SĀMKHYAN CAUSALITY THEORY AND THE CRITERION OF BEING (SAT)

It may not be surprising to students of Indian Hindu metaphysics to note that many modern evaluations of Sāmkhyan dualism serve to reveal the characteristic weaknesses of this philosophy, especially as these weaknesses are exposed and enunciated by Śankara, the Vedāntin. Such metaphysical incongruities as the vivekavāda, puruṣārthavāda, and samyogavāda, all of which are integral aspects of Sāmkhyan thought, are emphasized by modern writers and are used to illustrate the fundamental inadequacy of Sāmkhya as a philosophy in general. These emphases have led some thinkers to claim that: 2

The Sāmkhya is an outmoded thought now. The *Brahma* $S\bar{u}tras$ and the commentaries thereon have practically thrown overboard what was once a major philosophy of ancient India... It has only a historical value and its influence as a philosophy has practically disappeared.

Of a slightly more sympathetic view is S. Radhakrishnan who states³:

The Sāmkhya does not rise to the truth of monistic idealism, but is content to remain at the level of mere understanding, which insists upon the distinction between being and nonbeing, and regards the opposition between the two as real and their identity as unreal. It was not able to realise all that is involved in the questions it raised—questions the difficulty and importance of which have been brought to light by ages of conflict and controversy—still less to reach a satisfactory solution to them... the Sāmkhya analysis of experience prepared the ground for a more adequate philosophy.

Although it would be difficult to defend certain elements of $S\bar{a}\dot{m}khyan$ metaphysics against the charges of a Śaṅkara for example, I think that such conclusions as the ones cited above have missed the point of $S\bar{a}\dot{m}khyan$ discourse, more notably as it appears in the $S\bar{a}\dot{m}khya$ $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ of \bar{I} svarakṛṣṇa. I do not think

that the Sāmkhya darśana must be treated as a mere historical relic of some bygone era, nor can I conceive Sāmkhya as having failed to recognize many of the singularly important issues implied in its dualistic and salvational ontology. To the contrary, many of its metaphysical claims, e.g., that suffering or duhkha is an earmark of phenomenal existence (S. K. I), that suffering is due to the lack of discrimination or aviveka (S. K. XIV), that becoming or samsara is the consequence of our misapprehension of our identity with the material cosmos (prakrti) (S. K. XX), and that there does exist an alternative to our suffering in the specific form of purusa or immaterial spirit (S. K. LXII), are relevant questions for students of philosophy, especially insofar as these ideas strike to the very heart of provisional human existence viewed at interface with a far more substantial and enduring universe. This one feature, I believe, is the context of an abiding source of strength for Sāmkhyan metaphysical thought. It is this pre-eminent recognition of the mortality of man seen over and against a seemingly more permanent cosmos that serves as the foundation and initial point of enquiry for Sāmkhyan philosophy.

On the surface this recognition of the impuissance of individual man in opposition to the dominating mechanics of a physical universe may not appear to be all that revolutionary. Far from prompting us to explore further any implications that might arise out from such an understanding, we might just as well accept the minuteness of individual human existence (bhava) as an inexorable datum of existence (sat) in general. attitude is in fact what another philosophy of Indian Hinduism endeavours to convey.4 On the other hand it is this possibility, that man is merely one minute aspect along with countless others contained within the on-going genesis of the physical cosmos, which serves to stir the Sāmkhyan philosophical conscience; it is a reaction to the real possibility that man is little more than what he apprehends to constitute his life as it appears to him. This is the experiential context that characterizes Sāmkhyan discourse. For Sākmhya, our immediate experience of daily life results, in the final analysis, in the recognition that we ourselves are subject to a continual becoming (samsara) which ends inevitably in death. The Kārikā equates this continual becoming and death with the ultimate category of suffering (duhkha)5;

Because of the torment of the threefold suffering, (there arises) the desire to know the means of removing it. If (it is said that) this (desire - - i.e., enquiry) is useless because perceptible (means of removal are available), (we say) no, since (perceptible means) are not final or abiding.

