VALUES, NON-VIOLENCE AND ECOLOGY: TWO APPROACHES

Indian thought has casually been charged as not having developed critical ethics. In numerous ancient writings there are long lists of virtues to be observed in practical life, but the ethical theory as such may seem inadequate to some Westerners. The West has fairly recently developed, particularly through the English medium, formal ethics. Hence we have quite a few books on General Moral Theory and on Descriptive Ethics. However, the reader may not, after studying several of these books, have the slightest idea of how this reading has helped him in knowing what is right and what is wrong in any actual situation of his life.

Nevertheless, in *Karma* theory or Philosophy of Action and in Value Theory, Indian Schools are not "less developed." It may be that the classification of numerous virtues relates to those virtues that belong to practical life or that are corollaries of the moral guidelights of life.

Indian schools of thought may not, if we want to be a little snobbish, be called "ethics," but rather "values." Moreover, Indian ethics is, in principle, teleological and not deontological. Moral behaviour is not good for its own sake, but because it serves a good purpose. Right behaviour is instrumental to a good aim. The theory is thus found more intimately in connection with the end served by action than with the nature of goodness or beauty of the action itself.

The innumerable virtues, for instance non-violence, mental peace, non-attachment, service of the preceptor, self-control, devotion to God, etc., are basically not to be discussed merely as having a moral value. Moral behaviour serves as an instrument either to a social or a spiritual end.

There are two terms in the orthodox, Vedas recognizing thought, which are used to imply a group of values. *Trivarga*, "the aggregate of three values," includes *dharma*, socio-ethical good, *artha*, economic

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good and $k\bar{a}ma$, psycho-hedonistic good. Another term $purus\bar{a}rtha$ or "good of man" includes these three values and, besides, moksa or emancipation, the ultimate end of life as a fourth value.

These two aggregates cover comprehensively the Hindu ideas of value. It appears that, in the Vedic tradition, trivarga is a more original and historically earlier value-system. The fourth value mokşa was added to the three former values at the time of the earliest Upanişads. But, even then, there was a continuation of the trivarga system also as self-sufficient within the four-value system.

Thus there are two different value-systems, one aiming at mundane welfare or samsāra, the other aiming at individual spiritual emancipation or mokṣa. It seems to me that it is difficult philosophically to derive mokṣa from mundane welfare. Mokṣa is in many ways a negation of samsāra. It is a counter-charge against welfare or a counter-check opposed to samsāra.

There is a gap or a conceptual break in continuity between *mokṣa* and the mundane welfare. Philosophically, the gap is irrational and can at best be described as *neti*, *neti*, as a negation of something positive or by a negation of various negations.

Thus there are two contrary Moral Philosophies in India. They are opposed to each other in tendency. I may call them Vedic and ascetic. The Vedic Philosophy is based directly on the way of life of the early Aryans who invaded India from the West.

The ascetic philosophy includes the non-Vedic ideas of the Jainas and Buddhists. The Yoga and Sānkhya schools had their roots in the Indus culture. We may generalize: the ascetic movement, including some of the earlier Upaniṣads, was not based on the Aryan Vedas, but on the original pre-Vedic cultures of India. The ascetic countercultural ideology was most probably rooted in the suppressed, militarily and politically defeated remnants of the natives.

The cultural difference between the two originally distinct cultures is most clear in terms of values. In the Rgveda there are innumerable prayers for protection. Gods are urged not to harm the supplicant himself,

his family and domestic animals, cows and horses.¹ Protection from thieves and enemies,² and from harmful criticism, too, is asked for.⁵ That the enemy or opponent be liquidated and one's strength increased is also prayed for on various occasions.⁴

Bodily health, welfare and happiness are valued.⁵ Wealth in the form of jewels, horses, cows, food, or even a hundred towns to rule over, are repeatedly asked for.⁶ Wishes for a long life, progeny and fame are expressed.⁷

Vedic people seem mostly to have valued physical protection, property as food, cows and horses, long life and health, progeny, particularly brave and skilled sons, removal of sin and lease of immortality. Their concern was mainly with the necessities of biological life and security.

