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第五輯

目錄

聖嚴法師旅行書寫中的歷史特質研究 王美秀 9
一、前言
二、傳統的繼承與潮流的超越——文學史視域13
三、遊記與傳記的交錯疊合——生命史視域22
四、傳播佛法與回歸法源——佛教史視域
五、結語
英文摘要
The Publishing of Buddhist Books for Beginners in Modern China
from Yang Wenhui to Master ShengyenGregory Adam Scott 51
1. Introduction 53
2. Yang Wenhui and the Re-Transmission of a Buddhist Primer 55
3. Annotated Scriptures and Collected Evidentiary Tales:
Ding Fubao
4. Master Shengyen and Dharma Drum Publications in New York 87
5. Conclusion: Conversion by the Book
山 文協更 108

Hearing the Absolute Hearing:	
Interpreting "Guanyin's Perfection of Hearing" in the	
Lengyanjing (Śūraṃgama Sūtra)Brook Ziporyn	111
1. Introduction	113
2. Five Traditional Readings of the Key Passage	114
3. Interpreting the Five Readings	116
4. Synoptic View of the Diverse Interpretations	130
5. Implications for General Ontology, Ethics and Epistemology	135
中文摘要	145
Empowerment and Mutual Adaptation:	
Exploring the Care for Vulnerable Workers by Social Enterpr	ises
in the Light of the Workplace Ethics of the Mind	
Leemen Lee, Namwinbele Modeste Some	147
1. Introduction	148
2. Literature Review	150
3. Methodology	156
4. Findings and Discussion	159
5. Conclusion: Self Discovering through Service to Others	168
中文摘要	172
規畫法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之	温
域急難救助公共空間	
—— 落實整體關懷計畫 邱明民、商能洲	173
一、研究計畫之背景及目的	175
二、研究方法	176
三、期末研究成果與進度	183

四、結論與建議 212	2
英文摘要	2
試論聖嚴法師對中華禪之承傳和轉化	
——以印順法師觀點為對比之考察	5
一、前言	5
二、印順法師對佛法之抉擇及禪宗之評斷	7
三、聖嚴法師對中華禪之承傳和轉化	5
四、試論聖嚴法師創立中華禪法鼓宗之禪門特色	ļ
五、結語	Ĺ
英文摘要	7
聖嚴法師創建法鼓山之時代意義	
——以「四個環保」思想為對象之研究)
♦±	
一、緒論	
二、法鼓山的一大使命與三大教育	
	1
二、法鼓山的一大使命與三大教育274	1)
二、法鼓山的一大使命與三大教育274 三、四個環保思想的提出與法鼓山「人間淨土」之推動 290	1) 3
二、法鼓山的一大使命與三大教育	1 3 5
二、法鼓山的一大使命與三大教育	1 3 5 9
二、法鼓山的一大使命與三大教育	1 3 5 9
二、法鼓山的一大使命與三大教育	1 3 5 9

五、結論	
英文摘要	
聖嚴法師的環境哲學思想 程進發 343	
一、前言	
二、建立於心靈環保的環境哲學是一種環境存有論 346	
三、聖嚴法師環境哲學與納斯深層生態學的自我	
四、不丹GNH與聖嚴法師環境哲學的普世價值	
五、結語	
英文摘要	
聖嚴法師的華嚴思想	
一、引言	
二、由華嚴判教所示的真理趣入之道	
三、華嚴圓融無盡真理的詮釋	
四、《華嚴心詮》的思想特色400	
五、結論	
英文摘要	
Between Zen and the Pure Land:	
Locating Yongming Yanshou's Model of Chan as Bodhisattva	
Cultivation Albert Welter 415	
1. Introduction	
2. Questions Regarding Yongming Yanshou's Buddhist Identity 418	
3. Revisioning Yanshou as a Pure Land Master, Past and Present 421	
4. Conclusion	
中文摘要 430	

當代女禪師的培養與弘化

——以法鼓山僧團的比丘尼為例 釋常諗	431
一、前言	433
二、法鼓山比丘尼禪修發展史	437
三、禪宗法理、創辦人理念與性別議題	449
四、結語	463
英文摘要	471

聖嚴法師旅行書寫中的 歷史特質研究

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▮摘要

聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中包含了對歷史的繼承、回應、超 越,乃至轉變等歷史特質。在文學史視域中,聖嚴法師的旅 行書寫繼承了中國文學的「行記」傳統,使此傳統在現代社 會得以新面貌延續。他的旅行書寫雖可視為臺灣返鄉文學 的範疇,但深刻佛理的呈現使其作品成為超越潮流之作。有 關法鼓山的記敘使他的旅行書寫少了一些「遊」的成分,卻 在旅行文學中獨創一格,更隱隱然改變了旅行文學的內涵。 在生命史視域中,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫顯現「遊記」與「傳 記,交錯疊合的現象,此現象與其寫作方法及對旅行的定義 有關。他的遊記多採用日記體,由寥寥數字的記要備忘發展 而成。他對旅行意義的界定,不僅指向外顯性的空間移動, 更指涉內在生命旅程的推進,故常將個人生命史中的事件寫 進他的旅行著作中。以佛教史的視域,聖嚴法師以旅行弘法 教學,也期待透過旅行書寫引導讀者獲得佛理法義。他也以 旅行書寫保存文獻,使他的文章具有理性的認知與思維,不 僅為臺灣的旅行文學開創新貌,更使其旅行書寫成為歷史的 載體。在他的文章中,旅行者實際參與參訪地的佛教活動,

不僅增加了旅行的深度,也產生以旅行回歸法源的殊勝意 義。

關鍵詞:聖嚴法師、佛教文學、旅行書寫、臺灣文學、歷史 特質

一、前言

聖嚴法師為一代高僧,他崇高的修養與深厚的學術造 詣,深受世人所景仰。在聖嚴法師的領導之下,法鼓山成 為臺灣佛教與社會的燈塔,它不僅是佛教史上標誌性的道 場,對於臺灣社會的優質化更是貢獻良多。二○○四年,聖 嚴法師在紐約聯合國「哈瑪紹紀念堂」(Dag Hammarskjold Library Auditorium)演講時提出「全球倫理」觀念,獲得不少 回響,隨後又提出「心六倫」等主張,深受國內外各界的肯 定,❶使聖嚴法師與法鼓山更加受到國際社會的肯定。

在心靈改造工程的推動、佛學思想的闡發、學佛修練方法的提昇與推廣的同時,聖嚴法師也不忘文學性的寫作,尤其是他的旅行書寫。一九八七年四月,聖嚴法師在故鄉親人的呼喚之下返鄉探親,當時距離他在一九四九年五月跟隨國民黨軍隊撤離中國大陸來到臺灣已經四十年。在這趟前後十九天的返鄉行之後,聖嚴法師寫下了他的第一本遊記——《法源血源》。②在此之後他又陸陸續續完成並付梓十多部遊記,包括《佛國之旅》、③《金山有鑛》、④《五百菩薩走

[●] 聖嚴法師所提出「全球倫理」與「心六倫」的相關資訊,可參見聖嚴法 師網站:http://www.shengyen.org。

❷此書最初由臺北東初出版社於一九八八年出版,書名為《法源血源:記 大陸探親十九天》,後簡略為《法源血源》,收入《法鼓全集》第六輯 第二冊,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年。

[●] 此書原由臺北東初出版社於一九九三年初版,後收入《法鼓全集》第六輯第三冊,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年。

[●]此書原由臺北東初出版社於一九九三年初版,後收入《法鼓全集》第六 輯第四冊,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年。

江湖——禪宗祖庭探源》❺等。前後將近二十年的時間,聖嚴 法師已經為臺灣閱讀大眾留下了既豐富又珍貴的旅行文學作 品。❺根據丁敏教授的研究,這十多本旅行系列的書寫,不論 就旅行書的數量、經歷的時間、行旅的國家,在旅遊作家群 中都應是名列前茅,也引起了媒體的注意,❼可見其旅行著作 在臺灣當代文學中的重要性。

相對於佛學著作與社會改進的主張,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫之研究則顯得較為冷清。目前最有成就者當為丁敏教授, **3** 除此之外尚未見以聖嚴法師的旅行書寫為研究主題者。聖嚴法師的旅行書寫文辭樸質而情感誠摯,並且在淡如清風的文

- ●本書由法鼓文化初版於二○○三年,二○○五年再版時書名簡略為 《五百菩薩走江湖》,收入《法鼓全集》第六輯第十四冊,臺北:法鼓 文化,2005年。
- 聖嚴法師的旅行書寫可以向前追溯至留日期間的《留日見聞》,唯因《法源血源》之後的旅行書寫已成為一完整系列,因此本文進行時將以此系列為主要依據,並參酌聖嚴法師在此之前的著作。《留日見聞》原由臺北東初出版社出版,後收入《法鼓全集》第三輯第四冊,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年。
- 丁敏〈當代臺灣旅遊文學中的僧侶記遊:以聖嚴法師《寰遊自傳系列》 為探討〉,《佛學研究中心學報》第7期,2002年7月,頁341-378。
- ③丁敏教授自2002年7月於臺灣大學佛學研究中心的《佛學研究中心學報》第7期發表〈當代臺灣旅遊文學中的僧侶記遊:以聖嚴法師《寰遊自傳系列》為探討〉一文之後,並陸續發表〈中國僧侶,歐美行禪──探訪聖嚴法師「寰遊自傳系列」的旅遊視角〉,《人生》雜誌第246期,2004年2月,頁108-113;〈默照禪七,聖嚴禪風──探訪聖嚴法師「寰遊自傳系列」的旅遊視角〉,《人生》雜誌第247期,2004年3月,頁98-102;〈心靈環保,臺灣領航──探訪聖嚴法師「寰遊自傳系列」的旅遊視角〉,《人生》雜誌第248期,2004年4月,頁108-111;〈60歲的尋根《法源血源》──知恩報恩溯本源〉,《人生》雜誌第308期,2009年4月,頁16-19。對於聖嚴法師旅行書寫之研究深具貢獻。

章中別有一種堅定的意志,在現代旅行文學中獨樹風格。研究聖嚴法師的旅行書寫可以從文學的層面彰顯一代高僧的偉大人格,更可在旅行書寫中體會聖嚴法師的佛法實踐,因此兼具文學與佛學的意義。本文擬先就聖嚴法師旅行書寫中所蘊涵的歷史特質進行探討,從文學的角度彰顯聖嚴法師的貢獻。本文所謂「歷史特質」乃指聖嚴法師的旅行書寫對於歷史的繼承、回應、超越,乃至轉變。本文將以「類別史」為進路,分析聖嚴法師的旅行書寫在「文學史」、「生命史」與「佛教史」視域中所呈現的歷史特質,希望透過本文的撰寫,為聖嚴法師的旅行書寫之研究略盡棉薄。囿於才疏學淺,粗陋之處,尚祈方家指正。

二、傳統的繼承與潮流的超越——文學史視域

今日學界習稱的「旅行書寫」或「旅行文學」,可以說是古典文學中的「遊記」或「行記」,其內容為出外遠行者為自己的旅行經驗所留下的文字紀錄,在中國文學史上,一直都是文學中的一個重要類別。 ⑤「旅行文學」或「旅行書寫」,顧名思義是為了記載旅行中的所見所聞所感所思,凡付諸筆端的一切見聞感思的生發,皆來自於「旅行」——由空間移動的事實所累積的經驗,以及隱含在空間移動中,不可避免的時間流逝。因此,「旅行」的顯性特質固然為空間移動,其隱性特質卻是時間流動。簡而言之,「旅行」必

[●] 有關早期中國「行記」的討論,請參見李德輝〈漢魏六朝行記三類兩體 敘論〉,《東華漢學》第14期,2011年12月,頁21-54。

須具有兩個基本要素,一是由於空間移動,相對於習以為常、安之若素所居之處的人事景物,引生對於異地所產生的「新」、「奇」與「異」的感受;另一則是由時間流動所引導不可避免的「時移事(世)異」的「新故衝突」之感。順沿這兩條線索所進行的細部閱讀,可以發現聖嚴法師的旅行書寫不僅繼承了中國文學史上的「行記」傳統,同時也是現當代臺灣文學領域中獨具特色的「返鄉文學」典型作品。

聖嚴法師旅行書寫就內容而言,大致可分為三類:一為佛教聖地的禮拜與參訪,二為弘法行跡與建設法鼓山的紀錄,三為個人生命的回顧與省察。其中第一類書寫,最能顯現法師繼承中國文學傳統中旅行文學的重要性,尤以《佛國之旅》堪稱為承先啟後之作。這部著作記載了聖嚴法師到印度地區旅行的經驗。在釋迦牟尼佛涅槃後的兩千五百年,聖嚴法師追隨佛陀一生的行跡來到印度,懷著一脈相承的禪慧佛心,親身體驗佛陀弘化時的悲願與辛勞。雖然在佛教的發源地印度,佛陀化世時的盛況不再,但他的教化早已廣被娑婆,深護人心;為了緬懷世尊遺留在人間的恩澤,聖嚴法師懷著虔誠的心,追隨歷代先師高僧的足印,踏上了佛的國度,發願繼承佛的志業,建立廣度眾生的清涼世界。《佛國之旅》不僅在書名上與東晉高僧法顯的經典之作《佛國記》相近,在旅行路線與在宗教情懷方面,更顯現古今對話、兩者相互映照的意義。❶

不過,《佛國之旅》並非聖嚴法師最早的旅行書寫成果,出版於一九八八年的《法源血源》才是聖嚴法師一系列 旅行書寫中的第一部,其書寫動機與題材,則來自於此書出 版前一年返鄉之行的經驗與感觸。

一九八三年與一九八五年間,聖嚴法師先後收到昔日讀書時代的教務主任育枚老法師與俗家姪兒的來信,希望他回故鄉探望親人故友。其中尤其是聖嚴法師親姪兒的來信,文字順暢而感人至深。當時中國大陸呼籲海外僑胞「認同」與「回歸」,從一九七九年開始對臺灣提出「三通」和「四流」。臺灣政府也基於人道立場,自一九八七年十一月開始,准許臺灣居民前往大陸探親。●值此機緣,聖嚴法師遂在一九八八年四月八日開始,展開了一趟十九天的返鄉之旅。●根據聖嚴法師的〈自序〉,他一開始並未計畫為這次旅行留下文字。他說:

我這次回大陸訪問,是臨時決定的,故未準備寫書。進 入大陸的十九天中,沒有做手記和日記,更沒有計畫收集 寫作資料。抱著看看我家鄉和幾處佛教古道場的心情,到

[●] 相關討論,請參見王美秀〈對話與辯證——聖嚴法師的旅行書寫與法顯 《佛國記》之比較研究〉,發表於「第三屆聖嚴思想國際研討會」(臺

北,2010年5月),會後收錄於《聖嚴研究第二輯》,臺北:法鼓文化, 2011年,頁7-46;以及氏著〈論聖嚴法師旅行書寫中的古典特質與古今對 映〉,《漢學研究集刊》第12期,2011年6月,頁165-188。

[●] 此為當時時事,但此處敘述借用聖嚴法師書中言簡意賅之說明。詳見法 師所著《法源血源》,頁16。

[●] 聖嚴法師在《法源血源》一書的〈自序〉、〈俗家姪兒的來信〉、〈歸鄉夢〉、〈三則回大陸的故事〉等文章中,都提到返鄉探親的前因。詳見《法源血源》,頁3-19。

了北京、洛陽、西安、上海等四個地區,沒有像一般佛教 徒朝拜四大名山和佛教名勝的心理準備,去看眾所周知的 道場。图

但是,探親之旅結束之後,聖嚴法師卻無法平息心中的 波動,最終不得已而執筆為文。他說:

當我結束探親訪問的日程,回到僑居地紐約之後,不 論白天或夢寢中,十九天的訪問過程,久久縈繞,揮之不 去。所以不得已而執筆為文,本來只想寫幾千字,略抒胸 中塊壘,想不到開始寫作之後,竟然欲罷不能,在數日之 間,成稿盈筴,而完成了這本日記式的小書。❸

正是這種情動於中而形諸文字的自然表現,使聖嚴法師的第一部旅行著作,也就是法師自己所稱的「日記式的小書」——《法源血源》得以與世人見面,讓世人經由書中質 樸的文字,感受法師真摯感人的深情。

聖嚴法師將返鄉之行的經驗與感觸化諸文字,付梓出版 時,也正是臺灣文學界出現短暫「返鄉文學」(或稱「探親 文學」)風潮的時候。**⑤**當時許多追隨國民政府渡海來臺的

軍民,離鄉背井四十年之後,在開放政策之下,回應親人的 呼喚,返回中國大陸探親。這些所謂「外省」軍民在國共分 裂、兩岸分治的政治現實之下,曾經因為政治與歷史因素, 為臺灣海峽所阻隔而有鄉歸不得。他們長年盼望有朝一日可 以反攻大陸,回返故鄉與家人團圓;即便一九七万年蔣介石 去世,反攻大陸的可能性已渺然若夢,但他們之中的多數 人,依舊緊緊懷拘著褪色的歸鄉夢。然而兩岸開放後,一朝 返鄉,卻發現四十年中物換星移,物是人非,故鄉早已經成 為異鄉,而回首來處,藉以棲留漂泊之身的異鄉臺灣,卻才 是安身立命的家鄉。許多返鄉探親的人在這波風潮之中,以 矛盾錯愕的心情再次告別中國大陸的故鄉,回到臺灣。當時 的返鄉文學所呈現的正是這種返鄉/離鄉、家鄉/異鄉之間 的矛盾、衝擊與辯證。聖嚴法師的返鄉之行,恰逢探親風潮 **興起之時,他的第一部旅行著作也因緣際會,恰可歸之於探** 親文學的潮流之中,可說是這段時期的時代文學。不過,較 諸其他返鄉探親的人,聖嚴法師雖然思念親人,愛護親人, 但始終靈台清明,較諸他人,更顯現出一種超越人情的高 度。他說:

中國人有「倦鳥知返」及「落葉歸根」的成語。我這隻笨鳥,在海外亂闖瞎飛了四十年,返回故土時,故鄉的泥土依然芳香,故國的山河處處壯麗,卻已不見生我育我的舊巢,加上我乃從小出家,早已沒有眷戀老巢的情執,所以雖已是垂老,還沒有要將這把骨頭送回老家的想法。這次大陸探親之行,與其說「歸根」,毋寧說

❸ 釋聖嚴〈自序〉,《法源血源》,頁3。

[@]同註®。

[●] 探親文學或返鄉文學風潮的短暫顯現,可見諸臺灣文壇所編輯的散文 選。自民國七十六至七十九年,每年的散文選都提到探親文學風潮,也 都收錄了若干佳作。詳參蕭蕭等人編輯,臺北九歌出版社出版的年度散 文選。

是回到我血緣的源頭及法緣的源頭,做一次巡禮式的尋根訪問。**®**

由於自小出家,這次「巡禮」式的尋根訪問,使聖嚴法師的返鄉探親之行得以發乎情止乎「理」;面見自己的血脈源頭,親見自己的生之源與法之源,巡見之,禮敬之,更進而超越之。在聖嚴法師的作品中並沒有其他「探親文學」所顯現的矛盾與衝突,以及悲涼無奈的返鄉/離鄉、家鄉/異鄉的辯證。故而,就旅行的動機而言,聖嚴法師的第一部旅行著作,確實可以歸屬於臺灣文學中的「返鄉文學」的範疇,但從思想層面而言,這一部作品卻遠遠超越了探親文學的高度,成為臺灣文學史上的奇葩。

探親文學的風潮急湧而現,也快速消退,此中固然存有 政治因素,但主要原因應該是歸鄉夢已然得償——無論是何 種方式,何種結果。取而代之的,是許多因為政府開放觀光 而興起的海外遊記。作家陳幸蕙在編選年度散文選時曾說:

在回顧七十五年散文現象時,值得注意的一個特色則是 遊記文學的顯著增加;這顯示自開放觀光後,散文作家以 出國旅遊為愉快的精神充電方式,已蔚然成風。今後,由 於物質富裕,社會經濟穩定成長,作家為了追求經驗,收 集寫作素材或接受新事物新文化的刺激,出國旅遊人數當

有增無減,而遊記散文亦有可能繼續增加。₩

她的觀察心得是當時臺灣文學界的直切事實,她的預言 也符合了後來的文學發展,旅行文學的寫作與旅行文學的 相關討論,已然成為這二十多年來文壇與學界關心的重點之 一。聖嚴法師自第二部遊記《佛國之旅》開始的系列寫作, 從開放觀光的法律觀點出發,固然可以歸為在此風潮之下的 作品,但是,聖嚴法師的域外旅行,絕非如一般「作家為了 追求經驗,收集寫作素材或接受新事物新文化的刺激」所產 生的作品。以《東西南北》為例,聖嚴法師在短短一年零一 個月的時間裡,游歷了亞、美、歐三洲,奔走東西兩個半 球,步履南北五個國家。從臺北到紐約,從香港到夏威夷; 在皚皚白雪的洛磯山下演講,在哥斯大黎加與大使對話,在 綿羊成群的威爾斯牧場主持禪修營……。❸《空花水月》中所 敘寫的,則是「經過的時間,大約十一個月,經歷的空間, 則包括臺灣、香港、菲律賓、日本、波蘭、克羅埃西亞、美 國、義大利。」❸這種令人驚歎的忙碌而辛苦的行程,遠非一 般旅行者所能勝任,而聖嚴法師之所以能夠如此不辭辛勞, 幾乎年年奔波於各種旅途之間的原因,從不是為了遊山玩 水,賞奇觀異,而是因為重要的任務。他曾在《火宅清涼》

[●] 釋聖嚴〈把我送過了陰陽界〉,《法源血源》,頁174。

[●] 陳幸蕙〈碧樹的年輪──「七十五年散文選」序〉,《七十五年散文 選》,臺北:九歌出版社,1987年,頁8。

[●] 釋聖嚴《東西南北》(臺北:法鼓文化,1999年)的序文,以及法鼓文化心靈網站上對於此書的介紹,網址:http://www.ddc.com.tw。

❶ 釋聖嚴〈自序〉,《空花水月》,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁3。

書前〈自序〉說:

這是我第二次從海外去到中國大陸,時間是今 (一九九一)年四月十日至五月一日,目的是為臺灣法鼓 山的建設,組團考察大陸佛教古建築藝術。②

在同書〈建設法鼓山〉一文中,他也曾說:

自從一九八九年三月底以來,我的所作所為,乃至心裡 所念的,多半是把目標集中於法鼓山的建設。**②**

法鼓山的建設是聖嚴法師多年的心願,因此,聖嚴法師的旅行,常常不包含「旅遊」中的遊賞或遊覽的性質,甚至可以說從不包含「遊」的性質。他的旅行比較像一次又一次的任務健行,常常需要長期的籌畫,以及周詳的預備。他在〈三次預備會議〉中說:

為了組團去大陸考察,對人員的組成,曾經過相當長久的思考,因這不是旅遊,也不是朝聖,而是為了法鼓山的建設。@

為了建設法鼓山而旅行,旅行成果做為建設法鼓山之用,在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中,旅行與法鼓山的建設,成為相互依存的一體。從這個角度,讀者也終能明白何以有些篇章看似與一般認定的「旅行」定義有若干差異,卻也被納入聖嚴法師的旅行書寫系列之中,例如:《金山有鑛》中關於法鼓山的基地尋覓與建設過程、以及護法會的組成、勸募工作的推動等文章。@有關這種「旅行」的方式與定義,將於下節「生命史視域」中進一步討論。

承上所述,在文學史的視域中,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫可歸結以下三項歷史特質:(一)以《佛國之旅》為例,可以清楚看出聖嚴法師繼承了中國文學史中的「行記」傳統,以充滿古典氣息的筆觸,重現佛國之境,而與東晉高僧法顯的經典之作《佛國記》顯現古今對話、相互映照的殊勝意義,更使古典文學的歷史在現代社會中以新面貌延續。(二)以《法源血源》為中心,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫足可視為臺灣文學史中,反映時代潮流的「返鄉文學」作品,但由於作品中呈現了深刻的佛理,對於家鄉有不同於一般人的體認,使聖嚴法師的旅行書寫擺脫了一般世俗在家鄉/異鄉的辯證與糾纏,超越了時代潮流,成為臺灣文學史上的奇葩。(三)建設法鼓山為聖嚴法師多年的心願,許多旅行都在建設法鼓山的目的之下完成。在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中,旅行與法鼓山

❷ 釋聖嚴《火宅清涼》,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁7。

② 同註②, 頁19。

² 同註**2** , 頁25。

[●] 在《金山有鑛》的〈自序〉中,聖嚴法師說明此書所包含的內容,相關文章則有〈人覓山山尋人〉、〈法鼓山在金山〉、〈法鼓山的護法會〉等數篇。詳《金山有鑛》,頁4、13-17、18-22、23-24。

的建設,乃成為相互依存的一體。以法鼓山建設為中心,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中不僅少了「遊」的成分,更進而包含了一些一般認定中不屬於旅行的文章,使聖嚴法師的旅行書寫在旅行文學中獨創一格,顯露了獨特的歷史特質,在臺灣文學史上深具意義。

三、遊記與傳記的交錯疊合——生命史視域

遊記與傳記經常交錯重疊,此中緣故大約可以從兩方面思考:其一,旅行乃個人生命中的重要事蹟,不能忽略;其次,旅行經驗經常可以重整個人對於所處世界與自我關係的認識,改變個人生命的航向,因此不能不涵括於傳記中,以充分而完整的呈現個人生命。但並非所有的遊記與傳記都會交錯重疊。一般而言,遊記納入傳記的可能性與可行性較高,而傳記納入遊記的可能性則相對較低。如前節所述,在聖嚴法師的生命過程中,旅行占據了他許多的時間,許多時候更是抱病旅行。②他的旅行與一般人不同,遊覽的成分極少,而踐履弘法任務的成分絕多,也可以說旅行是他實現個人生命信念的一種方式。因此,聖嚴法師為旅行經驗所留下的大量珍貴文字,不僅是單純的遊記,更是他的自傳的一部分。事實上,在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中,一直存在著「遊記」與「傳記」交錯疊合的現象,這種現象使他的作品深具

