The Buddhist Conception of Mahabhutas as Primary Elements of Matter

OST of the schools of Indian thought, notably, the Sāṃkhya, the Vedanta, and the medical tradition as represented by Caraka and Suśruta, recognize five mahābhūtas (elemental substances), viz. prthivī (earth), ap (water), tejas (fire), vāyu (air), and ākāśa (ether).1 That ākāśa is the fifth is admitted by the Nyāya-Vaiśesikas, too. But in many respects it differs from the other four: It is a non-corporeal (amūrta) substance devoid of tactility (sparśa) and characterized by ubiquity (vibhū), absolute continuity, and infinite magnitude. As such, unlike the other four substances, it is not, in the ultimate analysis, composed of atoms. Thus, although ākāļśa is introduced as a mahābhūta, in view of its peculiar characteristics, it has to be distinguished from the other four and is, in a way, on a par with such intangible substances as kāla (time).2 In Jainism, on the other hand, it is not ranked with what is called bhūdacatukka, "the elemental tetrad," which consists of pṛthivī, ap, tejas and vāyu. ākāśa and bhūda-catukka are brought under the general heading, ajīva, non-spirit; but only the latter is brought under the more specific, puggala, matter.3

The position of Buddhism in regard to this question is similar to that of Jainism. That is to say, only paṭhavī, āpo, tejo and vāyo are brought under the heading, mahābhūta. It is of course true that, as pointed out by Mrs. Rhys Davids, in the Nikāyas sometimes ākāsa is enumerated immediately after, and apparently as co-ordinate with, the above four items. But this does not mean that ākāsa is the fifth mahābhūta, just as much as viññāna (consciousness), which, too, is sometimes enumerated after the five items in question, is not the sixth mahābhūta. It may be noted here that, when ākāsa and viññāna are mentioned along with paṭhavī, āpo, tejo and vāyo, the general designation used in respect of all the six items is dhātu. On the other hand, the term, mahābhūta is always used in a more specific sense, i.e. as referring only to the last four items.

- 1. See Seal, Positive Sciences of the Hindus, Delhi, 1925, Ch.1.
- See Bhaduri, Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika Metaphysics, Poona, 1947, Ch. III.
- 3. See Pañcastikāyasāra, ed. Chakravartinayanar, Allahabad, 1920, pp. 79ff.
- 4. Cf. e.g. D. III, 274; M. I, 431 ff.
- 5. Cf. e.g.M. III, 31; A. I, 176.

In the later scholasticism, too, the situation remains unchanged. True, on the nature of $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa,$ the scholiasts advance more than one interpretation. But on its non-recognition as a mahābhūta, they all agree.

With this clarification as to the number of mahābhūtas, we may now proceed to consider how thay are understood in Buddhism.

In the Nikāyas they are defined in simple and general terms and are illustrated mostly with reference to the constituents of the human body: Paṭhavī-dhātu is that which is hard (kakkhaḷaṇ) and rigid (kharigataṇ), e.g. hair of the head or body, nails, teeth, skin, flesh, etc. $\bar{A}po-dhātu$ is water $(\bar{a}po)$ or that which is watery $(\bar{a}pogataṇ)$, e.g. bile, phlegm, pus, blood, sweat, tears, etc. Tejo-dhātu is fire or heat (tejo) or that which is fiery (tejogataṇ), e.g. the heat in the body which transmutes food and drink in digestion. $V\bar{a}yo-dh\bar{a}tu$ is air $(v\bar{a}yo)$ or that which is airy $(v\bar{a}yogataṇ)$, e.g. "wind discharged upwards or downwards, wind in the abdomen or belly, vapours that traverse the several members, inhalings and exhalings of breath".

What one can gather from these definitions is that from the very beginning Buddhism did not make a radical departure from the popular conception of the *mahābhūtas*. There are, however, some Nikāya passages which seem to imply that they were understood in a more "abstract" way,7 i.e. as interpreted in the Abhidhamma. (To this we shall come soon.) But within the Nikāyas themselves such implications are not worked out into a clearly formulated theory.

It is really in the Abhidhamma that we meet with such a situation. Here we are presented with a different conception of the *mahābhūtas*. Much of the carlier terminology is retained, but the earlier definitions are modified. The subject is presented in greater detail and with more precision. New theories are evolved and new interpretations advanced, so as to bring the whole subject in line with the other subsequent developments of the doctrine.

For the Abhidhamma, too, kakkhala and khara, which mean hard and rigid respectively, bring out the essential nature of pathavī-dhātu, the earth-element.⁸ The first is said to represent its characteristic (lakkhaṇa) and the

^{6.} See M. I, 431 ff.

^{7.} Cf. D. I, 215 ff.; D. III, 87; S. I, 15.

^{8.} See Dhs. p. 177; Vbh. p. 82.

second its mode (ākāra).⁹ The question is raised whether kakkhalatta, hardness, is itself not the paṭhavī-dhātu. It is maintained that, although this is the case, yet for the convenience of definition, paṭhavī-dhātu is said to possess the characteristic of kakkhalatta.¹⁰

It will be seen that according to the Nikāyan definition what is (comparatively) kakkhaļa (hard) is paṭḥavī, whereas according to the Abhidhammic definition kakkhaļatta (the fact of hardness) is itself paṭhavī.

The conception of pathavī-dhātu in this way is not confined to the Theravāda alone. Parallel definitions are met with in other schools of Buddhist thought. In its Chapter on the Genesis of the World, the Mahāvastu says that when the living beings who lived at a new evolution of the world, began to eat whole mouthfuls of the essence of this earth as food, their bodies came to possess the characteristics of gurutva, heaviness, kharatva, roughness, and kakkhaṭatva, hardness.¹¹ The implication is given that gurutva, kharatva and kakkhaṭatva represent the essential nature of paṭhavī-dhātu. The Abhidharmakośa and its Vyākhyā, too, use the latter two terms in their definition of this element.¹² In the Abhidharmasamuccaya it is defined as kaṭhinatā, a term which could be interpreted as meaning rigidity or solidity. As such, this interpretation is almost the same as that given by the Theravādins. Thus there is general agreement among the Buddhist scholiasts in maintaining that what is called paṭhavī-dhātu stands for the phenomenon of hardness, rigidity, solidity or compactness in matter.

