpola Rahula*, ed. O.H. de A. Wijesekera, pp. 118-39. London: Gordon Fraser, 1980.
- ——. Histoire du bouddhisme indien: des origines à l'ère Śaka. Louvain: Institut Orientaliste, 1967.
- ——. "Textual Interpretation in Buddhism." In Buddhist Hermeneutics, ed. Donald S. Lopez, pp. 11-28. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1988.
- La Vallée Poussin, Louis de. "Le Nirvāṇa d'après Āryadeva." In *Mélanges chinois et bouddhiques*. Vol. 1. Bruxelles: Institut Belge des Hautes Études Chinoises, 1932.
- ——. "Musīla et Nārada: Le chemin du nirvāņa." In *Mélanges chinois et bouddhiques*. Vol. 3. Bruxelles: Institut Belge des Hautes Études Chinoises, 1937.
- ------. The Way to Nirvana: Six Lectures on Ancient Buddhism as a Discipline of Salvation. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979.
- Madanayake, Bandu W. "The Concept of Saññā in Theravāda Buddhism." M.A. diss. University of Toronto, 1978.
- -----. "The Study of Sankhāras in Early Buddhism." Ph.D. diss., University of Toronto, 1987.
- Malasekera, G.P. Dictionary of Pāli Proper Names. 2 vols. London: P.T.S., 1974.
- Masefield, Peter. "The Nibbāna-Parinibbāna Controversy." Religion, A Journal of Religion and Religions 9 (1979): 215-30.
- Matthews, Bruce. Craving and Salvation: A Study in Buddhist Soteriology. Waterloo: Wilfrid Laurier University Press, 1983.
- Nanananda, Bhikkhu. Concept and Reality in Early Buddhist Thought. Kandy: B.P.S., 1986.
- Nārada, Mahā Thera. The Buddha and His Teaching. Kandy: B.P.S., 1980.
- Nyanaponika, Thera. The Heart of Buddhist Meditation: A Handbook of Mental Training Based on the Buddhist Way of Mindfulness with an Anthology of Relevant Texts Translated from the Pali and Sanskrit. York Beach: n.p., 1984.

- Nyānātiloka. Buddhist Dictionary: Manual of Buddhist Terms and Doctrines. Colombo: Frewin, 1956.
- Potter, Karl H. Presuppositions of India's Philosophies. Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1963.
- Rahula, Walpola. What the Buddha Taught. Bedford: Gordon Fraser, 1967.
- Reat, Ross N. Origins of Indian Psychology. Berkeley: Asian Humanities Press, 1990.
- Rhys Davids, C.A.F. Buddhist Psychology: An Inquiry into the Analysis and Theory of Mind in Pali Literature. London: Luzac, 1924.
- Rhys Davids, T.W. and William Stede. The Pāli Text Society Pāli-English Dictionary. London: P.T.S., 1979.
- Rogers Macy, Joanna. "Dependent Co-Arising: The Distinctiveness of Buddhist Ethics." Journal of Religious Ethics 7(1) (1979): 38-52.
- Ruegg, D. Seyfort. "Ahimsa and Vegetarianism in the History of Buddhism." In *Buddhist Studies in Honour of W. Rahula*, ed. O.H. de A. Wijesekera, pp. 234-41. London: Gordon Fraser, 1980.
- Sadaw, Ledy. "Some Points in Buddhist Doctrine." Journal of the Pāli Text Society (1914): 115-69.
- Sarathchandra, E.R. Buddhist Theory of Perception. Colombo: Ceylon University Press, 1958.
- Sayadaw, Ledi. L'enseignement de Ledi Sayadaw. Paris: Editions Albin Michel, 1961.
- -----. The Requisites of Enlightenment. Kandy: B.P.S., 1983.
- Schumann, Hans Wolfgang. Bedeutung und Bedeutungsentwicklung des Terminus Samkhāra im frühen Buddhismus. Ph.D. diss., Rheinishchen Friedrich-Wilhelms-Universität, Bonn, 1957.
- Silburn Lilian. Instant et cause: le discontinu dans la pensée philosophique de l'Inde. Paris: Librairie Philosophique J. Vrin, 1955.
- Silva, M.W. Padmasiri de. Buddhist and Freudian Psychology. Colombo: Lakehouse Investments, 1973.
- ——. "Kamma and Vedanānupassanā." In *The Importance of Vedanā and Sampajañña* (no. ed.) Igatpuri: Vipassanā Research Institute, 1990.
- Sinha, Braj. "The Abhidharmika Notion of Vijñāna and its Soteriological Significance." Journal of the International Association of Buddhist Studies 3(1) (1980): 54-67.
- Stcherbatsky, Th. Buddhist Logic. 2 vols. New York: Dover Publications, 1962.

