THE PROBLEM OF PERCEPTIBILITY OF DIK (SPACE), KĀLA (TIME), AND KRIYĀ (MOTION): A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE DEBATE BETWEEN THE NAIYĀYIKAS AND THE MĪMĀMSAKAS

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Abstract: This paper attempts to concentrate on the examination of the thesis that dik (space) and kàla (time), and kriyā (motion) are perceptible. The first objective of this paper is to discuss the views of the Bhāṭṭa Mīmāmsakas and the Naiyāyikas concerning the perceptibility of dik (space) and kàla (time). The second objective of this paper is to discuss the debate between the Pràbhākara Mīmāmsakas and the Naiyāyikas with regard to the perceptibility of kriyà or karma (motion). Regarding the perceptibility of kriyà or karma (motion), the Naiyàyikas, the Pràbhàkaras, and the Bhàṭṭas differ. According to the Pràbhàkaras, kriyà is never perceptible, and it is to be inferred. However, according to the Naiyāyikas and the Bhāṭṭas, in normal conditions, kriyā or karma is perceptible if the locus of kriyā is perceptible. We shall try to support our interpretation from the respective schools of philosophy texts.

Both the Nyàya and the Mīmāmsā philosophies are realistic and pluralistic. Being Realists, they admit the thesis that the object of cognition can exist independent of cognition and the cognizing mind. In other words, the external object exists as something over and above cognition. They also admit that the nature of things can be known through pramāna-s. Neither the Nyāya philosophy nor the Mīmāmsā philosophy admits the functional or transitory state of worldly objects as only apparent. For them, 'something exists' means it exists ultimately. Both these philosophies in this context differ fundamentally from the views of the Idealistic Buddhist schools and Advaita Vedànta. Despite being realistic and pluralistic, the Nyàya and the Mīmāmsā philosophers differ from each other in many issues. Again, the Mīmāmsā Philosophy has two schools represented by Kumàrila Bhatta and Prabhàkara Miśra, respectively. They also differ regarding the perceptibility of motion, which is in Sanskrit called kriya or karma. Let us first discuss the debate between the Nyàya and the Mīmāmsā philosophers concerning dik (space), kàla (time) etc. Both the Pràbhàkaras and the Bhāṭṭas agree with the Naiyàyikas to the view that both dik (space) and kàla (time) are ubiquitous (vibhu) in nature. For them, though dik is one and kàla is one, we conceive both as many because of certain conditions (upàdhi). In this respect, dik and kàla resemble àkaśa. Both the Nyàya and the Pràbhàkara philosophers admit śabda as the guṇa (quality) of àkàśa. However, according to the Bhàttas, śabda is a separate variety of substances. For the Naiyāyikas and the Pràbhàkaras, dik, kāla, and ākāśa are not perceptible, whereas, for the Bhāttas, these three are perceptible. The perceptibility of $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\dot{s}a$ is complicated and a

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matter of long debate, which is difficult to accommodate in this short expository essay. For brevity, let us concentrate on the examination of the thesis that *dik* (space) and *kàla* (time) are perceptible. Again, regarding the perceptibility of *kriya* or *karma* (motion), the Naiyàyikas, the Pràbhàkaras, and the Bhàṭṭas differ. According to the Pràbhàkaras, *kriya* is never perceptible, and it is to be inferred. However, according to the Naiyāyikas and the Bhāṭṭas, in normal conditions, *kriya* or *karma* is perceptible if the locus of *kriya* is perceptible. In section A of this essay, we shall discuss the main arguments of the debate between the Bhāṭṭa Mīmāṁsakas and the Naiyāyikas concerning the problem of perceptibility of dik and kāla. Nārāyaṇa Bhaṭṭa discusses the most popular presentation of the Bhāṭṭa view in *Mānameyodayaḥ*. He gave the list of perceptible objects in the following verse:

1 Indriyavyatiriktāni dravyaṇyeṣāṁcajāṭayaḥ/ prāyeṇa guṇakarmāṇi pratyakṣāṇītivakṣyate//21//

That is to say, according to Nārāyana Bhatta, perceptible objects are indriyas, dravyas other than indriya-s, jāti inhering in dravya-s, and the maximum number of guna and karma or krivà. Accordingly, it is admitted that dik and $k\bar{a}la$ are perceptible. However, the Nyāya philosophers do not admit this thesis of perceptibility of dik and kāla. All perceptible objects must have two necessary characteristics; say mahatparimāṇatva and udbhutarūpatva. These two conditions are necessary for the perceptibility of any object. There is the absence of $r\bar{u}pa$ (formless) in dik and $k\bar{a}la$, so these are devoid of perceptibility. The existence of dik and $k\bar{a}la$ is established by inference. In the section devoted to Sādharma-vaidharmya-prakaraṇa of Padārthadharmasamgraha Praśastapāda states that "trayānāmpratyaksarūpavattvadravatvāni." 2 It implies that according to the Vaiśeṣika philosophers, earth, water, and fire are three perceptible substances, but dik and $k\bar{a}la$ are non-perceptible. According to the Prābhākaras, like rūpavattva (having formability), sparśavattva (having touch-ability) too is a necessary condition for the perceptibility of a substance. Since dik and kāla are devoid of touch-ability, sparśaśūnya, these cannot be claimed as perceptible. Here a pertinent question may arise: Why do the Bhattas admit dik and kāla as perceptible? How far do they give the reasons satisfactorily? It will lead us to the following sub-section A1.

A1. The Bhāṭṭas admit the perceptibility of dik and $k\bar{a}la$. For them, $k\bar{a}la$ is perceptible by all indriya-s. It is a distinguishing mark $(mudr\bar{a})$ of the Bhàṭṭas. Most philosophers admit that amidst all external sense organs, only organs of seeing and touch can yield the cognition of substance. It means that the other three sense organs cannot yield the cognition of substance. There is no such instance of cognition where $k\bar{a}la$ (time) is not cognized as the object of cognition $(naso'stipratyayoloke\ yatrak\bar{a}lonabh\bar{a}sate)$, and this indirectly shows that $k\bar{a}la$ is cognizable by all senseorgans. Whatever is the object of cognition, it is cognized either as an object of past or present, or future. The object of memory is always cognized as something of the past, the object of perception is always cognized as a matter of present

¹ See, *Mānameyodayaḥ*, (text with Bengali Translation by DinanathTripathi), Sanskrit College Research Series, No. CXXXVIII, Calcutta, 1990, p. 44.

² Praśastapādabhàṣya named 'Padārthadharmasamgraha' (text with Bengali translation by Anamika Raychoudhury), published by T.K Raychoudhyry, Kolkata, 2017, p.87.

(samvandhamvartamanancagrhyatecakṣurādina), and the object of indirect impression (anubhava) becomes something of past or present or future in consideration of the contextual variations. Suppose we see a lump of ashes, and now we can infer that there was a fire. However, in the case of the perception of smoke in a hill, we can infer that the hill in the context has fire. We can very well infer the forthcoming rain from the perception of the raising of dark and thick clouds in the sky. As we already said that in the case of indirect impression, we have the cognition of the past, present, and future. Past, present, and future are the terms that qualify $k\bar{a}la$. Since the object of perception is always operational in the present time, it is to be admitted that here "time ($k\bar{a}la$)" it is perceptible. Whatever is cognized in perception is graspable only by sense-organs. It is also to be admitted that as the qualification or adjective of the object of perception is $k\bar{a}la$, "time" and therefore, $k\bar{a}la$, time is also to be admitted as perceptible. For the same reason, "present-ness (vartamànatva)" is a necessary condition of all perceptible objects. There is no other alternative than to admit 'time' as something perceptible by all sense-organs.