Paṭhavī-dhātu is also explained as that which extends or spreads out—pattharatī ti paṭhavī. 13 Extension is occupation in space. "Tri-dimensional extension gives rise to our idea of a solid body. As no two bodies can occupy the same space at the same time, Buddhists derive their idea of hardness (kakkhaļatta-lakkhaṇa) from paṭhavī." 14 Thus the interpretation of paṭhavī-dhātu as the element of extension brings into relief a different method of approach.

^{9.} See Vism. p. 286.

^{10.} Cf. Nanu ca kakkhalattam'eva pathavīdhātū ti? Saccam'etam. Tathā pi viññātāviññātasaddatthatāvasena abhinne pi dhamme kappanāsiddhena bhedena evam niddesõ katō. Evam hi atthavisesāvabodho hotī ti—VismT. pp. 362—3.

^{11.} Cf. Yato ca bhikṣavaste satvā tam pṛthivīrasamālopakārakamāhāramāhārensuḥ atha teṣam kāye gurutvam ca kharatvam ca kakkhaṭatvam ca upanīpate.—op. cit. I, 339

^{12.} AK. Ch. I, 22; AKvy. I, 57, 66.

^{13.} Vism. p. 287; Abhvt. p. 64.

^{14.} Aung, Compendium of Philosophy, P.T.S., 1910, p. 155, n.l.

In the commentaries, we get further discussions on the peculiar function of this element. Buddhaghosa observes that it acts as a foundation, a sort of fulcrum, and that it manifests itself as receiving (sampaticcana-paccupat-thānā). This is further explained to mean that the other three mahā-bhūtas are established on it (paṭhavī-patiṭṭhitā), and that therefore it serves as a support, a basis (patiṭṭhānaṃ), for them. That this view is shared by the Vaibhāṣikas is shown by their contention that the "bearing up" or supporting (saṃdhāraṇa) of ships by water (= ocean) is a sufficient ground for the inference that the pṛṭhivī-dhātu is present in water. 17

The above conception of the function of paṭhavī-dhātu appears to be only a refinement of the popular view that the earth, as it is ordinarily understood, is a receptacle, a sort of dumping ground for all types of material things. It is, in fact, significant to note that the Vibhāvinī Tīkā observes that, just as what we conventionally call earth is the support of trees, mountains, etc., even so the earth-element is a support for the other material elements. 18

 $\bar{A}po-dh\bar{a}tu$ represents the fact of viscidity (sineha) and cohesion or "binding together" in matter ($r\bar{u}passa$ bandhanattam). Bandhanatta or cohesion refers more to its function. For the $\bar{a}po-dh\bar{a}tu$ binds together iron, etc. in masses, makes them rigid. Because they are so bound, they are called rigid; similarly, in the case of stones, mountains, palm-seeds, elephant-tusks, ox-horns etc.. All such things the $\bar{a}po-dh\bar{a}tu$ binds and makes rigid." Paggharana, flowing, and nissandabhava, state of streaming, are also cited as two other characteristics of this element 1—a view which suggests the popular and common-sense idea of water. However, this does not mean that $\bar{a}po-dh\bar{a}tu$, as it came to be interpreted in the Abhidhamma, is identical with water. No mahābhūta can exist independently of, or in isolation from, the other three. Hence $\bar{a}po-dh\bar{a}tu$ is present not only in water but also in air, fire, etc.

In the schools of Sanskrit Buddhism, too, the ap-dhātu is defined in a similar manner. It stands for dravatva, liquidity, and snehatva, viscidity in

^{15.} Vism. p. 289; see also Asl. p. 332, Mvn. p. 58.

^{16.} Ibid. loc. cit.

^{17.} See AKvy. I, 33.

^{18.} See ADSVT. p. 110.

^{19.} See Dhs. p. 177; Vbh. p. 83.

^{20.} Ayapindi-ādīni hi āpō-dhātu ābandhitvā thaddhāni karōti, tāya ābaddhattā tāni thaddhāni nāma honti. Pāsāṇapabbatatālatthi-hatthidantagosingādīsu pi es'eva nayō. Sabbāni h'etāni āpodhātu eva ābandhitvā thaddhāni karōti.—Asl. p. 335.

^{21.} See Vism. p. 289; Asl. p. 336; Abhvk. p. 250; Mvn. p. 58.

matter.²² It may be noted here that the ap-substance of the Vaisesikas, too, has the same two characteristics: *āpo dravah snigdhah.*²³ But according to the Vaisesikas, liquidity and viscidity are qualities inherent in the apsubstance. No such dichotomy is recognized by the Buddhists. Notwithstanding these metaphysical differences, the parallelism goes still further. The Vaisesikas maintain that samgraha, cohesion or agglutination, is a distinct quality produced by fluidity and viscidity operating together.²⁴ The Buddhists maintain that apo-dhatu, which stands for the facts of liquidity and viscidity, performs the function of samgraha. Hence it is that according to the Vaibhāṣikas, the phenomenon of cohering or non-broken continuity in a blazing fire is due to the presence therein of apo-dhatu.25 The same idea is recognized by the Theravadins, too, when they say that apodhātu manifests itself by its action of cohesion. (āpo-dhātu-sangaha-paccupatthānā.)26

Tejo-dhātu signifies the phenomenon of heat, the terms being used are usma or usuma. In the Sanskrit sources we get usnatva and its corresponding Pali form, unhatta, is the standard term used in the Pali commentaries and tīkās.

One significant feature of the Theravada conception of tejo-dhātu concerns the question of sīta, cold. The Vaisesikas, for instance, maintain that uṣṇa, heat, is the peculiar quality of the fire-substance (tejasa uṣṇatā) and that śīta, cold, is that of the water-substance (apsu śītatā).²⁷ the natural touch of water is cold, "other substances (bodies) are cold only in proportion to the extent to which water enters into their composition".28 That the Vaibhāṣikas, too, associate śīta with āpo-dhātu is shown by their contention that the touch of cold in wind points to the presence therein of āpo-dhātu.29 In the opinion of Bhadanta Srīlābha, one of the celebrities of the Sautrantika School, "Le feu élémentaire existe dans l'eau, puisque celle-ci est plus ou moins froide."30 This statement, too, carries the implication that heat and cold are represented by tejo-dhātu and āpo-dhātu respectively.