Anyway, instead of seen values, the tradition based on the ascetic sources gives attention to unseen values. A Jain source relates that study of the sastras, if done according to one's capacity and with devotion, will bring forth an unexpected result in this world, and in the future, too.8 It is widely held that a proper action brings forth a good result even when not immediately recognized, or when the immediate result is adverse. Sometimes the result may be delayed because of some obstacle. Therefore, observation of merely seen results may give very little information about the fruits of action, the most valued fruits being by their very nature unseen.

Thus we may consider highly probable that Indian, even Vedic culture after the first *Upanişads*, adopted the sramanic culture to its lap. Since then the Vedic majority culture and the originally depressed civilization have grown to be on reciprocal terms with each other. It is difficult to provide any immediate proof of this fact, it is merely a justified assumption based on circumstantial evidence.

^{1.} Rgveda 1. 114.7-8.

^{2.} Ibid., 2.23.16.

^{3.} Ibid., 1, 18, 3,

^{4.} Ibid., 1. 2. 9; 2. 23. 17.

^{5.} Ibid., 1. 93. 7; 1. 90. 3; 1. 25. 19; 7. 16. 8; 1. 143. 8.

^{6.} Ibid., 1. 43. 2; 1. 48. 1; 1. 157. 2; 7. 16. 10.

^{7.} Ibid., 8. 48. 4; 7. 16. 4; 8. 59. 7.

^{8.} Sägaradharmamrta 8.78.

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What best remained or survived out of the pre-Aryan cultures was the sramanic movement, because the ascetics could withdraw to the woods or to isolation. For during many centuries, though, Indian culture greatly benefited from the dialogue between the two originally different and may be even mutually hostile cultures. The sramanic culture was grafted on or inserted into the Vedic trunk.

I will take one concrete example of the reciprocal influence of the originally different ideologies. There are, as I see it, two different ideas of ahimsā in Indian thought. I may label them 'sramanic' and 'Vedic'. The former is, for instance, mentioned in the Sāndilya-Upaniṣad.9 It means not to cause suffering to any living being at any time either by mental, vocal or bodily activities. The Jainas, Buddhists and Yogins approve the idea of ahimsā in this sense. The point is that any intentional act causing harm or suffering to any living being is to be labelled as 'himsā'. Therefore, ahimsā, as a concept, is also applied to all living beings.

However, the moral tradition based on the originally Vedic sources seems to be different. In the *Chāndogya-Upaniṣad* we find an important Vedic statement regarding *ahimsā*. He who practises non-violence towards all creatures, except at holy places, will not return to this world again.¹⁰ This statement allows of the killing of animals at sacrifices.

But it is not only that killing is sometimes morally right, or is a morally permissible type of violence, it is under certain conditions to be ahimsā. Manu appears to say that the himsā prescribed in the Vedas should be construed to mean ahimsā, because moral duties spring from the prescriptions in the Vedas. This Vedic conception of non-violence is expressed in a clear form in the Mahābhārata: the violence done to an evil-doer (asādhu-himsā) for maintaining wordly affairs in ahimsā. This means that "violence to an evil-doer" is bracketed with the concept of "ahimsā".

In the Yajurveda, a wish for universal friendliness is expressed: May all other beings look at me with a friendly eye, may I do likewise, and

^{9. 1.1.}

^{10. 8. 15. 1.}

^{11. 5.44.}

^{12.} Santi - Parva 15.49.

may we all look on each other with the eyes of a friend.¹³ These words could be taken to signify the various stages in the development of a basic moral idea. First, man desired that others might treat him in a friendly way, only then he found others desiring the same in an analogy to his own self. Finally the wish was made into a universal rule.