 ——. The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāṇa. Varanasi: Bharatiya Vidya Prakashan, 1968.
- Tanaka, Kenneth K. "Simultaneous Relation (sahabhū-hetu): A Study in Buddhist Theory of Causation." Journal of the International Association of Buddhist Studies 8(1) (1985): 91-111.

162

- Thomas, E.J. The History of Buddhist Thought. London: P.T.S., 1933.
- U Ba Khin, Thray Sithu Sayagyi. "The Essentials of Buddha-Dhamma in Meditative Practice." In Sayagyi U Ba Khin Journal: A Collection Commemorating the Teaching of Sayagyi U Ba Khin (no ed.). Igatpuri: Vipassanā Research Institute, 1991, pp. 31-35.
- Vetter, Tilmann. The Ideas and Meditative Practices of Early Buddhism. Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1988.
- Warder, A.K. "The Concept of a Concept." Journal of Indian Philosophy (1971).
- ----. Indian Buddhism. Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1980.
- Wayman, A. "Regarding the Translation of the Buddhist Technical Terms Saññā/Samjñā, Viññāṇa/Vijñāna." In Malasakera Commemoration Volume, ed. O.H. de A. Wijesekera. Colombo, 1976, pp. 324-36.
- Welbon, Guy Richard. The Buddhist Nirvāna and Its Western Interpreters. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968.
- Wiltshire, Martin G. Ascetic Figures before and in Early Buddhism: The Emergence of Gautama as the Buddha. New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 1990.
- Winternitz, Maurice. History of Indian Literature. Delhi: Motilal Barnasidass, 1983.

Index

```
absorptions 24, 28, 32, 58, 59, 61, 64, 70
aggregate ix, 1-6, 8-13, 16-18, 20-32, 43, 50, 53-57, 62-63, 65-67, 69, 76, 86,
    89, 93, 95, 102, 104-105, 108-110, 113-14, 118, 127-30, 132-36, 141-42,
    145-47, 148-49, 150
air 31, 34, 35, 42, 44, 47
annihilation view 66, 67
attainment of the fruits of arahantship 24
attainments 28, 53, 58, 59, 61
base 68, 122, 124
bases 3, 12, 56
becoming 7, 10, 89, 110-12, 123, 128, 131, 134-36, 138, 139, 142, 146, 148
belonging to the householder 74, 137, 147
belonging to the renouncer 74, 137, 147
biases 20, 22, 23, 25-27, 29, 30
bodily impression 41, 42, 44, 47, 48
change of lineage 25, 26
clinging 6-8, 10, 12, 18, 20-27, 29-31, 55, 56, 66, 67, 89, 110-12, 131, 134, 135,
    136, 140, 142, 146, 148
clinging-aggregate 29-31
concentration 17, 52, 64, 70, 107
conditioned x, 1, 8, 15, 73, 93-95, 99, 102, 103, 104-106, 108, 109, 112, 113,
    123, 127, 130, 139-41, 148
conditioned phenomena 1, 15, 94, 95, 99, 102-103, 104, 105, 108, 109, 112,
    113, 148
consciousness ix, 2, 4, 5, 7, 10, 12, 16, 19, 21, 22, 25, 27, 29, 32, 33, 49, 50,
    54, 55, 59, 62, 66, 67, 77, 81, 95, 111, 113, 115-25, 127-31, 133, 135, 137,
    138, 142, 147, 148
contact ix, 7, 10, 41, 46-51, 58, 62, 70, 72, 78, 81, 107, 109, 111, 118, 120, 121,
    122, 124, 128, 131, 133, 134, 136, 137, 147
conventional truth 3, 6
craving ix, 7, 10, 23, 27, 28, 70-73, 76, 77, 79-83, 86, 88, 89, 105, 106,
    109-112, 131, 134-42, 144-48
cycle of birth, death and rebirth 8, 12, 66
death-consciousness 123, 124, 131
dependent origination vii, 3, 6-11, 21, 30, 48, 49, 53, 71, 77, 86, 91, 95, 97,
    109, 110, 114, 124, 127, 130, 131, 135, 136, 141, 142, 147, 149
desire ix, 42, 80, 81, 111, 134, 135, 139, 140, 143
```