個人生命史的特質。以下分別從出版者的編輯與命題、作者 的寫作方法與體裁呈現、作者選用的文類名稱與對旅行的定 義等三方面,由外而內,觀察在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中, 「遊記」與「傳記」交錯疊合現象的形成原因。

(一)出版者的編輯與命題

對於聖嚴法師的作品分類,出版者一開始就將「遊記」 與「傳記」放置在一處。聖嚴法師的旅行書寫系列,在各書 分別出版之後,於一九九九年由臺北法鼓文化出版社彙整於 《法鼓全集》第六輯中,當時並未特別標明這一輯的名稱。 但完整的《法鼓全集》第六輯中,除了聖嚴法師的旅行書寫 系列之外,還包括了《歸程》——聖嚴法師前半生的自傳。 根據作者的〈自序〉,這部書「初稿近二十萬言,部分曾由 《慈明》月刊發表,後經三度改寫,縮短了一半,又補充 年 | 到最後一章「回頭的路」,都是回憶過往生命的自述之 文,並無遊記在內。我們不能確定出版者在編輯過程中是否 曾與作者磋商,並且得到作者的授意,但可以確定的是,這 個具體的編輯結果已經使《法鼓全集》第六輯在實質上包含 了「傳記」與「遊記」兩種類別,也使聖嚴法師的旅行書寫 在出版面世的最初階段,就某種意義而言,已經兼具了「傳 記」與「遊記」雙重性質。

自二○○○年開始,出版者已經為聖嚴法師的旅行書寫

[◆] 在聖嚴法師的許多旅行書寫中都提到他抱病旅行的情形,最具體的敘述可參見《抱疾遊高峰》(臺北:法鼓文化,2005年)的〈自序〉,頁3-4。

❷ 釋聖嚴〈自序〉,《歸程》,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁3。

系列加上「寰遊自傳」的名稱。這個名稱的加註,表面上看 來似乎只是出版者為了分類方便而採取的方法,不過,倘若 我們理解「出版」本身具有社會教育與閱讀引導的意義,從 出版者的「意義指引」的觀點,這個類別名稱在進入讀者的 視界之初,即已經啟動了讀者的閱讀與想像。印在書籍封面 上簡單的「寰遊自傳」四字,其實可以做三種解讀:1. 四字 合讀,重點在「寰遊」,指作者「自」已撰(傳)寫的「寰 遊」經驗;2. 四字拆分為二組,指「寰遊」的遊記與「自 傳」兩種文類; 3. 四字合讀,重點在「自傳」,指書中的 「寰遊」經驗就是「自傳」內容。若取第一義,則出版者所 做的意義指引,旨在告訴讀者,這是一部「遊記」;若取第 二義,則出版者的用意在指出書中既包含「遊記」,也包含 「傳記」;若依第三義,其意義則指向「傳記」。在這三種 字辭涵義的解讀之下,可以產生一種多層次的閱讀引導—— 它一方面表述了這一系列的作品內容包含了「遊記」與「傳 記」,另一方面也同時指出,這一系列的每一部作品的內 容,都包含了「遊記」與「傳記」,甚至每一部作品既可以 視為「遊記」,也可以被當作「傳記」閱讀。

二〇〇五年新版《法鼓全集》出版時,這一系列的旅行書寫仍然編在第六輯,名稱則是「自傳、遊記類」。由於標點符號的作用,明顯地指出這一輯所收錄的,包括了聖嚴法師的「自傳」與「遊記」兩種各自成類的作品。這種標示,雖然可以理解為這兩類作品互不相涉,只是基於某種原因而必須放置在一起,但也可以理解為這兩類作品具有極為相近的特質,甚至無法分割,故而必須放置在一處。

承上所述,出版者的編輯方式以及對這一系列作品的命題,顯現了一種游離在「傳記」與「遊記」之間的不確定性。但是,從另一方面思考,也正是這種不確定性,顯示了 聖嚴法師的旅行書寫,其實具有「傳記」與「遊記」的跨文 類特質。這種跨文類特性的形成,則必須經由聖嚴法師的寫 作方法,以及他對旅行的定義的探析,方得以理解。

(二)寫作方法與體裁呈現

在體裁呈現方面,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫大抵採用日記體寫成,而日記正是傳記或自傳的日常性、片段性的顯影,對於傳記的撰寫者、閱讀者或研究者,日記都被視為傳主最具有時間連貫與最直接的話語。聖嚴法師記錄一九八八年返鄉十九天的第一本遊記《法源血源》就是以日記體寫成,二〇三年出版的《五百菩薩走江湖——禪宗祖庭探源》 ②依舊採用日記體。在聖嚴法師大量的旅行書寫成果中,容或部分篇章未在篇首標示日期,但由於行文敘述前後連接,很容易辨識時間上的先後。因此,如果將聖嚴法師的旅行書寫系列都歸於日記/傳記,應該也可以成立。

這種由體裁所呈現的統一性,起始於作者所採用的寫作 方法。聖嚴法師在多篇序文中,屢次提及如何以「日記」的 方法為基礎,完成旅行書寫。例如,在《金山有鑛》的〈自 序〉中聖嚴法師說:

[●] 釋聖嚴《五百菩薩走江湖──禪宗祖庭探源》,臺北:法鼓文化,2003 年。以下同書之引文,則採用於二○○五年出版並收入《法鼓全集》第 六輯第十四冊之版本。

我不是一個有福氣經常去遊山玩水的人,但在因緣的 促成之下,也到過不少的地方,每天總會在小日記簿上記 下幾個字乃至幾十個字,做為備忘,在旅行前及旅途中, 卻從未打算要寫一篇報導或一冊遊記。到了事後,往往又 會根據那一丁半點的記事,寫下成篇的文章,乃至成冊的 書。②

這段簡短的寫作經驗自述,清楚地說明了聖嚴法師的寫作過程——由「備忘」性質轉為報導、記遊;由「小日記簿」上的幾個字乃至幾十個字的記要,發展成結構完整、辭采斐然的文學作品。在《步步蓮華》的〈自序〉中,聖嚴法師還有一段對於日記與遊記、文學性與歷史性之間,簡短而精要的辨析。他說:

本書的內容寫了些什麼?請讀者自行探索。雖然有人說,日記的真實性很少,遊記的可靠性不多;我的遊記卻是和其他的人一起走出來的,尤其本書的證人,連我在內,多達二百九十九人;不僅沒有虛構的人物故事,而且考證了若干人物故事,例如布袋和尚、濟公活佛、白蛇傳與雷峰塔等,都是家喻戶曉的佛教故事,但在文學性的民間傳說與歷史性的真實故事之間,是有差距的。正好,我這趟所走中國佛教聖蹟巡禮的路線,就是極富文學創作的

江南地區,也是近千年來中國佛教出現人才最多的地區。 所以不必假造杜撰,真實的風土人物和歷史文化已經寫不 勝寫了。❷

可見聖嚴法師始終將自己的旅行書寫放置在遊記與日記 之間,因此這一系列的作品兼有兩者的形式與性質;同時, 聖嚴法師振筆直書之際,乃以「記」為主,因此無論所遊之 地的歷史故事或民間傳說,他都據「實」以告,使原有差距 的歷史性與文學性,意外地在他的文章中化除對立與分割, 形成並觀與對話的融合現象。

(三) 文類名稱與定義「旅行」

聖嚴法師一生處事嚴謹,在他為自己的作品選用文類名稱時,更可見其謹小慎微的一面。他為這一系列旅行書寫選用文類名稱,其實是一個「始於遊記,終於傳記」的過程。在《兩千年行腳》之前,聖嚴法師稱自己的旅行書寫成果為「遊記」。例如,在《東西南北》的〈自序〉中,他說:

自從一九八八年起,凡出遠門,均寫遊記,凡有重要活動,多會做成書面報告,所以連續出版了《法源血源》、《佛國之旅》、《金山有鑛》、《火宅清涼》,為歷史留紀錄,為自己做備忘。②

❷釋聖嚴〈自序〉,《金山有鑛》,頁3。

❷ 釋聖嚴《步步蓮華》,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁5。

❷ 釋聖嚴《東西南北》,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁3。

在《空花水月》的〈自序〉中,他也說:

歷年來我已經出版八種遊記,本書是第九種了。⑩

在《兩千年行腳》中第一篇簡短的〈代序——行腳兩千年〉,他則說:

今年西元一九九八年,正好是佛教漢傳的兩千年了。因此,我將本年度的雲遊紀錄,題名為《兩千年行腳》。**④**

不過,從《抱疾遊高峰》開始,聖嚴法師則將這一系列的旅行書寫改稱為「遊記與傳記」。他在前揭書的〈自序〉中說:

此書是我的第十二冊遊記和傳記,是在西元一九九九年元月至二○○○年十月之間發生的事。❸

在《五百菩薩走江湖》的〈自序〉中,聖嚴法師則說:

這是我「傳記與遊記」系列的第十四冊書了。❸

在《真正大好年》的〈自序〉中,他也說:

本書是我的第十三冊傳記和遊記,一共四十五節,經過四個時段,前後費時一年有半。∰

從上述過程可以看出,聖嚴法師顯然希望在類別上,也 能給予這一系列書寫一個更符合實際內容、性質與意義的名 稱。

若進一步觀察,更可以發現聖嚴法師在他進行旅行書寫的初期,已經將這創作活動視為個人生命史的表現形式之一。他曾經在第三本遊記《金山有鑛》的〈自序〉中說:

本書《金山有鑛》,跟前面兩書比較,體裁雖類似,經過的時空則長了一些,也大了一些,全書共計四十六節,迄四十四節為止,是記述我在一九八九年四月初,找到位於臺北縣金山鄉的法鼓山,以及護法會的組成、勸募工作的推動、中心理念的宣揚。接著是從去(一九九〇)年十月十六日至十二月一日期間,我赴香港,經過舊金山,抵達紐約,做了一連串的遊化活動。恰巧我到美國已滿十五年,我在彼邦主持禪七已是第五十次,所以增加了末後兩節,做了一番回顧。雖然僅是我個人踏出現在走向歷史的雪泥鴻爪,為了感謝跟我一同踏雪的道侶們,完成這本書

³ 釋聖嚴《空花水月》,頁3。

❶ 釋聖嚴《兩千年行腳》,臺北:法鼓文化,2005年,頁3。

❷ 釋聖嚴《拘疾遊高峰》,頁3。

❸ 同註❺,頁5。

❷ 釋聖嚴《直正大好年》,臺北:法鼓文化,2005年,頁7。

以表我對現實人間的獻禮。 55

「護法會的組成」、「勸募工作的推動」、「中心理念的宣揚」,明顯不屬於「旅行」的範疇,而更接近「傳記」的領域。「尋找法鼓山」雖有短途與短暫的「行」的實質,但比較屬於今日所稱的郊遊或踏勘,與一般意義所謂「旅行」內涵,在時間的長度上與空間的跨度上明顯不同。但是,若將這些活動的紀錄做為「傳記」閱讀,則很容易理解這些為建設法鼓山所做的奔波努力,為弘法所進行的種種活動,都是聖嚴法師生命史中具有標誌性意義的「生命的旅程」;也正因為如此,聖嚴法師才會謙稱這些「僅是我個人踏出現在走向歷史的雪泥鴻爪」。

承上所述,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中所呈現的「遊記」與「傳記」交錯疊合的現象,乃是因為聖嚴法師對於旅行意義的界定,與一般人的認知有著程度上的差異。在他晚年著作的《抱疾遊高峰》中,聖嚴法師將他個人對於「旅行」的意義說得更清楚了,他說:

本書命名「抱疾遊高峰」,乃因這一陣子,算是我歷年來衰老病弱的頂點;接觸高層人物的機會之多,參與場面,往往就是標明為高峰(summit),都是我生平的首遇;多場暢談及演講,被視為具有國家層級乃至國際水準。在這期間,我有三本英文著述被美國香巴拉、雙日、

牛津等三家名出版公司接受出版;增訂的《法鼓全集》共七十冊面世;林其賢編著的《聖嚴法師七十年譜》鉅著成書出版;施叔青為我撰寫的傳記《枯木開花》成為市面的暢銷書;到了十月底,又知道我得到行政院文建會頒發的「國家文化獎」,是對文化工作有傑出及終身貢獻者的肯定。類似的許多事件,都破了我生命史的紀錄。❸

這段文字解釋了書名「高峰」的涵義,包括了: 1. 衰老病弱的頂點; 2. 接觸高層人士機會之多,參與場面往往標明為「高峰」; 3. 多場暢談及演講被視為具有國家層級,乃至國際水準; 4. 著作及出版的質量達到高峰; 5. 獲得「國家文化獎」,肯定對文化工作傑出表現及終身貢獻。上述五項中,嚴格說來,只有第二項涉及旅行,其他四項都是屬於生命歷程,而所謂「高峰」,並非指地理上高聳的山峰,而是所參與的種種活動具有「高峰」的象徵意義,以及他個人生命達到了「高峰」的階段。從這裡可以再一次印證,聖嚴法師對「旅行」的定義,不僅指向外顯性的空間的移動,更指涉內在抽象意義的生命旅程的推進。因此,他又說:

曾有一位傑出的登山家,於聖母峰歷劫歸來後告訴朋友們說:「高峰絕無坦途」。我以老病之身,活到七十一歲,才經歷到人生的高峰,旁觀者可能覺得風光,而我自己,雖非攀登極峰與死神賭命可比,由於體力不濟、學

毎 釋聖嚴《金山有鑛》,頁4-5。

問淺薄、德養未充、業障太重,所以一路顛顛沛沛。博得這些榮譽,對於佛法的普及當然有用,於我個人的幻軀來說,無非是虛名而已!❸

正因如此,當他將這許多「破了我生命史的紀錄」的事件,收進他的「旅行」著作時,一切也都順理成章,毫無扞格之處。

聖嚴法師也曾說:

每次新到一地、新遇一人、新經一事、新歷一境,都 會留下若干值得回憶的印象。人生的過程,的確充滿了各 式各樣的新經驗。不論是苦是樂,是辛酸是幸福,每過一 天,就代表一天的價值。❸

每一段新的旅程都是一段人生的過程,而反過來說,每 一段人生的過程,又何嘗不是一段新的旅行?正因如此,聖 嚴法師的旅行書寫最終必須放置在生命史的視域中,才能顯 現完整的意義。

四、傳播佛法與回歸法源——佛教史視域

聖嚴法師為弘法而奉獻了生命的全部,他畢生辛勞,無時無地不在弘法。書寫,也是他的弘法方式之一。在他的旅

行書寫中包含了許多歷史,這些歷史又多以佛教史為主。聖 嚴法師對於佛教史及相關著作的關注起源甚早,在《佛國之 旅》中,他曾說:

我從少年時代起,即好讀高僧傳記,青年時代又關心佛教史蹟,故對佛教的名山古剎,及法顯、玄奘、義淨等西行求法的歷代高僧所寫的《佛國記》(即《大正藏》中的《高僧法顯傳》)、《大唐西域記》、《南海寄歸內法傳》等所記的風土人情,尤其著迷。❸

少年時期對佛教史及相關著作的喜愛,日後成了聖嚴法師寫作第一本域外經驗著作的主要動力之一。他在撰寫《留日見聞》時曾說:

法顯西遊留下的名著是《佛國記》,玄奘西遊留下了《大唐西域記》,義淨三藏留學西域而由海上寄回來了一部《南海寄歸內法傳》。……我不是要宣傳日本,而是希望能向日本學到一點什麼,所謂「他山之石,可以攻錯」。

基於此種動力,他的域外見聞,特別是為域外佛教發展 狀況所留下的文字,遂與古代高僧的旅行書寫形成古今對映

³ 同註**3** ,頁5-6。

³³ 同註 55 , 頁 3。

❸ 釋聖嚴《佛國之旅》,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁3。

[●] 釋聖嚴《聖嚴法師學思歷程》,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁103。

的特質。●值得關注的是,留學時期的聖嚴法師對於佛教史以 及相關著作的關注,不再僅只是他少年時期喜好的延續,也 不僅是他青年時期關注範圍的擴大,而明顯地在喜愛與關心 之上,加上了比較、學習、思考,也就是說,他與歷史/佛 教史之間的對應關係開始轉向,不再單純地感性觀照,而進 入了理性的參與。在《步步蓮華》中,聖嚴法師說:

我不是很喜歡寫文章的人,寫遊記更不是計畫中的工作,每次遊歷各處的最初動機,是為弘法求法,學習新知,充實自己,奉獻大眾,所以沒有考慮要寫遊記。可是每次遊歷告一段落,多半會寫出一篇文章乃至一本書來。在緊密的日程中,增加這項額外的工作,也不是一樁輕鬆好玩的事,只是覺得應該對歷史負責任,對自己求成長,對他人做交代,否則便是浪費了我這個已屬於全體社會的生命資源。◆

在上述文字中,聖嚴法師明確地指出旅行、留下見聞紀錄,除了反映學習、擴大學習之外,更是他的歷史責任。也就是說,歷史責任是他的優先考量,文學目的則為其次。因此,他曾說:

我在每次遊化到一個陌生地方之前,總要預先收集一些相關資料,獲得若干程度的自然知識和人文背景,才不至於到了任何地方,都好像是相同的山水,類似的景物,差不多的面龐,除了消遣時間,花掉一些金錢,一切都是模糊依稀,不能留下深刻的印象,也不能激發自己成長。有了若干預備知識,便有親歷其境的感受,也能將現實的景物與歷史的過程連結成為活的生命。每到一地,不僅是面對實景實物,也可與此實景實物相繫的歷史人物對面談心。所以讓我走向自然,也能教我與古人把臂同行。图

在相關的歷史空間中,在相當程度的知識系統性理解之下,「與歷史人物對面談心」,「與古人把臂同行」,成為聖嚴法師的旅行方法之一,同時也是他教學弘法的方法之一,當然,更是他完成歷史任務與修行的方法之一。以下謹就「以旅行做為教學方法」、「以旅行書寫保存文獻」、「以旅行回歸法源」等三方面分別論述之。

(一)以旅行為弘法教學之法

聖嚴法師以旅行及旅行書寫做為教學弘法的方法,明見 於他的文字。他曾說:

我的任務是弘揚佛法,留下行腳過程的腳印,也是為了弘揚佛法,許多人希望見我一面都難,我的每一本遊記

[●] 請參拙著〈對話與辯證——聖嚴法師的旅行書寫與法顯《佛國記》之比較研究〉,《聖嚴研究第二輯》,臺北:法鼓文化,2011年,頁7-46。

❷ 同註❷, 頁3-4。

⁴⁹ 同註29, 頁4。

所載,便是以佛法與人接觸的實情,讀我的遊記,所得的 訊息,要比僅僅見我一面豐富得多。等於伴隨著我周遊各 地,聽了一場又一場的佛法,做了一場又一場的佛事,見 了一項又一項的弘化故事。我不敢自私,願意分享給有緣 的讀者菩薩們。❹

又說:

將我的所修、所學、所見、所聞、所思、所感、所作、 所說,做了重點性的記錄,正好邀請讀者,沿著我的生命 歷程,分享我的苦樂經驗,透過報告的介紹,來做我的知 心道侶,共同擔起求法、學法、弘法、護法的如來家業。◆

聖嚴法師又特別期待於一種「影響學習」與「啟發學習」。他期望讀者透過閱讀他的旅行書寫,跟隨他的旅行足跡,「聽了一場又一場的佛法,做了一場又一場的佛事,見了一項又一項的弘化故事」之後,能夠在想像的旅行過程中見賢思齊,激發悲願心。他曾說:

我是一個出家的僧侶,非常重視佛教的興衰及法門的 隆污,我特別留心佛教歷史人物的成長過程,及他們的努 力和影響。也可以說,如果沒有歷代的古聖先賢,為我們 留下了豐富的儀軌芳範,以及他們的智慧財產,我們今日的人間社會就不堪想像。所以每到一處曾有高僧大德駐錫過的古道場,不僅要緬懷他們、禮敬他們,也希望學習他們。所謂見賢思齊,不應僅為自己受益而感恩,更應該體驗他們為法忘軀的堅韌心和利益眾生的悲願心,試著來做更多自己當做而能做的佛事。

由此可見,對於聖嚴法師而言,每一個旅行目的地,每 一個有歷史的地方,理所當然地都在古聖先賢所留下的豐富 儀軌芳範中,重現當日的道場,在古今對映之下,猶如古寺 的暮鼓晨鐘,迴環往復,回響於時光的隧道中。在感召、影 響之外,聖嚴法師也期待透過旅行書寫,引導他的讀者獲得 佛理法義的啟發與感悟,因此他又說:

正因為經歷了實景實物的觀察與體驗,就會發現歷史是 永遠不會回頭的,年深日久之後,現實的環境早已見不到 歷史上的那些鏡頭;不僅是人去樓空,連那些舞台也早已 變了又變。同時歷史的事實加上後人的傳說,也就無法想 像歷史上的情況究竟是什麼樣子了。這便是佛法所說的真 理:「世相無常」、「凡所有相,皆是虛妄」。◆

基於上述教學弘法的目的,聖嚴法師細心而嚴謹地在旅

⁴ 同註**3** , 頁3。

⁴⁹ 同註40, 頁4。

⁴⁶ 同註28, 頁5。

⁴⁰ 同註23, 頁4。

行著作中解說種種與佛教相關的歷史。聖嚴法師書寫歷史的 方式,不僅限於歷史的解說,也時時為歷史做補註,例如, 他在對棲霞山千佛巖的地理空間與歷史說明之後,又說:

有關該寺千佛巖的情況,如今在其巖前,有一塊石碑,說明如下:「千佛巖開鑿於南齊永明二年(西元四八四年),至明朝歷代都有增鑿修繕。現存大小佛龕二百五十四個,佛像五百五十三尊,號稱千佛巖。民國十三年(西元一九二四年),寺僧以水泥塗附佛像,雖失原貌,但仍留存六朝時代遺風。」所謂「寺僧以水泥塗附佛像」,就是指後來應聘至香港東蓮覺苑弘法的若舜長老。在他住持棲霞山時,不忍佛菩薩像殘缺,所以用水泥填補裝修,以致反而破壞了古代的藝術作品。從宗教信仰的立場看這樁事是對的;從古藝術的保存來看是錯的。◆

石碑上的刻文並未述及若舜長老以水泥塗附佛像之舉, 聖嚴法師從宗教信仰與古藝術保存的不同角度補充說明,不 僅使歷史的真相更為周詳,也提供了隨行者與讀者理性思考 的線索。又如,對於化城寺文物館的敘述,他說:

在此文物館中,展示出九華山的歷史人物,以及地藏比 丘的傳記壁畫。在文革(西元一九六六~一九七六年)之 後,九華山的佛教文物是非常少的,所以我們看到的多是 仿製品,而對地藏比丘的傳記傳說,也和歷史有不大相同的地方,因為那是附和民間信仰傳說的需求而製作的,也 是為了遊客的興趣而設的。◆

如前所述,聖嚴法師對於歷史除了感性的喜愛之外,更有理性的思考。歷史同時也做為他教學弘法的媒介,因此面對歷史的審慎是絕對必要的。在上述文字中,聖嚴法師不忘提醒大家留意歷史、民間傳說與信仰之間的相互影響、彼此牽連的情形。

(二)以旅行書寫保存文獻

除了解說、補述歷史之外,聖嚴法師同時也在旅行書寫中保留歷史文獻。例如,在〈棲霞山佛學院〉一文中,他詳細敘述了棲霞山佛學院的創立歷史、學制、財源、師資與人事架構、設備與環境、課程內容、畢業人數與學僧畢業後的出路等。在篇幅只有五頁的短文中,有關棲霞山佛學院的文獻性敘述就占了將近三頁,愈形成一篇風格獨具的「遊記」,而與一般的「遊記」著重於山水景物的描寫,以及主體與景物之間的觀照,明顯有所差異;其理性的認知與思維,遠勝於感性的遊覽與觀賞。

類似性質的內容,在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中,可說是俯拾皆是。例如,對於設置在甘露寺的九華山佛學院,聖嚴法

⁴⁹ 同註23, 頁57。

⑤ 同註**②**, 頁76-80。

師不僅在他的記遊文字中說明了該佛學院創立的背景、十年 計畫以及特色,並且還將此佛學院的招生簡章與師資,摘要 記錄於文章中。●在〈焦山定慧寺〉一文中,聖嚴法師敘述了 定慧寺的種種之後,又根據茗山法師所編《焦山資料》,將 東初老人時代的定慧寺人事組織──依據《百丈清規》演變 而來,諸如:庫房、客堂、維那寮、衣缽寮等職責規約,詳 列於文章之中。●二○○二年十月,聖嚴法師帶領弟子與信眾 參訪江西南昌洪州宗的本道場,也就是馬祖道一禪師的道場 佑民寺。到達佑民寺時已經天黑,無法參觀景點,但見到寺 內懸掛各種制度規約,很有參考價值,便直接鈔錄了「漢傳 佛教寺廟共住規約通則」、「佑民寺庫房規約」、「衣缽寮 規約」、「客堂日常事務」、「常住人員請假制度」、「財 務制度概略」等六大項的內容。這篇文章完整的篇幅共九 頁,除了篇首三行文字之外,其餘超過八頁的內容都是鈔錄 的規約,成為一篇獨特的文章。●

直接將規約、制度等文獻引進文章中,對於提昇文章美感的幫助不大,但是,如本文第二節中所言,就旅行文學的體變而言,聖嚴法師無疑為臺灣文學中的旅行文學開創了新貌,使他的旅行書寫在旅行文學中獨創一格,顯露了獨特的歷史特質,在臺灣文學史上深具意義。另一方面,就保存文獻的歷史功能而言,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫因此不能只以「旅遊」經驗的再現看待,更須以文獻保存的歷史載體視之。

(三)以旅行回歸法源

聖嚴法師因弘法目的而旅行,也因弘法目的而撰寫了一篇又一篇、一部又一部的遊記。這些遊記既是他的旅行經驗實錄,更成為他弘法的題材,擴大了他弘法的範圍。在他的遊記中,豐富的歷史既是他的書寫素材與教學題材,更可注意的是,這些歷史的述說與引用,結合弘法、修行與旅行的作法,同時也使多數旅行地點轉化成旅行者的「行動寺院」。此處所稱的「行動寺院」是指聖嚴法師與他的隨行者,在許多參訪的寺院與修行場所中,因為參與該寺院的修行活動,而使該寺院與參訪者之間所具有實質的供給關係——在場所中修行與在旅程中修行、提供修行場所與借用修行場所——產生微妙的變化。例如,聖嚴法師為文描述位於江蘇省句容縣西北,距南京約三十多華里,建於梁武帝天監元年(五〇二年),在近代中國佛教界被譽為「律宗第一名山」的寶華山。除了敘說寶華山的歷史,肯定寶華山至今還是「律宗第一山」之外,他還說:

因此,我於這天下午,勸勉我們全團的僧俗四眾,在寶華山隆昌律寺的大殿前廣場花崗巖塊石板上,短短地跪了幾分鐘,並且要求大家體驗一下古大德們建立規矩、執行規矩、接受規矩,磨鍊熏陶的內心感受。❸

[●]釋聖嚴〈甘露寺的佛學院〉,《步步蓮華》,頁66-71。

❷釋聖嚴〈焦山定慧寺〉,《法源血源》,頁167-168。

⑤ 同註6,頁108-116。

[●] 以寶華山為敘寫對象的文章包括〈寶華山隆昌律寺〉、〈寶華山的滄桑〉、〈寶華山的律統〉、〈還是「律宗第一山」〉,釋聖嚴《步步蓮華》,頁91-94、95-96、97-98、99-104。

在〈焦山定慧寺〉的描述中,聖嚴法師提到定慧寺的方 丈,當時已有八十四高齡的茗山長老是他的師兄。他們一起 主持了佛教儀式。

在儀式進行過程中,使我感覺到這真是先師接法、弘法、傳法的道場。雖然我是東初老人的剃度弟子,茗山長老是傳法弟子,他卻口口聲聲對我以師兄弟相稱,應該說我是回家了。雖然我不會回到焦山來住,但是先師的舍利塔就在焦山,好像我是回到了先師東初老人住世時代還在焦山的那個情況。我的僧俗四眾弟子之中,也有好多位感到稀有難得而熱淚盈眶。每

實際參與參訪地的佛教活動,不僅增加了旅行的深度,也使旅行的性質有了轉變。旅行在某種意義上,是一種離同求異以重見/建自我的行為——離開熟悉、安適而視域狹隘的家,踏上旅程,經歷艱辛與險難,開拓視野,擺落習性,重新與自我相見。但在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中,在豐富的歷史的引導之下,隨行者與讀者,不僅隨時得到學習與修行的機會,更常常與同道中人相會相聚,與法統之源重逢,獲得「回家」的感覺。這種情形使得聖嚴法師的旅行書寫,透過歷史的引導與實際的參與,使得旅行中的「離家」與「回家」產生了深富旨趣的辯證關係,而與一般離同求異的旅行

文學大異其趣。

五、結語

聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中蘊涵豐富的歷史特質,這種歷史 特質包含了對於歷史的繼承、回應、超越,乃至轉變。在 文學史的視域中, 聖嚴法師的旅行書寫可歸結以下三項歷史 特質: (一)以《佛國之旅》為例,可以清楚看出聖嚴法師 繼承了中國文學史中的「行記」傳統,以充滿古典氣息的筆 觸,重現佛國之境,而與東晉高僧法顯的經典之作《佛國 記》顯現古今對話、相互映照的殊勝意義,更使古典文學中 的旅行文學傳統在現代計會中以新面貌延續。(二)以《法 源血源》為中心,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫足可視為臺灣文學史 中,反映時代潮流的「返鄉文學」作品,但由於作品中呈現 了深刻的佛理,對於家鄉有不同於一般人的體認,使聖嚴法 師的旅行書寫擺脫了一般世俗在家鄉/異鄉的辯證與糾纏, 超越了時代潮流,成為臺灣文學史上的奇葩。(三)建設法 鼓山為聖嚴法師多年的心願,許多旅行都在建設法鼓山的目 的之下完成。在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中,旅行與法鼓山的建 設,乃成為相互依存的一體。以法鼓山建設為中心,聖嚴法 師的旅行書寫中不僅少了「遊」的成分,更進而包含了一些 一般認定中不屬於旅行文學的文章,使聖嚴法師的旅行書寫 在旅行文學中獨創一格,顯露了獨特的歷史特質,在臺灣文 學史上深具意義。概括而言,在文學史的視域中,聖嚴法師 的旅行書寫既繼承了傳統,又超越了潮流,甚至隱隱然改變 了旅行文學的內涵。

❸ 釋聖嚴〈焦山定慧寺〉,《步步蓮華》,頁106-107。

在聖嚴法師的生命過程中,旅行占據了他大部分的時 間,許多時候更是拘病旅行。他的旅行與一般人不同,游覽 的成分極少,而踐履弘法任務的成分絕多,也可以說旅行是 他實現個人生命信念的一種方式。因此,聖嚴法師為旅行經 驗所留下的大量珍貴文字,不僅是單純的游記,更是他的自 傳的一部分。事實上,在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中,一直存在 著「遊記」與「傳記」交錯疊合的現象,這種現象源自於聖 嚴法師的寫作方法,以及他對旅行的定義。聖嚴法師的旅行 書寫大抵採用日記體寫成,由「備忘」性質轉為報導、記 遊;由「小日記簿」上的幾個字乃至幾十個字的記要,發展 成結構完整、辭采斐然的文學作品。他以「記」為主,因此 無論所遊之地的歷史故事或民間傳說,他都據「實」以告, 使原本存在差距的歷史性與文學性,意外地在他的文章中化 除對立與分割,形成並觀與對話的融合現象。此外,聖嚴法 師對於旅行意義的界定,與一般人的認知有著程度上的差 異。聖嚴法師所謂的「旅行」,不僅指向外顯性的空間的移 動,更指涉內在抽象意義的生命旅程的推進,故而常將許多 關係個人生命史的事件, 收進他的「旅行」著作中。正因如 此,聖嚴法師的旅行書寫最終必須放置在生命史的視域中, 才能顯現完整的意義。

聖嚴法師畢生辛勞,無時無地不在弘法。書寫,也是他的弘法方式之一。聖嚴法師曾明確地指出,旅行、留下見聞紀錄,除了反映學習、擴大學習之外,更是他的歷史責任。聖嚴法師「以旅行做為教學方法」,對他而言,每一個旅行目的地,每一個有歷史的地方,理所當然地都在古聖先

賢所留下豐富的儀軌芳範中,重現當日的道場,在古今對映 之下, 猫如古寺的暮鼓晨鐘, 洄環往復, 回響於時光的隧道 中,使隨行的弟子與信眾,親身感受,接受影響。除此之 外,聖嚴法師也期待透過旅行書寫,引導他的讀者獲得佛理 法義的啟發與感悟,因此他細心而嚴謹地在旅行著作中解說 種種與佛教相關的歷史,也時時為歷史做補註,使歷史更為 周詳,也為隨行者與讀者提供了理性思考的線索。聖嚴法師 同時也「以旅行書寫保存文獻」,他常在文章中直接引進旅 行地所見的規約、制度等文獻,使他的文章與一般的「遊 記」著重於山水景物的描寫,以及主體與景物之間的觀照, 明顯有所差異;其理性的認知與思維,遠勝於感性的遊覽與 觀賞。就旅行文學的體變而言,聖嚴法師無疑為臺灣文學中 的旅行文學開創了新貌,使他的旅行書寫在旅行文學中獨創 一格,顯露了獨特的歷史特質。就佛教史的完整性而言,以 書寫保存文獻的方式,更使聖嚴法師的旅行書寫,成為歷史 的載體。在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中,我們也看到旅行者實際 參與參訪地佛教活動的情形,這種參與不僅增加了旅行的深 度,也使旅行的性質有了轉變。旅行在某種意義上,是一種 離同求異以重見/建自我的行為——離開熟悉、安適而視域 狹隘的家,踏上旅程,經歷艱辛與險難,開拓視野,擺落習 性,重新與自我相見。但在聖嚴法師的旅行書寫中,在豐富 的歷史的引導之下,隨行者與讀者,不僅隨時得到學習與修 行的機會,更常常與同道中人相會相聚,與法統之源重逢, 獲得「回家」的感覺,而產生「以旅行回歸法源」的意義。 這種情形使得聖嚴法師的旅行書寫,透過歷史的引導與實際 的參與,使得旅行中的「離家」與「回家」產生了深富旨趣 的辯證關係,而與一般離同求異的旅行文學大異其趣。

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A Study on the Historical Characteristics of Master Shengyen's Travel Writings

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Abstract

The title of this study is: "A Study on the Historical Characteristics of Master Shengyen's Travel Writings". In the religious history of China and other countries, traveling is thought to be an essential act of religious practices and preaching. In the progression of the transformation and development of Chinese Buddhism, the travels of many eminent monks have set up an important tradition in Chinese culture. The travels of Master Shengyen are both innovative and continuously, therefore his travel writings naturally and profoundly reflect many historical characteristics. However, such historical characteristics are much different from those shown in the works of the eminent monks in Chinese religion history such as Faxian 法顯 of Eastern Jin and Xuanzang 玄奘 of Tang. This study will try to probe into the historical characteristics and meanings of ages in the travel writings of Master Shengyen through the aspects of Chinese Buddhist literature, Chinese modern literature and Taiwan literature, hoping to show forth the significance of Master Shengyen's travel writings in the history of Taiwan literature, Chinese modern literature and Chinese Buddhist literature.

Key words: Master Shengyen, travel literature, Chinese Buddhist literature, Chinese modern literature, Taiwan literature

The Publishing of Buddhist Books for Beginners in Modern China from Yang Wenhui to Master Shengyen

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Abstract

Printed books have occupied a central place in East Asian Buddhist culture for centuries, venerated as vessels of the dharma and as sacred objects in their own right. Indeed the act of publishing sūtra texts was often portrayed as generating immeasurable amounts of merit. Yet the language and style of the scriptures is not one that is immediately accessible without specialized instruction, and thus commentaries, discourses, lectures and other didactic devices proliferated alongside the sūtra texts. One genre of didactic text that has played a crucial role in the personal religious histories of many Chinese Buddhists is the introductory text or book for beginners (chuxue 初學 or rumen 入門). Dozens of such texts were produced from the late nineteenth century onwards, and continue to occupy bookstore shelves today. Books of this type enable the curious to learn about Buddhist teachings in an easily-accessible format, without the need for an immediate investment of time or personal commitment.

This presentation will focus on three authors of such Buddhist introductory texts, each of whom lived in very different historical circumstances and thus produced markedly different types of books: Yang Wenhui 楊文會 (1837-1911), who resurrected Buddhist publishing in the decades following the Taiping Rebellion and who wrote *Textbook for Beginning Buddhism* 佛教初學課本;

Ding Fubao 丁福保 (1874-1952), the editor of the massive *Great Dictionary of Buddhism* 佛學大辭典 as well as a series of eight introductions to Buddhism; and Master Shengyen 聖嚴法師 (1930-2009), whose books are some of the most popular introductory texts to Buddhism in the English-reading world.

The major argument of this article is that introductory texts are much more complex and significant than their elementary nature might suggest. They represent distillations of a multitude of traditions into a stable and accessible framework, and serve as textual embodiments of the authors' pedagogical methods. Books for beginners constitute a unique category of Buddhist print culture, one which sought both to rewrite the past and to re-represent it for the next generation of believers and practitioners.

Key words: Buddhism, print culture, religious primers

The Publishing of Buddhist Books for Beginners in Modern • 53 • China from Yang Wenhui to Master Shengyen

1. Introduction

Printed copies of scriptures and other texts have occupied a central place in East Asian Buddhist culture for centuries. They have been venerated both as a medium to transmit the teachings of Buddhas and eminent masters, and as sacred objects with supernormal powers, with the act of reproducing scriptural texts widely portrayed as generating immeasurable amounts of merit. 1 Yet without specialized instruction, the erudite terminology of many scriptures is not immediately comprehensible even to the literate, and thus annotations, discourses, lectures and other didactic devices have proliferated alongside scriptural texts to serve as guides for the perplexed. One didactic genre that has played a crucial early role in the religious engagement of many Chinese Buddhists in the modern era is the book for beginners, a class of text marked by such terms as chuxue 初學 (beginning study), rumen 入門 (introductory), and gangvao 綱要 (general outline). 2 Dozens of such texts were published from the late nineteenth century onward and continue to be featured prominently on bookstore shelves and in digital collections today. Books of this type enabled readers who were curious about Buddhist teachings to learn more about them in an easily-accessible format, and did not immediately require the commitment of time and effort required to learn to read scriptural texts. Such books for beginners represent a crucial aspect of modern Chinese Buddhist print culture, one that

[●] See, for example, Gregory Schopen, "The Phrase sa pṛthivīpradeśaś caityabhūto bhavet in the Vajracchedikā: Notes on the Cult of the Book in Mahāyāna" and "On Sending the Monks Back to Their Books: Cult and Conservatism in Early Mahāyāna Buddhism" in his Figments and Fragments of Mahāyāna Buddhism in India: More Collected Papers, Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press, 2005, 25-62, 108-153.

② Of the three, the last appears to have been used most widely in titles, with seven items using this term appearing in the Digital Catalogue of Chinese Buddhism: http://bib.buddhiststudies.net/.

was a central concern for several influential authors, editors, and publishers.

This paper examines three creators of Chinese-language Buddhist introductory texts, each of whom sought to connect their deep knowledge of the Buddhist textual corpus with the interests and needs of the novice student: Yang Wenhui 楊文會 (1837-1911), who helped resurrect Buddhist scriptural publishing in the decades following the Taiping Rebellion; Ding Fubao 丁福 保 (1874-1952), a physician and bibliophile who drew upon his extensive personal collection of rare books for his annotations; and Master Shengyen 聖嚴法師 (1930-2009), whose Englishlanguage books are presently among the most popular introductory texts to Buddhism. These figures are connected in that they all studied a similar body of scriptural texts and shared a number of social connections among Chinese and Japanese lay and monastic Buddhists; but each lived in a very different era in terms of what types of texts were available, what technologies were used to print them, and the larger educational and linguistic background of the audiences for their books. In examining their books for beginners, I will be drawing upon the field of print culture studies to provide a context for understanding the significance of what they wrote and how it was employed by students and readers. Print culture refers to the sphere of human activity that surrounds the production and consumption of printed materials, and consists of two related aspects. The first is products of print, meaning the physical books, pamphlets, and other materials that are produced by the printing press. The second is the social structures of print, including editors, book collectors, publishing houses, book stores, and reading practices. Through the lens of print culture we are

able to look more closely at the larger context within which these texts were produced, and see where the content of these books was not simply the product of their credited author, but where it was also informed by such factors as educational changes, networks of related publications, social connections with other scholars and authors, and similar phenomena that transcend the printed page. In the case of Buddhist books for beginners, I would argue that from Yang Wenhui through to master Shengyen, these introductory texts embody and reflect a much more complex set of intellectual and historical concerns than their elementary nature might suggest.

2. Yang Wenhui and the Re-Transmission of a Buddhist Primer

Throughout the early Republican period (1912-1949) Buddhist writers in China would trace the beginnings of the modern revival of Buddhism back to the literati publisher Yang Wenhui. The story of his conversion to Buddhist studies was widely disseminated, and describes how having fled to Hangzhou 杭州 in the early 1860s to avoid the turmoil of the Taiping Rebellion, Yang chanced upon a copy of *Dasheng qixin lun* 大乘起信論 (Awakening of Mahāyāna Faith) in a bookstore. After reading the book, Yang was inspired toward Buddhist study, and in 1866 began to publish woodblock editions of Buddhist scriptures under the imprint of the Jinling Scriptural Press 金陵刻經處. In 1897 he and his collaborators formally established the press on the grounds of his estate in

com/ 2008/09/print-culture-and-sciencetechnology.html.

I am indebted for this twofold definition to Professor Greg Downey of the School of Journalism & Mass Communication and the School of Library & Information Studies at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. See his blog "Uncovering Information Labor", available at: http://uncoveringinformationlabor.blogspot.

[♣] While this is the most widely-reprinted account of Yang's turn toward Buddhism, Goldfuss points out that autobiographical materials and letters describe a less romantic and sudden process of conversion, initiated by either the death of Yang's father or an illness. Gabriele Goldfuss, Vers un bouddhisme du XXe siècle: Yang Wenhui (1837-1911), Réformateur Laïque et Imprimeur, Paris: Collège de France, Institut des Hautes Études Chinoises, 2001, 35-37.

Nanjing, and by the time of his death in 1911 the press had printed some 253 titles, had inspired or influenced a number of other scriptural presses, and would continue to publish Buddhist texts until the 1960s. Yang's influence extended even further; his titles were also reprinted by other presses, many publishers who would rise to prominence in the 1920s and 1930s had studied under him, and his own writings remained popular long after his death. Late in his life Yang turned to educational work, founding a Buddhist school for monastics and laypeople called the Jetavana Hermitage 祇洹精舍 on the grounds of the press in Nanjing. Although the school only operated for sixth months, from the winter of 1908 to the summer of 1909, its students included such figures as Taixu 太虚 (1890-1947) and Ouyang Jian 歐陽漸 (1871-1943), both of whom would later found Buddhist seminaries (Foxue yuan 佛學院) of their own.

The Jetavana Hermitage was named after a park near Śrāvastī, in modern-day Uttar Pradesh in India, which in the time of Śakyamuni Buddha functioned as the first permanent meeting place for Buddhist monastics, and which is said to be the location where a number of Mahāyāna sermons were preached. Yang established his school to improve the education of Buddhist monastics, although laypeople were also permitted to study there, and it operated along the lines of a modern school rather than a traditional Confucian academy, with different departments taught by specialist teachers, set classes and textbooks. The civil service

examination system had just been abolished in 1905, and new types of educational institutions and study materials were being developed across China. As part of his educational efforts, Yang printed two notable introductory texts designed for beginners in Buddhist studies and which were intended for use in his school: Fojiao chuxue keben 佛教初學課本 (Textbook of Buddhism for Beginning Students) and Shizong lüeshuo 十宗略說 (Brief Discussion of the Ten Schools). The primer continued to circulate long after Yang's school ceased to operate, with at least seven editions known to have been printed, while the latter book appears to have been more limited in exposure. In composing these books for beginners, Yang drew upon longstanding models of education in China, but was also well aware of what modern forms of education and Buddhists abroad were up to; it is no accident that Yang chose the term "textbook" to describe his primer, and modeled his outline of Buddhist schools on a Japanese work. In looking closely at the composition, use, reception, and distribution of these books, we get a glimpse of deeper historical currents at work in the development of modern Chinese Buddhism. Yang in particular appears to have been quite hesitant to introduce drastic changes to his Buddhist publications, but was ready to incorporate new methods and models in his creation of introductory sources, recognizing that beginners, especially the young students of fin-de-siècle Oing, needed unique types of sources in order to be able to learn effectively.

The first book that Yang produced for his new school was his primer *Fojiao chuxue keben* 佛教初學課本. The preface for the primer is dated the second month of Guangxu 光緒 32 (February or March 1906) and it was likely block carved later that year. ③

⑤ Holmes Welch, *The Buddhist Revival in China*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1968, 2-10. Welch mainly relies on the account by Yang's granddaughter, Buwei Yang Chao, and the biography in Yang Wenhui, *Yang Renshan jushi yizhu* 楊仁山居士遺著, 11 Vols., Beijing: Wofo si Fojing liutongchu 1923.

[●] DDB, 「祇園精舍」. Several different Chinese transliterations of the name exist. For Yang's school, both 祇洹精舍 and 祇洹精舍 were used.

⁷ Goldfuss, 186-201.

③ I have not yet seen an original or reprint edition with an explicit block carving date, which usually appears appended to the end of a text. Luo Cheng 羅琤, *Jinling kejingchu yanjiu* 金陵刻經處研究 (A Study of the Jinling Scriptural Press) (Shanghai: Shanghai shehui kexueyuan chubanshe, 2010) dates the book to 1906, presumably based also on the date given in Yang's preface. Luo Cheng, 180.

The text as printed had gone through several generations of editing, revising, and reprinting, and it is important to note that Yang was neither the author nor the annotator of the work, even though he is often credited with such roles in bibliographic and secondary sources. He was, however, responsible for much of the editing. The roots of the primer extend back to the Confucian text Sanzi jing \equiv 字經 (The Three Character Classic), commonly credited to Wang Yinglin 王應麟 (1223-1296) although other editions were later published and popularized. The classic was one of the most widelyused texts in primary education in China until the beginning of the twentieth century, used to teach children both written character recognition and basic ethical knowledge. 9 Its format, as indicated by the title, is a main text (zhengwen 正文) made up of triplets written in classical language, often accompanied by a more verbose half-character-width exegesis and commentary (zhujie 註解 or zhushu 註疏). The method of instruction was for the student to memorize the text and have its meaning explained by a teacher with help from exegetical notes. In so doing the child would learn both to recognize the meaning and sound of the written characters, as well as the ethical teachings of the text itself.

In the Tianqi 天啟 era of the Ming 明 dynasty (1621-1627), the Chan monk Guangzhen 廣真 (Chuiwan laoren 吹萬老人; 1582-1639) composed a Buddhist text based on the *Sanzi jing* model: *Shijiao sanzi jing* 釋教三字經 (The Buddhist Three Character Classic). © Guangzhen imitates the format of the earlier Confucian work, organizing his text into three-character phrases, and

similarly to the *Sanzi jing* he intended his work for the education of the young; in this case, novices who are still being trained in monasticism. As he writes in his preface:

Among the Confucians they have the *Three Character Classic* for the education of children, which they wish the young to recite and memorize, and upon maturing attain insight. ... In our own teaching, Śākyamuni descended and was born in the human realm so that he could scale the palace wall and attain the Way, establish the teachings and promulgate the denominations. This is something that can be distinctly verified, and one can cite and describe it. How could one not be willing to use it for the education of novices?

Two themes mentioned in this preface would continue to show up in later versions of this Buddhist primer: the importance of citing textual evidence for the verification of teachings, and the primer's role in a process of instruction and memorization that would lead to maturation (*zhuang* 壯) and insight (*kaiwu* 開悟). The narrative of Guangzhen's book mirrors that of the Confucian *Sanzi jing* but is based firmly in the Buddhist textual corpus; both begin with descriptions of the basic nature of humans and the universe, but whereas the earlier *Sanzi jing* states that "People at birth are naturally good, the natures are much the same [though] their habits become widely different", Guangzhen opens his primer with

See Herbert A. Giles, trans., Elementary Chinese: San Tzu Ching, Shanghai: Messrs. Kelly & Walsh Ld., 1900.

⑤ See the DDBC Person Authority entry on Guangzhen, http://authority.ddbc.edu. tw/person/?fromInner=A001662. My source for Shijiao sanzi jing is the edition reprinted by the Yangzhou Scripture Hall in 1905. Other extant editions include one printed at Chaoming Temple in 1872 held at Harvard, and another printed at the Huikong Scriptorium 慧空經房, possibly the same edition.

[●] The full preface is as follows, translated sections in bold:「儒有三字經,為童子學。蓋欲童齡誦習,逮其壯而開悟。則帝王紀網、人倫之序,不可得而忘也。我教自釋迦如來,降生人間,以致踰城證道,立教敷宗,歷歷可據者,亦可例而述之。甯不為沙彌便學耶。元夕前四日,援筆搜成一帖,題曰三字經,願將來吾輩口頭哩哩囉囉耳,倘亦壯而開悟,其為『人之初,性本善』,有不同也乎。蜀東吹萬老人謹序。」

❷ 「人之初,性本善,性相近,習相遠。」

"Before the eon of nothingness, in the primordial chaos, there was the original mind, the primeval universe." What follows includes mention of Śakyamuni Buddha, his awakening and teaching of the first Buddhist disciples, the arrival of Buddhism in China during the reign of Emperor Ming 明帝 of the Han, the Chan patriarchs including Bodhidharma 達摩 and Huineng 慧能, and masters such as Mazu Daoyi 馬祖道一, and finally an outline of basic daily practices for novices. Indeed at several points the text addresses itself to "you novices" (er shami 爾沙彌). The entire text is about twice the length of the Wang Yinglin edition of the Sanzi jing.

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性體	天 地	沖 內	南敏	雲吹萬	
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生 房 成在此此皆是、	不	北 大 生時體證方為冷地裏 一 大 有的時節八能向一念 音剛 混沌是陰陽未分萬聚	南敏修長老註	雲吹萬老人	

Figure 1: Sample page from a 1905 edition of Shijiao sanzi jing

At some point in the late Qing, a new edition of Guangzhen's Shijiao sanzi jing was produced, now featuring interlinear exegetical commentary on the main text contributed by Minxiu Fuyi 敏修福毅 (fl. 1730s), a Chan monk of the Caodong 曹 润 school. The annotations are written in a colloquial style and expand upon the meaning of the terse classical phrases. In some cases, the pronunciation of some characters is indicated by reference to a homophone. The presence of the commentary makes it much easier to understand the meaning of the text without the help of a knowledgeable teacher. An edition of the text with commentary was published in 1905 from blocks held in the Yangzhou Scripture Hall 揚州藏經院, funded by donations procured in large part by thirteen monastics and one layperson credited in the publishing information. This edition consists of 64 triplets, and a total of 13,964 characters including commentary. It was around this time that this version of the text attracted the notice of the Pure Land monk Yinguang 印光 (1861-1940), who set about revising and editing the text. At the time Yinguang was based in Putuoshan 普陀山 and had worked in the Andan Scripture Hall 安 單經藏樓 of Fayu Temple 法雨寺, but he was neither well-known nor a published author until later in the 1910s when his writings started to appear in Buddhist periodicals. It does not appear that Yinguang's version of Shijiao sanzi jing was ever published. although his preface was reprinted in his collected works, and it echoes many of the sentiments written by Guangzhen nearly three centuries earlier:

...Its purpose is so that while a novice one may recite and memorize it, one may learn the essential points of the Buddhist texts, and make clear the doctrines of the ancestral Way. When

[■] See DDBC Person Authority, http://authority.ddbc.edu.tw/person/
?fromInner=A020899.

[•] On Yinguang, see ZFJS, 2:761-765.

❸ 「空劫前,混沌內,有一物,先天地。」

one reaches maturity they may read the entirety of the tripiṭaka, practice all the five schools, achieve wondrous enlightened of one's own mind, and accord with the Buddha's mind.

