Mādhyamika position. As a translator, I dare say that the reader need not do the same in order to appreciate Tson-kha-pa's text. That is to say, a reader need not calm his mind in the manner described in the "Calming" section merely to ascertain how Tson-kha-pa establishes the Mādhyamika position. Readers interested in Mādhyamika Buddhism should find herein valuable suggestions for why the school is called "followers of the middle (madhyama)."

Use of Buddhist Logic

There are various reasons for the author's enthusiastic use of Buddhist logic, especially of Dharmakīrti's works. There was an intensive study of this topic in the several centuries before Tson-kha-pa and it was prevalent in his own day. For the Prāsangika school of Mādhyamika which Tson-kha-pa accepts, Candrakīrti's own arguments with Bhavaviveka and with the Buddhist logician Dignāga involve a conventional acceptance of the four "authorities" (pramāṇa) of the Nyāya school and assume a scholastic study of the "rules of debate" with the rather acute distinctions of the later Indian school of Buddhist logic. Previously, in the introduction to Tson-kha-pa's life, we noticed how assiduously and devotedly he studied Dharmakīrti's Pramāṇavārttika.

This truly remarkable application of Buddhist logic under the category of "Discerning" creates two forms of stark contrast: a) the contrast with the usual Western treatment of the Mādhyamika, limited to philology, metaphysical interpretations, and the like; b) the contrast with present-day expositions by Theravadins of "insight-meditation" ("insight" rather than "discerning" being the usual rendition from the Pāli vipassanā) taking its Buddhist doctrinal base in the Abhidharma.

It is not possible to deal here with all the ways in which Tson-kha-pa employs Buddhist logic, but since he devotes the first large topic in the "Discerning" section to determining the principle to be refuted by considering the "overpervasion" (ativyāpti, Tib. khyab ches pa) and "nonpervasion" (avyāpti, Tib. khyab chuns pa), I shall restrict myself here to a consideration of this matter.

According to Ingalls, ativyāpti (overpervasion), avyāpti (nonpervasion), and asambhava (impossibility) are fallacies of the definition in Nyāya. 80

Indeed, they are about the same as fallacies of the reason (betu) in earlier Indian logic, which includes the Buddhist logic that was transmitted to Tibet and earnestly studied there.

Tson-kha-pa uses the two terms to cover his various rejections of Buddhist sectarian differences on apprehension of the Mādhyamika refutable (niṣadhya). He first treats the overpervasion in lengthy fashion (40 folios), then the nonpervasion rather briefly (4 folios), where the first of these fallacious positions, the overpervasion, affirms svabhāva (self-existence); and the second, the nonpervasion, denies svabhāva. He follows in many folios thereafter with what he represents as the proper Mādhyamika apprehension of the refutable, which is either the refutable of the path (the hindrance of defilement and the hindrance of the knowable, in Sanskrit the kleia- and jñeya-avarana) or the refutable of the principle (the adherence to a delusive thing and to the presence of self-existence).

The opponents thus judged to be guilty of overpervasion are especially the realists, called the vastu-satpadartha-vādin—a name extant in the Sanskrit fragments of Candrakīrti's commentary on Āryadeva's Catu-hāataka. Other opponents are the mind-only (cittamātra) persons of the Yogācāra school of Buddhism as well as the Mādhyamika-Svātantrika (of which Bhāvaviveka is the most famous exponent). Of the three opponents, Nāgārjuna may have been opposed by only the vastu-satpadārtha-vādin—whether or not he knew them by that name—since the Yogācāra and the Mādhyamika-Svātantrika arose after him, although it is possible that arguments similar to those of the latter two schools may also have been advanced in Nāgārjuna's day.

Now the question arises why those opponents should be charged with overpervasion by way of their svabbāva affirmation. Or, is their overpervasion a fallacious inference according to the illustration, "It has smoke, as it has fire"? The discussions are complicated, but as I read Tson-khapa's section, the easiest position to pin down under "overpervasion" is that of the Cittamatra. In this case, the svabbāva is threefold, the "perfect" (parinispanna), the "dependency" (paratantra), and the "imaginary" (parikalpita). This school takes the dependency character as the reason (betu) for refuting samvṛti (the conventional world) as parikalpita; the reason is overpervasive, since the dependency character is both real (sat) and unreal (asat), while parikalpita is only unreal.