^{22.} See AK. Ch. I, 23, n. 3.

VS. p. 56.
 See Bhaduri, Nyāya-Vaišeṣika Metaphysics, Poona, 1947, p. 126.

^{25.} AKvy. I, 33.

^{26.} Asl. p. 332; Abhvt. p. 65; Abhvk. p. 250. 26. Asl. p. 332; Abhvt. p. 65; Abhvk. p. 250. 27. VS. p. 59. 28. See Bhaduri, op.cit. p. 129.

^{29.} AKvy. I, 33.

^{30.} AK. Ch. II, 146.

The position taken up by the Theravādins in regard to this question is quite different. In the works of the Abhidhamma Piṭaka, we do not get any explicit statement concerning the position of sīta, cold, in relation to the mahābhūtas. Nevertheless, there is no possibilty of its being considered as represented by āpo-dhātu, because this particular primary element, as maintained by the Theravādins, does not come within the sphere of the tangible (phoṭṭhabbāyatana).³¹

It is only in the $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$ literature that we are presented with a clear statement on this subject: "Although cold $(s\bar{t}ta)$ is known by the sense of touch, it is really tejo. The sensation of cold $(s\bar{t}ta-buddhi)$ is obtained when the heat is less, for there is no distinct quality (guna) called cold... Hence it is that, during the summer season when people having first stayed in the sun, enter the shade, they experience the sensation of cold. And when they stay there for a long time, they experience the sensation of heat." 32

Thus, in the view of the Theravadins, cold is not the peculiar characteristic of apo-dhatu (as is believed by many other Buddhist schools), but is the relative absence of heat. And heat is represented by tejo-dhatu.

The characteristic function of *tejo-dhātu* is *paripācana*, i.e. ripening or maturing.³³ For this is the element which heats, matures, sharpens, and imparts heat to all other material elements.³⁴

 $V\bar{a}yo$ - $dh\bar{a}tu$, the air-element, as defined in the *Dhammasanganī*, signifies thambhitatta, inflation or distension, and chambhitatta, fluctuation or mobility.³⁵ While the other three $mah\bar{a}bh\bar{u}tas$ stand for the facts of solidity, cohesion, and the temperature of cold and heat, this represents the more restless and dynamic aspect of matter.

The standard term used in the Pali commentarial works to describe $v\bar{a}\gamma o$ -dhātu is samudīraņa which means mobility or motion.³⁶ In the Sanskrit sources samudīranatvaṃ occurs in combination with laghu or laghutā (light

^{31.} See below, p. 20.

^{32.} Kiñcāpi hi sītatā phusitvā gayhati, sā pana tejo yeva. Mande hi unhatte sītabuddhi, sītatā-sankhātassa kassa ci gunassa abhāvatō... Tathā hi ghammakāle ātāpe thatvā chāyam pavitthānam sītabuddhi hoti. Tatth'eva cirakālam thitānam unhabuddhi.—ADSVT. p. 111; see also VismT. p. 459; VismS. V, 75 ff.

^{33.} See *ADSVT*. p. 10.

^{34.} See Asl. p. 332.

^{35.} Op.cit. p. 177; see also Vbh. p. 84.

^{36.} See e.g. Asl. p. 250, Vism. p. 381.

or lightness).³⁷ For the Theravādins, lahutā³⁸ represents one of the secondary elements of matter, i.e. one that is dependent on the mahābhutas. This seems to be the reason why they do not associate it with the definition of vāyo-dhātu, which is one of the primary elements of matter. The Abhidharmakośa takes note of a similar problem when it observes that, according to a Sūtra passage vāyo-dhātu is laghutva, whereas according to the Prakaranas laghutva is a secondary material element. It seeks to reconcile the two views by stating that "le dharma qui a pour nature la motion (īraṇātmaka), c'est l'élément vent; sa nature (legertè) est manifestée par son acte de motion (īraṇākarman)."³⁹ Since the Theravādins recognize lahutā as a secondary element of matter, in their opinion, it is not associated with one particular mahābhūta, but is dependent on all the four.⁴⁰ These are but minor differences. There is general agreement among the Buddhist schools that vāyo-dhātu is representative of mobility or motion (īraṇa, samudīraṇa).

With the development of the theory of momentariness (kṣạṇa-vāda), the above definition of vāyo-dhātu as representative of mobility or motion could not be retained without modification. Suffice it to note here that according to this theory, all elements of existence, mental as well as material, are of momentary duration. They are characterised by instantaneous being, in the sense that they arise and perish in continual succession, projecting a picture of static existence.⁴¹ Closely connected with this theory is the denial of motion. As the Abhidharmakośa observes: "Le conditionné n'existe pas au delà de l'acquisition de son etre: il périt à la place où il est né; il ne peut de cette place aller à une autre." If vāyo-dhātu is representative of mobility or motion, how is this statement to be reconciled with the denial of motion?

In keeping with the theory of momentariness motion, too, is given a different interpretation: "Par motion, on entend ce qui fait que la série d'états qui constituent une chose va se reproduisant dans des lieux différents; de meme qu'on parle de la motion d'une flamme." Accord-

^{37.} See e.g. AK. Ch. I, 23; AKvy. I, 33.

^{38.} See the list of material elements $(r\bar{u}pa\text{-}dhamm\bar{a})$ given in Dhs. p. 188.

^{39.} Op.cit. Ch. I, 23.

⁴⁰. See *Dhs*. p. 189

^{41.} See AK. Ch. IV, 4 ff.; also Silburn, Instant et Cause, Paris, 1955, p. 12 ff.; Steherbatsky, Buddhist Logic, Petrograd, 1935, Vol. I, p. 20 ff.

^{42.} Op.cit. Ch. IV, 4-5.

^{43.} AK. Ch. I, 22-3.

ingly, motion has to be understood, not as the movement of an element of matter from one locus in space to another (de'sāntaragamana), but as the appearance of different elements of matter in adjacent locations (de'sāntarotpatti).⁴⁴ For in the case of momentary elements, wherever appearance takes place there itself takes place disappearance—yatraivotpattih tatraiva vinā'saḥ.⁴⁵ The classic example given in this connection is the light of the lamp. The so-called light of the lamp, it is contended, is nothing but a common designation given to an uninterrupted production of a series of flashing points. When the production changes place one says that the light has changed. But in reality other flames have appeared in another place.