A2. There may be further arguments in favor of the perceptibility of 'time' (kàla). When we perceive two events, we cognize them as either in order of former and latter or as simultaneous. Similarly, some events seem to happen first, some as slow or late. This sense of order, simultaneity, rapidity or late happening of events etc. is characteristic of "time." If sense-organs cognize objects with these characteristics, then the object itself with these characteristics must be admitted as perceptible. It is interesting in the passing to see how Jayanta Bhatta³ apprehended two objections in the form of pūrvapakṣa (opponent's position). Similar arguments we see in the Bhāttas in favor of the perceptibility of $k\bar{a}la$. Let us consider the following instances: "The chair is upon the platform," "The chair is nearer to me, but the table is away from me," and "This house has a tank in the western side and a garden on the eastern side" are some of the examples where the objects of perceptual cognition are cognized as having spatial-relation (having deśikasambandha). Therefore, as in the afore-said cases of perception of the objects having spatiotemporal relations (deśika-kàlika-sambandha), it must be admitted that space and time are also perceptible in those particular cases. However, though both dik and $k\bar{a}la$ (space and time) are perceptible for the Bhàttas there are differences between the two. Though kāla is perceptible by all sense-organs, dik is not. The objects of our internal (mental) perception, such as pleasure-pain, etc., though appear as the qualities of the self, they never appear as space-characterized objects. To emphasis on this point Jayanta Bhatta "avamsāmānvatvāt pūrvāparādi says, pratyayagamyādigapipratyaksā veditavyeti."

A3. The thesis that "dik (space) and $k\bar{a}la$ (time) are not perceivable because they are objects devoid of any arisen form $(udbh\bar{u}ta-r\bar{u}pa)$ " is the view of the Nyāya

^{3 &}quot;pratyakşagamyatāmevakecit kālasyamonvate/viśeṣatayākārya protyayepratibhāsanāt // krameṇayugapatkṣipramcirātkṛtamitīdṛśāh/ pratyayānāvakalpatekaryamātrāvalamvanāḥ//." Then he concludes by saying na hi viṣayātiśayamantarenapratibhāsātiśayo 'vakalpate. Jayantabhaṭṭa, Nyàyamañjarī, ed. Suryanarayana Sukla, Beneres, Chowkhamba, 1971 reprint (1936).

philosophers. Philosophers of the Bhātta school of Māmarisa have objections to it. For them, what is known in the cognition gained through sense-organ as the instrumental cause (indriya-karaṇaka-jñāna) is the object of perception. This rule is logically sound. Let us take an example. If a person's eyes are not open, that person cannot see anything characterized by deśa or kāla. A necessary condition for such a perceptual cognition is that the eye of the cognisor must be "open". Our visual senseorgan is the instrumental cause (karana) for such cognitions. It is established by the afore-said example of reason based on similarity and dissimilarity. Both dik and $k\bar{a}la$ are to be admitted as cognized by the visual sense organs or eyes. Jayanta Bhatta, a supported this contention "nacānudghātākṣasyakṣiprādipratyayodayaḥ/tadbhāvānubidhānenatasmātkālastucāk susah//." (Ibid.) Again, it is true that a thing having a form or not having a form cannot be a necessary condition for its perceptibility or non-perceptibility. Cow-ness (gotva), pot-ness (ghatatva) etc. are perceptible despite not having any form. On the other hand, the ultimate indivisible elements (paramānu) of earth or fire, though does have form, neither of these are perceptible. It shows that in the case of Dik and Kāla "being not having a form" (rūpa-rahitattva) cannot be called the sufficient condition for the imperceptibility of Dik and $K\bar{a}la$.

A4. Now here arises another essential question: How the Naiyāyikas would respond to the rejoinder given by the Bhāṭṭas? They could simply say that "the Bhāttas' answer is inappropriate." The Naiyāyikas never said that all objects "having no form" are imperceptible. For them, apart from the substance (dravya) there are other independent ontological categories such as quality (guna), action (karma), universal (sāmānya), absence (abhāva) etc. that are perceptible. As they all are different from the substance, these are devoid characterized by a quality (gunarahita), and as quality, it has the tie of inherence with substance. Form (råpa) is a kind of quality and the other objects just mentioned are formless. The Naiyāyikas also admit this. The statement that "all formless objects are imperceptible" is the logical ground (hetu) of the arguments of the Bhāttas. The claim is that "all objects having form are perceptible" and therefore, the paramāņu of the earth is perceptible. However, this is not justified, according to the Nyāya philosophers. If anything is an object of perception, it must have a perceptible form (udbhūtarūpa). The paramāņu of earth etc. though, have some form, but that same form is not udbhūta-rūpa which is only perceptible.