In the early Vedas 'not to violate' was as a verb used in an amoral sense. It was prayed that "I may not be injured physically" and that "my family, friends and my cattle may not be injured." It was only later that the verb 'not to violate' and the noun 'non-violence' gained a moral sense. One's own subjective wish, not to be violated, was reciprocated. It was addressed as a duty also to oneself. Besides, animal sacrifices were criticized and the value of animal life may not have been out of Aryan origin. Because of this, non-violence was extended to all living beings: $sarvabh\bar{u}ta$.

Primarily the Vedic tradition recognizes $k\bar{a}ma$, the psycho-hedonistic value, as the primary and most comprehensive value. It is a naturalistic value, and all living things observe it as a life-force. The etymological meaning of $k\bar{a}ma$ is desire. $k\bar{a}ma$ as a hedonistic desire or pleasure is an extended meaning of the original sense of the word.

 $K\bar{a}ma$ as a naturalistic value is attached to all life, not merely human. Hence, irrespective of what human beings are conscious of and strive for, all life has value. The higher values, as dharma and mokşa which are practised by men only, do not negate $k\bar{a}ma$ as a value. The higher values rather specify $k\bar{a}ma$. In the Bhagavad- $Git\bar{a}$, K_I sna says he is $k\bar{a}ma$ in all beings not in conflict with dharma. There are even references to "mokşa- $k\bar{a}ma$ ". Hence all life is "holy" in the sense that it has value by itself, inherently.

Yet kāma as such functions wantonly. Therefore, a limit and specification is needed for rational beings. One of the most basic meanings of dharma seems to be coloured by social concern in apposition to the empirical fact that there are many beings who may suffer injury due to wanton or selfish action. Dharma is explained as making violent

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^{13.} Yajurveda 36.18.

^{14. 7.11.}

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beings non-violent.¹⁵ All *dharma* and *artha* are hidden in *ahimsā*.¹⁶ Ahimsā is said to be the essence of *dharma*.¹⁷

It may be that the idea of *dharma* has developed as response to a social concern: Man is not alone in the universe, there are other resembling beings as well. In a basic sense *dharma* means non-injury of living beings. Logically, in the most developed sense, it means non-injury of all living beings. As a universalized idea, this refers to all beings capable of realizing *kāma* in their own life.

Dharma has been primarily declared for ensuring the non-violability of all living beings. In this negative sense moral responsibility is unlimited. It is an ideal, it is not merely confined to the subjects of the existing society, not even to all human beings.

But, to be practised in actual life, dharma gained a positive content in the form of varna-āsrama-dharma. The pursuit of mundane welfare limited the practice of ahimsa as a universal moral norm. The three-value-system therefore allows the practice of ahimsa only so far as it is pragmatic in economic, social and political life.

Ascetics, however, were not limited in their ethical pursuit by the values of samsāra or mundane welfare. Other moral norms, such as for instance, asteya, non-stealing, focused their attention from seen to objects unseen. They did not hanker after goods which were not really needed or were not beneficial for a spiritual gain. Ascetics could apply ahimsā to all living beings with radically less limitations in comparison to laymen. So they even excluded Vedic violence from the concept of non-violence. To kill an animal at a sacrifice was not an act of "non-violence," not even a morally approved type of violence.

Ascetics may not have applied ahimsā basically because of the good of other beings, but because of their own spiritual good. Violence, even when socially pragmatic, is an expression of bad or mixed

^{15.} Śāntiparva 69.57.

^{16.} Ibid., 245.19.

^{17.} Canakyasūtra 561.

motives which harm the doer himself. Kāma in all beings was not the primary motive, but freedom from the taint of an individual's own immoral action. For an ascetic, non-violence was morally obligatory primarily because of his own spiritual good, yet this good implied the non-violability of all beings.

It is my hypothesis that Indian Philosophy, especially the Moral Philosophy has two different origins, mundane welfare and a countercultural movement. Both these traditions seem to relate ahimsā to ecology in two different ways, and that is a matter of values.