# NATURE OF SELF AS REFLECTED IN THE JAINA PHILOSOPHY –A CRITICAL EXPOSITION

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#### **Abstract**

The philosophical schools of India, may be grouped as Brāhmanic and non- Brāhmanic. Buddhist literature appears to speak of all the non-Brāhmanic systems as Śramanas. Of these Śramana sects, Buddhism and Jainism occupy the foremost rank. Among those who believe that there are infinite numbers of independent souls which are all pure and perfect in their original nature, the Jaina tradition is first and foremost. Indian philosophy has discussed about the self or soul in an ordered form since the Upanişadic period. The three common terms jīva, ātman and brahman are used to denote the idea of the self. According to the Jainas, the soul, by itself, is imperceptible, but its presence can be found out by the presence of its characteristic qualities in a material body. Its chief characteristic is consciousness, which is accompanied by sense activity, respiration, and a certain period of existence in a particular body. Thus, this paper is a critical explanation on the nature of self from the viewpoint of Jainism.

The philosophical schools of India, may be grouped as Brāhmaṇic and non- Brāhmaṇic. Brāhmaṇic is referred to as āstika and non- Brāhmaṇic as nāstika. Āstika represents the systems which recognize the Vedas and their branches as supreme authority. Sāmkhya, for example, is regarded as a Brāhmaṇic system, since it has accepted the authority of the Vedas. Buddhism and Jainism are considered to be non-Brāhmaṇic, because they do not recognize the

authority of the Vedas. Buddhist literature speaks of all the non-Brāhmaṇic systems as Śramaṇas in the common phrase 'samaṇā vā brāhmaṇā vā'. Here the word brāhmaṇa refers to orthodox schools. According to the tradition preserved in Tamil literature, Śramaṇa represents three sects, viz., Aṇuvādins(Pakudha Kaccāyana's sect), Ājīvikas(Ājīvakas) and Jainas. Of these Śramaṇa sects, Buddhism and Jainism occupy the foremost rank.  $^1$ 

The word Jainism is derived from 'Jina' which means 'conqueror'- one who has conquered his passions and desires.<sup>2</sup> 'Jina' is derived from the Sanskrit root *ji*- 'to conquer', means 'victor'.<sup>3</sup> It is the common name applied to the twenty-four Tīrthankaras, because they have conquered all passions (*rāga* and *dveṣa*) and have attained liberation.<sup>4</sup> The Jainas are the followers of *Jina*, the victor, a title applied to Vardhamāna, the last prophet of the Jainas. The name Jainism indicates the predominantly ethical character of the system.<sup>5</sup> The long line of teachers through whom the Jaina faith was handed down consists of twenty-four Tīrthankaras, the last of whom was Vardhamāna (also styled Mahāvīra), a contemporary of Gautam Buddha.<sup>6</sup>

Indian philosophy has discussed about the self in an ordered form since the Upaniṣadic period. The defining characteristic of a soul is 'j̄īvatva' which means 'cetanā'. When the word consciousness is used as the decisive factor of soul, we only mean 'cetanā' by it. It is the 'cetanā' alone which cannot exist in any substance other than the soul. Hence, the main line of differentiation between j̄īva and aj̄īva is cetanā. The SarvadarŚanasanigraha defines the soul as follows- "Not different from knowledge, and yet not identical with it, in some way both different and the same, knowledge is its first and last; such is the soul described to be"-

jṣānādbhinno na cābhinno bhinnābhinnaḥ kathaṣcana / jṣānaṁ pūrvāparībhūtaṁ so'yamātmeti kīrtita iti //8