So in our humble opinion, the Nyāya thesis that "the paramānu of earth, etc. are not perceptible" is likely to act as merit instead of blemish. Iṣṭāpatti is not capable of refuting any thesis; rather indirectly gives a defense to the thesis in question. We know that the controlling characteristic ($niy\bar{a}makatva$) of the perceptibility of any substance is the presence of perceptible form, and there is no exception to this rule. Both dik and $k\bar{a}la$ (space and time) are substances, and neither of these has perceptible quality. It is the reason for which the Nyāya philosophers say that the existence of these two types of substance is imperceptible and is to be admitted as known by inference.

A5. The Nyāya philosophers can give further arguments in order to refute the view of the Bhāṭṭa Mīmāṁsakas. It is indeed true that the Bhāṭṭa Mīmāṁsakas,

despite recognizing the perceptibility of dik and $k\bar{a}la$ there is a further compulsion for them to admit that these two substances are exhibited (pratyamāṇa) as adjectives of other objects. However, a little reflection would suggest that all perceptible objects are not cognized as adjectives (viśeṣaṇa) of other objects. At least in some cases, those objects are cognized as viśesya or nouns and as an independent. Let us consider an instance like "John is seen with a stick in hand ." Here 'the stick' independent of any person, can be an object of cognition. It is not a necessary condition for a stick to be seen as an adjective with a person. From this analogical instance, the Nyāya philosophers can argue that as dik and $k\bar{a}la$ as objects are never seen as an independent subject (viśesya) or conditioned by other character/s as a subject (viśesya), it is not proper to consider them as perceptible. Furthermore, what is reflected as the character (viśeṣaṇa) of the object in the arguments supported with an example of the Bhāttas is, in fact, nothing but *upādhi*, the condition of *dik* or *kāla*. These two ubiquitous substances, namely dik and $k\bar{a}la$, each by nature is one and indivisible. What is characterized by distinct quantity is called mūrtta-dravya (existent things)? They are used as upādhi or the condition of dik such as east of, west of, near to, distance from etc. In the like manner, there arisen or effectuated objects are used as $up\bar{a}dhi$ or condition of $k\bar{a}la$, and because of this, imagine different parts of the same kāla and call it using the adjective "before", "after", simultaneous, order, motion etc. Neither dik nor kāla is not by nature cognized as a "character" adjective (viśesana). The view that dik and kāla are not cognized as subjects (viśesva)' is admitted by the Bhāttas themselves. So we cannot claim the perceptibility of dik and kāla with the arguments given by the Bhāttas. In this perplexing situation, the Naiyāyikas argue that dik and kāla are always to be known by inference. In support of their contention, the Naiyāyikas further say that it is not always true to say that atiśaya, excess in appearance (pratibhāsa), is caused by the excess(atiśaya) of "object." In many instances, because of differences in the cause or instrumental condition, we have differences in cognition. To make it clear, let us take an example. "That is this John" is an instance of recognition. This kind of cognition is perceptual (pratyakṣātmaka), but this kind of cognition is not only due to the sense-organ. However, there is sense-object-contact (sannikarşa) between Smith and the senseorgan. A person who had seen Smith earlier has the recognition of Smith now again through perception. However, one who did not see Smith earlier cannot have such recognition, although that person does have the perception of Smith. What might be the cause of such recognition? The answer would be this: the person who had perceived Smith earlier has that impression inhering in his Self. That impression, though imperceptible, may appear as a subsidiary episode, and for this reason, the person in the question has that type of recognition. The person who did not have any perceptual cognition of Smith earlier cannot have such an impression of having inherence relation in his Self. Therefore he does not have any recognition of Smith. Because of this analysis, the Naiyāyikas say that just as impression itself, despite being imperceptible, may act as an auxiliary or subsidiary condition in the case of perception-oriented recognition. Similarly, dik and $k\bar{a}la$ function as the auxiliary conditions of perception, although they are imperceptible. As a result, we have the perceptual cognition of nearness, distance, simultaneity etc. Each dik and kāla is one and devoid of any internal difference. Moreover, they do not appear as an adjective to any other object in perception; that is to say, they do not appear as a "perceptual noun," and all admit this.