Suffering occurs because of man's recognition that he is mortal. His recognition of his mortality originates out from his perception of the nature of the world (samsāra). His mortality is expressed in three ways: first, as personal or individual suffering (ādhyātmika), second, as externally conditioned suffering (ādhibhautika), and third, as universal or cosmic suffering (ādhidaivika), suffering is individual because of the various components comprising the psycho-physical constitution of man (e.g., the antaḥkarana — buddhi, ahaṃkāra and manas) (S. K. XXXIII); it is external because of the nature of the physical world (vyaktaguṇaprakṛti) (S. K. X—XIII); it is universal because everything of which man is comprised is likewise the very same as that which constitutes cosmic becoming itself (sargaprakṛti) (S. K. III & XII).

That the world is suffering is axiomatic for Sāmkhya. Residing behind this axiom, however, is the far more significant fact that it is only with a reflexive act of consciousness that man then is capable of recognizing the nature of his world and his relationship with it. The Sāmkhva Kārikā attributes this act of reflexive consciousness to the antahkarana or internal organ, which is comprised of the buddhi (i. e., intelligence, intellect, consciousness, intelligence-stuff or sattva-guna, and or will 7, ahamkara (transcendental ego, principle of individuation, and self-sense)8, and manas (the thought-organ, or that which has the "function of synthesising sense-data into percepts, suggesting alternative courses of action and carrying out the decress of the will through the organs of action"). 9 The buddhi (mahat), ahamkara, and manas are the first three evolutes or tattvas that emerge in the evolution (sarga) of primordial matter (avyaktaguna or mūlaprakrti) manifest, physical cosmos (vyakta-gunaprakrti). the Together they comprise all psychic or psychological functioning and the more specific function of the mind which is viewed as a synthesizing agent of raw sense (indriva) and the impulses arising out from the ahmkara and buddhi. What is important to note

here is that the nature and function of the antahkarana is predetermined by the evolution of primordial matter (Prakṛti). For Sāmkhya reflexive or self-consciousness is a consequence of sargaprakṛti. It is only with the generation of the cosmos, both in its collective and individual forms, that man or jiva is capable of recognizing the conditions of his own individual and particular being (bhūta) and more significantly as his particular being is illuminated by the characteristics of the world per se (bhūva).

To state categorically that man's existence, as it appears commensurately with the world is suffering is contingent upon the *immediacy* of his presence and the presence of the world itself; this, I believe, is the meaning of $S\bar{a}mkhya$ $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ II: 10

The revealed (or scriptural, means of removing the torment [duḥkha]) are like the perceptible [i.e., pramāṇas— [pratyakṣa, anumāna, āptavacana)] (—i.e., ultimately ineffective), for they are connected with impurity, destruction and excess; a different and superior method is the (discriminative [i.e., viveka]) knowledge of the manifest (vyakta), the unmanifest (avyakta) and the knowing one (or knower— i. e., puruṣa).

In this $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ Isvarakṛṣṇa has distinguished between the phenomenal world ($saṃs\bar{a}ra$), its appearance in the form of the context of human knowledge and the means of knowing ($pram\bar{a}/pram\bar{a}na$), and the conditions that determine the nature of human knowledge. In terms of man's knowledge, the act of reflexive consciousness apprehends two fundamental aspects of human experience: one, that human knowledge or consciousness (i.e., as understood within the idea of the antahkarana) is inadequate knowledge or suffering, and two, that the world itself, which is the ultimate framework or fabric in which human consciousness occurs, is the relational locus of man's confrontation with and participation in suffering. This fundamental apprehension may be understood as the recognition on the part of man that he is in the world of becoming.¹¹

The appearance of man at interface with his universe is attributed to his consciousness of his individuality in opposition to the cosmos (S. K. XXI). This interface, however, is apprehended always in terms of man's individual self-identity, i.e. ahmkāra/abhimāna (S. K. XXIV), in opposition to an otherwise imper-

sonal universe. Yet, although man cognizes the *de facto* reality of his existence ($bh\bar{u}ta$) in the world, he is driven nevertheless, says the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$, to account for his own position as a knowing entity within the world as he himself perceives it — in other words, man is in the world, but is he of that world?¹²

For the Sāmkhya Kārikā this distinction between man as a self-reflecting entity in the world and the cosmos itself is the philosophical crux that permeates phenomenal existence from top to bottom. Iśvarakṛṣṇa expresses this problem in terms of the doctrine of causation. The two theories of causation found in the Kārikā are the satkāryavāda (lit., theory of the pre-existent effect) and the satkāryaparināmavāda (lit; theory of the real modification of the pre-existent effect). As we have seen previously man in the form of the antaḥkaraṇa is just one of many tattvas or evolutes emerging along with the genesis of the material cosmos vyaktaprakṛti). His genesis is an ontologically real one, as is the phenomenal world too. The essential characteristic of this genesis is expressed in Sāmkhya Kārikā III: 14

Primordial nature (mūlaprakṛti) is uncreated [avikṛti]. The seven—the great one (mahat), etc.—are both created [vikṛti] and creative [prakṛti]. The sixteen [i.e. manas, buddhindriyas, karmendriyas, and mahābhūtas] are created. Puruṣa is neither created nor creative.