The Vedas and the Upanişads use the term 'self' in various senses. It means physical body, life, intellect, the vital breath, individual self (jīva) and the Absolute self (ātman, Brahman). The Rgveda uses the term ātman to indicate 'Vital breath'. Later on the term ātman became prominent in Indian thought and translated for soul or self. The Katha Upanisad uses the word self in the sense of buddhi i.e., intellect. 10 The Taittirīya Upanisad uses the word self in the sense of physical body. 11 The PraŚna Upaniṣad uses the term self in the sense of vital principle which denotes prāna. 12 Thus, the Upanisads use various terms to indicate the concept of the self. The three common terms used for the self are the jīva, ātman and brahman. Jīva or jīvātman is the individual self. Brahman is the Universal Self. The Śabdakalpadruma defines the word ātman as follows- atati santatabhāvena jāgradādi sarvāvasthāsu anuvarttate, at sātatvagamane+manin.13 V.S. Apte in his The Practical Sanskrit-English Dictionary defines the word ātman(at-manin) as the soul, the individual soul, the breath, the principle of life and sensation. 14 He again defines the term jīva (jīv-kartari ka) as the principle of life, the vital breath, life and soul. 15 The Katha Upanişad mentions the real nature of self declaring that the self is pure consciousness and pure bliss. It is eternal, unchangeable and imperishable. It is devoid of any body and is free from birth and death- na jāyate mriyate vā......ajo nityaḥ śāśvato'yam purāṇo//16 According to the Chāndogya and Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, it is free from sin, old age, death, grief, hunger and thirst.<sup>17</sup> According to the Bhagavad-Gītā, the self is eternal. It is free from the cycle of birth and death and from the pains and sufferings accruing from it.18 It is immutable and imperishable: weapons cannot cut it, fire cannot burn it; water cannot make it wet; and air cannot make it dry-nainam chindanti Śastrāni nainam dahati pāvakaḥ/na cainam kledayantyāpo na Śoṣayati mārutah / / <sup>19</sup>

According to Radhakrishnan, a  $j\bar{\imath}va$  is a particular kind of existent thing. The liberated  $j\bar{\imath}va$  freed from matter is called the  $\bar{\imath}tman$ .<sup>20</sup> M. Hiriyanna holds that the notion of  $j\bar{\imath}va$  in general

corresponds to that of ātman or puruṣa of the other schools of Indian thought.<sup>21</sup> The earth, water, air, fire and space have been considered to be the ultimate elements of the universe, and soul is a product of the combination of these elements.<sup>22</sup> Among those who believe that there are infinite numbers of independent souls which are all pure and perfect in their original nature, the Jaina tradition is first and foremost.<sup>23</sup> According to the Jainas, the soul, by itself, is imperceptible, but its presence can be found out by the presence of its characteristic qualities in a material body. Its chief characteristic is consciousness, which is accompanied by sense activity, respiration, and a certain period of existence in a particular body.<sup>24</sup>

The Jainas believe that the  $j\bar{\imath}va$  exists, it acts and is acted upon. The Ṣaḍdarśanasamuccaya states that, it is both an enjoyer (bhoktā) and an agent (kartā). 25 Ācārya Nemicandra has also opined that the jīva is incorporeal (amūrta), a casual agent (kartā), coextensive with the body (sadehaparimāṇaḥ), the enjoyer of the fruits of karmas (bhoktā), having the world as its abode(samsārattha), emancipated (siddha) and of the nature of darting upwards- jīvo uvaogamao amutti kattā sadehaparimānah / bhottā samsārattho siddho so vissasoddhagadi //<sup>26</sup> Kundakundācārya also gives similar opinion saying that the jīva is the lord (prabhu), casual agent (kartā), enjoyer (bhoktā), conditioned by the body (dehamātra) and ordinarily attached to karmas.<sup>27</sup> The characteristic of the jīva that it darts upwards is mentioned in the next verse of Paṣcāstikāyasāra thus- the soul, free from the defect of karmas gets to the highest point of the universe, knows all and perceives all, and obtains the everlasting infinite blisskammamalavippamukko uddham logassa antamadhigantā/ so savvaņāņadarisī lahadi suhamaṇindiyamaṇantam// 28 This everlasting heavenly bliss is secured by the self by its own efforts without any extraneous help.<sup>29</sup>