It is interesting to notice that this new definition of motion has somehow or other found its way to Theravāda scholasticism that flourished after the time of Buddhaghosa. In the earlier Pali commentaries $v\bar{a}yo$ -dhātu is understood as indicative of motion; but therein motion is not denied. In the later works, notably the $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}s$, motion is denied, that is to say, it is interpreted as desantaruppatti, the appearance of momentary elements in adjacent locations. This new development has necessitated a modification of the earlier definition of $v\bar{a}yo$ -dhātu. Hence it is that the scholiasts seek to define $v\bar{a}yo$ -dhātu as the cause of "motion" (=desantaruppatti). It is that which causes or brings about the arising of momentary elements in adjacent locations (desantaruppatti-hetu-bhāvena .. gametī ti). The recognition, on the part of the Theravādins, of this new definition of motion is no matter for surprise, for they, too, developed a theory of moments, which, except for minor details, presents a close parallelism to that of the schools of Sanskrit Buddhism.

From the fore-going description of the mahābhūtas it should appear that, as interpreted by the Ābhidhammikas, paṭhavī stands for solidity and extension, $\bar{a}po$ for viscidity and cohesion, tejo for the temperature of cold and heat, and $v\bar{a}yo$ for motion or (according to the later interpretation) the cause of "motion." The four are not the qualities or attributes of $bh\bar{u}ta-r\bar{u}pa$, the primary matter; they are its constituents. In this respect, they are like the three guṇas of Sāṇkhya, which form the constituents of prakṛti, the ultimate causal nexus of the world of non-self.

^{44.} AKvy. I, 33; see also Le Traité de la Demonstration de l'Acte (Karmasiddhiprakarana) tr. E. Lamotte, Mélanges chinois et bouddhiques, IV, 1936, pp. 151 ff.

^{45.} AKvy. I, 33.

^{46.} See VismT. p. 359; ADSVT. p. 110; Abhvk. p. 249.

^{47.} VismT. p. 359.

The four mahābhūtas are co-ordinate and represent four distinct forces or phenomena in the realm of matter. The characteristics (lakkhaṇa) functions (rasa), and manifestation (paccupaṭṭhāna) of one are different from those of another.⁴⁸ The non-alteration of their characteristics is constantly alluded to. However much one mahābhūta is influenced by the others, it never abandons its essential nature. In this connection the Atthasālinī refers to a Sutta passage, where it is stated that the four mahābhūtas might alter their characteristics sooner than it were possible for the Ariyan disciple endowed with assured faith in the Buddha to alter.⁴⁹ The implication is that both are impossibilities. What all this amounts to is that the four mahābhūtas, which stand for four distinct ultimate data of all material phenomena, are neither transmutable into one another nor reducible to a common ground.

There is, however, a way in which they group themselves into two pairs, each having one common characteristic. Buddhaghosa observes that paṭhavi-dhātu and āpo-dhātu are similar in heaviness (garukattā sabhāgā) and that tejo-dhātu and vāyo-dhātu are similar in lightness (lahukattā sabhāgā).⁵⁰ This theory seems to have been developed from the observation of some of the features of the mahābhūtas as understood in the popular or literal sense. It is also reminiscent of the contention of the Vaiśeṣikas, namely that weight is possessed only by two elemental substances—earth and water.⁵¹

Another fundamental feature of the *mahābhūtas* is that they always exist together (*sahajāta*, *sahabhū*). No *mahābhūta* can exist independently of the other three.⁵² The nascence, subsistence and evanescence⁵³ of one do always synchronize with those of the others. It is precisely for this reason that their relation is described as one of reciprocal co-nascence (*añūam'añīa-sahajāta*).⁵⁴ That is to say, since no *mahābhūta* can come into being independently of the others, in this sense, each is postulated as a condition by way of co-nascence in relation to the other three.

The commentators seek to explain the mutual conditionality of the mahābhūtas under all possible combinations and permutations: Taking each

^{48. . .} sabbāsam pi dhātūnam salakkhanādito nānattam. Aññān'eva hi paṭhavīdhātuyā lakkhaṇarasapaccupaṭṭhānāni, aññāni āpo-dhātu-ādīnam.—Vism. p. 387.

^{49.} Op.cit. p. 336.

^{50.} Vism. p. 289.

^{51.} See Bhaduri, Nyāya-Vaišeṣika Metaphysics, Poona, 1947, p. 135.

^{52.} See Tkp. pp. 3, 14, 36 ff.; AK. Ch. II, 248.

^{53.} Cf. theory of moments.

^{54.} See Tkp. pp. 3, 14.

one beginning with earth, there are three others whose occurrence is due to that one, thus with three due to one, their occurrence takes place in four ways. Likewise each one beginning with earth, occurs in dependence on the other three, thus with one due to three, their occurrence takes place in four ways. But with the last two dependent on the first two, with the first two dependent on the last two, with the second and fourth dependent on the first and third, with the first and third dependent on the second and fourth, with the first and fourth dependent on the second and third, with the second and third dependent on the first and fourth, they occur in six ways with two elements due to two.⁵⁵ The fundamental principle involved in the relation by way of reciprocal co-nascence is that when one element arises, what is related to it, too, must arise simultaneously. With this as the basis, the commentators have shown how each of the mahābhūtas becomes, at one and the same time, the condition as well as the conditioned in relation to the others, under different combinations and permutations.

Closely connected with this is the inseparability of the *mahābhūtas*. They exist in inseparable (*avinibhoga*) association: they are not positionally resolvable, one *mahābhūta* cannot be separated from the rest. 56 Buddhaghosa explains this characteristic of inseparability in a rather mysterious way: "And just as whomsoever the great creatures such as the spirits grasp hold of (possess), they have no standing place either inside him or outside him and yet they have no standing independently of him, so too these elements are not found to stand either inside or outside each other, yet they have no standing independently of one another." 57 What is attempted to show is that they have no thinkable standing place relative to each other.

