A NON-ETHICAL CONCEPT OF AHIMSA

The purpose of this paper is very limited. I concern myself with the concept of ahimsā¹ as found in Patañjali's Yoga Sūtra², particularly as a part of his aṣṭāṅga yoga³, and the discussion centres round the orthodox⁴ interpretation of the concept. It is my thesis in this paper that the concept of ahimsā as found in Patañjali's aṣṭāṅga yoga is not ethical and that it is a mistake which most of the theorists of yoga have made to interpret it ethically.

Not that there have been no ethical interpretations of ahimsā. In fact, there have been so many, Jaina5 interpretation being the outstanding amongst them. In the Jaina tradition, ahimsā is used to characterize the conduct of an individual or a social group the aim of which is the good of every body. It is this and only this property of ahimsa conduct, viz., that it seeks the good of every body, which makes it ethical. This property also spells out the moral point of view6. Doing an action for the good of every body is doing it from the moral point of view; and it is such actions alone which are the subject of moral judgement. The idea of 'doing good for every body,7 points to the two distinctive characteristics of a moral action. One that the action has social scope of a specifiable generality; and two that the action is aimed at welfare. As the individual is a member of some or the other social group, whatever welfare of the group is achieved is shared by the individual himself also. But, in no case is the moral action aimed at the good of the individual himself. For, then the action would be called selfish and not moral.

Sometimes, we speak of 'my having a duty towards myself'8. I suspect, there is both a linguistic and a logical mistake in this way of speaking. For one thing the expression "myself" is vague and ambiguous. It is vague; for its meaning needs to be specified before one understands what is being talked about. It is ambiguous; for it means anything from my mortal body, through my family, to my immortal soul if there is one and if it is immortal.

The expression 'my having a duty towards myself' carries a logical error also. It suggests that the relation of 'someone having a duty towards someone' is reflexive. This suggestion and the accompanying innocence of this way of speech thrives on the indicated vagueness and ambiguity of "myself". When the vagueness is removed by specifying its meaning and the expression is used unambiguously, it becomes apparent that someone who has a duty and someone towards whom he has a duty have to be two different persons if we are to make any sense of the relation of 'someone having a duty towards someone'. And, if I am right in this thinking, then I'll add that the logical property enjoyed by 'someone having a duty towards someone' is asymmetry which, in turn, entails irreflexivity. To say that the relation 'someone having a duty towards someone' is asymmetrical is to say that if x has a duty towards y then y cannot have the same duty towards x for all values of x and v: and to say that the relation is irreflexive is to say that x cannot have a duty towards himself for all values of x. It follows that it is wrong to speak of 'my having a duty towards myself'.9

Having stated what a moral point of view is and also having specified the criteria of moral judgement, I think we are in a fairly good position to inquire into the question whether or not ahimsā as employed¹¹¹ in Patañjali's astānga yoga is an ethical concept. My thesis is that, within the framework of the Yoga Sūtra the concept is not ethical and that it does not have any ethical implications whatever. My argument follows a brief resume of the discussion on ahimsā and the role it is designed to play in the personal development of an aṣtānga yogin of Patañjali's persuasion. Lest I should go astray, I will draw upon the original Sanskrit texts Patañjali's Yoga Sūtra¹¹, Veda Vyāsa' Bhāṣya¹² on it and Vācaspati Misra's Tattva-vaišārdi¹³. Translations from Sanskrit into English are mine unless indicated otherwise.

Ahimsā is first and the basic, and the other four namely satya, asteya, brahmacarya, and aparigraha, are the five yamas¹⁴ which taken together constitute a necessary part of the yogin's undertaking the programme of yoga leading through samādhi¹⁵ to the state of existence called kaivalya.¹⁶ Ahimsā is basic in the sense that all the other yamas are rooted in it (ahimsāmūlaka).¹⁷

When, however, the yogin commits himself to their observance, he commits himself ipso facto to ahimsā. To say this is to say that their practice produces conditions which tend to eliminate the occurrence of himsā¹⁸ conduct and at the same time increase the possibility of extending the scope of the yogin's ahimsā conduct. In this way the yogin's commitment to satya, asteya, brahmacarya, and aparigraha goes hand in hand with his commitment to ahimsā.

We have said that ahimsā is a necessary part of yogāngānusthāna¹⁹ that is, the yogin's undertaking the programme of yoga
leading through samādhi to the state of existence called kaivalya.

The purpose of yogāngānusthāna is (1) continuing purification or
mind (aśuddhi-kṣaya) with (2) continuing illumination by selfknowledge (jñāna-dipti) resulting progressively in (3) the perceptive understanding of reality (viveka-khyāti)²⁰. In other
words, as the individual's misunderstandings which are the product
of ignorance are removed, there is achieved in the same measure
an understanding which is the product of knowledge and this
progressive process continues till there occurs a perception which
ushers the individual in to freedom called kaivalya by the yogins.