The Jainas hold that the liberated self acquires pure, perfect and infinite knowledge revealing everything of the world. This knowledge is called *kevala-jṣāna* which is nothing but omniscience.<sup>30</sup> According to the Jainas the self is changeable. The self is subject to

change or modification. 31 The soul manifests in the following forms as Deva, as man, as a member of the Hell or as a plant or an animal- suraṇaraṇārayatiriyā jīvassa ya pajjayā bahugā//<sup>82</sup> The Paṣcāstikāyasāra points out that when the original form is lost, the soul does not lose its own nature with the passing form and when it puts on a new form it does not get a new nature with its coming form. In spite of origin and decay of forms the soul maintains its nature and identity- manosattanena nattho dehī devo havedi idaro vā/ubhayattha jīvabhāvo na nassadi na jāyade anno//33 The jīva is described from two different viewpoints. These are: the transcendental or niścaya naya and the empirical or vyavahāra naya. From the empirical point of view (vyavahāra naya), the soul, in states other than that of samudghāta, due to its capacity of expansion and contraction, is co-extensive with the physical body that it inhabits, but from the transcendental point of view (niścaya naya), the soul has innumerable space-points.34 Umāsvāmī also points out that a jīva, though formless, is said to occupy space or possess extension. Like a light the soul pervades the entire body in which it lives. Though it has no form (*mūrti*), it acquires like a light, the size and form of the body wherein it lives-pradeśasanhāravisarpābhyām pradīpavat//35 The Jainas regard the self as essentially conscious. According to Siddhasena Divākara, the soul is different from the body and its existence is directly proved by its consciousness of itself.<sup>36</sup> Every individual feels that he is conscious. The Şaddarśanasamuccaya also defines that Caitanya or consciousness is an essential attribute of the self-caitanyalakṣaṇo jīvaḥ.37 It is always present in the soul, though its nature and degree may vary.<sup>38</sup> According to the degree of consciousness souls may be theoretically arranged in a continuous series. At the highest end of the level would be the perfect souls that have conquer all karmas and attained omniscience. At the lowest end would stand the most imperfect souls, which dwell in bodies of earth, water, fire, air and vegetables.<sup>39</sup> In them life and consciousness appear to be absent.

Midway between would lie souls having two to five senses, like worms, ants, bees and men.<sup>40</sup>

Consciousness of the self is manifested in two ways, namely  $dar \acute{s}ana$  or intuition and  $j \dot{s}\bar{a}na$  or knowledge, which is jointly called upayoga. During the empirical state, the real nature of self is obscured and enveloped by some atomic particles called karmaparamāṇus or karmic atoms. These atomic particles are attracted from outside by the self through its own karmans and are absorbed into its body. That's why; the self identifies itself with these atomic-particles and cannot understand the difference between its own parts and these particles. If, one can know the nature of  $j \dot{s}\bar{a}na$  and  $dar \dot{s}ana$ , then he could know the difference between the karmaparamāṇus and the parts of the self. Hence, it is through upayoga that one can realize the real nature of the self- sa  $parasparaprade \dot{s}\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$   $prade \dot{s}abandh\bar{a}tkarmaṇaik\bar{\imath}bh\bar{u}tasy\bar{a}tmano'nyatva-pratipattik\bar{a}raṇain bhavati//<math>^{42}$ 

Umāsvāmī in the Tattvārthādhigamasūtra defines that upayoga is the differentia (distinctive characteristic) of the self. 43 The word upa means "close" and yoga means "relation" i.e., which is closely related to the self. Kundakundācārya and Ācārya Nemichandra state that the two aspects of upayoga are jṣāna and darśana. 44 Jṣānaupayoga is known as sākāra-upayoga, while darśana-upayoga is known as nirākāra-upayoga. Jṣāna-upayoga is of two kinds, viz., natural knowledge and non-natural knowledge. Again non-natural knowledge is divided into two, viz., (i) right knowledge and (ii) wrong knowledge. Right knowledge is further divided into four kinds: (i) mati-jṣāna (sensory knowledge), (ii) Śruta-jṣāna (scriptural knowledge), (iii) avadhi-jṣāna (limited direct knowledge) and (iv) manaḥparyāya-jṣāna (direct knowledge of mind). Wrong knowledge is of three kinds, viz., (i) mati-ajṣāna (sensory wrong knowledge), (ii) Śruta-ajṣāna (scriptural wrong knowledge), (iii) avadhiajṣāna(limited direct wrong knowledge). Thus knowledge or jṣāna is divided into eight categories, viz.,

(i) kevala-jṣāna, (v) manaḥparyāya-jṣāna,

(ii) mati-jṣāna, (vi) mati-ajṣāna, (iii) Śruta-jṣāna, (vii) Śruta-ajṣāna, (iv) avadhi-jṣāna, (viii) avadhi-ajṣāna.