This explanation as to the relative position of the *mahābhūtas* is sought to be justified on the following grounds: If they were to exist inside each other, then they would not perform their respective functions. If they were to exist outside each other, then they would be resolvable, and in such a case, the theory of inseparability (*avinibbhuttavāda*) would have no validity.⁵⁸

^{55.} Path of Purification, tr. Bhikkhu Nanamoli, Colombo, 1956, p. 405. (Vism. p. 391)

^{56.} See Vism. p. 381.

^{57.} Path of Purification, tr. Bhikkhu Nānamoli, Colombo, 1956, p. 401. (Vism. p. 387)

^{58.} Yadi hi imā dhātuyo aññam'aññassa anto thitā na sakiccakarā siyum... Atha bahiṭṭhā vinibbhuttā siyum. Tathā sati avinibbhuttavādo hāyeyya.—VismT. p. 364; see also Abhvk. p. 248.

Each *mahābhūta* assists the remaining three by performing its peculiar function: The earth element which is held together by water, maintained by fire, and distended by air is a condition for the other three great primaries by acting as their foundation. The water element which is founded on earth, maintained by fire, and distended by air is a condition for the other three primaries by acting as their cohesion. The fire element which is founded on earth, held together by water, and distended by air is a condition for the other three primaries by acting as their maintaining. The air element which is founded on earth, held together by water, and maintained by fire, is a condition for the other three primaries by acting as their distension.⁵⁹ Thus each *mahābhūta* depends on, and is depended on by the other three.

Since the four *mahābhūtas* are necessarily co-existent and positionally inseparable, the position taken up by the Buddhists in respect of the question how they enter into the composition of material aggregates is quite clear: In every instance of matter all the four *mahābhūtas* are necessarily present. On this view there is general agreement among the Buddhist schools. The Vaibhāṣikas, for instance, maintain that the presence of *jala*, *tejas* an *vāyu* in an earthy substance (*pṛthivī-dravye*) is inferred from its cohesion, maturing and expansion respectively; the presence of *pṛthivī*, *tejas* and *vāyu* in water is shown by its support of ships, its heat and motion; the presence of *pṛthivī*, *udaka* and *vāyu* in a blazing fire is shown by its solidity (*sthairya*), cohesion or unbroken continuity, and mobility; and the presence of *pṛthivi*, *ap* and *tejas* in the air is shown by its action of holding up, its touch of cold and its touch of heat.⁶⁰

Accordingly, all material things or aggcgates are necessarily "tetra-bhautic." With this view may be contrasted the Vedāntic view, according to which there can be "mono-bhautic" substances as earthy, watery, etc. But this statement needs qualification. For, in the view of the Vedāntins there are five sūkṣma-bhūtas (subtle) corresponding to the five mahābhūta (gross). And according to the theory of paūcikaraṇa, quintuplication "the five sūkṣma-bhūtas are present as ingredients, though in different proportions, in each mahābhūta." Hence from the standpoint of the sūkṣma bhūtas, each and every material thing turns out to be "penta-bhautic".

^{59.} Path of Purification, tr. Bhikkhu Nānamoli, Colombo, 1956, p. 403. (Vism. p. 289). 60. pṛthivī-dravye samgraha-pakti-vyūhana-darśanāc chesānām jala-tejo-vāyūnam astitvam anumīyate. apsu nau-samdhāranōṣṇateraṇakarma-darśanāt pṛthivī-tejo-vāyūnām astitvam. agni-jvālāyām sthairya-sampiṇdana-calana-darśanāt pṛthivyudaka-vāyūnām astitvam. vāyau samdhārana-sītoṣṇa-sparśa-darsanāt pṛthivy-ap-tejasām astitvam iti vaibhāṣikāḥ.—AKvy. I, 33.

^{61.} Seal, Positive Sciences of the Hindus, Delhi, 1925, p. 154.

It is in fact the view of the Vaiśeṣikas that stands in clear contrast to the Buddhist theory. The difference between the Budhists and the Vaiśeṣikas in regard to this question will be clear if we consider how they explain the constitution of the human body. According to the former, it is composed of all the four mahābhūtas (cātummahābhūtiko'yaṃ kāyo). According to the latter, it is essentially earthy, because the other substances do not enter it as its substantive or material causes. This Vaiśeṣika theory is based on the following arguments:

The conjunction of things perceptible and imperceptible is itself imperceptible. Hence, since $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\acute{s}\acute{a}$ and $v\bar{a}yu$ are imperceptible, to maintain that the human body is a conjunction of the five $bh\bar{u}tas$ is tantamount to saying that it is itself imperceptible.⁶² Secondly, it is one of the theses of the Vaiśeṣikas that the quality in the effect is preceded by the corresponding quality in the cause.⁶³ It is also maintained that no effect can take place except through the combination of two component elements. Therefore, if earth unites with water to form a compound, the compound will be devoid of odour, for odour is present only in earth. Similarly a compound of earth and fire will have no odour and taste, for they are possessed only by earth. Likewise a compound of earth and air will be odourless, tasteless and colourless, for odour, taste and colour belong to earth and not to air. Now all the foregoing qualities are present in the human body. Therefore, it is to be concluded that it is not a combination of all the $bh\bar{u}tas$.⁶⁴

The above argument of the Vaisesikas is partly based on the contention that air possesses only touch, fire possesses colour and touch, water possesses taste, colour and touch, and that earth possesses all the foregoing qualities and smell. For the Buddhists smell, taste, colour, etc. are not the qualities of the mahābhūtas; they are a set of secondary elements of matter dependent on the latter. In point of fact, a theory similar to that of the Vaisesikas is cited by Buddhaghosa only to be refuted as unsatisfactory. The main theme of his argument may be stated as follows:

If smell were the special quality of earth, then the smell of cotton which has an excess of earth in it, should be greater than that of fermented liquor which has an excess of water in it. Again, if colour were the special quality of fire, then the colour of hot water which has an excess of fire in it, should

^{62.} Bhaduri, Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika Metaphysics, Poona, 1947, p. 152.

^{63.} Kāraņaguņapūrvakah kāryaguņō drstah//—VS. p. 63.