Again we find the text being promoted as a tool for monastic education, but here Yinguang emphasizes that the primer in merely the first step in a long process of mastering the tools required to read and understand the Buddhist canon. Perhaps because of the strong Chan flavour of the earlier text, as both Guangzhen and Minxiu were ordained in that school, the Pure Land monk Yinguang is said to have changed about thirty per cent of the main text and seventy per cent of the commentary.

It is this version of *Shijiao sanzi jing* which formed the basis of Yang Wenhui's primer. A devotee of the Pure Land tradition himself, in his own preface Yang writes that Yinguang's version far excelled those previous, and only required a few corrections and a new title to distinguish it from its past incarnations. The main text consists of 732 triplets, with four triplets per column of text, for a total of 2,196 characters. Section titles appear as marginal notes, and divide the text thematically into sections on Buddhist history, schools, and doctrines. Compared to the earlier *Shijiao sanzi jing* work by Guangzhen, Yang's primer is much longer and

more complex, going in to great detail in describing the different Buddhist schools, especially the Chan and Pure Land lineages, and the different worlds of Buddhist cosmology. The language, however, was intended to be comprehended by children and those with little education. The primer was later widely distributed and used as an introductory text in Buddhist seminaries, and Yang attempted, unsuccessfully, to have it included in the Zokuzōkyō 續 藏經, the Japanese extended edition of the East Asian canon. 10 The 1906 edition of Yang's primer contains two sections: Fojiao chuxue keben, which contains the main text only, and Fojiao chuxue keben zhu 佛教初學課本註, which presents each triplet from the main text in a full-size font followed by half-width exegetical commentary. The commentary provides lexicographical explanations for difficult terms in the main text, and uses scriptural references to expand upon advanced concepts. An example pair of triplets and accompanying commentary shows the wealth of knowledge that is meant to be contained by the pithy text:

"Transmitting the Mind-seal is the Chan Lineage.": The Mind-seal of the Buddha is none other than $praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}-p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$. The Fifth Patriarch instructed people to recite the Diamond $S\bar{u}tra$. The Sixth Patriarch became known as the Bodhisattva of $praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ study. All used $praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ as the mind-seal. Later people named it the Chan Lineage. This supra-supramundane Chan cuts off the path of language and annihilates the locus of mental

❶「……俾為沙彌時,誦而習之。知佛經之要義,明祖道之綱宗。及其壯而遍閱三藏,歷參五宗,妙悟自心,冥符佛意。」(Yinguang, Yinguang dashi wenchao 印光大師文鈔, Vol. 3 正編, No. 26.)

¹⁹ A 1931 edition of Yang's *Fojiao chuxue keben* and *Fojiao chuxue keben zhu* has been photographically reprinted in *Fozang jiyao* 佛藏輯要, Vol. 31, Chengdu: Bashu shushe, 1993, 413-442. Goldfuss notes that this edition is the same as the 1906 edition that can be found in some monastic libraries. Goldfuss, op. cit. 170fn3. A re-typeset reprinted edition appears in Yang Wenhui, *Yang Renshan quanji*, edited by Zhou Jizhi 周繼旨, Hefei: Huangshan shushe, 2000, 101-145. Goldfuss was not able to find a copy of Yinguang's edition of *Shijiao sanzi jing*. Goldfuss, 173fn15.

Jan Kiely, "Spreading the Dharma with the Mechanized Press: New Buddhist Print Cultures in Modern Chinese Print Revolution, 1865-1949", in From Woodblocks to the Internet: Chinese Publishing and Print Culture in Transition, circa 1800 to 2008, edited by Cynthia Brokaw and Christopher A. Reed, Leiden: Brill, 2010, 198.

¹⁷⁰fn4, 171fn5.

❷「傳心印,為禪宗。」

② DDB、「出世間上上禪」; FGC, 1554.

Figure 2: Sample page from the 1931 edition of Fojiao chuxue keben zhu

functioning. From the beginning they are partially bound together.

In this case the primer begins its section on Chan by telling us something fundamental about what distinguishes it from others schools: it relies upon transmission of the mind-seal ($xinyin \mapsto \text{EI}$). The commentary teaches the student to read mind-seal as identical to $praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$, citing examples from the biographies of the fifth and sixth Chinese Chan patriarchs to support its claim, and using phrases and concepts taken verbatim from Buddhist scriptural literature.

The Publishing of Buddhist Books for Beginners in Modern • 65 • China from Yang Wenhui to Master Shengyen

The text of Fojiao chuxue keben along with its annotation thus presents the teachings of the Buddhist scriptural texts in a distilled form, referencing important source materials by title and introducing the reader to key terms and phrases from the Buddhist corpus. It is important to note, however, that the text as first printed in 1906 was a joint product of Yinguang and Yang Wenhui, with Yinguang providing an apparently substantial proportion of the text and Yang crediting himself with corrections and some edits. 49 How then did Yinguang's unpublished manuscript edition of Shijiao sanzi jing come to the attention of Yang Wenhui, and what was the relationship between the two at the time? It does not appear that Yang and Yinguang ever met each other, but there are two mutual acquaintances who did visit both the Jinling Press in Nanjing and Putuoshan in the years immediately preceding the carving of Yang's primer in 1906. The first was Gui Bohua 桂伯華 (1861-1915), an erstwhile participant in the 1898 reform movements who had a conversion experience thanks to reading a copy of the Diamond Sūtra 金剛經. He came to Nanjing to study under Yang in 1900, and went to visit Yinguang on Putuoshan not long after his arrival. It might have been during this visit that Gui obtained a manuscript of Yinguang's edited Shijiao sanzi jing and brought it back to Yang in Nanjing. Yinguang would not be widely published

❷ DDB,「言語道斷心行處滅」. DDB cites the phrase as originally from the *Recorded Sayings of Dahui* 大慧語錄, T 1998A, 47, 920c23.

^{●「}佛之心印,即是般若波羅蜜,五祖令人誦金剛般若經,六祖稱為學般若菩薩,皆以般若為心印也。後人名為禪宗,是出世間上上禪,言語道斷心行處滅,始有少分相應。」(Fozang jiyao, 31:424a.)

② Apart from the mention of Yinguang in the preface, however, Yang's published text cites only Yang's input, and later bibliographic sources have maintained this. Both the main text and the annotated version of Yang's primer are credited as being narrated by Yang Wenhui (Renshan) of Shidai [county]:「石埭楊文會 仁山泷」.

³ In a letter to Gui Bohua, Yang writes that he had not spoken to Yinguang in person. Goldfuss, 150.

❷ Goldfuss, 143-144. Note that in this context Goldfuss gives the wrong first character for Yinguang's name. On Gui's biography, see Yu Lingbo 于凌波, *Xiandai Fojiao renwu cidian* 現代佛教人物辭典 (A Dictionary of Modern Buddhist Persons), Taipei: Foguang, 2004, 1:852-854.

for another decade, and at the time was relatively unknown outside of monastic circles. Another possibility is that it was thanks to Gao Henian 高鶴年 (1872-1962), a well-traveled Buddhist layman, that the text made its way to the Jinling Press. Gao had visited Yinguang in 1898 and again in 1901, and came to Yang's press in 1902 when Gui was still studying there. Gao was later responsible for having a series of Yinguang's essays published in the periodical Foxue congbao 佛學叢報 in Shanghai, but there is unfortunately no evidence that he was bringing manuscripts out of Putuoshan as early as this.

Fojiao chuxue keben had a long publication life and continues to be reprinted today. It first appeared in Yang Renshan xiansheng yizhu 楊仁山先生遺著,a collection of Yang's posthumous collected works published by the Jinling Press in 1919. The primer with annotations was reprinted in its own volume by Jinling in late 1930, and in 1933 the periodical Foxue chuban jie 佛學出版界 (Buddhist Publishing World), which showcased publications of the Shanghai Buddhist Books 上海佛學書局,featured a brief description of the book's contents and an excerpt from the section on the Vinaya lineage. It was later published by the Shanghai-based press in 1936 under the title Fojiao chuxue keben zhujie 註解 (annotated and explicated), by which time the book was being sold as the "fifth edition". The primer continued to appear in Buddhist

periodical articles throughout the 1930s and in to the early 1940s. A January 15, 1935 article in *Fojiao jushilin tekan* 佛教居士林特刊 (Special Publication of the Buddhist Lay Association) outlines the origins of the primer as part of Yang Wenhui's educational work, a sixth edition is advertised in May 1939, the preface appears in a paraphrased version in November 1940, and the whole of the main text was reprinted in *Foxue banyue kan* 佛學半月刊 (Buddhism Semimonthly) on July 16, 1941. These scattered but substantial references in Buddhist periodical literature point toward the abiding influence of the primer on Buddhist intellectual forum as it was recorded and transmitted in their print media. There was also a similarly-titled primer for intermediate students, *Zhongdeng Foxue jiaoke shu* 中等佛學教科書, written by Shanyin 善因 (fl. 1920-1947), a disciple of Taixu, published in 1930 and 1931.

In contrast, another introductory text printed by Yang that focused on defining the Buddhist lineages had much less of an impact on the Buddhist world of late-Qing and Republicanera China than did the primer. Shizong lüeshuo 十宗略說 (A Brief Discussion of the Ten Lineages) was a revised and edited translation of Hasshū kōyō 八宗綱要 (Essentials of the Eight Schools) by the Japanese priest Gyōnen 凝然 (1240-1321). Gyōnen's work was reprinted in ten editions during the Meiji and Taishō eras and was used as a primer in the new Japanese schools for Buddhist priests. It was discussed at some length in Chinese Buddhist periodicals, and Master Shengyen studied it while a student at the Buddhist seminary at Jing'an Temple 靜安寺 in 1947. It first appeared in China in print in the February 1913 issue of Foxue congbao, was later included in the 1919 posthumous

② Goldfuss, 144fn93. Yu Lingbo, *Yang Renshan jushi pingzhuan* 楊仁山居士 評傳 (A Critical Biography of Layman Yang Renshan), Taipei: Xin wenfeng, 1995, 176-179. Kiely, 199-200.

② S1834. The collection was edited by Xu Weiru 徐蔚如 (1878-1937), who had founded scriptural presses in Beijing and Tianjin in 1918 and 1919.

② Foxue chuban jie 佛學出版界 (Buddhist Publishing World), Vol. 2, 1933; MFQ 64:185-187. The publication appears as S0152. Shanghai Buddhist Books must have published an earlier reprint edition, since it appears in advertisements in their periodical Foxue banyue kan 佛學半月刊 (Buddhism Semimonthly) in December 1934. See MFQ 50:202, 228.

¹ MFQ 65:159-160, 54:450. MFQB 65:108, 65:377.

^{1332,} S1333, S1334. On Shanyin, see ZFJS, 2:830-834.

Daniel Stevenson, presentation at the Third International Conference on the Intellectual Legacy of Shengyen, May 26-30, 2010. A translated discussion of the book by Sakaino Koyo 境野黃洋, 八宗綱要講話, was serialized in Sichuan

collection of Yang's works, and was published in its own volume in 1921, now joined by extensive commentary by Wan Shuhao 萬 叔豪 (fl. 1921-1936) and an additional preface by Ding Fubao, by whose Shanghai Medical Press 上海醫學書局 the book was published. Significantly, in this schema Pure Land appears last among the Buddhist lineages, portrayed as both the culmination of the teachings of the previous school, and as the most universal gateway for practitioners. Yang's preface makes particular note of the special position of the Pure Land teachings:

The first nine schools divide sentient beings by type; the final school encompasses all sentient beings, and regardless of what Dharma they practice, they all practice Pure Land accumulation of merit. Thus the nine schools enter in to one school. After giving rise to the Pure Land, all means of practice can be fully realized. Thus one school enters in to the nine schools.

Determining the historical priority and special features of the Buddhist lineages was not an easy task, and in Japan, where a Buddhist sectarian consciousness was much more pronounced, deciding how to write about their relationship was a process fraught with dissension and conflict. Yang clearly favoured the Pure Land lineage, but judging by his publication record he did not

ignore texts from other traditions within Chinese Buddhism. A few outlines of Buddhist lineages were later published in Republican China, and they would feature prominently in academic histories of Buddhism published from the 1920s onward. §

Yang Wenhui's introductory texts were both composed in response to the need for materials with which to instruct monastics and laypeople in the fundamentals of the Buddhist religion, but in doing so he stayed close to longstanding traditions of Buddhist pedagogy and introduced only a few innovations of his own. When he compiled his primer in 1906, the home- and private academy-based education system that used texts such as the Sanzi jing for primary education was starting to fade with the recent abolishment of the civil service exam, and would continue to wane as governments of the Republican era established public and private schools along a Western model. We can, however, begin to see elements of Yang's publication work that reflect broader changes among Chinese Buddhists of the time. His use of Guangzhen's Shijiao sanzi jing as a textual model, for example, mirrors the popularity among his contemporary Buddhists of Mingdynasty Buddhist writings, such as those of Ouyi Zhixu 蕅益智 旭 (1599-1655) and Hanshan Deging 憨山德清 (1546-1623). We might also relate Yang's efforts to the larger context of the trend toward compiling 'bibles' of Buddhism in Asia, which drew upon models provided by missionary and orientalist scholars. The most enduring influence of Yang on Buddhist books for beginners, however, would come from his students, disciples, and others inspired by his publishing efforts, who developed similar projects of their own and who were able to further develop the scope of the genre.

Fojiao xunkan 四川佛教旬刊 (Sichuan Buddhism Weekly) from September 1925 to March 1926. See MFQ 128:75-187.

❸ MFQ 2:21-27. The title does not appear in *Foxue shumu biao* 佛學書目表, the 1912 catalogue published by the Jinling Press. See Goldfuss, 171. The 1921 edition appears as S0313. Ding's preface was reprinted in *Haichaoyin* 海潮音 (Sound of the Sea Tide) in 1921. MFQ 151:449-450.

^{●「}以前之九宗分攝群機,以後之一宗普攝群機,隨修何法皆作淨土資糧,則九宗入一宗,生淨土後門門皆得圓證,則一宗入九宗。」(Fozang jiyao, 31:442. Stevenson, op. cit.)

❸ Jiang Weiqiao's 蔣維喬 *Zhongguo Fojiao shi* 中國佛教史 (History of Chinese Buddhism) being one example.

⁶ Goldfuss, 174-176.

3. Annotated Scriptures and Collected Evidentiary Tales: Ding Fubao

Thanks in large part to Yang Wenhui's efforts, within a decade of his death in 1911 there were at least twelve Buddhist scriptural presses active in China, which together were producing hundreds of titles. Yet authors, editors, and publishers were still faced with the difficulty of understanding the language and meaning of Buddhist scriptural texts. In a temple or classroom setting, the content of books for beginners such as Yang's primer could be explained in person, but for the lone reader the language of the primer, let alone the myriad titles being printed by scriptural presses, could be quite bewildering. The physician, bibliophile, and lay Buddhist Ding Fubao 了福保 (Ding Zhongyou 丁仲祐, 1874-1952) observed as much in 1919:

Numerous, numerous! The sea of scriptures! Take one step into it, and it's a vast [expanse] without a shore. All who see the vast sea of work to be done simply sigh with despair. It is as if we are in a boat on the ocean and encounter a sudden storm of angry waves. One glimpse at the limitlessness, and all the passengers look at each other in fear. But the boatmen who know where it is peaceful, and who in calm control finally lead the boat to the other shore, how could they not have something called a compass (指南鍼)? Piloting a boat is like this, how could navigating the sea of scriptures be any different?

Ding published a series of books in the late 1910s and early 1920s that sought to address the turbid sea of scriptures by providing guidance to those who sought to explore its vast textual expanse. This series was titled Dingshi Foxue congshu 丁氏 佛學叢書 (Ding's Buddhist Studies Collectanea) and was first published through his Shanghai Medical Press 上海醫學書局、 an imprint founded to publish medical works translated from the Japanese. Ding's Buddhist Studies series consists of three major types of works: annotated scriptures; books for beginners that collect evidence for Buddhist teachings from the corpus of classical texts; and lexicographical works, of which Ding's Foxue da cidian 佛學大辭典 (Great Dictionary of Buddhist Studies) is the best known. Ding's series represents an important phase in the development of Buddhist publishing and of Buddhist studies in China: the production of a newly expanded set of tools that made it more possible than ever for individuals to study the meaning and messages of the scriptures. In addition, they were further empowered to guide themselves in their study rather than being reliant on a teacher or community.

Ding was from Wuxi 無錫 in Jiangsu province, and thanks to his family's scholarly background he had an interest in books from an early age. Initially he worked as a school teacher, but after finding it difficult to live on the teacher's salary, in 1902 he went to study Chinese medicine under Zhao Yuanyi 趙元益 (1840-1902) at the Dongwen Academy 東文學堂 in Shanghai. In 1909 he

See Luo Cheng for a discussion of some of these presses. An outline of the major presses and some discussion of the smaller ones appears in Gregory Adam Scott, "Conversion by the Book: Buddhist Print Culture in Early Republican China," Ph. D. Dissertation, Columbia University, 2013.

❸ Ding Fubao 丁福保, *Dingshi Foxue congshu* 丁氏佛學叢書 (Ding's Buddhist Studies Collectanea), edited by Cai Yunchen 蔡運辰, Taipei: Beihai, 1970 [1918-1920], 377.

❸ Jiang Qingbo 江慶柏, "Ding Fubao de cangshu guannian ji cangshu shijian 丁福保的藏書觀念及藏書實踐," *Tushuguan xue yanjiu* 圖書館學研究, February 2000, 96; Howard L. Boorman, ed., *Biographical Dictionary of Republican China*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1967, 3:269-270; Ding Fubao, *Chouyin jushi ziding nianpu* 疇隱居士自訂年譜, in *Qingdai minguo cangshujia nianpu* 清代民國藏書家年譜, edited by Zhang Aifang 張愛芳 and Jia Guirong 賈貴榮, Beijing: Beijing tushuguan chubanshe, 2004 [1929], 305; ZJFRZ, 423-424; Zhao Pushan 趙璞珊, "Ding Fubao he ta zaoqi

placed first in the medical exams held in Nanjing, and because of his experience translating Japanese medical works was posted to Japan by the Qing government, where he observed their medical system and purchased medical books. When Ding returned to Shanghai he set up a private practice and began publishing his accumulated medical knowledge, initially through Wenming Books 文明書局, the publishing house he had founded in 1902 with two fellow translators and editors. His *Dingshi yixue congshu* 丁氏醫學叢書 (Ding's Medical Collectanea) was initially published by Wenming Books from 1908 to 1911, but from 1914 he began to use the imprint of the Shanghai Medical Studies Press. His successful medical practice brought Ding an increased income which he spent on acquiring more rare and important texts for his collection, and his ability to identify and acquire significant rare books helped to supply the content for his press.

From 1913 he began to collect a great number of Buddhist scriptures and started to compile a lexicon of Buddhist terminology, and by the following year he was keeping a vegetarian diet,

bianzhu fanyi de yishu 丁福保和他早期編著翻譯的醫書," *Zhong-Xi yi jiehe zazhi* 中西醫結合雜誌, Vol. 10, No. 4, 1990, 248. Zhao Yuanyi had previously translated works on Western medicine and had attained the *juren* 舉人 degree in 1888.

- Ding, Nianpu, 32; Zhao Pusan, 248. See below for a discussion of his medical translations.
- Ding, Nianpu, 316-317, 325-326; Zhao Pusan, 248. Ding identifies Hua Chunfu 華純甫 and Li Jinghan 李靜涵 as his compatriots in the early days of Wenming Books. Earlier in 1906 Ding had founded a translation and publishing house called the Translation Society (Yishu gonghui 譯書公會) in his hometown of Wuxi through which he published a number of medical texts, but it folded after a property dispute in early 1908. For one catalogue of the Shanghai Medical Press' published works, see Shanghai tushuguan 上海圖書館, ed., Zhongguo jindai xiandai congshu mulu 中國近代現代叢書目錄, Shanghai: Shanghai tushuguan, 1979, 13-15.

something that he evidently maintained for the rest of his life. Although there are several variant accounts of Ding's initial turn toward Buddhism, claiming that he met Yang Wenhui in 1903 in Nanjing or that he took the lay precepts in 1913, there is little corroborating evidence for any of them. His engagement with Buddhism appears to have come about gradually rather than due to any dramatic event, and it was principally through collecting and reading Buddhist texts that he came to be interested in the religious tradition. Most significantly, it is clear that Ding never committed himself exclusively to Buddhism, and eventually shifted the focus of his textual studies and publishing to other religious traditions. During the period of his Buddhist writing and publishing from about 1918 to 1924, however, he produced his landmark Buddhist Studies Collectanea. The thirty core titles of the series, as delineated by the contents of the 1970 reprint edition and by the preface and afterword that Ding wrote for the series, were initially published between 1918 and 1920, although Ding continued to add new titles and editions to the series as late as 1925. Because of its sheer size and complexity the longest work in the series, Foxue da cidian was not published until June 1921, but its preface and front

Ding, Nianpu, 357. Compiling the dictionary was said to have taken eight years, and it was completed in June of 1921, with an edition published through the Shanghai Medical Press the next year. See ZJFRZ, 427; Ding, Nianpu, 1929.

^{⑤ Ding, Nianpu, 318, 330. ZJFRZ, 424-425. Yu Lingbo claims that Ding had been publishing Buddhist scriptures as early as 1912, but I have not found any other evidence of this. Some accounts of Ding's turn toward Buddhist studies are mentioned in Kiely, "Speading the Dharma with the Mechanized Press", 193. See also Ding, Foxue congshu, 29. Yu writes that a bout with a serious illness in 1914, along with the death of his mother in the same year, forced Ding to reconsider his orientation to "worldly matters", but Ding's autochronology records his mother dying in March 1920. Ding, Nianpu, 381.}

① Ding further notes in his preface to 佛學起信編 (1919) that from the age of 40 he became fond of reading Buddhist scriptures.

matter were already being published as part of the series in 1919. The most numerous titles in the series and the earliest to be published are annotated editions of Chinese Buddhist scriptures. and include some of the most central works in the East Asian Buddhist canon. Ding's Jin'gang bore poluomi jing jianzhu 金剛 般若波羅蜜經箋註 (Annotated Diamond Sūtra) contains many of the features of the other annotated scriptures and can serve as an outline of his approach to the genre: it has a preface that introduces the theme of the text and notes bibliographic considerations such as different extant translations, a set of miscellaneous notes on annotation (jianjing zaji 箋經雜記) that outlines the larger exegetical context, and a record of miraculous events (lingvi ji 靈異記) associated with the sūtra. The book begins with prefatory material that guides the reader through the historical and interpretive context of the sūtra, including listing bibliographic information on the six commonly cited translations of the Diamond Sūtra. Ding then notes that much confusion has arisen from using any of the five translations other than that of Kumārajīva

(Jiumoluoshi 鳩摩羅什, 344-413), which is the one that he uses, but that all the translations must be compared to each other in order to properly understand the text. He also identifies three key concepts present in the text: essence (benti 本體), practice (xiuxing 修行), and the "final goal" (jiujing 究竟). Ultimately all these concepts return to the four "cases" of existence, non-existence, notexistence and not-non-existence (wuvou, fei wuvou 無有, 非無有). something cannot be described with language and words (yuyan wenzi 語言文字). 4 He proceeds to explain this with reference to the three types of Buddha nature postulated by Zhiyan 智儼 (602-668) in his exegesis of the Huayan Sūtra 華嚴經, providing copious citations of places in the *Diamond Sūtra* where these concepts might be found. Ding also makes use of the preface to describe to the reader some of the circumstances under which the annotated scripture was compiled. He states that while writing his annotations and exegesis he maintained a purified mind and body, cut off all extreme thoughts, and took extreme care with the meaning of each individual character. He also expresses the hope that his work has not only improved on past annotation efforts which he later criticizes as either good but relying too much on specialized Buddhist vocabulary, or easy to understand but full of mistakes — but has also preserved the teachings passed down by the ancients without corrupting them with his own words. Finally he offers a series of stories pulled from history that demonstrate the power of the sūtra to produce miracles and unusual occurrences, ranging from the extension of one's lifespan, to the granting of sons, to banishing ghosts and protection from weapons.

[●] Cai Yunchen, who edited a reprint edition of the series, based his choice of which texts to include in his reprint on the 1918 series catalogue appended to Annotated Essential Records of Buddhist Scriptures 佛經精華錄箋註. See Ding, Foxue congshu, preface, 5. The catalogue itself is on p. 1520. For a later catalogue of the series, see "Foxue congshu 佛學叢書," Shijie Fojiao jushilin linkan 世界佛教居士林林刊, No. 10, August 1925, 12. Cai did not include Foxue da cidian in his reprint due to its size and the fact that the Huayan lianshe 華嚴蓮社 in Taiwan had already reprinted it by that time.

[●] Ding's Great Dictionary of Buddhist Studies defines lingyi 靈異 as "an abstruse, inconceivable phenomenon." See Ding Fubao, Foxue da cidian 佛學大辭典, Taipei: Huayan lianshe, 1956 [1921]. In using this term rather than the more conventional ganying 感應, he may have been following the ninth-century Japanese text Record of Miracles in Recompence to Good and Evil Manifesting in Japanese Lands (Nihongoku genhō zenaku ryōiki 日本国現報 善惠霊異記). See FGC, 1452. The Diamond Sūtra is also one of the most often read and quoted scriptural texts that is included in the series.

¹ Ding, *Foxue congshu*, 2575. The four cases are the four logical possiblities of all things and phenomena, expounded in *Mādhyamika* thought.

[■] Ibid., 2576-2578. The cited passages all have to do with phenomena being simultaneously not themselves; for example, one passage states that when one sees that all characteristics are not characteristics, one sees the Buddha.