The realist is the opponent assumed in Nagarjuna's Madhyamakakārikā, to wit, the opponent who argues (MK, XXIV, 1), "If all this is void, then your position reduces to the absurdity that there is no arising or passing away and there are no four Noble Truths!" And the one who argues (Vigrahavyāvartanī, k. 1), "If there is nowhere a self-existence of any presences (bhava) your words, being without self-existence, are unable to refute the self-existence!" Thus the realist says that things either exist or do not exist, and has no middle ground (according to Nagarjuna, the Buddhist dependent origination). For this realist, a thing exists and works by way of its svabhava (self-existence or ownbeing). It is held that these realists fall into the faults of eternalism and nihilism, saying (per Nagarjuna's Yuktisastika, k. 43), "Oh, it is permanent, (or) it is impermanent!" Their fault is more clearly stated in Madhyamaka-karika (XXIV, 16), "If you look upon the occurrence of entities as being from self-existence, then you regard the entities as without causes or conditions." Otherwise stated: the realist has not distinguished the mean (i.e., the shoot without self-existence, that has arisen from causes and conditions) from an extreme (i.e., absence of the shoot, or presence of the shoot by own-nature). Therefore, the realist overpervades with a reason of "presence" (bhava) or "absence" (abhava). Indeed, when the realist charges the Madhyamika with nihilism, Nagarjuna mounts a counterattack, undermining the appeal to authority (pramana), as when one says realistically, "The hill has fire, as it has smoke." But Nagarjuna says (MK, III, 2): "Vision does not see itself as itself. Now, if it does not see what is itself, how will it see what is another?" Thus Nagarjuna rejects the authority of direct sense perception, anticipating Candrakirti's argument against the Buddhist logicians

The argument between Candrakīrti and Bhāvaviveka involves the distinction of supreme truth (paramārtha-satya) and conventional truth (saṃvṛti-satya). Tson-kha-pa points out that only Bhāvaviveka's school, the Mādhyamika-Svātantrika, applies paramārtha in particular to the refutable principle (the niṣedhya), in commentary on Nāgārjuna's Madhyamaka-kārikā, 1, 1. The fallacy is suggested by Candrakīrti, in Madhyamakāvatāra, VI, 32d: "Even according to the world the birth is not from another." So I understand the inclusion of the Mādhyamika-Svātantrika under "overpervasion" to be involved in Bhāvaviveka's appeal to para-

martha-satya as a reason while he employs the theory of paramartha-satya in overpervasion of samvṛti-satya.

So in the briefest reply to the question I posed, it appears feasible to interpret the overpervasion of all three opponents in analogy to the way fire overpervades smoke, namely, that the pair sat and asat overpervade asat, that bhāva and abhāva each overpervade their mean, and that paramārthasatya, in a certain theory, overpervades samvṛtisatya.

Under the nonpervasion, Tson-kha-pa places the insider of the Madhyamika, Prasangika school who has quite properly denied suabhava as a principle and then falsely denies snabhava in the Buddhist path, i.e., takes it as the refutable of the path. Thus this insider misses the meaning of the scriptural passage, "Whether Tathagatas arise or do not arise this true nature of dharmas abides," found both in a Pali-language scripture and in the Mahayana scripture Dasabhumika-sutra. Nagarjuna alludes to this svabbava in his Madhyamaka-karika, chapter XV. Regarding this nonpervasion, Candrakirti's Madhyamakavatara has this verse (VI, 141)-extant in Sanskrit as cited in the Subhāsitasamgraha (as I translate): "Seeing a snake coiled in a recess of his house, and thinking, 'There is no elephant here' his alarm is dispelled (as to an elephant), and he abandons fear even for the snake. Behold the rectitude of our opponent!" Here the snake can be explained as nescience (avidya). This person does not fear the snake because he thinks, "There is no elephant here" (i.e., there is no svabbava, self-existence). Thereby he loses fear for the snake of nescience and continues to have its threatening presence there in the recess. So "Behold the rectitude of our opponent!" In this case, nonpervasion (avyāpti) is construed as "not the vyāpti," meaning that nonself-existence (niḥsvabhāvatā) is not the vyāpti of the Buddhist path, even though it is a vyāpti in Mahāyāna Buddhist philosophy and referred to as the "principle."

Upon reading some of the discussions of these two fallacies of vyāpti in a Navya-Nyāya work on vyāpti, 81 it appears that Tson-kha-pa's discussion approximately fits the presumed fallacies of the kevalanvayi vyāpti (the universally present pervasion) and the kevalavyatirekī vyāpti (the universally absent pervasion). That is to say, the three outer opponents of the Mādhyamika-Prāsangika would universalize their principle that is used for the refutable of saṃvṛti. In contrast, the insider opponent of the Mādhyamika-Prāsangika would universalize the absence of svabhāva.

Thus, Tsoń-kha-pa's usage seems consistent with later Indian logic, where the two terms are nonoverlapping, that is to say, a fallacious inference which is ativyāpti cannot be avyāpti and vice versa.