^{64.} See Bhaduri, op. cit. p. 151 ff.

be brighter than that of cold water. Neither of these things is true. Therefore the theory in question should be abandoned.⁶⁵ It is also observed that, of the *mahābhūtas* which are not separable, one from another, one cannot say that this is a quality of that one or that is a quality of this one.⁶⁶

The fact that Buddhism does not conceive the mahābhūtas as eternal and ever-perduring substances has also some relevance to its attitude towards the composition of material aggregates. A piece of ice, according to the Buddhist conception, should be composed of all the four mahābhūtas. Its solidity, cohesion, etc. point to their presence therein. For the Vaiseṣikas, ice is essentially a watery (ap) substance. In their view, all matter is ultimately reducible to the four kinds of eternally existing atoms, namely, the earthy, the watery, the fiery and the airy. Since no substance is destroyable, decomposition of a compound means its reversal to the original position. Hence when ice melts it becomes water, and water is ultimtely composed of watery atoms.⁶⁷ From the Buddhist standpoint, whether ice remains as it is, or whether it becomes water when melt, or vapour when excessively heated, in all these different states the four mahābhūtas are present.

Although all the four mahābhūtas are present in every instance of matter, yet there is no quantitative difference between them. In other words, they enter into the composition of material things in equal proportion.⁶⁸ There is as much āpo-dhātu in a blazing fire as there is in wood or water. It is argued that, if there were to be a quantitative difference between the mahābhūtas that enter into the composition of material aggregates, then the thesis that they are inseparable would not be logical (na yujjeyya).⁶⁹ This theory is not confined to the Theravada alone. This is what the schools of Sanskrit Buddhism call "tulya-bhūta-sad-bhāva".⁷⁰

If the mahābhūtas are present in equal proportion in each and every material aggregate, what explains the diversity of the latter? For it is a matter of common experience that, in many respects, a comparatively

^{65.} Cf. Te vattabbā: iccheyyāma yadi apādhikassā āsavassa gandhato paṭhvī-adhike kappāse gandho adhikataro siyā, tejādhikassa ca unhodakassa vaṇṇato sītudakassa vaṇṇo parihāyetha. Yasmā pan'etam ubhayam pi natthi, tasmā pahāyeth'etam p'etcsaṃ nusayabhūtānaṃ visesakappanaṃ.—Vism. p. 444.

^{66.} Avinibbhogavuttīsu hi bhūtesu ayam imassa guņo ayam imassa guņo ti na labbhā vattun ti.—ibid. loc. cit.

^{67.} See Bhaduri, op. cit. Ch. VI.

^{68.} See VismT. pp. 450 ff.; Abhvk. pp. 273 ff.

^{69.} Aññathā hi avinibbhogavuttitā na yujjeyya.—VismT. p. 451.

^{70.} See AKvy. I, 124.

hard stone is different from water, and both from a blazing fire. Or to put it differently: now the Theravādins say that the *mahābhūtas* with the exception of *āpo-dhātu* are tangible (*phoṭṭhabbāyatana*), while the schools of Sanskrit Buddhism say that all the four are tangible (*spraṣṭavyāyatana*).⁷¹ Such being the case, what accounts for the diversity in tactile sensations? For it is a matter of common experience that one does not get the same sensation when one touches, say, a flower and a blazing fire.

The diversity, it is maintained, is not due to a difference in quantity (pamāṇa), but due to a difference in capability (sāmatthiya) or extrusion (ussada).⁷² That is to say, in a given material thing, one mahābhūta is more intense than the others. For instance, in a comparatively solid thing, say, in a stone, although all the mahābhūtas are present in equal proportion, yet the paṭhvī-dhātu is more intense or more extruded than the others. So is āpo-dhātu in water, tejo-dhātu in fire, and vāyo-dhātu in air.

In the Atthasālinī we get more details on this subject. It says that the mahābhūtas (except āpo-dhātu) reach the avenue of the sense of touch simultaneously. Although they strike the sentient body simultaneously, yet bodily cognition of them does not arise at once. For the object of touch is determined by one of two alternative factors, namely, deliberate attention (ābhuñjita-vasena) and extrusion (ussada-vasena).73

The first alternative is illustrated as follows: When the bowl is filled with food and brought, one who takes up a lump and examines whether it is hard or soft, is considering only the element of extension, though there may be heat and mobility present. One who investigates by putting the hand in hot water, is considering only the element of heat, though extension and mobility are present. One who lets the wind beat upon the body by opening the window in the hot season, is considering, while the wind beats gently and softly, only the element of mobility, though extension and heat are present.⁷⁴

The other alternative, where the element of deliberate attention is absent, is explained with reference to ussada, i.e. extrusiveness of one element

^{71.} See below, p. 20.

^{72.} See VismT. p. 451; Abhvk. p. 273.

^{73.} Kim pana etäni tini mahābhūtāni ekappahāren'eva āpātham āgacchanti udāhu no ti? Agacchanti. Evam āgatāni kāyappasādam ghaṭṭentī ti? Ghaṭṭentī. Ekappahāren'eva tāni ārammaṇam katvā kāyaviññānam uppajjati n'uppajjatī ti? N'uppajjati. Kasmā? Abhuñjitavasena vā hi ussadavasena vā ārammaṇakaranam hoti.—op.cit. p. 333.

^{74.} Expositor, tr. Maung Tin, P.T.S., 1920—21, Vol. II, 434 (= Asl. p. 333).

in relation to others. "But he who slips or knocks his head against a tree, or in eating bites on a stone, takes as his mental object only the element of extension, on account of its extrusiveness, though where he slipped, etc., heat and mobility were present. One treading on fire makes only the element of heat his object owing to its extrusiveness, although extension and mobility are present therein. When a strong wind blows striking the ear as if to make one deaf, although extension and heat are present therein, the element of mobility alone is made the object owing to its extrusiveness." 75

That intensity determines as to which element should become the object of touch is recognized by many of the schools of Sanskrit Buddhism, too. The Abhidharmakosa, for instance, poses the question as to why all the elements do not become the object of touch simultaneously. And the answer given is almost the same as that which we mentioned as the second alternative: "On percoit dans un aggrégat donné celle des substances (dravya, terre èlémentaire, etc.) qui se trouve la plus vive (paţutama, sphutatama), et non pas les autres. De même, lorsqu'on touche un faisceau de brins végétaux et d'aiguilles (sūcītūlīkatāpa), on percoit les aiguilles; lorsqu'on mange de la bouillie salée, on percoit la saveur du sel."76