Notice that it is not the aśuddhi-kṣaya of one's social group nor is it the jñāna-dipti of anybody other than one's own self which is sought to be removed and achieved. The purpose of yogāngā-nuṣṭhāna thus is not ethical but it is an existential isolation defined in terms of a specified level of consciousness. The purpose is not the good of every body, nor is it meant to be the good of the individual unless kaivalya (aloneness of the puruṣa) is regarded as a morally desirable state of affairs, which, to my mind, in no sense of the word 'ethical' can be said to be ethical.

If yogāngānusthāna is not morally oriented conduct of the individual, far less can the conduct characterised by ahimsā be said to be moral. The moral point of view, namely, doing good for every body, is just not applicable to it. Rather, the relation of ahimsā conduct to aśuddhi-kṣaya is said to be causal,²¹ Ahimsā conduct causes aśuddhi-kṣaya which generating jñāna-dipti in turn produces viveka-khyāti. The ethical notions of 'good' and 'bad', 'right' and 'wrong', 'ought' and 'ought not' thus have no relevance to yogāngānusthāna which is only a complex of

causal factors of asuddhikṣaya and viveka-khyāti. Besides, moral judgement necessarily presupposes moral responsibility²². In the case of the yogin, the notion of responsibility has no place in his scheme of things. He is concerned with himself for himself in order to land himself in an isolated island of kaivalya consciousness. Behaving the ahimsā way for him is causing a series of events in the world of facts. Given the occurrence of these events, other things being equal, certain other events like asuddhikṣaya, jñāna-dipti, and viveka-khyāti would occur as effect. In such a state of affairs then, there is no moral judgement, no responsibility, but causality only.

Again to say that ahimsa is a causal factor of asuddhi-ksaya is not to say that it is a material cause (upādāna kārana) in Aristotle's sense.23 For, though all material causes are causes, not all causes are material causes. Veda Vyāsa, the commentator on the Yoga Sūtra, specifies24 the sense in which yogāngānusthāna is the cause of asuddhi-ksaya and viveka-khyati. Differentiating several types of causes, 25 he points out that yoganganusthana is a viyoga karana26 of asuddhi-ksaya in precisely the same way as an axe cuts; and it is the prapti karana27 of viveka-khyati in the sense in which dharma produces happiness. Besides, this causal relation has the interesting property that as the yogin progresses in the yogic growth, as the requirements constituting yoganganusthana are satisfied, there is in the same measure corresponding decay of the asuddhis of consciousness and a corresponding increase in the jñana-dipti leading to viveka-khyāti. This kind of causal connection has no analogue in the moral judgement of conduct as good and bad, or right and wrong; for a moral judgement is based always upon considerations of responsibility and not of causality. In the moral realm, normal human actions alone are morally evaluated, not the natural events involving causality. On this reckoning, ahimsā is only a nonmoral property of the astanga yogin's conduct the aim of which is reaching a level of consciousness not generally available to the ordinary human The astanga yogin looks at himsa as the effect of covetousness (lobha), anger (krodha), and the delusion of mind which prevents one from discerning the truth (moha); and these three in turn are effects of enmity (dvesa), dvesa itself being a function of ignorance (ajñanamulaka vrtti). Himsa is the

basic dvesa. By observing ahimsa the effect (karva) of that ignorance which produces enmity (dvesarūpa ajñāna) is stopped. As the ajñana weakens, gradually the discerning awareness (viveka jnana) is strengthened, and there occurs perceptive understanding or knowledge (viveka-iñana-khvāti). The idea is this: Asuddhi, that is faulty understanding means not only ignorance (ajñāna) but also conduct consisting of actions rooted in ignorance (ajñanamulaka karma acarana). The discerning awareness and actions rooted in it (jnanamulaka karma) counters the effect of ajñana mulaka karma and results in asuddhi-ksaya which in turn produces, not in the sense of upadana karana but in the sense of prapti karana, perceptive understanding or knowledge (viveka-khvāti). A natural consequence of ahimsā ācarana is that all animate things (pranis) in the presence of the yogin whose whole conduct flows from ahimsa cease to have animosity (vaira) towards the yogin and also towards one another.