The same work sets forth Gangesa's discussion and rejection of a number of definitions of vyāpti as found in previous schools, including the definition by the Buddhist logicians. 82 Of course, to assail the definition of vyāpti made by a previous school implies a rejection of the soundness of the arguments in that school. Indeed, Gangesa thereby takes that definition as the refutable (niṣedbya), a kind of sādbya; while we know that vyāpti is itself a part of the inference involved. This reminds us of Bhāvaviveka's position as cited in Candrakīrti's Prasannapadā (chap. I) and explained in Tson-kha-pa's "Discerning" section: 83

Now, if one holds such distinctions, there are no agreed-upon conventions for the inference or for the inferable. The reason is as follows: if we hold that sound is derived from the four great elements, that is not proved to the opponent (who is the Vaiseşika). On the other hand, when he (the Vaiseşika) holds sound to be a quality of space (ākāla), that is not proved to the Buddhist on his side. Likewise, if the Vaiseşika sets forth the proposition "Sound is not eternal" and holds that the sound is constructed (kārya), that is not proved to those others (i.e., the Mīmāṃsā, who maintain that it is made perceptible, vyaṅgya, from its imperishable state). On the other hand, if sound be held as made perceptible (vyaṅgya), that is not proved to (the Vaiseṣika) himself.

In short, one way of disagreeing with another school is to reject its definition of vyāpti; another way is to reject the vyāpti itself. But, for example, the Buddhists presumably agree that every created thing is impermanent—it is pervaded by impermanence. So when a Buddhist reads that the five personality aggregates are impermanent, he accepts this because he has already accepted the pervasion, oblivious of the definition of "pervasion." While in "inference for others" according to Bhāvaviveka, in the case of the well-known syllogism about the smoke and the fire, when one gives the example "like the stove," it is necessary for the two parties to agree that the example is viable, or it would be futile to go on. Perhaps this is a reason why, when I asked the late Hidenori Kitagawa of Nagoya, Japan, if he had ever noticed in the texts of Buddhist logic the simile of the mirror, he responded negatively. But Nāgārjuna is willing to use more similes than those used by the logicians. Thus, he writes in his Pratītyasamutpādabrdaya-vyākarana: 84

The Middle View

The middle view of course avoids the extremes of existence and nonexistence, or, in the preceding terminology, avoids the alternatives of overpervasion or nonpervasion. But, as was mentioned, it is often held that the Madhyamika, especially in the Prasangika form, rejects all views and therefore does not have a position of its own. According to Tson-kha-pa, there is a great misunderstanding here. Chakraborty mentions: "Khandanakhanda Khadya of Śrī Harşa is a case in point. Śrī Harşa here with the help of a formidable dialectic disproves the case of the opponents but does not take pains for the positive establishment of any thesis." 85 In fact, Sri Harşa in the first chapter takes the Mādhyamika side against the Nyaya opponent and argues that even if he (Sri Harşa) does not have a thesis of his own, it is still possible to carry on a debate. Indeed, by disproving the opponents he gradually defines his own position in negative terms, somewhat analogous to when in ancient India the absolute was referred to as "not this, not this" and still the absolute was thereby referred to and was not denied. So Tson-kha-pa, early in his section "B. Option of Prasangika and Svatantrika as Refuting Agent" states, ". . . while insisting that the Svatantrika is not valid, he [Candrakirti] clarified the (Prasangika) position." Besides, the fact of not putting forth a position of one's own while arguing with opponents is consistent with the middle view not being expressible in the ordinary realistic terms of existence and nonexistence. Hence, the middle view is expressed as nonself; and dependent origination is voidness (innyata): the natures (dharma) arise like a dream, like a face in a mirror, a flame from a flame, etc. Fire arises by a cause (= the original fire that does not go anywhere) and conditions (combustible materials; exciting agencies, such as friction). And the arising by cause and condition is not equivalent to the Nyaya-Vaisesika asatkaryavada, holding that the clay pot arises from itself (clay) and from the potter, wheel, sticks, etc. This is because the "new" fire is not, according to Nagarjuna, composed of the "old" fire,

since in the case of a flame from a flame, there is no transfer. In short, the "old" fire is the efficient, not the material cause, while in the realist position the clay is the material cause of the clay pot. But the "new" condition (the combustible material, etc.) is the instrumental cause, like the realist's old potter, wheel, sticks, etc.

Pursuant to the middle view, Tson-kha-pa cites Nāgārjuna's Yuktisastikā and Candrakīrti's Yuktisastikā-vṛtti. Nāgārjuna:

What arises in dependence is not born; That is proclaimed by the supreme knower of reality (= Buddha).

Candrakirti:

(The realist opponent says): If (as you say) whatever thing arises in dependence is not even born, then why does (the Mādhyamika) say it is not born? But if (you Mādhyamika) have a reason for saying (this thing) is not born, then you should not say it "arises in dependence." Therefore, because of mutual inconsistency, (what you have said) is not valid.

(The Madhyamika replies with compassionate interjection:)

Alas! Because you are without ears or heart you have thrown a challenge that is severe on us! When we say that anything arising in dependence, in the manner of a reflected image, does not arise by reason of self-existence—at that time where is the possibility of disputing (us)!