From the Abhidharmakośa one gathers that the scholiasts had advanced more than one explanation in respect of this subject. In the first place, there is the opinion of Bhadanta Srilābha, according to which "les aggrégàts comportent les quatre grands éléments, puisque, etant donnée l'action de certaines causes, les choses solides deviennent liquides, etc.. Le feu élémentaire exists dans l'eau, puisque celle-ci est plus ou moins froide, ce qui s'explique par la présence, on quantité plus ou moins grande, du feu élémentaire." This theory attempts to explain the differences in the objects of touch as being due to a quantitative difference of the mahābhūtas. Thus the degree of hotness in water is dependent on the quantity of tejo-dhātu with which it is mixed (miśrībhāva, vyatibhāva). The Theravādins and the Vaibhāṣikas refuse to believe in a quantitative difference; such a conception, says the tīkā to the Visuddhimagga, does not accord well with the theory of the inseparability of the mahābhūtas. Srilābha's interpretation is criticised in the Abhidharmakośa itself. It observes that the varia-

^{75.} Ibid. loc. cit. (tr. slightly changed).

^{76.} Op. cit. Ch. II, 146.

^{77.} Ibid. loc. cit.

^{78.} Ibid. loc. cit.

^{79.} VismT. p. 451.

bility, say, of cold is due to the variability of the intensity of the $\bar{a}po$ -dhātu and not due to the fact that it gets mixed with its opposite, i.e. heat which is represented by tejo-dhātu.⁸⁰

Still more different is the explanation given by the Sautrāntikas: "les grands éléments qui ne sont pas perçus dans un aggrégàt donné y existent a l'état de semence (bījatas, śaktitas, sāmarthyatas), non pas en acte, non pas en soi (svarūpatas). C'est ainsi que Bhagavat a pu dire: 'Dans ce morceau de bois, il y a beaucoup de dhātus ou substances minérales'. Bhagavat entend que ce bois contient des semences, des potentialités (śakti) de nombreux dhātus; car l'or, l'argent, etc., n'existent pas actuellement dans le bois."81 This theory of the Sautrāntikas appears to be analogous to that of the Theravādins and the Vaibhāṣikas. There is, however, this fundamental difference to be noticed: For the latter, excess (adhikatā) of one element means that it is characterized by more intensity or capability They do not say that the other elements are in an "état de semence". All what they say is that in a given object of touch all the four elements are present and that those elements which are comparatively intense become the object of touch.

Closely connected with this principle of intensity (ussada) is another sense in which the names of the mahābhūtas are used. According to the Abhidhammic interpretation of the mahābhūtas, one cannot speak of material things as paṭhavī, āpo, tejo, and vāyo. For in each and every instance of matter all the four are present. However, there is a sense in which the Ābhidhammikas speak of material aggregates named after the mahābhūtas. This is established with reference to the above-mentioned principle of intensity. If in a given material aggregate the paṭhavī-dhātu is characterized by a comparatively high degree of intensity (ussada) or capability (sāmatthiya), then (as a matter of convention) that material aggregate is also called paṭhavī In such instances the term is sometimes followed by adhika, "excessive" (in intensity or capability), e.g. paṭhavī-adhika. Similarly are used the names of the other three mahābhūtas.⁸²

This kind of description is, in a way, an attempt to accommodate the earlier conception of the *mahābhūtas*, according to which hair, nails, teeth, etc. are *paṭhavī*, blood, mucus, etc. are *āpo* and so on. However, as inter-

^{80.} Op. cit. Ch. II, 146.

^{81.} AK. Ch. II, 147.

^{82.} See Vism. p. 357; Abhvk. p. 274.

preted in the later scholasticism, strictly speaking, no mahābhūta is visible. The attribution of visibility, as the Abhidharmakośa says, is from the point of view of common usage: "Dans l'usage commun, ce qu'on désigne par le mot 'terre,' c'est de la couleur et de la figure"—pṛthivī varṇasaṃsthānaṃ ucyate lokasaṃjñayā.83 According to the Kathāvatthu and its commentary, the Andhakas object to the recognition of mahābhūtas as not visible. "But do we not see"—so runs the argument—"earth, a stone, a mountain, water, fire blazing, trees waving in the wind..?"84 This objection, it needs hardly any mention, has hardly any relevance to the Abhidhammic interpretation of the mahābhūtas. It is only reminiscent of their earlier conception.

The inclusion of the mahābhūtas in phoṭṭhabbāyatana shows that, although not visible, they are tangible. They can be known by the sense of touch. From the point of view of the Theravādins this statement needs qualification. For, as indicated above, in their opinion, only three mahābhūtas, namely, paṭhavī, tejo and vāyo come under phoṭṭhabbāyatana.85 In contrast, the schools of Sanskrit Buddhism include all the four in the sphere of the tangible.86

Why the Theravadins have excluded $\bar{a}po-dh\bar{a}tu$ from the sphere of the tangible is partly explained by what we have observed about the position of $s\bar{\imath}ta$, cold, in relation to the $mah\bar{a}bh\bar{u}tas$. Unlike the Vaibhāṣikas, for instance, the Theravadins do not associate cold with the $\bar{a}po-dh\bar{a}tu$. For the latter, cold is not a force distinct from, but is only the relative absence of, heat ($=tejo-dh\bar{a}tu$). As such, in the view of the Theravadins, both cold ($s\bar{\imath}ta$) and heat (unha), in other words, all degrees of temperature, are represented by, and therefore testify to the presence of, $tejo-dh\bar{a}tu$. 88

 \bar{A} po-dhātu, as stated above, is representative of bandhanatta, the fact of "binding together" or cohesion, and davatā, fluidity. But these, according to Buddhists, are not felt by the sense of touch.⁸⁹ "When one puts his

^{83.} AK. Ch. I, 23.

^{84.} Kvu. p. 331; KvuA. p. 93.

^{85.} See Dhs. pp. 143, 179, Vbh. p. 72.

^{86.} See AK. Ch. I, 18 ff.

^{87.} See above, p. 7.