⁴⁹ Ibid., 2578-2579, 2586-2610.

editions of the Erya 爾雅 (The Literary Expositor) and the Maoshi 毛詩 (Book of Songs with Mao Prefaces) in citing passages from a wide array of secondary sources in order to explicate the main text. The similarity of Ding's works to annotated editions of classical texts was noted in the advertisements and book catalogues printed in the Buddhist periodical Shijie Fojiao jushilin linkan 世界佛教居 士林林刊 (Magazine of the World Buddhist Lay Association) and 年少老成、故名。姚秦時、姚輿迎入關。悉、毋龜茲(在今新疆)國王女。鳩摩、華言: elsewhere. © Each phrase of the original scriptural text, sometimes as few as two characters, is followed by Ding's explanation of the phrase's terms and meaning, with inline citations of passages in related texts that support the interpretation. These texts include other canonical scriptures, commentaries and other annotated editions, often noting the division or section (Ch. pin 🖫; Skt. varga) of the work where the cited passage can be found, although 經分爲三十二分。余因其便於誦讀、之集會。由此起因。〇相傳梁昭明太 page numbers are never used to cite passages since neither standard printed editions nor the page numbering scheme of the Taishō Canon had yet come into widespread use. Ding's exegesis is extremely careful and thorough, and assumes 。泰爲國師。 上言童子。 羅

little to no previous knowledge on the part of the reader. For example, the first three phrases of the first section of the Diamond Sūtra in Chinese and in Charles Muller's translation are as follows:

如是我聞,一時佛在舍衛國祇樹給孤獨園,與大比丘眾 千二百五十人俱。

Thus I have heard. Once, the Buddha was staying in the Jetavana Grove in Śrāvastī with a community of 1250 monks.

With Ding's added interlinear notes, these two lines occupy

·晉書梁書皆有 維什·華言日壽。

The exegesis and annotation (*jianzhu* 箋註) in Ding's annotated scriptural texts take the form of interlinear notes, printed in a smaller font arranged in half-columns that follow the phrase being discussed. In his general preface to the series, Ding writes that his style of annotation is modeled upon the type of exegesis (xungu 訓詁) employed for the Chinese classics, following annotated

Figure 3: Sample page from Ding Fubao's Annotated Diamond Sūtra

⑤ ZJFRZ, 425. The advertisements appear as Anonymous, "Foxue congshu 佛學 叢書." See, for example, MFQB 7:76.

① Chinese text from the Chinese Buddhist Electronic Text Association (CBETA) 中華電子佛典協會, http://www.cbeta.org/. English translation from: http:// www.acmuller.net/bud-canon/diamond sutra.html.

half a page in the annotated edition, with approximately 460 characters of exegesis used to explicate 29 characters of sūtra. 30 The notes describe how the community of monks, led by *Ānanda* 阿難, assembled after the death of the Buddha to assemble the scriptures based on what they had heard him preach; how the Fodi jing lun 佛地經論 (Treatise on the Buddha-bhūmi Sūtra) interprets the word "once" in two different ways: that "the Buddha" refers to Śākyamuni Buddha; that Śrāvastī was a city in northern Kośala in central India, and so on. In addition, he offers a pronunciation guide for uncommon characters and readings of characters, such as 祇 (qi) when it appears as part of "Jetavana," annotations included here differ from those that would eventually be included in Ding's dictionary Foxue da cidian, indicating that he sought to explicate each term within the context that suited the particular work, rather than in the more general sense provided by the dictionary.

Ding's annotations thus have several functions, all of which are intended to help guide the novice reader through unfamiliar textual territory, and to help them better apprehend the teachings of the scriptures for themselves. The annotations help readers whose literacy is based on classical texts by using a style that would be familiar to them; they provide a bibliographic map of related texts to help the reader branch out into the larger conceptual and textual world of the Buddhist traditions; they remind the reader of the importance of comparative study and of paying attention to the contextual meanings of individual terms; and they empower the reader to ultimately interpret the meaning of the scriptures for themselves by following the same methods of textual study and lexicographical research as Ding demonstrates in his own work. In doing so, Ding encourages the reader toward his vision of what Buddhist Studies ought to be, which is to approach reading as an engagement with a network of texts, all sharing references and concepts, which must be understood in relation to each other if they are to be understood correctly. He portrays this approach as the central task of Buddhist Studies, and as one which corrects the errors of the past and more closely approaches the original intent of the scriptures.

The core of Ding's approach is thus to put the authority of interpretation in the hands of the reader, and to empower them to use their own critical faculties to understand the scriptural teachings. One important aspect of this is the inclusion of the miracle tales in his annotated editions, which provide evidence to the reader that these teachings are not only genuine, but have also manifested recorded effects in the world throughout history. In the section "Record of *Diamond Sūtra* miracles 金剛經靈異記", he presents examples of strange and wondrous occurrences associated with reciting or possessing the scripture. It includes stories from Tang- and Song-dynasty collections of anecdotes, grouped under fourteen headings, and is similar to thematic collections of miracle

See Ding, Foxue congbao, 2612-2613. Even this level of detail is only an average; sometimes a single phrase of classical text is followed by over a full page of exegesis. In the 1920 work Detailed Annotated Heart Sūtra 心經詳註, Ding replaces an earlier annotated version of the scripture, which he felt was too brief, with an even more detailed version where a single phrase is usually followed by several pages of annotations. See Ibid., 2475-2478 for the preface to this work.

③ As meaning either that the speaking and the hearing of the sūtra were separated by only a instant (*chana* 刹那), or that they occur at the extact same time.

❸ For example, the entry for 一時 mentions its meaning as "once", notes that all the early sutras begind with "Thus I have heard. Once......", and provides a more metaphysical interpretation from Zhiyi's 智顗 Commentary on the *Guan wuliangshou jing* 觀無量壽經疏. See also DDB,「觀經疏」.

⁵ Ding, Foxue congshu, 2578.

⁶ Ding, Foxue congshu, 2586-2610.

The Publishing of Buddhist Books for Beginners in Modern • 81 • China from Yang Wenhui to Master Shengyen

tales that were produced by Daoxuan 道宣 (596-667) among others, which themselves assembled stories from a range of other sources. ②

These stories feature much more prominently in the second category of books within Ding's Buddhist Studies series: collections of evidentiary tales that are designed as books for beginners. In these books Ding and his collaborators collect stories and tales from classical literature as evidence for the truth of the Buddhist teachings, with a particular focus on proving the existence of spirits and the law of karmic response, by which immoral deeds are inevitably repaid with supernatural punishments. In the years following the publication of Yang's Fojiao chuxue keben in 1906, commercial presses in Shanghai had begun to publish their own introductory Buddhist books. Foxue dagang 佛學大綱 (Outline of Buddhist Studies) by Xie Meng 謝蒙 (Xie Wuliang 謝無量, 1884-1964), published by Zhonghua Books 中華書局 in 1916, has one volume that surveys the history of Buddhism from the life of Śākyamuni to the formation of the Chinese Buddhist schools, with the second volume focusing on the foundations of Buddhist doctrine, epistemology, and ethics. Foxue vijie 佛學易解 (Simple Explication of Buddhist Studies), published by the Shanghai Commercial Press 上海商務印書館 in 1917 and later reprinted in 1919 and 1926, was written by Jia Fengzhen 賈豐臻 (fl. 1930s),

who later published an introductory book on philosophy and a history of *lixue* 理學 (Neo-Confucian studies). These commercial publications indicate that in the 1910s and 1920s there was already at least a small market for texts that sought to explain Buddhist history and thought in an elementary way, although in these two cases they were written by authors who were more closely connected to the study of ideas and history, rather than engaged Buddhist practitioners.

There are eight titles in Ding's series that can be classified as collections of evidentiary tales. One of the earliest, *Foxue qixin bian* 佛學起信編 (Collection of Awakening Faith in Buddhist Studies, 1919), includes a preface by Ding that outlines the reasoning behind collecting the material for these works:

The aspects of the Buddhist scriptures that most cause people to doubt them are causality spanning the three periods [of past, present and future], and rebirth in the six realms. Because of these, when beginners read the scriptures, they usually have suspicions....... If one wishes to plumb the abstruse teachings of the Buddhist scriptures, one must take faith in mind (xinxin 信心) as one's basis. Further, those who wish to obtain faith in mind cannot not but first seek proof of causality spanning the three periods and rebirth in the six realms. This type of evidence is not something that kind be satisfied by empty words, not something that one could exhaustively obtain even after tens of years of reading.

⑤ See Koichi Shinohara 篠原亨一, "Dao-xuan's Collection of Miracle Stories about 'Supernatural Monks'," *Chung-Hwa Buddhist Journal*, April 1990, 319-379. Accessed from: http://ccbs.ntu.edu.tw/FULLTEXT/JR-BJ001/koichi.htm.

❸ Xie was a schoolteacher and scholar of Chinese literature and Buddhist history. See the very short introduction to the reprint edition of his book in *Xiandai Foxue daxi* 現代佛學大系 (Great Collection of Contemporary Buddhist Studies), Vol. 46. Xie uses 心理學 to describe the second field covered in the latter volume, and although this term is used to denote psychology in modern Chinese, I have translated it as epistemology because the section deals with the teachings of the *dharma-lakṣaṇa* 法相, *prajñā* 般若, and *tathāgata-garbha*

如來藏 schools. Jia also wrote an article on religion in education that was published in 1927 in the Buddhist periodical *Dayun yuekan* 大雲月刊 (Great Cloud Monthly). See MFO 138:120-126.

⁴ Here I follow Shengyen's rendering of the term in his translation of *Xinxin ming* 信心銘.

Ding, Foxue congshu, 2:147-148.

Ding proceeds to relate how when he himself became fond of reading Buddhist scriptures in 1914, he searched for textual evidence to support those concepts that were difficult to believe, and how in this and other works he has collected relevant proofs from the scholars and literati of ages past to provide the reader with sufficient evidence to cultivate "faith in mind". Ding's books for beginners are overwhelmingly focused on evidential matters. Apart from offering evidence for causality and rebirth as mentioned in Ding's preface, the books offer stories as evidence proving the existence of various types of spirits, the underworld, and rewards for filiality and generosity, with most themes appearing in more than one title. They also have several sections that explore the historical development of Buddhism in Indian and Chinese history; a different type of evidence than that of narrative tales, but one which would become increasingly important in Buddhist publications as historical studies began to take shape. Additionally, most of these books offer guidance on further reading, either by listing the titles and abstracts of Ding's annotated scriptures as does Foxue chujie 佛學初階 (Initial Stages in Buddhist Studies, 1920), or even more directly through advertisements for other publications by Ding's press.

These issues of belief in the existence of spirits and the need for textual evidence to support such beliefs are explicated most clearly in the first chapter of *Foxue cuoyao* 佛學撮要 (Elementary Outline of Buddhist Studies), a brief but concise title in the series first published in 1920 and later reprinted in 1935. The first chapter explains the genesis of the book through a rhetorical

between Ding and fellow Wuxi native Han Xuewen 韓學文 , and this conversational mode is continued through the rest of the book, with Han asking questions and Ding offering responses supported by selected passages from classical texts. Han brings up a passage from a book on medicine that Ding had edited which states that no spirit exists after death, and extends this to argue that the teachings of the Buddhist scriptures, and indeed of all religions, are thus false superstitions that ought to be swept away. Ding replies that he edited that book some twenty-five years ago. and that back then his experience and learning were so narrow as to cause that mistaken view; he then cites a number of experts in different fields of learning who all believe in the existence of spirits, saying that only those who are still at an early stage of reading and study would deny the existence of spirits. As for the charge that such beliefs are superstition. Ding points out that superstitions are only so if they are not true, whereas spirits, karma, and rebirth all have definite proof, and encourages Han to read certain books to see the evidence for himself. After a night of study, Han is, of course, converted from his views. The texts and selections that Ding instructed Han to read were none other than four other texts that appear in Ding's series, as well as some essential sections from Dengbudeng guan zalu 等不等觀雜錄

① For example, the entire second volume of *Foxue zhinan* 佛學指南 (Guide to Buddhist Studies, 1919) is a series of surveys of the historical and doctrinal outlines of Buddhism. See Ding, *Foxue congshu*, 2:356-374, 433-488.

[®] "Yiyue jingdian 宜閱經典" (Scriptures Suitable for Reading) is actually the eighth "stage" of Buddhist study described in the book. See Ding, *Foxue congshu*, 2:755-766. Advertisements appear on 2:680, 890.

Ding, Foxue congshu, 1:33-39. Whether Han was a historical person is as yet unknown.

⁴ Han also mentions that those who study new learning are all calling out loudly to expel these "absurd doctrines", and some publish printed material that is spread to every province. The experts Ding mentions in response include one Yu Zhonghuan 俞仲還, who twenty years previously had established the Three Equalities Academy 三等學堂 in Chong'an Temple 崇安寺, and who later also helped establish Wenming Books, the publishing house through which Ding had issued many of his early works.

Han further asks Ding to guide him in the reading of Buddhist scriptures, saying "Sir, you first used medicine to treat my body, then used scholarship to treat my soul. Once the body is exhausted, the soul lasts forever, how can I repay you!"

(Miscellaneous Records of Observing Equality and Inequality) by Yang Wenhui. The chapters that follow this exchange continue this theme of presenting evidence for the existence of spirits and other supernatural phenomena to satisfy Han's questions regarding Buddhist doctrines. Such questions of belief and of evidence were important ones for Buddhist writers of this period; books on science and logic were being widely translated and published, and interest in spiritualism in both the West and in China challenged the truth claims of scientism in several intellectual arenas.

Ding's mention of *Dengbudeng guan zalu* is one example of the strong links that connect his series back to Yang Wenhui. Many of the collections of evidentiary tales were edited by Mei Guangxi 梅光羲 (Mei Xieyun 梅擷芸, 1880-1947), who had studied under Yang from 1902, and who was made one of the trustees of the Jinling Scriptural Press after Yang's death. He was also a member of Xu Weiru's scriptural recitation society in Beijing, and a cofounder of the Beijing Scriptural Press; he was known in particular for his studies of the Consciousness-only (*weishi* 唯識) school of Buddhist philosophy. Wan Jun 萬鈞, who would contribute

the annotations to the 1921 edition of Yang's outline of Buddhist lineages, is credited as the source of many of the stories cited in the collections. Yet Ding's approach to compiling Buddhist books for beginners differs significantly in several respects from that taken by Yang over a decade earlier. Whereas Yang was concerned with the lack of Buddhist scriptures available to read and composed his primer following the well-established model of the Sanzi jing, Ding saw the number and variety of available scriptures as a challenge for the novice, and specifically addressed their difficulties in understanding scriptural language and in accepting claims of supernatural phenomena in his books for beginners. Yang did obtain scriptural exemplars from Japan but was not altogether comfortable with contemporary Japanese Buddhist movements, while Ding was an accomplished translator from modern Japanese, basing his dictionary on that written by Oda Tokunō 織田得能 (1860-1911) and published in 1917. ®

With Ding's collectanea, we see some of the earliest development of "Buddhist Studies" among Chinese Buddhists, with a new focus on textual interpretation and comparative studies intended to better apprehend the teachings of the scriptures. The term *Foxue* 佛學 was a relatively new one at the time, its origins dating back perhaps no further than 1895 in Japan, and 1902 in China. It joined a host of other terms used to describe

^{⑤ The texts are 佛學初階, 佛學起信編, 佛學之基礎, and 佛學指南. On 等不等} 觀雜錄, see Goldfuss, 231.

⑤ See Erik Hammerstrom, "Buddhists Discuss Science in Modern China (1895-1949)," Ph.D. Dissertation, Indiana University, 2010. Huang Kewu 黃克武, 〈民國初年上海的靈學研究——以「上海靈學會」為例〉(Research into Spiritualism in Early Republican Shanghai: A Study of the Shanghai Spiritualism Society), 中央研究院近代史研究所集刊, Vol. 55, March 2007, 99-136.

❸ See ZFJS, 2:650-660; See also the short eulogy by Fan Gunong 范古農 published in 1947, MFQ 89:235. *Haichaoyin* published a short article in 1945 on the occasion of his 65th birthday, MFQ 202:113-114. One of Mei's best-known works is *Essential Outline of the Faxiang School* 相宗綱要, first published in 1920 in Jinan 濟南 where Mei was posted at the time, and then in 1921 by Shanghai Commercial Press. See *Fozang jiyao*, 21:113-164. A supplementary volume later appeared in 1926.

❸ For a dramatized account of Oda compiling his dictionary, see Kōsai Chigiri, "Tokuno Oda", in *Buddhist Plays from Japanese Literature*, translated by Umeyo Hirano, Tokyo: C.I.I.B., 1962, 60-74. For an outline of some early Japanese Buddhist reference works, as well as those that followed later in the Shōwa and Heisei eras, see Yu Chongsheng 余崇生,〈日本佛教工具書編輯特色略述〉, *Fojiao tushuguan guankan* 佛教圖書館館刊, No. 47, June 2008, 98-102.

modern concepts that were adopted from the Japanese in the decade following the first Sino-Japanese War, when Chinese scholars sought to learn the techniques by which Japan was able to modernize its military, economy, and society. Ding does not explicitly discuss his use of this term, which appears in both the series title and in many of the individual works. By denoting his subject with foxue rather than fojiao 佛教, fofa 佛法, or fohua 佛 化, however, Ding may have been trying to avoid some of the negative associations that late-Oing scholars had attached to these latter terms in their criticisms of Buddhism's decline. This move also serves to situate the subject of the series alongside other modern knowledges signified by similar terms, such as science (kexue 科學,) mathematics (shuxue 數學,) and perhaps most significantly, medicine (yixue 醫學). In his series for beginners, Ding sought to situate newcomers to the field by directing them toward exegetical methods rather than memorization, a shift in the means of engaging with Buddhist texts that would only grow in influence over the following decades.

佐伯法導, Butsugaku sansho: kakushū hikkei 佛學三書:各宗必携, Kyōto: Hōzōkan 法藏館, Meiji 28 [1895]. The earliest use of Foxue in Chinese that I have found is a 1912 catalogue from Yang Wenhui's Jinling Scriptural Press, entitled Foxue shumu biao 佛學書目表. See Yang Wenhui 楊文會, Zhou Jizhi 周繼旨, ed., Yang Renshan quanji 楊仁山全集, Hefei: Huangshan shushe, 2000, 344-368. Also see Goldfuss, 60-67. Given Yang's close association with Nanjō Bunyu 南条文雄, and with Japanese Buddhist texts, he may have been a key point of transmission for this term to enter the Chinese lexicon.

The See Lu Yan, Re-understanding Japan: Chinese Perspectives, 1895-1945, Honolulu: Association for Asian Studies and University of Hawai'i Press, 2004; Federico Masini, The Formation of Modern Chinese Lexicon and Its Evolution Toward a National Language: The Period from 1840 to 1898, Rome: Department of Oriental Studies, University of Rome, 1993.

4. Master Shengyen and Dharma Drum Publications in New York

The first half of the twentieth century was an era of great change in Chinese Buddhist publishing, as new genres and new print technologies were met with new ways of interacting with texts. Another turning point can be seen in the second half of the century, when interactions between East Asian and Western Buddhists produced a growing number of publications about Buddhism, many of them specifically designed for beginners, in English and other European languages. One of the major figures involved in the flood of English-language Buddhist books was the Chinese Chan monastic teacher Shengyen 聖嚴, who devoted a great deal of his life to teaching in the United States. Between 1982 and 1997, Dharma Drum Publications in Elmhurst, New York, published at least nine titles edited or authored by Shengyen. Most of these works were later reprinted by larger commercial presses, including North Atlantic Books and Shambala Publications, thereby gaining a wide circulation that mirrored the growing popularity of Shengyen, his teachings, and the Buddhist institutions he helped establish. During the early period of his work in North America, however, Shengyen was relatively unknown, his teaching groups were quite small and intimate, and Dharma Drum Publications (DDP) itself was a "small operation, always short handed." Looking at the first two decades of Shengyen's English-language publications, we can see a strong interplay between his teaching, his community of students, and the type of texts he wrote for readers interested in learning more about Buddhism

The Buddhism reflected in these books for beginners has at its core two elements that are in tension with each other. On the one hand the meditation retreat is consistently held up as the most authentic form of Chan practice, one example of the longstanding

[●] Jimmy Yu 俞永峰(果谷), personal communication to the author, April 17, 2012.

Chan self-understanding as a "special transmission outside the scriptures; no dependence upon words and letters." Yet the reader is, at least for the moment, learning about meditative experience through the medium of the book, hearing about these experiences second-hand, and reading lectures that themselves quote widely from Buddhist scriptural texts. This tension between experience/meditation/insight and knowledge/wisdom/learning runs throughout Buddhist history in general and Chan history in particular. These early publications by Shengyen grappled with this longstanding issue, and reflect the content of other similar publications, developments in the Chan religious community in New York, and a wider context of both Chinese- and Englishlanguage books for beginners in twentieth-century Buddhism.

The outlines of Shengyen's biography are quite well known and need not be retraced here; I will instead review a few select aspects of his life and work from the 1960s to the early 1980s that are especially relevant when considering his later teachings and English-language publications. Throughout the 1960s Shengyen published a number of books in Chinese, mainly as part of the Shengyan fashi wenji 聖嚴法師文集 (Collected Works of Shengyen) that was issued by the Jueshi xunkan (Awakened World Weekly) Publishing House 覺世旬刊社 in Taipei and the Kaiyuan Temple Buddhist Scripture Distributor 開元寺佛經流通處 in Tainan. Jueshi xunkan was a Buddhist periodical founded in 1957 by Jiankang Books 健康書局 in Taipei, and in 1962 its management had been entrusted to Master Xingyun 星雲 (1927-). ©

Shengyen's books from this era, which addressed beginners on Buddhist fundamentals and the relationship of Buddhist culture to the wider world, culminated in 1965 with Zhengxin de Fojiao 正信的佛教 (Orthodox Buddhism), perhaps his best-known and certainly his most-often reprinted work in Chinese. Zhengxin is a slim, accessible volume structured as a series of questions and answers about Buddhist topics, written in a colloquial and straightforward style. 6 At the time Shengyen was working under Shi Dongchu 釋東初 (1908-1977) at the Chung-hwa Institute of Buddhist Culture 中華佛教文化館, which Dongchu had established in 1955 at Fazang Temple 法藏寺 in Beitou 北投, just north of Taipei. Publishing was an important aspects of Dongchu's work: he had been a student of Taixu 太虚 (1890-1947), the most prolific author and edition of Buddhist publications in China, and in the 1960s and 1970s was himself engaged in publishing a series of historical studies of Chinese Buddhism. Both authors published with a purpose; Taixu to win over others to his vision of Buddhist reforms, Dongchu to convince readers of the importance of Buddhism in modern Chinese history and its continued relevance to the Republic of China in the post-1949 world.

In 1969 Shengyen went to Japan to study toward a doctorate in Buddhist Literature at Risshō University 立正大學, which he earned in 1975 with a dissertation on late-Ming Chinese Buddhism that focused on Ouyi Zhixu 蕅益智旭, one of the most eminent monks of his day, and much read and studied in early Republican-

Attributed to Bodhidharma, the first Chinese patriarch of Chan. Heinrich Dumoulin, Zen Buddhism: A History, Vol. 1, Bloomington, IN: World Wisdom, 2005, 85. Also appears in the "Flower Sermon" where Śākyamuni recognizes Mahākāśyapa's insight.

¹⁰ For a succinct biography, see FGC, 5589. A brief autobiography appears in *Getting the Buddha Mind*, 23-35.

Tingyun 星雲, Jueshi luncong 覺世論叢, Gaoxiong xian: Foguang chubanshe,

^{1991,} preface from 1965. Electronic version available here: http://www.fgsedmonton.ca/article/xingyun/24.html.

② See, for example, the paperback, 16th edition printed in 1995 by Dongchu chuban she 東初出版社.

[₱] The temple had originally been built in 1928 as a Sōtō temple when Taiwan was under Japanese rule.

 [⊕] Don A. Pittman, Toward a Modern Chinese Buddhism: Taixu's Reforms, Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press, 2001.

era China. Soon after returning to Taiwan, Shengyen was granted formal Dharma transmission in the Caodong 曹洞 line of Chan from Dongchu, which authorized him to teach disciples of his own. While Taixu had traveled to England in his youth and to Southeast Asia during the war, Dongchu did not travel outside of China and Taiwan. After returning from his six years abroad Shengyen would, from that winter, spend a great deal of time overseas especially in the United States, and would continue to divide his year between Taiwan and the U.S. until his poor health prevented him from traveling. In doing so he would engage with the growing North American Buddhist community and help to introduce his Buddhist scholarship, practice, and publishing to an English-reading public.

First encouraged to go to America by Ban Tetsugyu 伴鐵牛 (1910-1996), one of his teachers in the Tohoku region of Japan, Master Shengyen first visited the USA in the winter of 1975. As early as December 1976 he is cited as the Teacher-Advisor of the "Special Chan Class" at the Buddhist Association of the United States 美國佛教會, today still located on West 231 st Street in the Bronx. From March 1977 the class began to publish *Ch'an Magazine*, in which appeared translated transcriptions of Shengyen's lectures and reports from students on their meditation experiences. In the summer of 1977 he gave a series of ten



Figure 4: Sample hand-drawn cover image from Ch'an Magazine

lectures on the *Platform Sūtra*, parts of which were printed in the magazine, and in late 1977 after hearing of Dongchu's death he visited Taiwan, and later continued to return there to attend to the Chung-hwa Institute and the Institute for Translation of the Tripitaka. Some time in the late 1970s he also gave a series of lectures at Columbia University which evidently inspired a number

Buddha Mind, 33-34. The dissertation was published that year in Kyōto, see table 1. On Ouyi, see Beverley Foulks, "Living Karma: The Religious Practices of Ouyi Zhixu (1599-1655)", Ph.D. Dissertation, Harvard University, 2009.

¹ He later also received transmission in the Linji 臨濟 (Jp.: Rinzai) line from Lingyuan 靈源 (1902-1988).

¹⁹ Buddha Mind, 34. On Ban Tetsugyu, see: http://terebess.hu/zen/mesterek/BanTetsugyu.html.

BAUS maintains a website: http://www.baus.org/en/. Ch'an Magazine, Vol. 1, No. 1, March, 1977. The lectures and experience reports that were originally in Chinese were translated by Chün-fang Yü 于君方, then a professor at Rutgers University.

³ Ch'an Magazine, Vol. 1, No. 6, Fall 1978, "News".

of undergraduate and postgraduate students to start attending his lectures and retreats. By the summer of 1980 the group was relocated to a newly-established Chan Center in Elmhurst, Queens and a non-profit organization was set up, named the Institute of Chung-hwa Buddhist Culture after its "sister organization" in Taiwan. Ch'an Magazine continued to publish retreat reports from students, translations from Chinese Buddhist scriptural texts, and recorded lectures by Shengyen; the magazine would provide much of the material and editorial expertise for the books later published by their in-house imprint, Dharma Drum Publications.