DarŚana-upayoga is also of two kinds, viz., (i) natural vision and (ii) non-natural vision. Non-natural vision is further divided into three kinds: (i) cakṣur-darŚana (visual vision), (ii) acakṣur-darŚana (non-visual vision) and (iii) avadhi-darŚana (limited direct vision). Thus, darŚana-upayoga is divided into four categories, viz.,

- (i) kevala-darŚana,
- (ii) cakşur-dar Sana
- (iii) acakşur-darSana and
- (iv) avadhi-darŚana.45

The Jainas hold that the self in its real nature is pure, free, perfect and divine, and is endowed with ananta-catustaya i.e., four infinite qualities: ananta-jṣāna (infinite knowledge), ananta-darśana (infinite intuition), ananta-sukha (infinite bliss) and ananta-vīrya (infinite power).46 According to the Jainas, the self is not one, but many, as it is different in different individuals. <sup>47</sup> Jainism maintains that the self is an active agent. The Jainas also hold that pleasure and pain can not belong to an unconscious being. Consciousness belongs to purusa, so purusa is subject to pleasure and pain. This purușa is an active entity, because an inactive entity cannot be subject to pleasure and pain. Moreover, consciousness itself is active, because the term consciousness implies knowledge or intelligence which is active in character.<sup>48</sup> According to their characteristics, the jīvas are described as- 1) without beginning or end, 2) with beginning and end and 3) with beginning and no endjīvā aṇāiṇihaṇā santā ṇantā ya jīvabhāvādo/ savbhāvado aṇantā pascaggaguṇappadhāṇā ya// 49 Every jīva pervades infinite point of space. It has the capacity of pervasion.<sup>50</sup>

Ācārya Nemichandra states that, from the empirical or phenomenal point of view that which is living at present, will continue to live in the future, and was living in the past, through its four principles of organism [prāṇas-strength (bala-prāṇa), senses (indriya-prāṇa), duration of age (āyuḥ-prāṇa) and respiration (ucchvāsa)], is the jīva. From the transcendental point of view, that which has consciousness is the jīva-tikkāle cadupāṇā indiyabala-māuāṇapāṇo ya/ vyavahārā ca jīvo ṇicchayaṇayado du cedaṇā jassa// 51

The jīvas (souls) are divided into two, the 'mundane' (sanisārī) and the 'released' (mukta). The mundane pass from birth to birth; and these are also divided into two, as those possessing an internal sense (samanaska), and those destitute of it (amanaska). The former possesses sanijṣā, i.e., the power of apprehension, talking, acting, and receiving instruction; the latter are those without this power. These latter are also divided into two, as 'locomotive' (trasa), or 'immovable' (sthāvara).<sup>52</sup>

From these descriptions of the self or jīva it can be summed up that, jīva, from the Jaina point of view is beginning less and endless. It is indestructible and beyond measure. Jīva pervades the body that it occupies. One of the characteristic of jīva is contraction and expansion according to the size of the body. Therefore, it expresses itself in modes. According to Jainism there are infinite numbers of souls and each occupies a particular body. The nature of jīva is pure and perfect and the same in all three phases of time-past, present and future. Therefore, it is eternal (nitya). Jīva is formless. We can comprehend the nature of the soul by means of intellect (vijṣāna). Jīva is the basis of knowledge and experiences. The soul that exists with a particular body experiences the life in this existence, and as it leaves this body, and enters another, this experience is no more. The jīva is the same although it wanders about in the wheel of samsāra, in the four forms of existence- the heavenly, the human, lower animal and the hellish stage. Jīva cannot be seen in its form by the eyes, yet we can know the existence of the self through the attribute of knowledge. We can understand the nature of the jīva by means of its characteristics and effects. We can only infer the presence of jīva by observing the psycho-physical activities like

laughter, pleasure and bodily activities like dances etc. According to Jaina view, when  $j\bar{\imath}va$  gets liberated from the bonds of karma which are of different aspects of substance, duration, fertility, and extensity, he reaches the summit of the upper world.