destruction 58, 59, 69, 70, 79, 86, 146 discourse 8, 17, 18, 20, 71, 143 discriminative insight 64

earth element 34, 35, 41, 44

element 4, 8, 20, 34-37, 39-48, 68, 69, 81, 94, 100, 112, 114, 128, 129 elements 2-6, 9, 10, 12, 15, 19, 20, 25, 27-29, 31-48, 62, 82, 85, 95, 105, 107, 112, 118, 127, 128, 130, 137, 141, 142, 147

eradication 7, 8, 15, 53, 56-58, 62, 69, 71, 76, 79, 86, 142, 144, 146 external x, 21, 25, 31, 33, 39, 43, 44, 47-49, 51, 78, 105, 117, 128, 133

far 1, 12, 20, 21, 31, 38, 43, 44, 46, 61, 94, 109, 114, 127

femininity 39, 42, 44, 47

fire 17, 31, 34-36, 38, 42, 44, 47, 63, 104

five aggregates ix, 1-6, 8-13, 16, 17, 21-23, 25, 27, 29, 30, 43, 54, 56, 63, 65, 66, 67, 93, 95, 102, 108-110, 113, 119, 125, 127-30, 132, 133, 135, 136, 141, 142, 145-47, 149

greed ix, 22, 73, 107, 140 gross 19, 21, 31, 43-45

highest truth 6 human realm 28

immaterial realm 28 internal 21, 31, 33, 39, 43, 45, 47, 48, 122, 133

kamma-process 56, 97, 110, 112, 135 karmic activities ix, 6, 7, 9, 10, 16, 21, 22, 25, 66, 130, 131, 144

levels of realization 25 liberated person 23, 114

link ix, 6-12, 10, 31, 35, 48, 49, 53, 60, 62, 71, 72, 82, 91, 93, 95, 97, 100, 109-112, 123-24, 125, 127-37, 140-43, 146-49

material realm 28
mental factors 22, 62, 68
mental objects 4, 46, 47, 120, 122
mental organ 40, 49, 53, 147, 149
mind and matter 7, 54, 56, 61, 111, 118, 124, 129-33, 136, 142, 145
monk 21, 58, 59, 63, 65, 67, 73, 75, 84, 96, 101, 114
morality 17, 97