So when in this Mādhyamika literature one frequently finds such statements as "The natures (dharma) arise void of self-existence (stubbāva)," the opponents declare this to be a nihilistic position (thus willing to attribute a "position" or "view" to the Mādhyamika), asserting that the Mādhyamika denies self-existence (stubbāva) or denies the natures (dharma). An example should clarify Candrakīrti's response. If we were to say, "The children came to school without shoes," and another were to make a challenge, "So you deny that there are shoes," we would have to answer, "Alas, you are without ears; we did not deny shoes when we said that the children came to school without shoes." And if another were to make a challenge, "So you deny children," we would have to answer, "Alas, you are without heart; whoever would deny children is heartless, and we did not deny children when we said that the children

Svabbava of the Path

Having again and again denied the self-existence (stabhāva) of entities, the Mādhyamika followers go on to qualify their denials. It turns out that the stabhāva that was denied is the one believed in by ordinary persons called bāla (the childish, spiritually immature person), who accept as real what they imagine to perceive, while their eye of knowledge is covered by nescience's caul. So Candrakīrti's Prasamapadā commentary on the Madhyamaka-kārikā (XV, 2):

By whatever (deluded) self one approaches the form of entities (form, etc.) perceptively reached by the power of nescience's coat; and by whatever method of nonseeing belonging to the nobles who are rid of nescience's coat one approaches the domain (of samāpatti):just that own-form (svarūpa) is established as the svabbāva of those (entities).

But, as he mentions there, the meditator who can ascend to equipoise (samāpatti) may witness the svabhāva that is inaccessible to the ordinary person. And as Tson-kha-pa further cites Candrakirti (his Madhyamakāvatāra): "The reality (i.e., own-form) which no childish person can witness is the principle which (ultimately) is svabhāva," and "Consequently, it is for the purpose of witnessing that (ultimate svabhāva) that the pure life (and path cultivation) becomes meaningful."

To further explain the witnessing of stabbatta, one may refer to the tradition of the Buddha's night of enlightenment when he discovered the formula of dependent origination; and according to Asvaghoşa's Buddhattarita (chap. XIV) discovered it in the third watch of night by working backward from "old age and death" (no. 12 in the twelve-membered formula) in the formula with ten members, up to "perception" (vijñāna) (no. 3 in the twelve-membered formula). Asvaghoşa writes: 86

 When perception arises, name-and-form is produced. When the development of the seed is completed, the sprout assumes a bodily form. 72. Next he considered, "From what does perception come into being?" Then he knew that it is produced by supporting itself on name-and-form.

The significance of this is exposed in Asanga's Yogacarabhumi in the Vastusangrahani section. Asanga explains what is meant by "seeing dharmas" as seeing a "place of truth" by seeing either constructed natures or unconstructed natures; and in both cases with either conventional or absolute truth. As to the "place of truth," he says: 87

Just as there is some place of truth, he rightly knows it as it is, and rightly knows as it is the truth (thereof). What is a place of truth? Name-and-form, called the "own-nature of a man" (manusya-svarūpa*).

Thus when the terminology "discerning the real" is employed, the "real" may be referred to as "name-and-form." 88

The foregoing also helps to clarify why Aśvaghoşa used at that point the ten-membered formula, which omits the usual two first members of "nescience" ($avidy\bar{a}$) and "motivations" ($samsk\bar{a}ra$). This suggests the enlightenment situation when both "nescience" (defilement) and "motivations" (the karma) have ceased, and so Nāgārjuna writes in his $Yuktijastik\bar{a}$ (k. 10-11AB): ⁸⁹

Having seen with right knowledge (= clear vision, $vidy\bar{a}$) what has arisen with the condition of "nescience," there is no apprehension at all of either arising or passing away. That very thing is Nirvāṇa as this life (= the dharma seen, dr_{fila} -dbarma), and the requirement is done (krta-krtya).

This situation is prepared for by the Bodhisattva's contemplation of dependent origination on the sixth stage according to the Mahāyāna scripture Dašabbūmika-sūtra. This is said to occur to that Bodhisattva: "Because of the clinging to a creator, activities are known; wherever there is no creator, there also activities are not perceptively reached in the absolute sense," and "These three realms are this mind-only." As I have discussed elsewhere using Tson-kha-pa's materials, ⁹⁰ it is "nescience" which clings to a creator, so when "nescience" does not arise, "activities" (= 'motivations') are not perceptively reached, i.e., "percep-

* Theoretical reconstruction of the Sanskrit.

tion" (vijñāna) does not perceive them. Then, "perception," in the light of the present discussion, is the conventional mind-only which is tantamount to the three realms. In Asvaghoşa's account, it is not the vijñāna itself that is to be got rid of. Rather, it is disengaged from dependence on "activities" and instead is promoted by "name-and-form." This may then be the intention of the Lankāvatāra-sūtra (text 126.11–12): "According to my promulgation, Mahāmati, the warding off of the manovijñāna that thinks discursively, is said to be Nirvāṇa." Thus vijñāna changes its meaning from "perception" to "understanding," and understands the "name-and-form," also with "insight" (prajñā) or with "clear vision" (vidyā).