The yogin looks at ahimsā as sarvathā sarvadā sarva bhūtā-nāmanabhidrohah²³, that is the abstenence from malice towards all living creatures in every way and at all times, and this for him is a mahāvrata (the Great Course of Conduct) which is unconditioned by class, place, time and occasion (jāti deśa kāla samaya anvacchinna)²³ and in this sense it is universal (sārva bhauma). Whether this kind of ahimsā is possible or not I do not know. But, in no case can its logical possibility be denied; and given the yogic tradition and what reasonably one knows, believes, or accepts about aṣṭānga yoga as a technology³o and about samādhi one tends to affirm that this kind of ahimsā is a practical possibility within the means of man. But, surely, it is a serious mistake to characterize this concept as ethical in the contxt of aṣṭānga yoga.

Ahimsā is not even a social concept on the yogin's view. If it were a moral concept, it would necessarily be a social concept too. For, one cannot think of morality in isolation from some or the other relevant social context. The thesis that ahimsā is not a moral concept leaves open the question whether or not this concept is social. When I ask this question 'Is ahimsā a social concept?' I mean by it whether or not the ahimsā ācaraṇa of the aṣṭānga yogin presupposes or requires the existence of a social group in relation to which he observes ahimsā? On the aṣṭānga

yogin's view, it seems that it is neither a presupposition nor a requirement of ahimsā ācarana that there must be a human society. And, even if there is one, the vogin seeks to isolate himself from it. It follows that the existence of a social group is not at all required or presupposed by the vogin. However, ahimsā is a relation. It presupposes a certain environment. A part of this environment may be human beings. But, this is not a necessary condition. For, the environment may be comprised of any animate beings.31 It is immaterial to the yogin if this class includes human beings also. This is what Patañjali means when he defines ahimsa as 'nonkilling of anybody anywhere any time.'32 What matters to the vogin is that the ahimsa acarana is a complex of events which as their effect produce for him a certain condition of isolation or kaivalva as he calls it. Behaving the ahimsā way thus, for him, is to bring about the causal factors which at the end of the causal sequence produce kaivalya.

Let me restate my argument so far. (a) First, I formulated the moral criterion and said that the yogic ahimsā fails to satisfy this criterion. (b) Next, I gave a descriptive account of the yogin's view of ahimsā in order to show that what counts in yogic ahimsā is causality, while what matters in morality is responsibility. On the strength of both (a) and (b) I observed that the yogic ahimsā is not an ethical concept at all. It is easy to extend my argument to all the other yamas³³ in order to show them to be nonmoral concepts such that the conduct consistent with them cannot be said to be the subject of moral judgement.

The question 'Why after all should the astānga yogin practise ahimsa?' is not difficult to answer. We need not bring in his motivation irrelevant ethical or social considerations. The fact is that the yogin does not desire to have his mental equilibrium disturbed. Himsā is caused by lobha, krodha, and moha which, in turn, are caused by ajñāna. Ahimsā ācaraṇa enables him to restore and maintain his mental equilibrium which is so essential a part of his Technology³4 to reach samādhi ánd ultimately Kaivalya. There is no question of morality in this process.

Finally, I wish to make a remark or two with a view to showing that the aṣṭāṅga yogin's ahimsā is quite different from the new fangled Gandhian ahimsā.³⁵ Gandhi used ahimsā in

both politics and society36; and he used it as a creed, an act of faith, and also as a policy.37 Besides, on his view there is some himsā which is absolutely unavoidable38. Many a time he tried to differentiate ahimsā as a creed from ahimsā as a policy; but he seldom succeeded39. On one point, however, throughout his life, he remained clear when he called himself "an essentially practical man dealing with practical political questions "40. Unlike the Jaina and the yogic view of ahimsa he admits cases where one adopts the policy of ahimsā because one is unable, though not unwilling, to take recourse to himsa41. Besides, being a man of sound common sense. Gandhi does not deny the existence of situations in which the use of himsā is futile42 because the enemy is too very strong or it is impossible as for example in some cases of international relations. 43 Anyway, he used ahimsā as a tool of prudent political action, and therefore commended its relevance and reasonableness as a policy44. Clearly, his concept of ahimsa is quite at variance with the yogin's concept of ahimsa: and therefore the two cannot be confused with each other.

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NOTES

- 1. The Dictionary meaning of 'ahimsā' is 'harmlessness, abstaining from killing, giving pain to others in thought, word or deed'. However, the word is generally thought to be equivalent in meaning to 'nonviolence'.
- 2 Woods, James H., The Yoga System of Patañjali with Veda Vyasa's comment called Yoga Bhasya and Vacaspati Misra's Explanation called Tattva-vaisaradi. The Harvard Oriental Series Volume 17.