near 21, 31, 43-45

nibbāna ix, 15, 24-29, 53-69, 71, 76, 82, 85, 94, 95, 99-103, 142, 145, 146

nine supramundane elements 28, 29

non-returner 63, 64

normal order 8

```
ordinary people 23, 29
paticcasamuppāda x. 3, 6-13, 21, 31, 43, 48, 49, 51, 53, 62, 71, 73, 79, 82, 87,
    93, 95, 106, 109-112, 124, 125, 128-33, 135, 136, 140-42, 144, 146-49
phassa ix, 7, 10, 48, 49, 51, 81, 107, 109-111, 131, 133, 136-38, 142, 145, 147
phenomena of existence 8, 9, 15, 65, 87, 135
phenomenon which exists by itself 68
primary elements 31-38, 40-43, 45, 47, 48
realm 27-29, 106, 108, 113, 114, 134
realm of sensuality 28, 29
rebirth-consciousness 123, 124, 131
rebirth-process 110, 112, 135
recognition of views 82, 83
release ix. 17, 134
resisting 40-42, 45
reverse order 7, 8, 142, 149
rūpa 2, 4, 12, 16, 19, 22, 25, 28, 30-35, 38, 41-46, 65, 66, 96, 104, 108, 109,
    112, 113, 118, 119, 125, 127-29, 136-39, 142, 144, 145, 147, 148
sankhāra ix, 2, 4, 7, 10, 16, 25, 28-30, 62, 65, 66, 83, 91-103, 104-12, 119, 123,
    127-38, 141, 142, 144-46, 148, 149
saññā ix. 2, 4, 16, 21, 28-30, 43, 53, 57, 62, 77-89, 98, 104, 105, 108, 109, 112,
    117, 118, 119, 125, 127-29, 132, 136-42, 144-49
saññāvedayitanirodha 53-55, 57-70, 76, 86
secondary matter 31, 34, 37, 38, 40, 42, 43, 47, 48, 62, 117, 120
selflessness 3, 84, 86-87, 94, 113, 143
sense-object 38, 118-121
sense-organ 49, 53, 118-20
sign 87, 141
six sense-doors 7, 10, 33, 48, 49, 77, 96, 109, 113, 124, 127, 131, 133, 136,
    142, 147
space 15, 34, 39, 42, 44, 47
state of destruction of sensations 70
states of misery 28
                                 strength 52
subtle 21, 31, 43, 44, 46, 54, 56
suffering 8, 12, 17, 18, 23, 24, 26, 65, 66, 70, 84-88, 94, 97, 140, 142, 143
thinking about 81, 82, 88, 107, 111, 112
total extinction of the five aggregates 56, 62
transcendental realm 27-29
```

obsession 80-83

unconditioned 15, 68, 86, 94, 102, 106 unresisting 41, 42, 46

vedanā ix, 2, 4, 5, 7, 10, 16, 21, 28-30, 43, 50-53, 55, 57, 62, 70, 71-77, 79, 81, 82, 84, 87, 98, 104, 105, 108-112, 116-19, 125, 127-29, 131-34, 136-45, 147, 148

view that the body is existing 4, 114

views 1, 22, 25, 27, 71, 79, 80-83, 107, 142

viññāna 2, 4, 7, 10, 12, 16, 21, 28-30, 43, 49, 62, 66, 78, 95, 104, 108-25, 127, 128, 129-33, 135, 138, 142, 144, 145, 148, 149

vipassanā 1, 13, 64, 70, 86, 97, 128, 142, 143

volition ix, 95, 96, 103, 105, 107, 116

water 17, 31, 34-37, 41-44, 47, 48, 63, 81, 104

wholesome 25, 73, 74, 78, 84-89, 97, 101, 102, 106, 139, 141, 142, 144, 148, 149

wisdom 15, 17, 52, 64, 70, 86-88, 107, 118, 139, 141, 142, 144, 145, 149

r - La marketa i salahan 1

with residue 55-57, 71, 76, 145, 146

without residue 29, 55-57, 60-62, 64, 67, 69, 76, 100, 103, 145, 146

This page intentionally left blank

Series Published by Wilfrid Laurier University Press for the Canadian Corporation for Studies in Religion/ Corporation Canadienne des Sciences Religieuses

Editions SR

1. La langue de Ya'udi : description et classement de l'ancien parler de Zencircli dans le cadre des langues sémitiques du nord-ouest Paul-Eugène Dion, O.P. 1974 / viii + 511 p. / OUT OF PRINT

2. The Conception of Punishment in Early Indian Literature

Terence P. Day

1982 / iv + 328 pp.

3. Traditions in Contact and Change: Selected Proceedings of the XIVth Congress of the International Association for the History of Religions Edited by Peter Slater and Donald Wiebe with Maurice Boutin and Harold Coward 1983 / x + 758 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

4. Le messianisme de Louis Riel

Gilles Martel

1984 / xviii + 483 p.