The law that undergirds and sustains prakrtic evolution is satkārvaparinama. Here two signal ideas appear: first, that man's world (bhava) is an ontologically real existence, i.e. the world is substantial existence (guna); second, that man's facility for conscious reflection is due entirely to causation which resides implicitly in the world. The significance of the latter point is that man's recognition of the world, of his existence in it, and his recognition of the apparent distinction between himself as a conscious entity in apposition to the world is determined by the universal appearance of cause and effect. Human consciousness, as it exists within the fabric of prakrtic generation, is contingent upon the ontological verity of causation, of an irrevocable relation of cause (prakrti/vikrti) and effect (vikrti), which is identical to the ontology of the universe. Human consciousness (and the knowledge that arises therein) is prescribed by the law of causation15:

The non-perception (of prakṛti) is because of its subtlety not because of its non-existence [asat]. Its apprehension is because of (or by means of) its effect. Its effect—the great one (mahat), etc.—is different from yet similar to prakṛti.

To conceive causation as a prescription of consciousness does not mean simply that we now know or are capable of knowing the essential nature of the world per se and that we can claim to know the origins of the cosmos. The Sāmkhyan satkārvaparināmavāda is not a simple construction arising out from a conceptual analysis of the perceived appearance of an effect (kārva). Causation is both perceived (pratvaksa) (S. K. V), and apprehended through inference (anumana) (S, K. V-VI). There does not exist any separation of perception from inference; antecedent to both is the law of cause and effect. In as much as satkaryaparinama is the ontological structure of man and of the world of becoming (samsāra), causation is the a priori condition or foundation of existence in general (sat). We may say here that the real purport of Sāmkhya's metaphysics is to reflect upon this a priori condition, acknowledging all along that it is precisely this condition that serves, in the final analysis, to reveal the alternative to phenomenal becoming in the form of purusa — the immaterial (aguna), inactive (akartrbhāva), and eternally free reality (kaivalya) as consciousness (cit/jñāna).16

It is at this point in our discussion that I assert that the real, and perhaps sole, concern of \overline{I} svarakṛṣṇa's Sāṃkhya $K\overline{a}rik\overline{a}$ is consciousness ($cit/j\widetilde{n}\overline{a}na$), specifically as consciousness is viewed as the singular alternative and salvational mode of man's becoming. It is here also that I assert that it is precisely because of this salvational concern that we can appreciate the timeless relevance of Sāṃkhyan metaphysics, especially for those philosophers who render the field of philosophy an exercise in the exegesis of Being.

The experiential context of Sāmkhya philosophy is causation. It is a foregone conclusion for Īśvarakṛṣṇa that (a) the phenomenal world (prakṛṭi) is real in the ontological sense of the term, (b) the cosmos is an ordered, i.e., causal, structure, (c) man participates wholly in the cosmos, (d) man is bound irreparably to the universe in the specific form of a chain of cause and