We have discussed the debate between Naiyāyikas and Bhāṭṭa Mīmāmsakas regarding the perceptibility of dik and $k\bar{a}la$. Let us now (in section B) consider another question: Is kriya or karma (motion) perceptible? Here the debate, unlike the debate regarding the perceptibility of dik and $k\bar{a}la$, centres around the Naiyāyikas and the Prabhākara Mīmāmsakas.

B1. We have seen that in some cases, due to other conditions, both the Naiyāyikas and the Bhāttas admit the perceptibility of karma or kriyā. However, according to the Prabhākara Mīmāmsakas, all cases of karma or kriya are imperceptible. Here an interesting consideration may arise. In the Śābarabhāṣya of the Jaiminisūtra "sankhyābhāt" (1.1.20), both buddhi and karma are described as "imperceptible." ⁴ The Prābhākara Mīmāmsakas." ⁵ view seems to be more consistent with Śābarabhāsya. Though usually, the Bhāttas follow the line of philosophical thinking of Śabara Swāmī, it is difficult to explain why they differ from their usual adherence to Sabara Swāmī. However, in our usual understanding, we claim that the karma (krivā) or motion inhering from the perceptible object is also the object of our perception. Suppose a person I have seen in a standing position starts walking. We can very well perceive that person's 'un-moving-position' in the earlier position and the 'moving-position' in his subsequent state of affairs. Now, if we were to admit the imperceptibility of all kriyās or karmas, we would not be able to distinguish between what is "unmoving" and what is 'moving' among objects. Since there exists agreement and disagreement (co-presence and co-absence) between sense-object contact and the cognition of motion (kriyà) and that cognition is the effect of senseobject-contact, it is justified to admit it as perceptual. If this is universally acceptable, then why do the Prābhākara Mīmāmsakas consider all karma-s as imperceptible? Is it because of their blind adherence to $\dot{Sabarabhasya}$ that they disagree with admitting the universally established truth? What might be the possible arguments in favor of the position of the Prābhākara Mīmāmsakas? For this, we are to see the next section.

B2. To address the afore-said questions, the Prābhākara Mīmāmsakas might argue that it is true that we do not directly perceive motion (*karma* or *kriyà*). However, we perceive it in the effects like orderly difference (disjunction) and conjunction produced from *karma*-s. After this episode of conjunction and difference in continuation of *karma*, the motion is cognized by inference. A moving object always moves from one place to another place, and for this, the object in question must destroy the conjunction with the previous place and then establish new conjunction with the subsequent place. If that moving object were the cause of this

⁴ Śabara Swàmã, Māmàmsàsåtrabhàşya, ed. M. Nyàyaratna, Bibliotheeca Indica 45, Calcutta, Asiatic Society, 1889; also see, Bhūtanātha Saptatīrtha (Chattopadhyay), Māmàmsàdarśanam (Bengali translation and annotation of Mīmànsàsåtra of Jaimini with Bhàşya of Śabara, 2 vols, Basumati Sahitya Mandira, Calcutta, 1345 Bengali Era (1938 AD), vol 1, p. 62.

⁵ For details see, Śàliknàtha, *Prakaraṇapañcikà*, ed. A. Subramanya Śāstri, Benares, Benares Hindu University, 1961.

continuous conjunction-disjunction or division ($vibh \grave{a} ga$) process, then we are to admit that it would always be in motion. Nevertheless, it does not happen as apprehended. That is why there must be some cause which is something over and above this conjunction-disjunction process, and this must be known by inference. This additional cause is karma or $kriy\bar{a}$. In this way, the existence of karma is established. Conjunction-division-continuity etc. is known by perception, and only after this $kriy\bar{a}$ -s are inferred as caused by conjunction-division continuity.

B3. Here arises another essential question: Let us take an example, "Smith is moving." It is a sentence expressing the cognition of the perceptible object. Here the act of motion $(kriy\bar{a})$ is usually recognized as something perceptible. However, suppose the conditions of perception and inference are found simultaneously operative in any particular case. In that case, the case in question must be admitted as perceptible because the force of the conditions of perception is more powerful than the conditions of inference. It is thus futile to use inference in knowing something knowable by perception. When a person can perceive an elephant, no intelligent person feels any need to employ inference to know the elephant's existence from the roaring of the said elephant.⁶