5. Mythologies and Philosophies of Salvation in the Theistic Traditions of India Klaus K. Klostermaier

1984 / xvi + 549 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

6. Averroes' Doctrine of Immortality: A Matter of Controversy Ovey N. Mohammed 1984 / vi + 202 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

7. L'étude des religions dans les écoles : l'expérience américaine, anglaise et canadienne Fernand Ouellet 1985 / xvi + 666 p.

8. Of God and Maxim Guns: Presbyterianism in Nigeria, 1846-1966 Geoffrey Johnston 1988 / iv + 322 pp.

9. A Victorian Missionary and Canadian Indian Policy:

Cultural Synthesis vs Cultural Replacement

David A. Nock

1988/x + 194 pp./OUT OF PRINT

10. Prometheus Rebound: The Irony of Atheism Joseph C. McLelland 1988 / xvi + 366 pp.

11. Competition in Religious Life

Jay Newman 1989 / viii + 237 pp.

12. The Huguenots and French Opinion, 1685-1787:

The Enlightenment Debate on Toleration

Geoffrey Adams

1991 / xiv + 335 pp.

13. Religion in History: The Word, the Idea, the Reality/ La religion dans l'histoire : le mot, l'idée, la réalité Edited by/Sous la direction de Michel Despland and/et Gérard Vallée 1992/x + 252 pp.

14. Sharing Without Reckoning: Imperfect Right and the Norms of Reciprocity Millard Schumaker 1992 / xiv + 112 pp.

- 15. Love and the Soul: Psychological Interpretations of the Eros and Psyche Myth James Gollnick 1992 / viii + 174 pp.
- The Promise of Critical Theology: Essays in Honour of Charles Davis
 Edited by Marc P. Lalonde
 1995 / xii + 140 pp.
- 17. The Five Aggregates: Understanding Theravada, Psychology and Soteriology Mathieu Boisvert 1995 / xii + 166 pp.
- Mysticism and Vocation
 James R. Horne
 1995 / 152 pp. est. / FORTHCOMING

Comparative Ethics Series / Collection d'Éthique Comparée

- Muslim Ethics and Modernity: A Comparative Study of the Ethical Thought of Sayyid Ahmad Khan and Mawlana Mawdudi Sheila McDonough 1984 / x + 130 pp. / OUT OF PRINT
- 2. Methodist Education in Peru: Social Gospel, Politics, and American Ideological and Economic Penetration, 1888-1930
 Rosa del Carmen Bruno-Jofré
 1988 / xiv + 223 pd.
- Prophets, Pastors and Public Choices: Canadian Churches and the Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Debate Roger Hutchinson 1992 / xiv + 142 pp.

Dissertations SR

- The Social Setting of the Ministry as Reflected in the Writings of Hermas, Clement and Ignatius Harry O. Maier 1991/viii + 230 pp.
- Literature as Pulpit: The Christian Social Activism of Nellie L. McClung Randi R. Warne 1993 / viii + 236 pp.

Studies in Christianity and Judaism / Études sur le christianisme et le judaïsme

- 1. A Study in Anti-Gnostic Polemics: Irenaeus, Hippolytus, and Epiphanius Gérard Vallée
 - 1981 / xii + 114 pp. / OUT OF PRINT
- Anti-Judaism in Early Christianity
 Vol. 1, Paul and the Gospels, edited by Peter Richardson with David Granskou 1986 / x + 232 pp.
 - Vol. 2, Separation and Polemic Edited by Stephen G. Wilson
 - 1986 / xii + 185 pp.
- Society, the Sacred, and Scripture in Ancient Judaism: A Sociology of Knowledge Jack N. Lightstone 1988 / xiv + 126 pp.
- 4. Law in Religious Communities in the Roman Period: The Debate Over Torah and Nomos in Post-Biblical Judaism and Early Christianity Peter Richardson and Stephen Westerholm with A. I. Baumgarten, Michael Pettem and Cecilia Wassén 1991 / x + 164 pp.