- 3. Ibid, Bk. II; pp. 101-200. 'Aṣṭānga yoga' means 'Eight aids to yoga'. The word 'yoga', however, defies English translation. Patañjali defines it as yogaḥ cittavṛtti nirodhaḥ. Bk. I, Sutra 2.
 - 4. I have in mind the interpretations which take ahimsā to be an ethical concept in the sense in which ahimsā conduct is morally judged to be good and himsā conduct bad. This interpretation has a common currency. For reference see any standard work on Indian Philosophy.
- 5. The Jaina thinkers were the first to place ahimsā in the social context. For them, ahimsā is the first principle of moral conduct. Conduct conforming to this principle is judged to be morally good. Vāman Shivarām Apte observes: "Ahimsā is one of the cardinal virtues of most Hindu sects; the Jainas deserve special credit for making it social virtue of good conduct among the Hindus". Practical Sanskrit English Dictionary, Volume I, p. 302. Poona 1977.
 - 6. Cf. Kant, Immanuel, Groundwork of the Metaphysics of Morals, particularly his two formulations of the Categorical Imperative one concerning universality and the other concerning kingdom of ends. Cf. also Kurt Baier, The Moral Point of View. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press; 1958. References are to this edition only.
 - Cf. Kant, op. cit.; also Baier, op. cit., pp. 187-213
 V. K. Bharadwaja, Naturalistic Ethical Theory, The University Press, Delhi University, Delhi; 1978, p. 41.
 - 8. Cf. Baier, op, cit., pp 215; 214-230.
 - 9. Cf. Baier, op. cit., His argument is quite different from mine, though we both share the same thesis.
- 10. Patañjali's Yoga Sūtra. Bk. II Sūtras 30, 31, 34 and 35.
- 11. For all English Translation, see Woods, op. cit.
- 12. Ibid.
- 13. Ibid.
- 14. The five yamas (abstentions) are abstinence from injury (ahimsā) and from falsehood (satya) and from theft (asteya) and from incontinence (brahmacarya) and from acceptance of gifts (aparigraha). See Woods, op. cit., p 178.

- 15. An English equivalent 'samadhi' is 'meditation'.
- 16. 'Kaivalya' is ordinarly translated as 'isolation'. It is isolation of the puruṣa from prakṛti. It is a level of existence where there is consciousness alone and nothing else.
- 17. 'ahimsāmūlaka' means 'rooted in ahimsā'.
- 18. 'himsa' is a opposite of 'ahimsa'.
- 19. Cf. Woods, op. cit., p. 172.
- 20. "After the aids to yoga have been followed up, when the impurity has dwindled, there is an enlightenment of perception reaching up to the discriminative discernment". Woods, op. cit., p. 172.
- 21. Veda Vyāsa's Comment on Sūtra 28: Yogāngānuṣṭhānama'suddherviyoga kāraṇam yathā parasuscchedyasya, vivekakhyātestu prāptikāraṇam yathā dharmaḥ sukhasya, nānyathā kāraṇa. For an English translation see, Woods, op. cit, p. 172.
- 22. Sellars W. and Hospers, J., Readings in Ethical Theory. New York, 1952.
- 23. Cf. Ross, Sir David, Aristotle, London: Methuen. 1964, reprint; p. 51F.
- 24. Veda Vyāsa's Comment on Sūtra 28: Woods, op. cit., pp. 173-174.
- 25. Ibid.
- 26. Ibid.
- 27. Ibid.
- 28. Woods, op. cit., p. 178.
- 29. Ibid, p. 180.
- 30. Bharadwaja, V. K., 'The Concept of Patañjali's Aṣṭāṅga Yoga' Indian Philosophical Quarterly, Volume VIII, No. 3, April, 1981; pp. 351-356.
- 31. Patañjali's Yoga Sutra, Bk. II, Sutra 35.
- 32. Woods, op. cit., p. 178.
- 33. The same as in 14 above.
- 34. Bhardwaja, V. K., op. cit.
- 35. Iyer, Raghavan N., The Moral and Political Thought of Mahatma Gandhi. O.U.P., 1973, pp. 177-222.
- 36. Ibid, p. 184.

- 37. Ibid, p. 192.
- 38. Ibid, p. 204.
- 39. Ibid, pp. 192-204.
- 40. Tendulkar, D. G., Mahātmā. (Eight Volumes) Vol. 6, p 48. Quoted by Iyer, Raghvan, op. cit., 193.
- 41. Iyer, Raghavan, op. cit., Iyer records Gandhi's confession in 1947 that the Congress had embraced the policy of *ahimsā* because they were unable, though unwilling, to use *himsā*.
- Kumar, Mahendra, Violence and Non-Violence in International Relations. Thompson Press, New Delhi, 1975.
- 43. Kumar, Mahendra, op. cit.
- 44. Iyer, Raghavan N op. cit., pp, 194-196.