When Shengyen came to the US in the late 1970s, he encountered a society that was very unlike that for which Taixu and Dongchu had written. Readers of Buddhist books in China and Taiwan shared a common linguistic and cultural background in which Buddhist topics were at least known if not necessarily familiar subjects. In the English-reading U.S., however, one had to take into account the fact that the average reader might have little to no knowledge about Buddhism beyond its barest outlines. To be sure, books had been published about Buddhism, Chan, and Zen in English for many decades, including Victorian-era works such as The Light of Asia: The Great Renunciation (London: 1879) by Edwin Arnold (1832-1904), and more recently An Introduction to Zen Buddhism (Kyoto: 1934; London and New York, 1949) by D.T. Suzuki 鈴木大拙 (貞太郎) (1870-1966). In the late 1970s and in to the 1980s the number of books available in the U.S. on Buddhist topics was still growing, and being joined by a host of works on East Asian religion, mysticism, philosophy, and related topics. Buddhist books in the U.S. were then largely written as books for

beginners, as they are to a large extent today as well. Like Yang Wenhui and Ding Fubao, many Buddhists in Republican China had paid close attention to the need for introductory textual sources. designed for readers who were just beginning to learn about Buddhism. Other contemporary introductory works include such titles as Foxue ABC 佛學 ABC (ABCs of Buddhist Studies), Chuji xue Fo zhaiyao 初機學佛摘要 (Essentials for Beginning Buddhist Studies), Foxue rumen 佛學入門 (Rudimentaries of Buddhist Studies), and Chuji xiandao 初機先導 (Guide for Beginners). @ Thus Shengyen could draw upon a history of English-language books for beginners on the one hand, particularly books by authors affiliated with Japanese Zen, and another recent genre of Chinese books for beginners on the other, authors of which included his own grand-master Taixu and other well-known Buddhist authors in Republican China. In both cases these books had to guide their readers though the most basic aspects of religious thought and practice.

The earliest English-language book written by Shengyen and published by DDP is *Getting the Buddha Mind*, first published in 1982 and later reprinted in 1989. Most of the content of *Buddha Mind* is taken from lectures given at meditation retreats in New York between 1975 and 1980, and according to the prefatory material it was published in response to readers of *Ch'an Magazine* who had expressed an interest in seeing this material appear in book form. The book has four sections: the first includes a brief

⁴ Christopher Marano, personal communication, April 17, 2012.

See for example Christopher Marano's introduction to *The Sword of Wisdom*, 1. See also the first section of Peter N. Gregory, "Describing the Elephant: Buddhism in America", *Religion and American Culture: A Journal of Interpretation*, Vol. 11, No. 2, Summer 2001, 233-263.

⁶ See S1295, S1290; Lianwu 蓮午, *Foxue rumen*, Beijing: s.n., [1924], [S1285]; Yinguang, *Chuji xiandao*, Suzhou: Honghua she, 1933, [S0923].

③ Notably there was an English-language book by Shengyen that predates *Buddha Mind*, but it was not published in the U.S.. *The Advantages One May Derive from Zen Meditation* was published in Taipei by Torch of Wisdom Publishing House 慧矩出版社 in 1978. On the TOW organization, see: http://www.towisdom.org.tw.

³ Buddha Mind, 1.

autobiographical sketch by Shengyen, followed by an outline of the Chan seven-day retreat (changi 禪七; often sesshin 攝心 in Japanese) explaining its history, purpose, and process. The second section presents a number of lectures that were recorded at retreats, and also includes two translated Chan poems, Guanxin ming 觀心 銘 (Contemplating Mind) by Hanshan Deging 憨山德清 (1546-1623) and Mozhao ming 默照銘 (Silent Illumination) by Hongzhi Zhengjue 宏智正覺 (1091-1157), both of which are accompanied by commentaries by Shengyen. Section three has reports from retreat participants that describe their experiences in their own words, and the final section is a transcript from an interview that Shengyen gave to a New York City radio station in 1981. The book closes with a glossary of Sanskrit, Chinese, and English Buddhist terms, and a schedule of activities for Chan retreats. While the content is varied and taken from a number of sources—although it's not stated explicitly, some of these lectures likely initially appeared in Ch'an Magazine—it is all based on the product of the teaching relationship between Shengyen and his students: students requested that it be compiled, the lectures were directed to retreat participants, and students provide accounts of their experiences practicing at the retreat.

This focus on the experience of Chan in the book reflects the role of language, including spoken words and printed text, as a necessary but never sufficient component of the tradition. In his preface, Shengyen expresses some of this ambiguity when he states that Chan is beyond words, but it "uses language as a bridge," and that one of the main reasons for publishing this book is to draw people in to actually practice. In the introduction by editor Ernest Heau, Chan practice in the form of participation in a meditation retreat takes center stage, and the book itself is likened to a "pile of dead leaves", a medium that lacks the key component of interacting with Master Shengyen in person. The only redeeming

quality of such a second-hand and imitative communication is that it might give the reader a small taste of the true flavour of Chan, by which is meant the experience of practice. The accounts by practitioners, who are only cited by their initials, appear as a sort of bridge between the reader's situation as an observer, and an experience of practice. After they describe their initial expectations, which range from skepticism to great anticipation, they relate their transformative experiences, which are all gained through meditation rather than doctrinal or philosophical study. Through them the interested reader can imagine what their own experience might be like, and establishes a template whereby the book is put aside in favour of the meditation seat.

This practice-centered focus continues in Faith in Mind and Ox Herding at Morgan's Bay, published in 1987 and 1988 respectively. Faith in Mind is a collection of twenty retreat lectures on the eponymous poem Xinxin ming 信心銘 attributed to the third Chan Patriarch Sengcan 僧璨 (?-606). The book contains a short introduction by Shengyen and a new English translation of the poem, followed by the transcribed lectures. There are no descriptions of what happens during a retreat other than what is referenced in the lectures; instead the poem and its commentary stand on their own as practice-related texts, now removed from the context in which they were originally delivered. In Ox Herding we find again the content based on transcriptions of lectures, this time given at a retreat at Morgan's Bay in the spring of 1987. The Ox Herding paintings themselves, each of which is the topic of one

[@] Buddha Mind, 5-19.

[♠] Looking through earlier issues of Ch'an Magazine makes it possible to guess at the identities of the students: D.S.: Dan Stevenson; R.A.: Rikki Asher; K.S.: Karen Swaine; D.W.: Dan Wota; M.I.C.: Ma I-Chang; M.H.: Marina Heau; L.H.: Lex Hixon. Bhiksu C.C. is as yet unknown.

Morgan's Bay is a non-sectarian Buddhist meditation center located in Surry, Maine, http://www.morganbayzendo.org/about.

lecture, are reproduced in the book, painted by a contemporary artist. The lectures are directed to "you", the student, but there are also sections of questions from students with responses from Shengyen. While this is the shortest of the publications discussed so far, it is very evocative, with each image in the series prompting the lecturer to draw in stories and similes from across the broad Chan tradition. Both *Faith in Mind* and *Ox Herding* introduce the reader to a Chan text, either poetic or artistic, and uses it as the core of lectures addressing the theory and practice behind Chan meditation and insight. It is interesting to note at this point that Shengyen, who later gained a reputation for drawing upon the work of Buddhist thinkers regardless of sectarian affiliation, has so far limited his commentaries to works that fall solidly within the Chan tradition, including his lectures on the *Platform Sūtra* that only appeared in *Ch'an Magazine*.

Focusing on a translated Buddhist text was an element that would become more prominent in the published works that followed. *Infinite Mirror*, published in 1990, is comprised of two translated texts with commentary: *Can tong qi* 參同契 (Inquiry into Matching Halves), attributed to Shitou Xiqian 石頭希遷 (700?-790?), and *Baojing sanmei ge* 寶鏡三昧歌 (Song of the Precious Mirror Samadhi), attributed to Dongshan Liangjie 洞山良价 (fl. 9th century). Shitou and Dongshan were important figures in the Caodong school of Chan, the lineage to which Shengyen had been admitted by Dongchu. The lectures were originally given as part of the Wednesday Dharma class at the Elmhurst Chan Center, a weekly event that was an opportunity to teach on topics relating to Buddhist philosophy in addition to practice. While the explanations in the book were intended to inspire practice rather than further

research, Shengyen expresses a wish that others might continue such scholarly work in the future. Sword of Wisdom returns to the format of presenting recorded retreat lectures, in this case a series originally given between 1982 and 1985 on the subject of Zhengdao ge 證道歌 (The Song of Enlightenment), attributed to Yongjia Xuanjue 永嘉玄覺 (665-713). In his foreword, editor Christopher Marano reiterates the argument that the function of words and text in Chan is to get people to practice.

Zen Wisdom, published in 1993 with a revised and expanded edition in 1998, breaks away from this trend of recorded lectures and textual exegesis. Beginning in 1984 an editor at Ch'an Magazine had suggested that a section called "Dharma View" be added to the periodical, where students could ask questions on any topic relating to Buddhism and receive a response from Shengyen. These were later collected for publication in Zen Wisdom, and grouped in to three thematic categories: "Practice", "Philosophy and Doctrine", and "Social Issues". Many sections have multiple questions and answers posed by the same student in an interview format; similar to the one-on-one experience of the retreat interview (ducan/dokusan 獨參) but with the positions of the interlocutor and respondent reversed. The students all appear to pose their questions based on a North American cultural background; requests for more information on the details of karmic action are common, and Shengyen often makes reference to "Western values" in interpreting the vinaya for modern life.

I was not able to obtain a copy of Poetry of Enlightenment, which is a collection
 of translated Chan poems. Translations and commentary for some poems also
 appears in Buddha Mind, Faith in Mind, Infinite Mirror, and Sword of Wisdom.

⁹ *Infinite Mirror*, 2-3.

⑤ Sword of Wisdom, 3-7.

^{② Zen Wisdom, i. By 1984 no single person was credited as the editor, but the staff included Ching Hai Shih, Ernest Heau, Marina Heau, Richard Lee, Peigwang Li, Nancy Makso, Harry Miller, Nagendra Rao, Ling-Yun Shih, and Ming-Yee Wang. See Ch'an Magazine, Vol. 4, No. 2, Summer 1984. The first "Dharma View" section appeared in the Fall 1984 issue, and was on the subject of "Wit and Humor in Ch'an."}

He also provides some interesting observations about the role of reading and of scriptures in Buddhist practice, saying that contemporary books are just as good, in principle, as the writings of the patriarchs as long as they gain prominence in their own time. He also writes that reading scriptures has the potential to give rise to supernatural insights, giving examples from the lives of Taixu and Ouyi Zhixu. Material from Zen Wisdom would later be published alongside articles from the Ch'an Newsletter and a translated Chinese work in 1996's Dharma Drum. @ Guogu 果 谷 (Jimmy Yu), one of Shengyen's lay disciples, was responsible for editing and translating this work, and played an even larger role in Complete Enlightenment, which was published in 1997. This later work is a translation of Yuanjue jing 圓覺經 (The Sūtra of Complete Enlightenment), with textual commentary based on a series of public lectures that Shengven had given between 1982 and 1985.

With Shengyen's Dharma Drum Publications, we find the content and intent of the books gradually shifting, from an experience-centered and very intimate picture of the Chan community, to a more text-based focus where reading and scripture study is encouraged alongside meditative practice. As the scope of Shengyen's work expanded, his writings became media that connected a small group of editorial and authorial volunteers with the members of a rapidly growing religious community, and finally when these books started to be reprinted by commercial presses, they linked the Ch'an Center in Elmhurst with a large English-reading market. Throughout this process of expansion and

development we find interesting changes in the type of publications being produced. There is a clear theme of treating books and other publications as epiphenomenal to meditative practice and personal instruction, an aspect that is most strongly visible in earlier publications but which continues throughout the publications reviewed here. Even discourses on Buddhist doctrine or scriptural texts were originally composed as retreat lectures or guides to practice, and only afterward transcribed, translated, and edited into a published format, and their prefatory notes reiterate that their ultimate function is to inspire the individual to practice. This functional and pedagogical focus on practice only began to fade in the 1990s, when books such as *Complete Enlightenment* began to focus more on the experience of reading and understanding scriptural texts, perhaps a sign of a maturing field of critical-constructive Buddhist scholarship.

Given the emphasis on experience and practice in the Chan tradition it should perhaps be no surprise that meditation is featured so strongly in Shengyen's English-language publications while textual learning is largely downplayed; he was "after all" admitted into both major branches of the Chan lineage. Yet this published corpus was not just a reflection of an "orthodox" Chan tradition brought in to a "modern" world, but rather something that grew out of the interaction between Shengven's background and the culture into which he arrived. This was a dialectic that was maintained throughout the remainder of his life as he divided his time between working in Taiwan and the U.S., a dialectic in which there were several interrelated elements in play: Firstly we have the recent history of publications and Buddhist scholarship by Taixu and Dongchu, both of which were self-consciously modernist in tone and which paid a great deal of attention to contemporary fields of knowledge such as history, science, and

³ Zen Wisdom, 132-134.

The translated section in *Dharma Drum* is entitled "The Reality of Ch'an Practice" and consists of short stanzas on Buddhist topics.

There as well the lectures emphasize practice, although Guogu's comments note that his translation work helped to deepen his own understanding. *Complete Enlightenment*, 6, 11-12.

In their personal communications to the author, both Jimmy Yu and Christopher Marano have reiterated this focus on publications getting people to practice.

politics. In addition we cannot ignore the influence of modern Japanese Buddhist scholarship, to which Shengyen was introduced through his studies at Risshō University and from Japanese Zen instructors. These two were closely connected as well, since each was influenced by the other in the early twentieth century. In reading Shengyen's publications we are reading a text that was subject to these filters and influences, and which was arguably just as much a product of his religious community as it was of his own. This was a community that included with it the influence of other contemporary models of how one ought to talk about Buddhism. This heritage can be traced back to D.T. Suzuki's Manual of Zen Buddhism (1934), through to the post-Second World War American re-enchantment with Japan, when works such as Charles Luk's Ch'an and Zen Teachings (1960, 1971) and Philip Kapleau's The Three Pillars of Zen (1965) helped establish a new vocabulary for readers of books on Buddhism

5. Conclusion: Conversion by the Book

Yang Wenhui, Ding Fubao, and Shengyen all lived in very different times and circumstances, but were linked together by a shared effort to communicate to novices what they saw were the essentials for beginners in Buddhist studies. In briefly surveying their publication and editing work, this paper has argued that in each case the elementary books they published were products not only of their own creation, but also reflected a larger historical context that includes textual traditions of pedagogy, new models of education and standards of knowledge claims, and cross-cultural relationships between East Asian and North American Buddhists. Turning the lens of print culture studies to these figures and their work reveals a wide network of influences that extends out to the larger corpus of published materials, as well as to religious communities who produced and read these texts. This network extends far beyond the content of the text itself and reminds us that in spite of their seemingly elementary nature, Buddhist books

for beginners are a central part of the intellectual and religious legacy of all three of these figures, and continue to be an important concern for the larger communities in which they participated.

Table 1: Section titles of Fojiao chuxue keben®

法界 The Dharma-realm (Dharmadhātu)	六根 The Six Senses	
釋迦佛生 The Life of Śākyamuni Buddha	六塵 The Six Dusts (i.e. Objects of Sensation)	
集結三藏 Collecting the Tripiṭaka	十二處 The Twelve Places [of the Senses]	
大法東來 The Great Dharma Comes East	十八界 The Eighteen Realms [of the Senses]	
十宗 The Ten Lineages	轉八識成四智 Turning the Eight Consciousnesses into the Four Wisdoms	
成實宗 The Satyasiddhi Lineage	三身 The Three Bodies [of a Buddha]	
俱舍宗 The Kośa Lineage	五眼 The Five Eyes	
禪宗 The Chan Lineage	六通 The Six Unimpedednesses (or Powers)	
律宗 The Vinaya Lineage	四諦 The Four Truths	
天台宗 The Tiantai Lineage	十二因緣 The Twelve Causes and Conditions	
賢首宗 The Xianshou [Huayan] Lineage	六度 The Six Perfections	
慈恩宗 The Ci'en [Faxiang] Lineage	四無量心 The Four Unlimited [States of] Mind	

Translation of section titles based on an as-yet unpublished translation of Yang's primer by Erik Hammerstrom, Pacific Lutheran University.

· 102 · 聖嚴研究

三論宗 The Three Treatises Lineage	涅槃四德 The Four Virtues of Nirvāṇa	
密宗 The Esoteric Lineage	十界 The Ten Realms	
淨土宗 The Pure Land Lineage	器世間 The Container Worlds	
懺法 Rites of Confession	勸學 Exhortation to Study	
諸法 All Dharmas	敘述古德 Narrating the Virtuous Ancients	
五蘊 The Five Skandhas	餘韻 Lingering Charm [i.e. Postscript]	

Table 2: Lineage titles from Yang Wenhui's Shizong lüeshuo

律宗(一名南山宗)	Vinaya, also called the Nanshan
俱舍宗 (一名有宗)	Abhidharma-kośa, also called Sarvâstivāda
成實宗	Satyasiddhi
三論宗(一名性空宗)	Three Treatise, also called Empty Nature
天台宗 (一名法華宗)	Tiantai, also called Lotus Sūtra
賢首宗 (一名華嚴宗)	Xianshou, also called Huayan
慈恩宗(一名法相宗)	Ci'en, also called Faxiang
禪宗(一名心宗)	Chan, also called Mind
密宗 (一名真言宗)	Esoteric, also called True Word
淨土宗 (一名蓮宗)	Pure Land, also called Lotus

The Publishing of Buddhist Books for Beginners in Modern • 103 • China from Yang Wenhui to Master Shengyen

Table 3: Titles published in *Ding's Buddhist Studies Collectanea* from 1918 to 1923

Year	Titles Published in Series
	八大人覺經箋註 Annotated Sūtra of the Eight Meditations of the Great Ones
1918	佛遺教經箋註 Annotated Sūtra of the Deathbed Injunction 四十二章經箋註 Annotated Sūtra in Forty-two Sections 佛經精華錄箋註 Annotated Essential Records of Buddhist Scriptures 觀世音經箋註 Annotated Avalokitêśvara Sūtra 高王觀世音經箋註 Annotated Avalokitêśvara Sūtra of King Gao 盂蘭盆經箋註 Annotated Ullambana Sūtra 阿彌陀經箋註 Annotated Amida Sūtra 無量壽經箋註 Annotated Sūtra of Immeasurable Life 觀無量壽佛經箋註 Annotated Contemplation Sūtra 無量義經箋註 Annotated Sūtra of Unlimited Meanings 觀普賢菩薩行法經箋註 Annotated Sūtra of Meditating on Samantabhadra Bodhisattva 金剛般若波羅蜜經箋註 Annotated Diamond Sūtra
1919	般若波羅蜜多心經箋註 Annotated Heart Sūtra 佛學起信編 Awakening of Faith in Buddhist Studies 佛學指南 Guide to Buddhist Studies 六道輪迴錄 Records of Transmigration Through the Six Kinds of Rebirth 六祖壇經箋註 Annotated Platform Sūtra of the Sixth Patriarch 佛學小辭典 Concise Dictionary of Buddhist Studies 佛學大辭典序例 Preface and Notes on the Great Dictionary of Buddhist Studies
1920	佛學撮要 Essentials of Buddhist Studies 佛學初階 Initial Stages in Buddhist Studies 佛學之基礎 Foundations of Buddhist Studies 學佛實驗譚 Discourse on Studying Buddhism Experimentally 觀世音菩薩靈感錄 Record of the Miraculous Response of Guanshiyin Bodhisattva 心經詳註 Detailed Annotated Heart Sūtra 入佛問答 Questions and Answers on Beginning Buddhism 靜坐法精義 Essential Meaning of the Method of Quiet Sitting 釋迦如來成道記註 Annotated Record of Śakyamuni Attaining the Way 無常經 Sūtra of Impermanence 佛像 Buddha Images - 25 types

· 104 · 聖嚴研究

學佛捷徑 Shortcut to Studying Buddhism 佛學大辭典 Great Dictionary of Buddhist Studies 法華經句解 Phrasal Understanding of the Lotus Sūtra 圓覺經略疏 Brief Outline of the Sūtra of Perfect Enlightenment 維摩經註 Annotated Vimalakīrti Sūtra 讀大乘起信論捷訣 Key to Reading the Awakening of Mahāyāna Faith 佛教宗派詳註 Detailed Annotated Schools and Sects of Buddhism 袖珍本佛經叢刊 Pocket Edition of Buddhist Sūtra Series, Volume 1 袖珍本入佛問答類編 Pocket Edition of Questions and Answers on Beginning Buddhism, Arranged by Subject 心經精義 Essential Meaning of the Heart Sūtra 1922 死後之審判 The Judgment After Death 大悲咒箋註 Annotated Dhāraṇī of Great Compassion 佛教感應篇 Articles of Miraculous Response in Buddhism 1923 三藏法數 The Buddhist Canon and Categories of Concepts

Table 4: Selected Chinese- and Japanese-language Publications by Shengyen, 1961-1981

Title (Series)	Publisher	Year
中華佛教文化館簡介	臺北:中華佛教文化館	1961
佛教人生與宗教(聖嚴法師文集, Vol. 1)	臺北:覺世旬刊社	1963
佛教制度與生活(聖嚴法師文集, Vol. 2)	臺北:覺世旬刊社	1963
佛教文化與文學(聖嚴法師文集, Vol. 3)	臺北:覺世旬刊社	1963
佛教是甚麼(聖嚴法師文集, Vol. 4)	臺北:覺世旬刊社	1964
佛教實用法(聖嚴法師文集, Vol. 5)	臺北:覺世旬刊社	1964
怎樣修持解脫道	高雄:佛教文化服務處	1965
正信的佛教	高雄:佛教文化服務處	1965
怎樣做一個居士	高雄:佛教文化服務處	1965
基督教之研究(聖嚴法師文集, Vol. 7)	臺北:覺世旬刊社 高雄:佛教文化服務處	1967

The Publishing of Buddhist Books for Beginners in Modern • 105 • China from Yang Wenhui to Master Shengyen

聖者的故事(聖嚴法師文集, Vol. 9)	臺南:開元寺佛經流通 處	1967
瓔珞(聖嚴法師文集, Vol. 10)	臺南:開元寺佛經流通 處	1968
比較宗教學	臺北:臺灣中華書局	1968; 1969
世界佛教通史	臺北:臺灣中華書局	1969
正信的佛教	香港:佛經流通處	1974
明末中国仏教の研究: 特に智旭を中心として	東京:山喜房佛書林	1975
講詞二(慧炬文庫, Vol. 19)	臺北:慧炬	1976
正信的佛教	苗栗縣南莊鄉:無量壽	1977
正信的佛教	臺北:天華出版	1979
正信的佛教	臺北:靈山講堂	1981

Table 5: Shengyen's English-language books first published by Dharma Drum Publications, 1982-1997

Title	First Published	Reprints by Other Publishers
Getting the Buddha Mind	1982 [reprinted 1989]	North Atlantic Books, 2005
Faith in Mind: A Guide to Ch'an Practice	1987	Shambala, 2006
The Poetry of Enlightenment: Poems by Ancient Ch'an Masters	1987	Shambala, 2006
Ox Herding at Morgan's Bay	1988	
The Infinite Mirror: Ts'ao-Tung Ch'an: Commentaries on Inquiry into Matching Halves and Song of the Precious Mirror Samadhi	1990	Shambala, 2006

· 106 · 聖嚴研究

The Sword of Wisdom: Lectures on the Song of Enlightenment	1990	North Atlantic Books, 2002
Zen Wisdom: Knowing and Doing	1993, 1998 [rev. and exp.]	North Atlantic Books, 2002
Dharma Drum: The Life and Heart of Chan Practice	1996	Shambala, 2006
Complete Enlightenment: Translation and Commentary on the Sutra of Complete Enlightenment	1997	Shambala, 1999

The Publishing of Buddhist Books for Beginners in Modern • 107 • China from Yang Wenhui to Master Shengyen

Works Cited by Abbreviation

- DDB Digital Dictionary of Buddhism 電子佛教辭典. http://www.buddhism-dict.net/ddb/
- FGC Foguang da cidian 佛光大辭典. http://www.fgs.org.tw/fgs_book/fgs_drser.aspx
- MFQ Huang, Xia'nian 黃夏年, ed., *Minguo Fojiao qikan wenxian jicheng* 民國佛教期刊文獻集成 (Collection of Republican-Era Buddhist Periodical Literature), Vols. 209, Beijing: Quanguo tushuguan 全國圖書館, 2006.
- MFQB Huang, Xia'nian 黃夏年, ed., *Minguo Fojiao qikan wenxian jicheng bubian* 民國佛教期刊文獻集成·補編 (Supplement to the Collection of Republican-Era Buddhist Periodical Literature), Vols. 83, Beijing: Zhongguo shudian 中國書店, 2008.
- S#### Digital Catalogue of Chinese Buddhism 中國佛教數字目錄. http://bib.buddhiststudies.net/
- ZFJS Shi, Dongchu 釋東初, Zhongguo Fojiao jindai shi 中國佛教 近代史 (A History of Modern Chinese Buddhism), in Dongchu laoren quanji 東初老人全集 (Complete Collection of Old Man Dongchu), Vols. 1-2, Taipei: Dongchu, 1974.
- ZJFRZ Yu, Lingbo 于凌波, Zhongguo jinxiandai Fojiao renwu zhi 中國 近現代佛教人物志, Beijing: Zongjiao wenhua chubanshe 宗教文化出版社, 1995.