effect. The criterion under which the above conclusions are made is consciousness (S. K. XIV). To proclaim knowledge is to acknowledge the coincidence of consciousness with some thing; that is, self-reflection must needs be a consciousness of some content. Primordial matter or prakrti is comprised of three qualities (guna) which together constitute the ontological substance of matter—sattva, rajas, and tamas (S. K. XII-XIII). As we have seen primordial matter is both creative (prakrti) and uncreated (avikrti); the various tattvas are comprised of the gunas and are uncreated to the extent that they share the common characteristic of existence (sat). The tattvas are created in as much as causation serves to initiate a successive evolution of the psycho-physical components, e. g., buddhi, ahamkāra, manas. buddhindrivas, and karmendrivas, etc. which results in the emergence of the gross manifest universe. It is only the buddhi and ahamkāra, however, that are both created (vikrti) and creative (prakrti). Human consciousness (cit/inana) is created in as much as it is the first tattva that emerges out from the otherwise unmanifested state of primordial being (avyaktaprakrti). In causal terminology, buddhi represents the first manifestation of an effect (kārya) out from its representative and respective cause—the buddhi reflects a transition from a balanced state of gunaprakrti called sajātīvaparināma or homogeneous change to the causally coercive state of vijātīvanarināma or heterogeneous change (vyaktaprakrti). Human consciousness is creative insofar as buddhi reifies and continues the causal relation in the specific form of ahamkara. Human consciousness is uncreated because of the eternal contiguity of the gunas or qualities that preform and comprise the ontological status of primordial being (prakrti). For Tsyarakrsna the claim that human consciousness is uncreated. creative, and created (S. K. XXXIII) reveals the essential thrust of his metaphysical theory. Sāmkhya philosophy does not begin with an analysis of the natural world, neither does it begin with a pre-established ontology (for example, as is the case in Śankara's Advaita Vedanta). Iśvarakrsna's mataphysics is concerned with the appearance of an irrevocable confluence of thought as consciousness and the manifest, material cosmos, This confluence is viewed first as causation (satkarya), and second is interpreted as a specific kind of causal relation (Satkārvaparināma) (S. K. IX. XV-XVI). Under all circumstances I. P. O.-4

however, it is the paradox, given first in the form of an experience of human consciousness as it occurs along with a consciousness contained in the world that serves as the key to the discovery of the nature of human consciousness itself. Man is in the world of becoming. This fact is made clear because man alone can claim that he is conscious (ahainkara) and intelligent (buddhi). Man is also of the world, because he participates in a world which is understood as the sole criterion as real existence (sat) for his self-consciousness. The specific nature of the world is revealed by the fact of reflexive consciousness as it appears as an inexorable datum of man's experience in general. For the Sāmkhya Kārikā consciousness (cit/jnana) is an innate characteristic of phenomenal becoming (sargaprakrti) (S. K. XXV). In as much as consciousness is characteristic of the world, it likewise follows that it is only with the acknowledged immediacy of the de facto world i.e., the conscious recognition that the world exists as an immediately experienced datum of existence that human consciousness only then can proceed to apprehend itself in terms of its confrontation with the world. It is in this way that Isvarakrsna claims that human consciousness can pursue itself to its own origins, especially as these origins are seen as a recognition of the resolution of the act of human thought. This resolution is expressed as an intuitive realization (viveka) of the ground of reflexive consciousness in the special form of non-relational and impartite Consciousness (purusa).

The Relevance of Sāmkhya Philosophy

In having outlined some of the central aspects of Tśvarakṛṣṇa's philosophy I believe that a move can be made towards a reification of the relevance of Sāmkhyan thought for philosophical studies in Indian metaphysics. Although it is true that Sāmkhyan philosophy does succumb to certain metaphysical difficulties, the real significance for its claims reside in their reflection upon the quality of human existence. It claims that existence (sat) is suffering (duḥkha); that all of the various and connected experiences that comprise human existence are frought with pain. In saying this, Sāmkhya philosophy has sought to explore the veritable depths of human experience as this experience appears as a combination of individual existence (bhāta) and existence (bhāva)

as a category of phenomenal Being (sat). Sāmkhya begins with the recognition that man is in the world, that man sees himself at interface with the cosmos. It then proceeds to raise the question of whether or not man is a willing participant within and of the world. At this point Sāmkhya poses the far more radical question as to the origins of man's own consciousness, and specifically, as his consciousness appears as an awareness of his distinction as a knowing entity from the universe itself. The answer that Īśvara-kṛṣṇa gives us is that the world and man are identical to one another — that what appears initially as an overarching plenum of cause and effect is but the larger context for, and determining characteristic of, man's otherwise individual existence. The singular criterion of this inexorable identity is Being (sat).