Now it should be pointed out that the svabhāva which is here alluded to as "name-and-form," or the reality which is the object of discerning (vipasyanā), is also referred to in this literature as the "true nature" (dbarmatā). So the Lankāvatāra-sūtra may be cited (218.8–13):

Whether the Tathagatas arise or do not arise, there remains this true nature (dharmata), the rule of dharma, the continuance of dharma. This abiding of dharma is not in the sphere of any of the visualizations of the Śrāvakas, Pratyekabuddhas, or heads of sects; and immature ordinary persons are not awakened to it. It is contemplatively evoked (prabhāvita) by the insight-knowledge of the Tathagatas.

The foregoing should show why the Mādhyamika has over the centuries afforded such difficulties of interpretation, so that it was not only the opponents—who so often do not take pains to ascertain what they are disagreeing with—who were found to be rejecting the Mādhyamika; but also those who counted themselves as the "insiders" were arguing as vociferously with each other on the matter. Small wonder that this Mādhyamika school should be misunderstood, when it vigorously rejects the svabbāva that is something to establish by mundane reasoning, and then upholds the svabbāva that is something to realize in Yoga attainment. Or when it sometimes denies having a position of its own, and then argues at length and in all sorts of ways to refute the "wrong" views—for why bother to reject views on the grounds that they are wrong, if not wrong in comparison with a "right" view!

paramartha are according to the Madhyamikas the proof for samvṛti. Their theories (put forth) as samuṛti are judged by the Madhyamikas as proving (instead) the (Madhyamika) paramartha. One should analyze those (differences) because there is no contradiction at all (in the Madhyamika case).

Furthermore, their (i.e., realists') existence of pudgala by designation and this ācārya's (i.e., of the Mādhyamika school) existence of pudgala by designation are alike (only) in terms, but (decidedly) different in meaning, because this ācārya maintains that those (realists) lack the view which comprehends selflessness of pudgala, and because (this ācārya) maintains that if they do not comprehend selflessness of pudgala they do not comprehend selflessness of pudgala they do not comprehend selflessness of dharma. Hence, this ācārya maintains that as long as they do not abandon the school (tiddhānta) going with the substantial existence of the personality aggregates they will hold that the pudgala also has substantial existence, so they will not have the comprehension that the pudgala does not exist from the absolute standpoint.

II. THE BASIC ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REALITY

There are three parts: A. Engaging the principle to be refuted; B. Option of Prāsangika and Svātantrika as refuting agent; C. Relying on this agent, the method of generating the view in consciousness (santāna).

A. Engaging the Principle to be Refuted

This also has three parts: 1. The reason for the requirement to determine the refutable (principle); 2. Refuting the other school which denies without determining the refutable; 3. Our own school's method of determining the refutable.

1. THE REASON FOR THE REQUIREMENT TO DETERMINE THE REFUTABLE

For example, to be certain about thinking that a (certain) person is not present, it is necessary to know this person with his cause for absence. In the same way, to be certain about the meaning of nonself and non-self-existence, it is also necessary to determine that "self" and "self-existence" with cause for their absence, because as long as the generality of the (principle) to be refuted does not arise (in the mind) there is not

certainty that the refutation is without error. This is stated in the Caryāvatāra (IX, 140a-b). 31 "As long as one has not contacted an imagined entity, one cannot apprehend its absence."

Now, particular diversified principles to be refuted are innumerable, but when one summarizes the refutable principle and refutes it to the root, one can counter all refutable principles. Besides, if one does not counter all the points to be refuted—even subtle ones—one falls into the extreme of existence and with attachment to things has no capacity for liberation from phenomenal life. On the other hand, when one refutes the refutable principle out of all proportion by not observing the proper measure, he casts aspersion on the series of cause and fruit and of dependent origination, and falls into the extreme of nihilism, and this view leads him to a bad destiny. Therefore it is very important to well apprehend the refutable principle, because if one does not apprehend it, he will certainly generate either the view of eternalism or the view of nihilism.

2. REFUTING THE OTHER SCHOOL WHICH DENIES WITHOUT DETERMINING THE REFUTABLE

There are two parts to this: a. Refutation of overpervasion in determining the refutable; b. Refutation of nonpervasion in determining the refutable.

a. Refutation of Overpervasion in Determining the Refutable
This has two sections: (1) Setting forth the (opponent's) thesis; (2)
Showing that (the thesis) is not valid.

(1) SETTING FORTH THE OPPONENT'S THESIS

The generality of modern-day (i.e., Tibetan) adherents of the Mādhyamika, while setting forth its meaning, say: By the principle which examines whether the reality of birth, etc. is proved or not proved one counters all the *dharmas* from form up to omniscience, ³² because when one examines with a principle regarding whatever (*dharma*) be upheld, there is not even an atom that can withstand examination; and because when one refutes all the four alternatives of "it exists," "it does not exist," etc., there is no unconstructed nature (*asaṃskṛta-dharma*) therein (i.e., in the four alternatives). Moreover, when with the noble knowledge that sees reality one sees that there is no (*dharma*) whatever of

birth and decease, bondage and liberation, etc., then it must be the case as authorized by that (noble samāpatti), so there is no birth, etc. If one claims that there is birth, etc., then either it can withstand or not withstand the examination with a principle that examines the reality in that case. In the event it can withstand (that examination), there would be (proved) explicitly as true that there is an entity which withstands the examination by the principle. In the event it cannot withstand that examination, how could it be valid that there exists an entity countered by the principle?