中國近代歷史上佛學入門書籍之出版事業

——從楊文會居士至聖嚴法師而言

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▮摘要

幾百年以來,出版書籍在東亞佛教文化占據著主要地位,以做為佛法的容器與聖靈的物質而受到尊重,出版佛經也被視為是一種功德。但是,就佛經的語言與文風而言,並非未經專門教育者所能馬上了解的。因此佛經之外,有解釋、標章、演講等教育文獻傳播著。在許多中國佛教徒的學佛背景中,初學或入門書籍是發揮相當重要角色的一種教育書籍。從十九世紀以來有幾十種出版,如今在書店書架還看得到。此類的書籍讓有興趣的人利用易於獲取的方式而學佛,也不用馬上多花費時間或加入個人的承諾。

本文以三位佛學入門書籍的作者為中心,他們在相當不同的歷史狀況中生活,貢獻的書籍也很不同:楊文會(1937-1911)——「太平天國之亂」之後復興佛經出版事業,並撰寫《佛教初學課本》;丁福保(1874-1952)——編輯了部帙龐大的《佛學大辭典》,也是八種佛學入門書籍的編者;聖嚴法師(1930-2009)——所著入門書籍在英文世界是最受歡迎的作品之一。

The Publishing of Buddhist Books for Beginners in Modern • 109 • China from Yang Wenhui to Master Shengyen

本論文所要證明的是佛學入門書籍其實比其基本性質更 加複雜而具有研究意義。它們代表從多元的傳統中凝聚出一 種穩定而易了解的體系的結晶,也是作者教學方法的一種文 獻體現。入門書是佛教出版文化的一個獨特類別,其作用一 方面是重新編寫歷史,同時又將其顯示給新一代的信徒及修 行者。

關鍵詞:佛教、出版文化、宗教入門書籍

Hearing the Absolute Hearing:

Interpreting "Guanyin's Perfection of Hearing" in the *Lengyanjing* (Śūraṃgama Sūtra)

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Abstract

The Lengyanjing (Śūramgama Sūtra) reaches what is arguably its philosophical and soteriological center in the description of a method of Buddhist practice declared by Avalokiteśvara Bodhisattva (Ch: Guanyin Pusa). This method consist of a form of concentration and contemplation of the faculty of hearing. The actual description of the method, however, is terse and ambiguous in the original Chinese text, and has lent itself to radically divergent interpretations over the centuries, representing diverse readings both philologically and philosophically. The interpretation of this passage, reflected even in the very way in which the specific characters of the text and how they are parsed, depends heavily on the school of Buddhism to which the exegete belongs and the dominant concerns of Chinese Buddhist culture at the time of the work. Master Shengyen offers a detailed exegesis of this passage in his book Guanyin Miaozhi: Guanyin pusa ergen yuantong famen jiang yao (觀音妙智:觀音菩薩耳根圓通法門講 要) (Avalokiteśvara's Wondrous Wisdom: Lectures on the Essence of Avalokiteśvara Bodhisattva's Dharma-gate of Perfection of the Organ of the Ear). In this paper I examine this passage and its various interpretations, including that of Master Shengyen, together with the elaboration on the organ of hearing and its implications found in the gatha of Mañjuśrī which follows Avalokiteśvara's soliloguy in the sutra, comparing these interpretative stances

• 112 • 聖嚴研究 Hearing the Absolute Hearing • 113 •

and attempting to elucidate what is at stake in the various approaches and hermeneutic decisions involved. This gives us a basis from which to consider the philosophical implications of this privileging of the sense of hearing over all other senses, as well as over all other specific practices and mental operations, for Buddhist practice and the attainment of the realization of the absolute or unconditioned state of liberation, the omnipresent and always-operating ground of all experience which on the one hand transcends subjectivity and objectivity, and on the other fully includes both subjectivity and objectivity, thereby integrating them into one another, such that all objectivity is subjective-objective, and all subjectivity is objective-subjective, in both cases properly speaking neither subjective nor objective. The exact implications of this idea are brought into dialogue with attempts to elucidate the nature of the unconditioned, and its unification and transcendence of objectivity and subjectivity, in certain Western philosophical figures (notably Spinoza and some of the post-Kantian German Idealist philosophers), as well as the trend in late 20th century phenomenology which has discerned a prejudice toward an "ocularcentric" paradigm in traditional Western philosophical conceptions of Being (e.g., Levinas' critique of Heidegger) and the trend toward a reconsideration of the implications of a shift to an aural paradigm (e.g., in works such as David Michael Levin's The Listening Self). We will conclude with some further reflections on the far-reaching implications of the difference between the conception and experience of the Absolute as derived from an ocular paradigm and that derived from an aural paradigm.

Key words: Surangama Sutra (Śūraṃgama Sūtra), Avalokitesvara Dharma-Gate, nature of hearing, Ocularcentrism, Commentarial Variability

1. Introduction

The *Lengvanjing* (Śūramgama Sūtra) reaches what is arguably its philosophical and soteriological climax in the description of a method of Buddhist practice declared by Avalokiteśvara Bodhisattva (Ch: Guanshiyin Pusa, Guanyin Pusa 觀世音菩 薩, 觀音菩薩). This method consists of a form of concentration and contemplation focused on the faculty of hearing. The actual description of the method, however, is terse and ambiguous in the original Chinese text, and has lent itself to radically divergent interpretations over the centuries, representing diverse readings both philologically and philosophically. Master Shengyen offers a detailed exegesis of this passage in his book Guanyin Miaozhi: Guanyin pusa ergen yuantong famen jiang yao (觀音妙智:觀音 菩薩耳根圓通法門講要) (Avalokiteśvara's Wondrous Wisdom: Lectures on the Essence of Avalokiteśvara Bodhisattva's Dharmagate of Perfection of the Organ of the Ear) (Taipei: Faguwenhua, 2010). In this paper I will examine this passage and its various interpretations, including that of Master Shengyen, together with the elaboration on the organ of hearing and its implications found in the gatha of Mañjuśrī which follows Avalokiteśvara's soliloguy in the sutra, comparing these interpretative stances and attempting to elucidate what is at stake in the various approaches and hermeneutic decisions involved. This will give us a basis from which to consider the philosophical implications of this privileging of the sense of hearing over all other senses, as well as over all other specific practices and mental operations, for Buddhist practice and the attainment of the realization of the absolute or unconditioned state of liberation, the omnipresent and always-operating ground of all experience which on the one hand transcends subjectivity and objectivity, and on the other fully includes both subjectivity and objectivity, thereby integrating them into one another, such that all objectivity is subjective-objective, and all subjectivity is objective-subjective, in both cases properly speaking neither subjective nor objective. The exact implications of this idea will be brought into dialogue with the trend in 20th century phenomenology which has discerned a prejudice toward an "ocular" paradigm in traditional Western philosophical conceptions of Being and the trend toward a reconsideration of the implications of a shift to an aural paradigm.

2. Five Traditional Readings of the Key Passage

The key passage in which Guanyin describes the method in question is as follows:

初於聞中,入流亡所;所入既寂,動靜二相,了然不生。如是漸增,聞所聞盡;盡聞不住,覺所覺空;空覺極圓,空所空滅;生滅既滅,寂滅現前。忽然超越,世出世間,十方圓明,獲二殊勝;一者、上合十方諸佛本妙覺心,與佛如來同一慈力。二者、下合十方一切六道眾生,與諸眾生同一悲仰。①

The key ambiguity which sets the stage for several radically different interpretations of the entire passage and of the ontological and soteriological position of the sutra, lies in the twenty characters in boldface here. I will here offer five English renditions of the boldfaced phrase, representing the five general approaches to its interpretation within traditional commentary, followed by the rest of the passage. This will establish the framework for the detailed discussion of the varying philosophical implications of each of these lines of interpretation:

Reading One:

Starting within the sphere of hearing, [one notes that] the

119, 128b.

constant flowing away of this entire sense-sphere [āyatana] leaves no object remaining. All objects entering this sphere being already quiescent, the dichotomous attributes of stillness and motion are completely unproduced.

Reading Two:

Starting within the sphere of hearing, one notes that whatever enters it instantly flows away, leaving no object remaining. Once that-which-enters is seen to be quiescent, the dichotomous attributes of stillness and motion are seen to be completely unproduced.

Reading Three:

Beginning in the sphere of hearing, enter [against the current of] the flow [reaching the point of pure subjectivity where] no object [of hearing awareness] remains. Once the object of hearing is thus quiescent, the dichotomous attributes of stillness and motion are completely unproduced.

Reading Four:

Beginning in the sphere of hearing, [make your hearing awareness] enter into the flow [of sounds] so that no object [of hearing awareness] remains. Once the object of hearing is thus quiescent, the dichotomous attributes of stillness and motion are completely unproduced.

Reading Five:

Beginning in the sphere of hearing, enter into the [unobstructed all-pervasive] "flow" [of the Dharma-nature] such that there is no longer any [separate] object [to-be-heard]. With the object of hearing thus quiescent, [in that-which-hears] no dichotomous characteristics of motion and stillness are produced at all.

3. Interpreting the Five Readings

To understand the implications of these alternate hermeneutic choices, it is important to attend to the context of the passage in the original text. The following is an English translation of the remainder of the passage, following immediately after the section just cited in its five versions:

Gradually increasing in this practice, both the hearing and the heard are extinguished. When one then goes on to cease dwelling even in this extinguishment of hearer and heard, both the awareness and the object of the awareness are experienced as empty. When both emptiness and the awareness of it are brought to total perfection, both emptiness and what it is emptied of are extinguished. With arising and extinguishment both extinguished, the quiescent extinguishment of true Nirvana manifests itself, and one instantly transcends both the mundane and the supermundane realms, perfectly illuminating all in the ten directions with two supreme virtues: first, above joining together with all the original wondrous enlightened mind of all Buddhas of the ten directions and sharing equally in their power of compassion, and second, below joining together with all sentient beings of the six paths of existence, sharing equally in their suffering and reverence [for those Buddhas]. 2

All of these alternate readings of the passage are offering a reason for the unique power and appropriateness for the meditation on *hearing*, as opposed to any other sense faculty, sense consciousness or sense object, for Buddhist practice, and in particular for the overcoming of dualisms of all kind, above all the subject-object dualism (self-other), from which all other dualisms derive, according to this sutra. The five readings here offer varying

approaches to the non-dual powers of hearing.

Reading One takes $ru \ \lambda$ in its technical Buddhist sense, meaning "sense-sphere" (āyatana), the sources of perception, meaning either the six sense-faculties or the six sense-faculties together with the six corresponding types of sense-object. In this case, the referent is sound not as object but as phenomenon, as manifested in the faculty of hearing. Reading Two takes ru in its verbal sense, implicitly reading the first ru in the passage as more or less equivalent to the later *suoru* 所入: both mean all the sounds that enter the sphere of hearing. On both of these first two readings, the sutra passage asks us to focus on the flowing quality of aural experience in its entirety, as opposed to, for example, the seeming stability of visual objects or cognitive objects. We are asked to notice this peculiarity of sound: no sound can ever be heard twice. Sounds flow away as soon as they are heard; you cannot revisit a sound the way you can revisit a seen object, or a thought of object, or even a smelled or tasted or touched object. For a sound is manifestly and intrinsically temporal, it is above all a kind of motion. If I look at a bell, I can see it both when it is moving and when it is still. It persists through both states, and continues to as it were emit visual data at all times. This gives it the impression of a substantial object that subsists through all changes, rather than an event. The sound, on the other hand, does not "sit there" to be handled, there is no object emitting aural data in both the moving and still states. A sound is an event. The bell sounds only when it is moving, and thus it is clear that the sound is only figuratively the sound "of" the bell—it is really the sound of "the bell moving," and even, "the bell interacting" (with a clapper, with the air, with my ear and nervous system, etc.). Thus sounds are uniquely qualified to display the character of dependent origination and impermanence which, so Buddhism claims, really pertain to all sense data. We are to take what we perceive easily and obviously in the case of sound and apply it to all our sense data and cognitive experience: all sights and thoughts and smells and flavors are to be experienced as

analogous to sound: as events which flow, which vanish as soon as they occur, which leave behind no actual object.

In terms of this interpretation of Readings One and Two, we must derive the state of non-duality between action and stillness from this peculiarity of sound that occurs only with motion and not with stillness, this quality of being event-only. This may seem counterintuitive, since it might seem to presuppose an absolute dichotomy between motion and stillness, instantiating one (motion) and completely excluding the other (stillness). But since sound is only event, the apparent contrast between moving and still which subtends visual and other objects cannot appear in the case of sound. With visual objects we have something visual moving against something else visual which is still, in the "background." A person walks across a landscape: in our visual field, the person moves, the hills stay still, but both person and hill are visual objects. The car moves and the road is still in our visual field. But there is no such "still background" in the case of sound, no still "object." Silence too is a kind of hearing. The Buddha illustrates this point in the sutra by striking a gong, and asking, "Do you hear?" The disciples say, "Yes, we hear." Then he lets the sound fade away, and asks again, "Do you hear?" The disciples say no. The Buddha repudiates this answer: it is not that you do not hear, as it is not hearing that has ceased, but only the object heard. The sound is gone, the hearing is still there; otherwise, you would not know when to start hearing again the next time the gong is struck. Even when one is sleeping, hearing never stops, says the Buddha, citing the example of a man transforming the sound of the pounding of rice into other sounds in his dreams. Indeed, if hearing stopped during sleep, alarm clocks would be of no use. Earlier in the sutra, the Buddha had made the same point about seeing in the case of a blind man: it is not that he does not see, it is that what he sees is just blackness. All that is still is the hearing itself—which

is not an object, and thus not really either still or moving, as the sutra shows Ananda realizing to be true even about "seeing" 見. When *all* objects are events, are pure flow, pure motion, there is no longer a contrast between stillness and motion, and thus the two opposed characteristics or attributes (which are only discoverable in objects, not in the hearing subject) do not appear. We do not end up with a contrast between a "still" awareness and a "moving" set of objects against that still background or field, as we are wont to imagine in the case of seeing and other senses, and which distorts our understanding of awareness generally, providing the greatest obstacle to the realization of non-duality. Hence, in Readings One and Two, we have progressive realization of non-duality derived from this simply absence of the "still" in the realm of hearing.

In Reading Three, we have a version of the common Chinese Buddhist and Daoist technique of "turning around the light" (huiguang fanzhao) 回光返照—a reversal of the direction of attention. Although the reading of $ru \nearrow a$ as meaning "upstream" or "against the current" here feels rather forced when considered in isolation, this reading has strong support in the redescription of the technique slightly later in the sutra: "Ananda and the great assembly should turn around your inverted faculty of hearing, reversing your hearing to hear your own self-nature, thus allowing this nature to perfect the supreme Way." The idea here is that our normal perception, whether of sounds or of other objects, tends to chase after and get lost in the objects, forgetting the subject or the awareness as such. This again recapitulates a pan-Buddhist theme: the role of desire in perception. When we desire satisfaction from objects in the world, chasing after them greedily, we follow them with our attention, which is directed outward and dissipates centrifugally, constructing projections about objects in a vicious cycle of dissatisfaction. Reading Three gives us a practice of reversing attention away from the object and toward the faculty of

awareness itself: attention is to be paid not to the rising and falling of sounds, but to the constant presence of the faculty of hearing, which is itself soundless, objectless. This same technique is found in the common Chan huatou 話頭, "Who is the one reciting the Buddha's name?" or the Linji Chan insistence that the true Buddha is "the one listening to these words right now"—attention is directed to finding the pure function of activity and awareness, rather than the deeds done, the forms formed or the objects that have been cognized. Of course the *locus classicus* for this approach in the sutra literature is the Śūramgama Sūtra itself, in its famous opening vignette of the Buddha instructing Ananda to search for his own mind, his own self. This resonance with the larger structure of the sutra lends some plausibility to this interpretation. The upshot in all these "turn around" searches for the self, of course, is that this self can never be found in any specific locus or in any specific condition—it is unobtainable. Indeed, whatever is cognized cannot be the cognizer; whatever is an object cannot be the objectifying subject. Even "seeing," as a specific objectified quality, cannot be the real seeing. As the sutra says, "When seeing is seen, seeing is not seeing; seeing is thus beyond seeing, impossible to reach by seeing." 見見之時,見非是見,見猶離見,見不能及. 5 Reading our passage in light of this point, we are to "go against the flow" of perception, turning inward to search for the listener, the perceiver of sound in the process of listening, rather than attending to the sounds heard. This involves ignoring the identity of the sounds heard, giving up the attempt to link them to specific narratives or attribute them to objects—this is a bird song, that is a car sound and so on—and concentrating instead on the unchanging fact of "hearing" itself: when hearing, I note only that hearing is going on, rather than the specific identity of the sound heard.

This involves trying to "hear the listener." We may note that in this sense too, for the purpose of triggering an experience of nonduality, hearing has some specific advantages over the other senses. In the case of vision, the usual Chan saying specifies that "The eye does not see itself' —a principle illustrated in the Śūraṃgama *Sūtra* itself with the profound story of *Yajñadatta* "losing" his head when he sees his reflection in the mirror. But the complications attendant on the mirroring situation do not apply in the case of hearing. Eyes both see and can be seen. Tongues can both taste and can be tasted. Hands can both feel and can be felt. Noses can both smell and can be smelled. But the ear is not itself audible. The ear only hears, but is not heard. It occupies no virtual position in the aural field hearables at all. The ear is silent. Hence in hearing we have no subject-object opposition. The non-findability of pure nonobjectifiable awareness is here the simple the inaudibility of the listener, which is thus easier to intuit than the pure viewer or taster or feeler, which always lends itself to being imagined as an object of its own perceptual world.

On the Reading Four, which is the approach taken by Master Shengyen, we have an instruction to enter into the sound. Shengyen instructs the practitioner to "continuously listen, listen, listen, until one is has been completely absorbed into this affair of listening, until ultimately there is no way to distinguish the mind doing the listening from things there to be listened to, for they are all unified into a single whole. 'Entering the flow until there is no object' means to enter the flow of sounds heard, so that these sounds are soundless sounds. Entering the flow of soundless sounds, you forget that you are in the flow of sound and the flow of sounds itself." That is, on this interpretation, rather than standing aloof as sounds arise and perish, as the hearer of the sound, one is to become one with each sound, to in effect be the sound. When all the sounds are themselves the hearer of the sound, there is no object left outside of the subject. The subject just is the allinclusive field of emerging and perishing sounds. Hearer and heard

are indistinguishable, the hearing is manifested as the sound and the sound is manifested as the hearing. Hence the sounds are "nosounds," i.e., they are as much hearing as sounds. Sounds arise and perish, but the hearing does not arise or perish with them. So in this form of the practice, when we reach the indistinguishability of the hearer and the heard, we have a true union of opposites, of the conditioned and the unconditioned. Rather than privileging the hearer, the unconditioned, this allows us to realize that the unconditioned is present only as the conditioned, and vice versa. The realized Absolute is not a blank, devoid of any arising and perishing, of any life, of any experience: on the contrary, it is present only as the constant stream of events, but now realized as one with the absolute and the unconditioned.

Shengyen offers a very useful but slightly different fourfold breakdown of this process in his short pamphlet, Guanshiyinpusa: "1) Focus exclusively on listening to all sounds everywhere, not choosing any one particular object, making no distinction between objects, including all from the largest to the smallest, from the closest to the most distant. Do not send your hearing forth to go and listen to them; rather, let the sounds come to you on their own. 2) Know both that you are listening to sounds and that sounds are there being listened to by you, so that at this time there exists nothing but the sounds and one's own responsiveness to them, and no distracting thoughts appear. 3) The sounds alone remain and you forget your self; your self has already been absorbed into the undifferentiated and undivided sounds themselves. 4) Both the sounds and oneself disappear, and yet both are manifested clearly. Both disappear, so there is no inner and outer, no self or other. But both manifest clearly, so each still is present, one after another, in all its vivid clarity...." 7

What Shengyen calls the "oneself" here actually plays the role of "the faculty of Hearing" in the more technical exposition.

We reach the stage of "entering into the sounds" in step 3. Step 4 clarifies that this is not the terminus of the process, but rather the turning point: once one is totally absorbed into the sounds themselves, so that no Hearer remains above and beyond them, both the sounds and the Hearer are reinstated in this new unified form. The difference is that the sounds into which one is entering are themselves now "undifferentiated and undivided" 無分別無 界限, which in turn follows from the initial move of unifying the Hearer with the sounds: once one has entered into the sounds with no remainder, the unbroken all-pervasive continuity of Hearing is instantiated purely as an circumambient continuity of the fieldof-sound. Continuous circumambient Hearing is continuous circumambient Sound, i.e., including both what we call sounds and what we call silences. This is where the dome of Hearing becomes the dome of Sounds (= sounds and silences), unbroken and "undivided," leading to the next step in the passage, where "neither motion or stillness" arise, but, as Shengyen states, including both the motion and the stillness.

This too is uniquely enabled by hearing as opposed to any other field of sense perception. The coherence of the elements of the visual field is constructed in close accord with our own potential actions: it is obstacles and paths around obstacles, things to use and things to avoid. It appeals directly to our will, our desire, our prospective motion. It is structured directly around our body and its potential actions. It stays put. The same thing can be looked at in different moments. We see it now from one side and now from another, depending on where we are and what we do to it. The object seems to have an unchanged presence through different moments of time. Sounds, on the other hand, seem to disappear at the same moment they appear, as we've seen already in Readings One and Two. They don't stay there to be re-examined. They don't form a grid of objects to be manipulated, moved around, used, avoided. They are gone as soon as they appear, and form no static space in which they are situated. They are easier to isolate

⁷ Shengyen, *Guanshiyipusa*, Taipei: Fagushan nongchan si, 1998, 50.

as individual experiences. The vibration that is a sound and the perception of that sound seem to be exactly coextensive. A visual object, on the other hand, pre- and post-exists my seeing of it.

Sounds are, again, manifestly events. They are inconceivable without time. Yet they isolate in time more radically than sights. A crinkle sound appears off on the periphery outside of main "narrative" continuity of, say, the music. Where is this crinkle? The same place as the music? Superimposed? "In front of" it? Or located "elsewhere" in a "visualized" field? Time is spatialized when hearing is assimilated to the visual field. But if we pay close attention to the aural field, we find that this new locus itself arise with—as?—the new, unexpected sound. There is no preconceived place there. This is true "empty space." In the visual field, everywhere is full if we conceive it as a two-dimensional field. As a three-dimensional field, the empty space does come to be filled —what was in this space before this sight appeared there? But we trace particular objects moving from another chunk of the space of the visual field *into* this one. This does not happen with sound. Sounds appear suddenly and vanish back into nothingness just as suddenly. They leave no heard "space" behind, in the way that the motion of a visual object leaves a static seen space behind. When individual sounds disappear, they seem to leave no neutral field of time and space behind. More vividly than in the case of seeing, the hearing of the sound is neither the same nor different than the sound. There is no hearing above and beyond the sound. It reveals an all-inclusive non-duality of subject and object, but one which is full of differentiation and specific events, not devoid of object but full of the activity of all objects. All sounds are modes of the nature of hearing itself, like folds in a blanket, but a blanket which is presenced only where it folds.

These meanings are folded into what is perhaps the least philologically intuitive interpretation, Reading Five, which takes "flow" as synonym for the Absolute itself, for the Dharma-Nature. This reading is adopted by the Song Chan writer Tianru Weize 天如惟則 (1284-1354) as well as two Ming Tiantai exegetes, Youxi Chuandeng 幽溪傳燈 (1554-1628) and Ouyi Zhixu 蕅益 智旭 (1599-1655). Notably, both Ming Tiantai writers relate the three qualities of Roundness, Unobstructedness and Permanence to the Tiantai Three Truths; but equally notably, they correlate them differently. The three qualities come from Manjuśri's exposition in the sutra, which, read in the narrowest philological sense, supports Reading Three, the idea of "turning around the direction of hearing." But the exposition there also enfolds the implications of the other readings. Mañjuśrī declares that hearing has three characteristics not matched by any other sense faculty: it is 1) round 圓, i.e., all-pervasive, functioning at all times in all directions, fully encompassing the field of directions, not requiring one to turn or approach or make contact with particular areas, as seeing and smelling and tasting and palpating do, and leaving no gaps as the field of seeing does (seeing only what is in front of one but not in back). One can hear drums played in all the ten directions at once. It is 2) unobstructed 通 , such that one hears near and far at once, without what is nearer obstructing what is farther, as do visual objects. Aural objects do not block one another out in the same way, they are to varying degrees permeable or translucent. And 3) it is permanent 常, functioning at all times, not discontinued by closing the organ (like the eye) or by sleep; the arising of sound is not the arising of hearing, nor is the perishing of sound the perishing of hearing, as noted above. In sum, hearing is permanent, unobstructed, and allpervasive. But Mañjuśrī's description of how this is realized, the actual thrust of the Guanyin technique, depends on the Reading Three technique as disclosing some other characteristics of the aural: "You use your hearing to hold to Buddha after Buddha; why

❸ X12,829a:「入流亡所者,流謂法性,所謂音塵,入之與亡,通乎觀行相似之位也。所入法性體既常寂,是則前塵本自不動,今亦無靜,故云二相了然不生也。」

not instead hear your own hearing? Hearing is not produced by itself; it is from sound that it gets its name [and specific identity]. When we turn around our hearing, it is released from sound; what name [or identity] can that which is so released then have?" 將聞持佛佛,何不自聞聞,聞非自然生,因聲有名字,旋聞與聲脫,能脫欲誰名. ⑤ We must examine how these points are woven together to produce the interpretation found in Reading Five.

The rationale for Reading Five, taking "flow" to mean the Dharma-Nature itself, is expressed by the Chuandeng as follows:

The meaning of "entering the flow" is none other than merely contemplating the suchlike eternal abiding and true purity of the original principle of the faculty of hearing from the beginning in the sphere of hearing, as it is in accordance with the Nature. That is "entering the flow." "Flow" here is a synonym for Round [i.e., all-pervasive] Unobstructedness 圓通. It is one thing if one does not "enter the flow," but as soon as one is able to enter the flow, the object of hearing has already vanished, because the locus of sound is itself precisely the locus of the hearing. Thus whenever we speak of sound as an object, it is due to chasing and following after the sound and thus led by it into samsaric circles of conditioning. Once we have entered the Round Unobstructedness, how could any object be possible there?