Iśvarakṛṣṇa's emphasis upon a dualistic ontology of material substance (prakrti) in opposition to immaterial spirit is a problematical distinction. Yet, aside from the standpoint of a logic of metaphysics the Sāmkhya Kārikā endeayours to illustrate several characteristics which because of an act of reflexive consciousness (cit/inana) drive to the heart of issues implicit in all salvational philosophies. It is because of these questions and their characteristic universality that the Sāmkhya philosophy continues to exercise considerable influence, especially as this influence is viewed as a responsible call on the part of the thinker to respond to the basic questions of life. For the Kārikā the most improtart and initial point of the enquiry into life hinges upon the fact of Being (sat). In its specific form the enquiry into Being is a reaction to a collision between man as a particular being (bhūta) and the being of the world (bhāva). The ontological connecting-link between the latter two is consciousness which, for Isvarakrsna, is characterized always as an act of reflexive consciousness. Insofar as human consciousness is self-reflexive, and, which illuminates the fundamental rift between the individual man and the collective appearance of the cosmos, it is consciousness itself that not only prompts man to enquire into the nature of his phenomenal circumstances but also serves to illuminate the ground of his consciouseness. This ground is framed within the doctrine of cause and effect (satkāryparināma). Here, I believe, is the one signal contribution of Samkhya that stands as an irrepressible hall-mark of its metaphysics. Consciousness is the consequence of a causal relation.

It is determined by the appearance of the world and is also the creative agency of the ontological link between the act of consciousness and its appearance in the world. Man knows himself only insofar as he is willing to turn away from the world.17 What is implicit in this renunciation of the world is the acknowledgement on the part of man that the cosmos is never meaningful by itsealf, that the world is to be apprehended as the only reality of man's being. The universe is meaningful only in as much as man is cognizant of the fact of consciousness as the characteristic earmark of existence in general (sat). In this regard. Iśvarakrsna enlists causation as a methodological formula by which man can order his consciousness, and in so ordering then pursue the causal relation to its origins. In the pursuit of causation to its veritable origins, human consciousness then reveals to itself the terminus of the act of reflexive consciousness. This terminus is purusa the salvational mode of Being.

In summary I assert that Sāmkhya philosophy is far from an outmoded and insufficient system of metaphysical thought. Its basic claim, which is of supreme significance for all salvational ontologies, is that the world (vyaktaprakrti) is suffering (duhkha). Implicit in this claim are (1) that man must needs face the fact of his mortality, (2) that his recognition of his mortality is contingent upon his self-consciousness, (3) that his self-consciousness, although causally prescriptive of his existence and the existence of the world, finds its origins in a non-causal sphere of self-effulgent and impartite consciousness, (4) that the apperance of man and the world exists for the salvation of man as a sufferable entity, (5) that under no circumstances is the world meaningful other than from within the context of salvation (as consciousness), and (6) that thought serves only one essential purpose—the self-revelation of the context of the phenomenal world of becoming which, according to the Kārikā, is seen ideally as an ultimate resolution of the dichotomy of man as a suffering agent within an otherwise unsufferable criterion of Being.

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NOTES

- 1. See Sankara's bhasya on Brahma-Sutra II, 2. 1-10.
- K. B. Rao, Theism of Pre-Classical Sāmkhya (Mysore: University of Mysore Press, 1966), p. 3.
- Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan, Indian Philosophy (London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1953), II, p. 334.
- 4. Carvaka darsana. See, Radhakrishnan, Indian Philosophy.
- G. J. Larson, Classical Sāmkhya (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1969)
 S. K. I. p. 257.
- 6. See Gaudapāda's bhūṣya on Sāmkhya Kārikā I in The Sāmkhya Kārikā ... by Iśvara Krishna, trans. Henry Thomas Colebrooke, and, The Sāmkhya Kārikā ... with the Bhūṣhya or Commentary of Gaudapāda [sic], ed. and trans. Horace Hayman Wilson (Oxford: A. J. Valpy, 1837).
- See, various authors and texts: Edgerton. Beginnings of Indian Philosophy, pp. 343-344; Dasgupta, History of Indian Philosophy, I, p. 249; Johnson, Early Sāmkhya, p. 82; Larson, Sāmkhya, p. 200., etc.
- See, Edgerton, Beginnings, p. 356; Radhakrishnan, Philosophy, I, p. 268; Johnston, Sāmkhya p. 83; Frauwallner, History of Indian Philosophy, I, p. 398., etc.
- See, Edgerton Beginnings, p. 350; Radhakrishnan, Philosophy, I, pp. 269-270., etc.
- 10. Larson, Sāmkhya, p. 256.
- 11. Ibid., p. 168.
- 12. S. K. IV-VI.
- A synonym for the satkāryapariņāmavāda is the vikāravāda; see, Larson, Sāmkhya, p. 179.
- 14. Larson, Sāmkhva, p. 258.
- 15. Ibid., S. K. VIII, p. 260.
- 16. S. K. XI and XIX.
- 17. See S. K. LXI-LXII.

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