Accordingly, if one claims an existence of birth, etc., it is either proved or not proved by an authority. In the first case (i.e., proved by an authority), since it is proved by that knowledge (=arya-samāpatti) which sees reality (directly), it is not valid that it sees the nonexistence of birth. If it is claimed to be proved by cognition of the conventional eye, etc. (ear and so on), it is refuted that they constitute an authority, because the Samādhirāja-sūtra shows as invalid that they (eye, etc.) serve to prove (form, etc.), as in this passage (IX, 23):

(The perception based on) eye is not an authority (pramāna), nor are (the perceptions based on) ear, nose, tongue, body, and mind authorities. If these (perceptions based on) sense organs were authorities, who would need to resort to the Noble Truth!

And also because the Avatāra (=Madhyamakāvatāra, VI, 31a) states, "The world with its multitudinous aspects is not an authority." The claim that it exists although not proved by an authority is not held by us, and since it is not a principle it is (highly) invalid. If one claims there is birth, while denying it in an absolute sense, it is necessary that he claim it so in a conventional sense, but this is not proper, because this passage of the Avatāra (VI, 36) states that the principle by which birth is denied in the absolute sense, also denies it conventionally:

By whatever principle in the phase of reality there is no reason for birth from oneself or from another, by that principle there is no reason for it conventionally. Therefore, how can there be your birth!

And also because a thing does not arise from itself, from another, and so on—four in all—so if one claims that it arises, he counters by imagining

the four alternatives to be a refutation of birth in the absolute sense and so do not disallow (birth); but (the four alternatives means) there is no birth of them at all. Suppose there were birth from a particular one of four alternatives, and denying three of them, suppose it were necessary to be born from another thing—that is not proper, because the Avatāra states (VI, 32d): "Even according to the world the birth is not from another." Therefore, when refuting birth, one should not apply the special feature of paramārtha, because the Prasannapadā refutes the application in particular of paramārtha.

In this matter also, some assert that they do not admit birth, etc. even conventionally; and some claim that there is (birth, etc.) conventionally. But all agree with a principle in refuting for the dharmas a self-existence produced by own nature, because while this ācārya's school does not affirm and then deny, ³³ he simultaneously refutes the production by self-existence in the sense of both truths. If that is the way there is no self-existence, then what (else) is there? Therefore, the special application of paramārtha to the refutable principle is now explained with special clarity ³⁴ to be only the school of Mādhyamika-Svātantrika.

(2) SHOWING THAT THE THESIS IS NOT VALID

This has two parts: (a) Showing that the special refutation of dharma by that school is not common to the Mādhyamika; (b) Teaching how to avoid defeat by the assailant's discourses.

(a) Showing That the Special Refutation of Dharma by That School is Not Common to the Madhyamika.

Here there are three parts: (i) Determining the special dharma of the Mādhyamika; (ii) Manner in which a school opposes that (special dharma); (iii) How the Mādhyamika answers this (challenge).

(i) Determining the Special Dharma of the Mādhyamika
 (Nāgārjuna's) Yuktişaṣṭikā (verse 60) says:

By means of this virtue all persons amass their collection of merit and knowledge. May the two sublimities that arise from merit and knowledge, be achieved!

The point of this passage is that the candidates who proceed by the highest vehicle attain the sublimity of the Dharmakaya and the sublimity of the Rupakaya in the phase of the fruit. In the phase of the path, as was previously explained, 35 they resort to amassing the uncountable collection of merits and knowledge while avoiding a one-sidedness of either means (upaya) or insight (prajña). 36 That is to say, they concern themselves with two kinds of certainty: a) They associate the causes and fruits of samorti by thinking that from such-and-such a cause comes this benefit (of good destiny) or this trouble (of bad destiny) as fruit, and draw certainty from the bottom of their hearts and with sincerity, thus attaining the certainty of the phenomenon. b) And they reach certainty from the bottom of their hearts that there is not even a particle of selfexistence (suabhava) produced by own nature in all the dharmas, thus attaining the certainty of the noumenon. The reason is that if either one is lacking, the full complement of the path of both means and insight is not being learned from the bottom of their hearts and with sincerity.³⁷ Accordingly, a) the method of establishing the basic view that does not mistake the essential of the causal path for attaining both bodies in the phase of the fruit, 38 and b) the method of establishing the view that depends on that (basic view), achieve the (two) certainties in the two truths as just explained.