However, why the Prābhākaras are, so egger to say that karma or kriva is imperceptible? They argue that though a moving object is perceptible, its motion is not perceptible. Though all perceptible objects contain motion, motion itself, by rule, cannot be said to be perceptible. Whenever we perceive the sun, we see it as nonmoving and not a moving object. Nevertheless, there is motion in the sun, which is known by inference. We see the sun in the east in the early morning, upon our head in mid-noon, and in the evening in the west as the sun-set. If there were no (daily) motion in the sun, then this variation of its existence we cannot explain. We never say that the motion of the sun is perceptible. The same is the case with the earth. It moves around the sun, and we cannot understand through the perception that the earth is moving. So it is pertinent to say that a moving object may be perceptible, but the motion inheres in the said object is not perceptible. Due to erroneous cognition, we think that with sense-object-contact, there are both "co-presence and co-absence affairs" (anvaya-vyatireka) in our cognition of motion (kryā-jñāna). However, the fact is that because of sense-object-contact in that case, the cognition of the continuous process of conjunction-division takes place, and from such cognition, the cognition of the caused-motion arises. There would be the context of irrelevancy (anyathāsiddhi-prasanga), just as in case the potter's father is an irrelevant factor in the production of the pot because the sense-organ itself, in reality, becomes the cause of the cognition of motion. If this is so, then the sense-organ cannot be called the cause of the cognition of motion. From this, it becomes evident that motion cognition cannot be called perceptible. After producing the cognition of the determinants like conjunction-division of motion, the sense organs become weak and cannot produce the cognition of motion. In short, according to the Prābhākaras, only the moving

⁶ We may recall Vàcaspati Miśra for his interesting remark made for a similar situation, "na hi karaṇidṛṣṭecītkāreṇatamanumīmate prekṣāvantaḥ." See, Vācaspati Miśra, *Tātparyatīkā*, ed. R. S. Dravid, Varanasi, 1925.

object and the subsequent conjunction and disjunction produced by the motion (*kriyā*) are perceptible, but the motion itself is imperceptible. ⁷ Co-presence and co-absence by any sense-organ are exhausted when we perceive the conjunction and disjunction. So, there is no other way than to use inference for such cognition. ⁸ It is an example of *kārya-lingaka-anumiti* (inferential cognition which is gained through effect as the *linga* or reason). That is why a philosopher of Prābhākara school of Mīmāmisā named Varada- viṣṇu Miśra, who is also known as Bhaṭṭa Viṣṇu, has beautifully expressed this fact. Bhaṭṭaviṣṇu has said, "*parokṣam karma karmatvādādityagatakarmavat/Akṣtadbhāvabhāvitvam kṣīṇam lingasya darśane//,*" that is to say; "Action is supersensuous, because it is an activity, like the activity present in the sun. The presence of the sense of sight where that action is present is exhausted with the perception of the probans." ⁹ If we carefully examine what is said in the second half of the above verse immediately, it clarifies our common-sense way of looking at things.

B4. But in the history of Indian philosophy, we see that both the Naiyāyikas and the Bhāṭṭas have vehemently objected to the afore-said position of the Prābhākaras. They might argue that the inference cited by Varadaviṣṇu Miśra has the blemish of asādhāraṇahetu (uncommon reason). Because the reason (hetu) used in that inference only pakṣatàmàtra-vṛtti (having only the nature of being subject).

They would further say that if the cognition of the motion of Smith is exclusively a matter of the continuity of conjunctions and divisions, then in the instance of "Smith moves" instead of a complex unitary cognition, we would have simple cognitions like "Smith is having conjunction and division" (samyujyatevibhajyateca). Apart from this, both conjunction and division are qualified by two qualities. In that case, it is to be admitted that the object, which is the locus of conjunction and division, is to be inferred as having motion. Let us consider another example. Suppose in a trunk that is non-movable by nature, the birds come and sit and afterward leave the trunk. Here the fact of conjunction and disjunction or division is equally applicable with the trunk and the birds. Now do the Prābhākaras admit that a trunk is also a moving object? We move on the earth, and we have both conjunction and disjunction with a part of the earth by our legs. Should we say instead of "I am walking" "the earth is walking"? It is not a fact verified by our experience. When we see pieces of stone in the river's tide, we understand the tide as moving and not the stone. So the object for which conjunction-disjunction etc. are taking place is inferred. When the locus of the motion (kriyà) is a paramànu, the ultimate indivisible unit of the object is by nature beyond the range of perception (atīndriya). The relation of conjunction and division or disjunction of paramànu with other objects is also, by nature, beyond the range of

⁷ Prakaraṇapañjikā of Śāliknātha Miśra, ed. A. Subramanya Śāstri, Benares Hindu University, 1961, p.79.