#### Notes and References:

<sup>1</sup> Vide, Chatterjee, S. K., et al (ed.), The Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. 1, p. 389

- <sup>6</sup> Chatterjee, S.C., & Datta, D.M., op.cit., p. 29
- <sup>7</sup> Mehta, M.L., Outlines of Jaina Philosophy, p. 44
- <sup>8</sup> SDS., Ārhatadarśanam, 44
- <sup>9</sup> Rgveda, 10.16.3; 1.164.4
- <sup>10</sup> KU., 2.6.7
- <sup>11</sup> Taittirīya Upaniṣad, 1.5.1
- <sup>12</sup> Praśna Upaniṣad, 3.6
- <sup>13</sup> Śabdakalpadruma, Vol. 1, p.172
- <sup>14</sup> Apte, V.S., The Practical Sanskrit-English Dictionary, p.209
- <sup>15</sup> Apte, V.S., op.cit., p. 454
- <sup>16</sup> KU., 1.2.18
- <sup>17</sup> Chāndogya Upaniṣad, 8.1.5; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, 3.5.1
- <sup>18</sup> Bhagavad-Gītā, 2.20
- <sup>19</sup> Ibid., 2.23
- <sup>20</sup> Vide, Radhakrishnan, S., op.cit., p.335
- <sup>21</sup> Hiriyanna, M., op.cit., p.157
- <sup>22</sup> Shastri, Devendra Muni, A Source-Book in Jaina Philosophy, p. 73
- <sup>23</sup> Shastri, Devendra Muni, op.cit., p. 84
- <sup>24</sup> Vide, Chatterjee, S. K., et al (ed.), op.cit., p. 403
- <sup>25</sup> śubhāśubhakarmakarttā bhoktā karmaphalasya ca// ṢAD., 48
- <sup>26</sup> DS., 2
- <sup>27</sup> PKS., 27
- <sup>28</sup> Ibid., 28

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Sharma, Chandradhar, Indian Philosophy: A Critical Survey, p. 36

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Hiriyanna, M., Outlines of Indian Philosophy, p.155

Chatterjee, S.C., & Datta, D.M., An Introduction to Indian Philosophy, p.83

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Radhakrishnan, S., *Indian Philosophy*, Vol. 1, p. 286

- <sup>29</sup> Ibid., 29
- Sinha, K.P., The Self in Indian Philosophy, p. 18
- <sup>31</sup> Sinha, K.P., op.cit., p. 17
- <sup>32</sup> PKS., 16
- 33 Ibid., 17
- <sup>34</sup> DS., 10
- 35 TSŪ., 5.16
- 36 Nyāyāvatāra, 31
- <sup>37</sup> SAD., 49
- Chatterjee, S.C., & Datta, D.M., op.cit., p. 105
- <sup>39</sup> vanaspatyantānāmekam// TSŪ., 2.22
- <sup>40</sup> krimipipīlikābhramaramanuṣyādīnāmekaikavṛddhāni// Ibid., 2.23
- sahajacidr Ūpaparinatim svīkurvāna jṣānadarśane upayogaḥ// SDS., Ārhatadarśanam, 42
- 42 Ibid.
- <sup>43</sup> Cf. upayogo lakṣaṇam // TSŪ., 2.8
- 44 PKS., 40; DS., 4
- 45 Cf. sa dvividho'ṣṭacaturbhedaḥ // TSŪ., 2.9
- <sup>46</sup> Sinha, K.P., op.cit., p. 18
- 47 Sinha, K.P., loc.cit.
- <sup>48</sup> Cf. Mehta, M.L., Jaina Philosophy, p. 100
- <sup>49</sup> PKS., 53
- 50 Shastri, Devendra Muni, op.cit., p.103
- <sup>51</sup> DS., 3
- <sup>52</sup> SDS., Ārhatadarśanam, 46

#### ABBREVIATIONS

DS.	-	Dravyasaingraha
KU.	-	Kaṭhopaniṣad
PKS.	-	Paṣcāstikāyasāra
ŞAD.	-	Ṣaḍdarśanasamuccaya
SDS.	-	Sarvadarśanasaingraha
TSŪ.	-	Tattvārthādhigamasūtra

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