Except for this kind of Mādhyamika, what manner of other person who observes (only) the gathering of refutation and is ignorant of holding the irrefutable, would be called the Mādhyamika skilled in possession of broad examination and possessed of subtle learning! Thus, the one skilled in the means of comprehending the two truths, who is established without even the question of refutation, and resorts to achieving the ultimate purport of the Victor, engenders wondrous devotion to his teacher and the Teaching and gains understanding guided by the pure voice and words that tell him emphatically again and again the mysterious words: the meaning of the voidness which is void of self-existence is the meaning of dependent origination, but is not the meaning of absence void of efficiency (arthakriyākāritva).

The learned realists with their own position may train ever so much in numerous fields of knowledge, but when they deny the Mādhyamika view and dispute the Mādhyamika—it being a fact that all dharmas are entirely void of any self-existence at all that is accomplished by self-nature—their theory fails in any establishment of bondage and liberation, saṃsāra and nirvāṇa, etc. The Mūla-prajñā (XXIV, 1) states [presenting the realists' challenge]:

That says that if these are void of self-existence, arising and passing away as well as the four Noble Truths are not valid. The Vigrahavyāvartanī (k. 1) puts (their challenge) this way:

If there is nowhere a self-existence of any presences, your words, being without self-existence, are unable to refute the self-existence!

This says that if words are without self-existence, they have no capacity to prove the rejection of self-existence or non-self-existence. Thus it disputes, claiming that in the absence of self-existence there is no validity of generator and thing generated, or of refutation and agent and act of proof. Thus they argue, sapient that this principle of opposing self-existence denies all agents and action. Therefore the schools (siddhānta) of the realist and the Mādhyamika are not in common; and when these two dispute, the argument merely revolves about whether or not (those holding) the void of self-existence have validity in any establishment of samsara and nirvāṇa. Anyway, while there is not even a speck of self-existence accomplished by own nature, the special dharma of the Mādhyamika suffices in its theory for all establishments of generator and thing generated, refutation and proof, etc. and saṃsāra and nirvāṇa. According to the Mūla-prajñā (XXIV, 13, 14):

Furthermore, when you, sir, object to this voidness, the faulty refutation does not apply to the void of our school. For the school which holds voidness as valid, everything becomes valid. For the school which holds voidness as invalid, everything becomes invalid.

This points out that the fault charged by the words, "If all this is void, . . ." does not accrue to the school of non-self-existence; even more, that arising, passing away, are valid in the position (holding) the void of self-existence; and that they are not valid in the position (holding) no void of self-existence. That is also stated in the *Prasannapadā*: 39

It is not just that the aforementioned faulty refutation does not apply to our school, but also so as to teach that all the establishment of truths, etc. is highly valid, he says: "For the school which holds voidness as valid. . . ."

Thus he (Candrakirti) explains it in his text.

Chapter XXVI of the Mūla-Madhyamaka-kārikā teaches the arising sequence in direct order of dependent origination in twelve members and the cessation sequence in reverse order. 40 Chapter XXV especially teaches the denial of self-existence. 41 Chapter XXIV, by examination of the Noble Truths, extensively lays down that if it is not void of self-existence, all establishments of arising and passing away, and so on of samsara and nirvāna, are invalid; and that if it is void of self-existence, all those (establishments) are valid. 42 Consequently, these chapters are of great importance for understanding all the other chapters.

Hence, those who nowadays claim to speak the meaning of the Mādhyamika and say that such causes and effects as generator and thing generated, when (assumed) without self-existence, are pervaded with invalidity constitute the realist school (vastusatpadārthavādin). So one should seek out the Mādhyamika path as it was maintained by nātha Nāgārjuna—that on the basis of this-and-that cause and condition, this-and-that fruit arises and ceases; that the establishment of cause and effect is the void of self-existence in dependence. Chapter XXIV (k. 18, 19) states: 43

The origination in dependence we call the "voidness." That is the designation when there is depending. Precisely that is the middle path.

Since no dharma originates outside of dependence, it follows that there is no dharma whatsoever that is not void.

This states that dependent origination is pervaded by the void of self-existence. So do not deny it and say that birth by reliance on causes and conditions is pervaded by accomplishment of self-existence! Along the same lines, the *Vigrabavyāvartanī* (k. 71–72) proclaims:

For whatever (school) this voidness is feasible, all things are feasible. For whatever (school) voidness is not feasible, nothing is feasible. I bow to that incomparable Buddha who has expounded voidness, dependent origination, and the middle path with the same meaning.

Furthermore, the Sunyatasaptati (k. 68) says:

Besides, the Yuktişaştikā (k. 43-45) states:

Those (i.e., outsiders) who insist on a self in a world without dependence, are carried away by views like, "Oh, it is permanent; it is impermanent!"

Those (i.e., the Buddhist realists) who claim that entities in dependence are accomplished in reality, do not recognize the faults of eternalism, etc. as they occur.

Those (i.e., the correct Madhyamika) who hold that entities in dependence are like the moon in the waters, being not misled by unreality are not carried away by those distorted theories.