⁸ "Nanu samyogavibhāgabhyāmeva karmāmeyam. Tenendriyānvayavyatirekau samyogavibhāgadarśnopakṣīnu. Tasmādananyathāsiddhatvamasiddhameva." See, *Mānameyodaya of Nārāyaṇa* (An Elementary Treatise of the Mīmāmsā), edited with an English Translation by C. Kunhan Raja and S. Suryanarayana Śāstri, The Adyar Library and Research Centre, Series No 105, Madras, 1975, p. 283.
⁹ Ibid, 283.

perception (atīndriya). In that case, the motion cannot be known through inference. Again, it may still be argued that motion is known through inference from the so-called conjunction and divisions belonging to "the body and the space." Nevertheless, this is absurd because though the body is movable, space (dik) by nature is devoid of motion. The body's conjunction or division (disjunction), an object of perception, cannot serve as a sufficient condition for motion inferred in the perceived body.

In view of these difficulties, the Naivàvikas do not admit the Pràbhàkaras' thesis that "motion (kriyà) is known through inference." 10 The Bhātṭa Mīmāmsakas advance the similar arguments against the thesis of Pràbhàkara-s. For the Bhāṭṭas, what is said by Bhattaviṣṇu is logically faulty; because non-perceptibility or inferability, according to Naiyāyikas, is conditioned by a universally concomitant relation or vyāpti arising from the absence of the not otherwise explained co-presence and coabsence of the sense-organ.otherwise explained co-presence and co-absence of the sense-organ'. It may lead to the absurdity of assuming motion $(kriy\bar{a})$ in the post because of "the conjunction and disjunction of a hawk" with the post. 12 Even if, for the sake of argument, we admit the non-perceptibility of motion $(kriv\bar{a})$, then we cannot say that there is motion because, for any conjunction or disjunction, the presence of non-inherent cause (asamavāvi-kārana) is a necessary condition. In such a case, the conjunction of the body with the self $(\bar{a}tm\bar{a})$ exercising volition can serve as a necessary condition. Here the admission of motion $(kriy\bar{a})$ becomes redundant. However, "how does the conjunction with the body of a soul exercising volition produce the effect called conjunction in some space which is different from its abode and what is inherent in that abode?"13 So motion is to be admitted only as of the noninherent cause (asamavāyi-kāraṇa). Nevertheless, this argument is not tenable, according to the Bhāttas. Because even the conjunction between two anu (atom) is cognized to give rise to a third one as its effect, and it is an admitted promiscuous rule that one is different from the locus of that conjunction and from what is inherent in that locus.

Because of the above consideration, the Bhāṭṭas, like the Naiyāyikas and unlike the Prābhākaras, say that motion $(kriy\bar{a})$ is known by perception alone. ¹⁴

¹⁰ Nyāyakandalī of Śrīdhara, ed. D. Jha, Varanasi, Sanskrit Vishva-Vidyalaya, 1963, p.195; also see, Śāstradīpikā of Pārthasārathi Miśra, (with English translation by D. Venkatramiah) Baroda Oriental Institute, 1940, p.71.

¹¹ See, Mānameyodaya of Nārāyaṇa (An Elementary Treatise of the Mīmāmsā), edited with an English Translation by C. Kunhan Raja and S. Suryanarayana Sastri, The Adyar Library and Research Centre, Series No 105, Madras, 1975, p. 283.

[&]quot;samyogavibhāgamātrasyaiva netragocaratve tābhyām ca karmānumāne syenasamyogavibhāgabhyām sthānāvapikarmakalpanaprasangāt." Ibid, p. 284.
13 Ibid, p. 288.

¹⁴ "ataḥ pratyakṣeṇaiva karmasiddhiḥ," Ibid, p. 289.