^{88.} Cf. Kimidam photthabbam nāma? Pathavī-tejō-dhātuttayam. Kasmā pan ettha āpo-dhātu aggahitā? Nanu sītatā phusitvā gayhati? Saccam gayhati. Na pana sā āpo-dhātu, tejō-dhātu eva. Mande hi unhabhāve sitabuddhi. Na hi sītam nāma koci guno atthi—VismT. p. 459; see also ADSVT. p. 111.

^{89.} See ADSVT. p. 111; VismS. V, 257.

hand into cold water, the softness of water felt is not $\bar{a}po$, but $paṭhav\bar{\imath};^{90}$ the cold felt is not $\bar{a}po$, but tejo; the pressure felt is not $\bar{a}po$, but $v\bar{a}yo.$ "91 Its cohesion and fluidity, whatever be their degree of intensity or capability, are not felt by the sense of touch. Hence $\bar{a}po-dh\bar{a}tu$ is excluded from $phoṭthabb\bar{a}yatana$ and is included in $dhamm\bar{a}yatana.$ 92 That is to say, it cannot be known by any of the senses other than the mind (mano). It is known by a process of inference.

The general position assigned to the mahābhūtas may now be considered. If one were to examine how they are interpreted in other systems of Indian thought, one would notice that in Buddhism they were assigned a comparatively primary position. What the Sāmkhya considers as mahābhūtas are not the ultimate irreducible constituents of matter, for they are evolved immediately from the tanmātras and ultimately from the prakṛti, the uncaused first cause of the world of non-self.93 According to the Vedāntins, the *mahābhūtas* are produced from the *sūkṣma-bhūtas*. former are a species of gross matter and the latter a species of subtle matter.94 For the Jainas the ultimate constituents of puggala, matter, are not the four elements (dhādu-catukka), but the homogeneous atoms (paramāṇu). The latter are recognized as the essential causes of the former. The Nyāya-Vaisesikas postulate four kinds of atoms corresponding to the four elemental substances, namely, earth, water, fire and air. 96 This may be described as an attempt to reconcile the older theory of the mahābhūtas with the later atomic theory.

In Buddhism, unlike in many other systems of Indian thought, the *mahābhūtas* are assigned a primary position in the sense that they are recognized as the ultimate irreducible data of matter. It is of course true that a given instance of matter consists of not only the four *mahābhūtas* but also of a set of *upādā-rūpas*, such as colour, smell, taste, etc. But these so-called *upādā-rūpas*, as conceived in Buddhism, are always dependent on, and therefore secondary to, the *mahābhūtas* (primary elements).⁹⁷ Even

^{90.} because softness is relative absence of hardness = paṭhavī-dhātu.

^{91.} Aung, Compendium of Philosophy, P.T.S., p. 155, n. 6.

^{92.} See Dhs. p. 179.

^{93.} See Seal, Positive Sciences of the Hindus, Delhi, 1925, Ch. I.

^{94.} Ibid. loc. cit.

^{95.} Cf. Adesamattamutto dhāducatukkassa kāraṇam jo du/ so neo paramāno parināmaguno sayamasaddō//—Pañcastikāya-sāra, ed. Chakravartinayanar, Allahabad, 1920, p. 28.

^{96.} See Bhaduri, Nyāya-Vaišesika Metaphysics, Poona, 1947, Ch. 3.

^{97.} See Dhs. p. 153.

the development of the theory of $r\bar{u}pa-kal\bar{a}pas$, i.e. the Theravāda form of atomism, 98 did not, in any way, reduce the $mah\bar{a}bh\bar{u}tas$ to a secondary position. For in every $r\bar{u}pa-kal\bar{a}pa$, the smallest unit of matter, all the four $mah\bar{a}bh\bar{u}tas$ are necessarily present. 99 Although they are postulated as the ultimate (primary) elements of matter, the $mah\bar{a}bh\bar{u}tas$ are not to be understood as uncaused or as ever-perduring entities. They, too, come under the laws of "phenomenal" (sankhata) existence. As Buddhaghosa says, they are anicca in the sense of liability to destruction, dukkha in the sense of being a source of suffering, and anatta in the sense of having no ever-perduring essence. 100

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^{98.} For more details on this theory, see ADS. pp. 27 ff.; ADSVT. pp. 56 ff.; SS. pp. 5 ff.; NRS. pp. 17 ff.

Cf. Aññamaññen'upatthaddhā sesarūpassa nissayā catudh'evam kalāpesu mahābhūtā pavattare.—NRP. p. 34.

^{100.} See Vism. p. 446.

Abbreviations

(All Pali texts, unless otherwise stated, are those of the Pali Text Society)

A. Anguttaranikāya.

Abhvk. Abhidhammatthavikāsinī, ed. A. P. Buddhadatta, Colombo, 1961.

Abhvt. Abhidhammävatāra.

ADS. Abhidhammatthasangaha.

ADSS. Abhidharmārthasangrahasannaya, ed. Pañnāmoli Tissa, Ambalan-

goda, 1926.

ADSVT. Abhidhammatthasangaha-Vibhavinī-Tīkā, ed. D. Pannanda,

Colombo, 1889.

AK. L'Abhidharmakośa de Vasubandhu, I—VI, tr. L. de la Vallee

Poussin, Paris, 1923—31.

AKvy. Abhidharmakośa-vyākhyā (Sphūţārthā), I—II, ed. U. Wogihara,

Tokyo, 1932—36.

Asl. Atthasālinī.

D. Dīghanikāya.Dhs. Dhammasanganī.

Kvu. Kathāvatthu.

KvuA. Kathāvatthuppakarana-Aṭṭhakathā.

M. Majjhimanikāya.Mvn. Mohavicchedanī.

NRP. Nāmarūpapariccheda.

NRS. Nāmarūpasamāsa. S. Samyuttanikāya.

88. Saccasankhepa.

Tkp. Tikapaṭṭhāna.

Vbh. Vibhaṅga.

Vism. Visuddhimagga.

VismS. Viśuddhimārgasannaya, I—VI, ed. M. Dharmaratna, Colombo,

1890—1917.

VismT. Visuddhimagga-tīkā (Paramatthamañjūsā), ed. M. Dhammānanda,

Colombo, 1928.

VS. Vaišesika Sūtras of Kanāda, ed. N. Sinha, Allahabad, 1911.