Moreover, it is said in the Lokatītastava (k. 19-20): 44

The logicians (tārkika) believe that suffering is constructed by oneself, by another, by both, or by chance; but you teach that it arises in dependence.

Whatever is originated in dependence, you regard as void. "There is no independent entity,"—that is your incomparable lion's roar.

This states that it is only void of self-existence because it has origination in dependence. This idea that the meaning of dependent origination is the meaning of voidness of what is non-self-existent is the unshared school of natha Nagarjuna. Hence, our school takes the side of Madhyamika with voidness of what is non-self-existent and thus establishes the cause and effect of dependent origination. If one is loath to so take it, he is guided to other positions and does not have the meaning of dependent origination. Because the (above-cited) passage, "For the school which holds voidness as valid, everything becomes valid," refers to the school of non-self-existence and means that for it everything of dependent origination pertaining to samsāra and nirvāņa becomes valid.

However, suppose there is the question of how the position accepting voidness is the school validating all of samsāra and nirvāṇa. (In answer:) The one saying that all entities have voidness of self-existence, speaks in

that case with the reason that they arise in dependence on causes and conditions; this is to be expounded (below).

That being the case, dependent origination is valid in that (void of self-existence). Since it is valid, suffering is also valid. So it is necessary to posit suffering in anything that arises in dependence on causes and conditions, because suffering is not valid if there is no arising in dependence. If there is the Truth of Suffering, then the Source from which it arises, the Cessation with ceasing of that Suffering, and the Path leading to that (Cessation) are valid, so the four Truths are established. If there are the four Truths, their respective experience, elimination, direct realization, and path cultivation are valid. If there are those, the three Jewels, and so on, are all valid. It is so according to the *Prasannapada* (on XXIV, k. 14): 45

For the school in which this voidness of self-existence of all entities is valid, "everything," as was stated, becomes valid. How so? Since we call "voidness" the arising in dependence, it follows that for the school in which this voidness is valid, dependent origination is valid. For the school in which dependent origination is valid, the Noble Truths are valid. How so? For the reason that it is just when there is dependent origination that suffering arises; it does not arise in the absence of dependent origination. And that is void of self-existence. When there is suffering, then the source of suffering, the cessation of suffering, and the path leading to the cessation of suffering are valid. Consequently, the thorough experience of suffering, the elimination of the source, the direct realization of the cessation, and cultivation of the path, are valid. When there are the thorough experience, etc. going respectively with suffering, etc., their fruits are valid. When there are the fruits, those who abide in the fruits are valid. When there are those abiding in the fruits, those who have resorts (to the fruits) are valid. When there are those abiding in the fruits and those who have resorted, the Samgha is valid. When there are the Noble Truths, the Illustrious Dharma is also valid. When there are the Illustrious Dharma and the Samgha, the Buddha is also valid. Therefore, the three Jewels are valid, and all the distinguished comprehensions (viiejadhigama) 46 going with mundane and supramundane entities, are valid. And also, virtue, nonvirtue, and their fruits, and all worldly conventions are valid. Hence, "For the school which holds voidness as valid, everything becomes valid." While for the school which holds voidness as invalid, in the absence of dependent origination, "everything becomes invalid."

Regarding the previously cited opponent's challenge in the Vigrahatyāvartanī (k. 1), the ācārya (= Nāgārjuna) clarifies his response with a reply that agent and act are valid when they have no self-existence. He states in the Vigrahavyāvartanī (k. 22): 47

Whatever one of entities occurs in dependence, we declare "voidness." And whatever one arises occurring in dependence, is his (= the Mādhyamika's) lack of self-existence.

And the self-commentary on this states:

And you sir (= the realist), not understanding the meaning of voidness of entities, try to argue this way: "Since your words lack self-existence, they are impotent to refute the self-existence of entities," But in this case (I reply:) Whatever one of entities occurs in dependence, is a voidness. For what reason? For reason. of non-self-existence. Those entities which arise in dependence do not arise with self-existence, because they lack self-existence. For what reason? For reason of depending on cause and conditions. If (according to the realist) entities could exist by virtue of self-existence, they could even exist disallowing causes and conditions. They do not occur that way. Therefore, they are not self-existent. Because they lack self-existence, they are called "void." Thus, my words also have arisen in dependence and so are without self-existence; and since they are without self-existence, it is right to call them "void." Just as the pot, the cloth, etc., by reason of arising in dependence, are void of self-existence, and vet (in the case of the pot) has the capacity to hold honey, water, and milk, and to take (from others); 48 and (in the case of the cloth) has the capacity to protect from cold, wind, and sun-so also, my words, while without self-existence because arisen in dependence, still have the capacity to prove that entities lack self-existence. Therefore, in this case what you say, "Since your words lack self-existence, they are impotent to refute the self-existence of entities," is itself not valid.

Thus he states clearly that if (entities) are produced by their self-existence, they are pervaded by nondependence on causes and conditions; and that if they depend on causes and conditions, they are pervaded by non-self-existence—so present in similar cases and absent in dissimilar