 Dangerous Food: 1 Corinthians 8-10 in Its Context Peter D. Gooch 1993 / xviii + 178 pp.

 The Rhetoric of the Babylonian Talmud, Its Social Meaning and Context Jack N. Lightstone 1994 / xiv + 317 pp.

The Study of Religion in Canada / Sciences Religieuses au Canada

 Religious Studies in Alberta: A State-of-the-Art Review Ronald W. Neufeldt 1983 / xiv + 145 pp.

1983 / XIV + 145 pp.

2. Les sciences religieuses au Québec depuis 1972

Louis Rousseau et Michel Despland

1988 / 158 p.

3. Religious Studies in Ontario: A State-of-the-Art Review Harold Remus, William Closson James and Daniel Fraikin 1992 / xviii + 422 pp.

Religious Studies in Manitoba and Saskatchewan: A State-of-the-Art Review
John M. Badertscher, Gordon Harland and Roland E. Miller
1993 / vi + 166 pp.

 The Study of Religion in British Columbia: A State-of-the-Art Review Brian J. Fraser 1995 / 128 pd. est. / FORTHCOMING

SR Supplements

Footnotes to a Theology: The Karl Barth Colloquium of 1972
 Edited by and Introduced by Martin Rumscheidt
 1974 / viii + 151 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

2. Martin Heidegger's Philosophy of Religion
John R. Williams

onn K. Williams

1977 / x + 190 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

 Mystics and Scholars: The Calgary Conference on Mysticism 1976
 Edited by Harold Coward and Terence Penelhum
 1977 / viii + 121 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

 God's Intention for Man: Essays in Christian Anthropology William O. Fennell 1977 / xii + 56 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

 "Language" in Indian Philosophy and Religion Edited and Introduced by Harold G. Coward 1978 / x + 98 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

6. Beyond Mysticism

James R. Horne

1978 / vi + 158 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

7. The Religious Dimension of Socrates' Thought
James Beckman
1979 / xii + 276 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

8. Native Religious Traditions
Edited by Earle H. Waugh and K. Dad Prithipaul
1979 / xii + 244 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

Developments in Buddhist Thought: Canadian Contributions to Buddhist Studies
Edited by Roy C. Amore
1979 / iv + 196 pp.

The Bodhisattva Doctrine in Buddhism
 Edited by Introduced by Leslie S. Kawamura
 1981 / xxii + 274 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

- 11. Political Theology in the Canadian Context Edited by Benjamin G. Smillie 1982 / xii + 260 pp.
- Truth and Compassion: Essays on Judaism and Religion in Memory of Rabbi Dr. Solomon Frank
 Edited by Howard Joseph, Jack N. Lightstone and Michael D. Oppenheim 1983 / vi + 217 pp.
- 13. Craving and Salvation: A Study in Buddhist Soteriology
 Bruce Matthews

1983 / xiv + 138 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

14. The Moral Mystic James R. Horne 1983 / x + 134 pp.

1985 / xii + 76 pp.

15. Ignatian Spirituality in a Secular Age
Edited by George P. Schner

- 1984 / viii + 128 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

 16. Studies in the Book of Job
 Edited by Walter E. Aufrecht
- Christ and Modernity: Christian Self-Understanding in a Technological Age David J. Hawkin 1985 / x + 181 pp.
- Young Man Shinran: A Reappraisal of Shinran's Life Takamichi Takahatake 1987 / xvi + 228 pp. / OUT OF PRINT
- 1987/xvi+22s pp./out of PRIN 19. Modernity and Religion Edited by William Nicholls 1987/vi+191 pp.
- 20. The Social Uplifters: Presbyterian Progressives and the Social Gospel in Canada, 1875-1915
 Brian J. Fraser
 1988 / xvi + 212 pp. / OUT OF PRINT

Available from / en vente chez:

WILFRID LAURIER UNIVERSITY PRESS

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada N2L 3C5