Ouyi Zhixu, another Ming Tiantai exegete, in his *Words and Phrases of the Śūraṃgama Sūtra (Lengyanjing wenju)* elaborates on this interpretative position, combining it explicitly with Reading Three:

The word "entering" denotes the wisdom that is doing the contemplation. Sentient beings flow in fruitless circles chasing after sounds, turning away from [the Dharmanature] while not [ever really] turning away from it. This is called "exiting." When the Bodhisattva here turns around to listen to his own self-nature, this is joining it without ever joining it. This is called "entering." This is precisely [the Tiantai practice of] the Three Concentrations and the Three Contemplations in One Mind. The word "flow" denotes the Truth that is to be manifested. The text later says "This is

[●] T19, 130c-131b:「譬如人靜居,十方俱擊鼓,十處一時聞,此則圓真實。 目非觀障外,口鼻亦復然,身以合方知,心念紛無緒;隔垣聽音響 遐邇俱可聞,五根所不齊,是則通真實。音聲性動靜,聞中為有無,無 聲號無聞,非實聞無性;聲無既無滅,聲有亦非生,生滅二圓離,是 則常真實。縱令在夢想,不為不思無,覺觀出思惟,身心不能及。 …… 將聞持佛佛,何不自聞聞,聞非自然生,因聲有名字,旋聞與聲脫,能 脱欲誰名。一根既返源,六根成解脫,見聞如幻翳,三界若空花,聞復 翳根除,塵銷覺圓淨。淨極光誦達,寂照含虛空,却來觀世間,猶如夢 中事。摩登伽在夢,誰能留汝形,如世巧幻師,幻作諸男女,雖見諸根 動,要以一機抽,息機歸寂然,諸幻成無性。六根亦如是,元依一精 明,分成六和合,一處成休復,六用皆不成,塵垢應念銷,成圓明淨 妙,餘塵尚諸學,明極即如來。大眾及阿難,旋汝倒聞機,反聞聞自 性,性成無上道。圓通實如是,此是微塵佛,一路涅槃門,過去諸如 來,斯門已成就,現在諸菩薩,今各入圓明,未來修學人,當依如是 法,我亦從中證,非唯觀世音。誠如佛世尊,詢我諸方便,以救諸末 劫,求出世間人。成就涅槃心,觀世音為最,自餘諸方便,皆是佛威 ,即事捨塵勞,非是長修學,淺深同說法。頂禮如來藏,無漏不思 , 願加被未來,於此門無惑, 方便易成就, 堪以教阿難, 及末劫沈 淪,但以此根修,圓通超餘者,真實心如是。」

[●] 幽溪傳燈《楞嚴經玄義》,X13, 29b:「故入流之旨其法無他,但初於聞中稱性觀此耳根本理,如是常住,如是真淨,即是入流。言流者,乃圓通之異稱也,不入流則已,若能入流即已亡所,以聲處是耳處故。是則凡言有聲塵之所者,因循聲而流轉故也,既入圓通何容有所。」For an extensive overview of Chuandeng's teaching, and in particular the centrality of the Śūraṃgama Sūtra for him, see Ma Yungfen, "The Revival of Tiantai Buddhism in the Late Ming: On the Thought of Youxi Chuandeng 幽溪傳燈 (1554-1628),"Ph.D. Dissertation, Columbia University, 2011.

・128・聖嚴研究 Hearing the Absolute Hearing・129・

genuine reality of its Roundness," "This is the genuine reality of its Unobstructedness," "This is the genuine reality of its Permanence"—these describe the true Flow of the Nature of Hearing. Because the Round, Unobstructed, Permanent Nature follows conditions while remaining unchanged and remains unchanged although following conditions 不變隨緣,隨緣不 變, it is called a "Flow." When it follows defiled conditions, it flows into becoming the Nine Realms. When if follows pure conditions, it flows into becoming the Buddha Realm. The Nine Realms are called the flow of Samsara, while the Buddha Realm is called the flow of Nirvana. The nature of the water remaining unchanging even when it follows these conditions, so that the ten realms are simultaneously not the ten realms, is called the Dharma Flow of the Ultimate Truth [of Emptiness]. The single unique nature of the water following the flow of the ten realms, so that the ten realms are all simultaneously the ten realms, is called the Dharma Flow of Conventional Truth [of Provisional Positing]. No water outside the flow and no flow outside the water, so that it is neither water nor flow and yet precisely water and flow, so that all ten realms are at once free of both being it and not being it, neither identical it nor non-identical to it, is called the Dharma Flow of the Truth of the Middle. The Ultimate Truth of Emptiness is the Genuine Roundness; the Conventional Truth is the Genuine Interpenetration; the Truth of the Middle is the Genuine Permanence. •

We see that for Zhixu, this reading actually enfolds Reading Three, although the two readings interpret the key word $ru \lambda$ differently: not chasing after sounds, returning "against the flow" to the Nature of Hearing instead, is a way of "entering" the Dharma-Nature itself, which for the Tiantai writer is equivalent to the Three Truths, here related to the three qualities of hearing enumerated in Mañjuśrī's verse, i.e., 圓, 通, 常. It is noteworthy that the two Tiantai writers correlate the three qualities differently. For Chuandeng, Permanence 常 pertains to the Truth of Provisional Positing 假諦, while Roundness 圓 pertains to the Truth of the Middle 中諦, while for Zhixu these associations are reversed: Permanence pertains to the Middle, and Roundness pertains to Provisional Positing (both writers associate Unobstructedness 通 with the Truth of Emptiness 空諦). Both of course also make the predictable next Tiantai move of going on to insist that, ultimately, all three qualities interfuse and thus are relatable to each of the Three Truths, inasmuch as they are mutually entailing. Chuandeng seems to view the Nature of Hearing as a particular dharma, viewed in its ultimate reality. Hence, its permanence is that of Provisional Positing, i.e., of Wondrous Provisional Positing, which is equivalent to inherent entailment. "Hearing" is inherently entailed, and thus is an example of "wondrous being," or "wondrous provisional positing"妙有,妙假. It is always present, inherently entailed in whatever appears, whether explicitly manifested by sound or not. It is in this manner actually omnipresent and permanent, discoverable in every locus and every moment, and thus is like all other particular, specific, conditioned dharmas, actually Permanent and unconditioned. Roundness for him signifies the Middle, Absoluteness and Subsumption, since it encompasses both of every set of opposites, e.g., front and back, left and right, and any opposed types of sound that might be occurring in these different sectors. For Zhixu, on the other hand, the Nature of Hearing is equivalent to the Dharma-Nature simpliciter, with Roundness signifying all-inclusiveness of all particulars, and thus Provisional

[●] 蕅益智旭《楞嚴經文句》,X13,311c:「入之一字,明其能觀之智,眾生循聲流轉,非背而背,名之為出;大士反聞自性,非合而合,名之為入,即一心三止三觀也。流之一字,明其所顯之諦,下文云:『此則圓真實』、『此則通真實』、『此則常真實』,乃是聞性真流,以此圓、通、常性,不變隨緣,隨緣不變,故名為流。若隨染緣,則流為九界;若隨淨緣,則流為佛界;九界名生死流,佛界名涅槃流。正隨流時,水性不變,十界俱非十界,名真諦法流;惟一水性,隨十界流,十界俱即十界,名俗諦法流;流外無水,水外無流,非水非流,即流即水,十界俱離即離非,是即非即,名中諦法流。真諦即圓真實,俗諦即通真實,中諦即常真實。」

Positing, while Permanence, the unchangeability of the Dharma-Nature as it follows various conditions, pertains to the Middle. For both, however, the practice of entering, as going against the flow of specific conditional sounds rather than following them as in Reading Three, is an entering into the Dharma-Nature itself, which is thus identified with the "flow" denoted in the passage.

4. Synoptic View of the Diverse Interpretations

What can we do with these alternate readings of the passage? We note at once that they seem to divide neatly into two opposed camps: Readings One, Two, and Four are what I will call "Immanentist" readings: the contemplation here focuses on and works with some quality of the individual rising and falling sounds themselves, and overcomes the dualism between hearing and heard, the sense of an object separate from hearing, on the basis of some characteristic of these transient sounds, either their flow and impermanence, with the unrevistability specific to sounds as opposed to sights, in Readings One and Two, or the enterability of sounds, as in Shengyen's Reading Four, which rests on the performative nature of sounds—they are manifestly there only when we hear them, not standing there waiting to be heard—and on the coextensivity of sound and hearing, and unrepresentability of the ear within its own sense sphere, its unhearability, which is sharply opposed to the eye which can see itself in a mirror. The other two readings, Three and Five, we may call "Transcendentalist," or even seemingly dualist, focusing not on the transient sounds, which are to be dismissed and not attended to at all, but on the unchanging hearing. Going against the flow in Reading Three, we are to attend to and grasp the unchanging Hearing instead to the exclusion of following the sounds, while in Reading Five we are to the Hearing as the direct manifestation of the Absolute, Unobstructed, Permanent Dharma-Nature.

But what is most important to note here is how quickly this neat division of immanent and transcendent breaks down in precisely the case of Hearing as approached in this passage. The readings in fact enfold one another to a very large extent, in spite of their huge philological disagreements. Hence we find that Reading Three's dualist or transcendentalist neglect of the sounds themselves is another version of Reading One and Two's accentuation of the focus on the flowing-away of the sounds: "going against the flow" really means not chasing after sounds, not assembling them into stable identities, not holding onto them as self-standing entities outside the process of hearing itself, not specifically identifying them as one thing or another, but rather seeing them directly as manifestations of Hearing. This of course is no difference from Reading Four, which tells us to make Hearing and Sound one by "entering" the sound: we who are entering, the subject, are of course the hearing itself. To say "we enter sound" is to say "Hearing enters sound." While Readings One, Two and Three all say "There is no sound outside of the Hearing," Reading Four says, "There is no Hearing outside of the sounds." And we find that this is precisely what our Tiantai writers say in Reading Five. In Chuandeng's words, "For the locus of the sound is precisely the locus of the Ear [Hearing]"以聲處是耳處故. For Zhixu, the same point is made by invoking the formula, "It is unchanging while following conditions, and follows conditions while remaining unchanging." Hence it is possible for us to give a combined reading of both the Immanentist and the Transcendentalist readings of the passage, in spite of their philological and seeming philosophical disagreements: the alternate interpretations intersubsume, they entail one another, and indeed it is precisely this intersubsumption which is what is most distinctive about the contemplation of sound, and the reason it plays so central a role here: it provides a unique model of the Absolute as both Transcendent and Immanent, both Monist and Dualist, or beyond

[●] 隨緣不變,不變隨緣. Zhixu is here borrowing the Huayan formula for the Dharma-nature, adopted and adapted by Tiantai writers starting with Zhanran 湛然 in the Tang dynasty.

Monism and Dualism, in a distinctively Buddhist way which is the real teaching of the sutra: the Monism is directly manifested as the Dualism, the Dualism is directly manifested as the Monism, the Transcendence as the Immanence, the Immanence as the Transcendence.

Combining all these senses, we can sum up the passage as follows:

Let your hearing fully enter all sounds, each sound, not partial to any one direction or quality, to pleasant over unpleasant, to continuity over discontinuity, to sound over silence: hear everywhere in all directions at once. Let there be no hearing outside of sounds, and no sounds outside of hearing. This means first ignoring sounds and attending to hearing, or taking all sounds as hearing, as manifestations of hearing. But this immediately also becomes a revelation about the sounds themselves, showing them more vividly in a new light: their flow, their impermanence, their singularity, their multifariousness and discontinuity, are now highlighted. Once they cease to be opposed as self-standing objects to hearing, somehow supposed to stand outside of hearing, they become one with hearing, and this also means that hearing becomes one with them: all of the Nature of Hearing is manifested in each sound, with no extra something left out (i.e., no object, no soundobject, stands against heard sounds as their hearer). This is what it means to go against the flow and find the Hearing: truly finding the Hearing means the *failure to* find any hearer, any entity called "the Hearing." This is what it means to let sounds flow away: it means to allow them to leap up in their uniqueness as manifestations of the Hearing, outside of which there is no other Hearing. This is what it means to fully enter sounds, for the Hearer to be completely absorbed in the heard. And this is what it means to realize the Hearing as the Dharma-Nature, as the Tiantai Three Truths: Emptiness is Provisional Positing is the Middle, the conditioned is the unconditioned is the neither-conditioned-nor-unconditioned.

Mañjuśrī's verse definitely supports the "against the flow" and

the "transcendent" idea: it tells us that once the all-pervasiveness. constancy and unobstructedness of hearing is realized apart from the impermanent rising and falling of sound, this hearing is no longer only "hearing": it has no identity. As we quoted before, "Hearing is not produced by itself; it is from sound that it gets its name [and specific identity]. When we turn around our hearing, it is released from sound; what name [or identity] can that which is so released then have?" 聞非自然生,因聲有名字,旋聞 與聲脫,能脫欲誰名. On the one hand, this means that the Permanent Hearing is nothing but the impermanent sounds it has no other identity. But on the other hand, we are also told that what we had formerly been calling "Hearing" is now seen to be the very awareness that is normally channeled into and manifested as all the other sense faculties as well. Hence, we are told, by liberating this one sense, all the others are "returned to the source": all the senses are liberated. This is because, lacking any definite characteristics once abstracted from sound, hearing also has no characteristics which could distinguish it from seeing, from feeling, from smelling, from thinking, from awareness in any field. Then all the senses are to be experienced on the analogy of hearing: as unobstructed, constant and all-pervasive, as fully absorbed into each percept without no perceiver standing outside it. The dialectic goes like this: dismissing the sounds, we search for the permanent Hearing. But we find nothing there to be the Hearing when the sounds are removed. But it is precisely as this nothing that the Hearing is permanent, unobstructed, all-pervasive. We find this nowhere but in the sounds and silences. Fully entering into their transience, their not-being-the-permanent-hearing, is the only way to instantiate the permanent hearing which is nothingbut-the-transient-sounds. Since it must be beyond them but what is beyond them is only nothing, however, it is also just as much the seeing, smelling, tasting, knowing which are present with nothing left over in each of their respective perceptions, beyond each and also nothing beyond each. Hence it is fully immanent and fully

・134・聖嚴研究 Hearing the Absolute Hearing・135・

transcendent, fully conditioned yet fully unconditioned, following conditions and yet unchanging, unchanging and yet following conditions. Fully entering sounds in their very specificity and transience, becoming one with every sounds, we are at the same time becoming the Permanent and All-Pervasive Absolute Mind/ No Mind, the awareness which is nothing specifiable but which is also present as all sense faculties and hence as all sense-objects, the Threefold Dharma-nature, the Absolute with no identity which is all identities: the Tathāgata-garbha as described earlier in the sutra. The most important and unique turn of this exposition, as it applies to comparative ontology, is this: rooting the exploration of the Absolute in the sense of hearing, the very radicality of the Transcendence (or dualism) is what makes for the complete Immanence. Because "Hearing" is not "Sound" (transcendent dualism), Hearing is not (merely) Hearing, which means that Hearing can be equally Seeing, Feeling, Smelling, etc. and it is this extraction of the subject from the object that allows that subject to then be identical to the *objects* also of the other sense-fields: because Hearing is not Hearing when the rise-and-fall of sounds is removed, that nothing-beyond-sounds which is the Hearing is also the nothing-beyond-sights which is the Seeing, that nothingbeyond-feelings which is the Feeling, and so on. There is, however, one key change that seems to be required here: when all these other objects are seen as identical to the Hearing, they must all be taken in the mode of soundlikeness: sights-as-soundlike, feelingsas-soundlike, thoughts-as-soundlike. That is, they must be seen to share precisely the characteristics that originally distinguished sounds: flowingly impermanent, never pre-existing the perception of them, event rather than static object, having no unperceived reverse side, fully exhausted in being perceived, unrevistable, allpervasive, unobstructed, identical-to-the-permanent-perceivingwhich-does-not-stand-beyond-them, undiminished in presence and absence, ungraspability, perceived by a sense-faculty that cannot exist in the same field of perceptibility, and so on. We will return to

this point in the conclusion.

Thus we see that while there are good philological and doctrinal reasons for each of these readings, and each of them gives us a useful way of approaching the actual practice of the Guanyin contemplation of the faculty of hearing, we may perhaps be best advised to keep them juxtaposed in our mind, as a guide to the practice which allows now one aspect, now another, to be emphasized. Heeding the overlap of these approaches, we arrive at a relatively consistent position on the usefulness of the contemplation of hearing, and why it is particularly useful for overcoming pernicious dualisms. We see their intertwining into a notion of hearing as all-pervasive, as neither preexisting nor impermanent, as wholly instantiated in every single sound, as unobstructed, as non-directed (omnidirectional), as beyond the control of the will, and as the most immediate and indubitable manifestation of non-duality of subject and object, and of universal and particular.

5. Implications for General Ontology, Ethics and Epistemology

Let us now examine the implications of making hearing, conceived in this specific sense, as the paradigm by which all other types of awareness and experience are to be understood for general ontology, ethics and epistemology.

In his book, *The Listening Self*, David Michael Levin notes that many of the typical characteristics of Western metaphysics and religion derive directly from the "oculocentrism" it inherited from Greek thought: the assumption of *seeing* as the pre-eminent form of perception, used as a paradigm for all kinds of knowing. Levin notes the following characteristics of sight:

(1) Narcissism: "[W]e know that it is principally through seeing, the power to survey, that the infant first acquires a narcissist sense of its capacity to control objects, and that as early (at least) as the pre-Socratic philosophers, the Greeks were using words

· 136 · 聖嚴研究

for knowing and the object of knowledge which also meant the act of seeing and the object of the *gaze*. Vision and knowledge are inseparable as instruments of power." It is through seeing ourselves, e.g., in a mirror, that we form a sense of our ego, of our selves as a single, coherent and discrete sharply-boundaried being.

- (2) Neglect of temporal finitude in favor of spatiality and eternity: "A massive denial of temporality and impermanence, finitude and mortality." Visual objects stay there even when we look away from them, unlike aural objects. Aural objects are intrinsically temporal, impermanent, and cannot be "revisited." Levin quotes Erwin Straus's comment: "Sound is somewhere between thing and nothing....[It] is something, yet it is not a thing one can manipulate;.... it is not a thing, but neither is it no-thing." Levin comments: "In other words, the nature of sound is such that it denies our hearing an experience of objectivity similar to the experience we enjoy without our vision. Unlike the things that we see, things that endure in the contemporaneous coexistence of spatial entities and belong to the 'omnipresence' of space itself, sounds are transitory and impermanent, ever insubstantial, belonging to the realm of temporality; they cannot be grasped, held, possessed. Thus the nature of sounds deconstructs the ego's sense of identity, its sense of itself as a substantial, self-grounded subjectivity, enjoying an undisputed certainty in a world under its control."
- (3) Sovereignty and hegemony of control: "[T]he totalitarian empire of the panoramic gaze, the most reifying and totalizing of our sensory powers, continue to extend the hegemony of its metaphysics: its ontology, its paradigm of knowledge and truth, total visibility, a uniform field of absolute intelligibility." Vision gives us a total field of objects all at once, filling the gaze as a

plenitude. By integrating them all into a single synchronic system of coexisting objects, we assume power over them as their unifier. As Levin notes, this has kind of oculocentric "control" has two aspects, one "practical and aggressive" and the other "theoretical and contemplative, panoramic, stationary, unmoved, dispassionate, disembodied, outside time and space."

(4) Subjection to the control of the will: "The capacity of the gaze to turn away from the entities it has seen and yet retain an imagine of them in isolation, abstracted from their situational assignments, i.e., as present-at-hand, as vorhanded, enables and encourages our vision to assume a theoretical power that in turn amplifies its practical power over entities." This goes hand-inhand with the previous point: as the unifier of the entire visual field, which we hold before us as a totality, we also have the power to move our gaze within that field at will, to open and close our eyes, to direct our gaze here and there, and even to isolate objects from their specific positions in mentally retained visual images when we look away. We are the sovereign power who arranges, and can also rearrange, all objects in the field. This encourages our sense of the ego as the controller of the world. "[W]e have less control over what we hear.... hearing is inherently a lest controldriven organ.... It is easier for us to shut our eyes than close our ears. It is easier for us to remain untouched and unmoved by what we see than by what we hear; what we see is kept at a distance, but what we hear penetrates our entire body. Sounds do not stop at the boundaries set by the egocentric body; but the egobody of vision can usually maintain its boundaries (inner and outer, here and there, ego and other) more easily. Hearing is intimate, participatory, communicative; we are always affected by what we are given to hear. Vision, by contrast, is endistancing, detached, spatially separate from what gives itself to be seen."

David Michael Levin, *The Listening Self*, London and New York: Routledge, 1989, 29-30.

¹ Ibid., 34.

[©] Ibid., 30.

¹ Ibid., 32.

(5) Motility and "grasping" directionality. This goes hand in hand with the ability to turn toward or away from visual objects. Levin calls it a "frontal ontology, an ontology of entities which, at least in the ideal situation, are to be held 'front and centre': in the most ideal act of beholding, the object is to be *held* in place directly before the eyes. This is the metaphysics of vision: a metaphysics that tends to overvalue constancy, uniformity, permanence, unity, totality, clarity, and distinctness." He further notes, "The motility of the gaze, its distinctive intentionality, has unquestionably motivated a monological and instrumental (*zweckrational*) rationality."

Levin's reflections on sight as opposed to sound as a paradigm for metaphysical reflection resonate powerfully with the sutra. Of particular interest are the emphasis on the unusual properties of sound—its manifest impermanence, its unrevistability, its ambiguous objecthood—and the implications this has for a subjectivity experienced primarily as correlative to sound rather than sight, as well as the untouched distance and aloofness of the visual subject, who stands apart from sights, unsullied by them, as opposed to the immanence of sounds as manifest modifications of the aural field itself: hearing becomes the sounds it hears, while seeing remains always apart from its sight. This makes the ocular subject feel itself as more of a separate and separable self above the fray of perception than the aural subject. Levin's analysis, however, give further emphasis to the problem of the violence implicit in ocularcentric paradigms, closely connected to the question of control of the gaze; in the sutra, on the other hand, a similar issue is addressed rather in terms of the limited conditionality as manifest in the directionality of seeing, its apprehension of only part of the circumambient field of perceptibles, its dependence on the willed act of opening or closing the eyes as a sign of its apparent nonpermanence. This makes of the correlative visual subject something conditional and thus limited and definite, which, like Levin's

mirror-stage reification of the visual self as a coherent being, is the precondition of the obsession with control, which in turn is the ground of the inherent violence of vision.

Levin's analysis in the remainder of his book continues to consider hearing in the context of *communication*: hearing is mainly thought of as the hearing of human speech, a direct embrace of the immediate intersubjective relation which tends, in his view, toward a more egalitarian "communicative reason" in place of the hegemonic instrumental Reason of the ocular tradition. We can perhaps see the parallel but importantly different development in the sutra in the religious thrust of the rest of the passage in question, in particular its intersubjective conclusion:

With arising and extinguishment both extinguished, the quiescent extinguishment of true Nirvana manifests itself, and one instantly transcends both the mundane and the supermundane realms, perfectly illuminating all in the ten directions with two supreme virtues: first, above joining together with all the original wondrous enlightened mind of all Buddhas of the ten directions and sharing equally in their power of compassion, and second, below joining together with all sentient beings of the six paths of existence, sharing equally in their suffering and reverence [for those Buddhas].

In realizing the Nature of Hearing, *Avalokiteśvara* becomes at once all the sounds (the cries of all sentient beings, all necessarily suffering because they are conditional: anything that arises and perishes is conditional, and therefore suffering, and so all the objects of hearing, all sounds, are cries of suffering sentient beings) and the Hearing (the unconditional permanent all-pervasive hearing

● T19, 128b:「生滅既滅,寂滅現前。忽然超越,世出世間,十方圓明,獲

in which they arise and perish, which is therefore the compassionate response to those conditional sufferings. In Buddhism, whatever is conditional is suffering. Whatever arises and perishes is ipso facto conditional. Therefore any and all sounds, even seemingly neutral wisps of aural experience, are by definition suffering, cries of pain. But by the same token, whatever is unconditional is Nirvana, the end of suffering. Sound arises and perishes, sound is conditional, sound is suffering. Hearing is permanent and all-pervasive, hearing is unconditional, hearing is Nirvana. Sound is suffering, hearing is the end of suffering. Every sound is also hearing, all hearing is also sound. By being sounds and hearing, Avalokiteśvara is both the totality of all suffering and the totality of all compassionate responses to that suffering. Both are completely instantiated in each and every instance of sound/hearing, where the sound is the hearing and the hearing is the sound. This is made possible in the Buddhist case because we are centered on the questions of conditionality, suffering and perception, and their specifically Buddhist interrelations, leaving us focused on the question of conditional suffering experience per se. The intersubjective ethical relation grows out of the uniquely Buddhist approach to immanence and transcendence which is manifest in this handling of the hearer-heard relation: the hearer is absolutely transcendent (identifiable with no sound, since sounds arise and perish while hearing can only manifest this arising and perishing because it pre-exists and post-exists it, and thus does not arise and perish) and absolutely immanent (being absolutely nothing identifiable in the absence of sound, having no self-nature of its own). To hear a sound is to be completely sound and completely hearing; to be sound is to be conditional and thus suffering; to be hearing is to be unconditional and thus enlightenment as compassionate response to suffering.

I would like to finish by considering the distinctive advantages of the Buddhist approach in attempting to overcome the perceived shortcomings of visual subjectivity and visual metaphysics. Very briefly, in my view there have been two semi-successful attempts to overcome the dualistic and hegemonic side-effects of the European conceptions of the Absolute: that of Spinoza and that of some of the German idealists, particularly the "Identity-Philosophy" of the early Schelling and Hegel (prior to 1807). Interpretations of both of these systems of thought differ radically, and this is not the place to give a full account of my own interpretations of them. What can be briefly noted, however, is the way that they replace the "picturethinking" of the ocularcentric metaphysics, and its attendant form of Reason ("The second kind of knowledge" in Spinoza, "Verstand" in Schelling and Hegel) with either a deductive apodictic reasoning modeled on mathematics (Spinoza) or artistic creation (Schelling) or history and politics (Hegel) as the true organon of philosophy (a role played, in Levin's case, by Habermasian communicative reason). In the Buddhist case, we have instead conditioned suffering experience as the true paradigm on the basis of which to apprehend the Absolute which is at once Transcendent and Immanent, Monistic and Dualistic, Subject and Object. The great advantage of the latter approach lies first in the egalitarianism of its greater immediacy or availability, for although like the other approaches it does depend on the cultivation of a particular mental discipline which is therefore not shared by all at all times, fully experience is something which by definition is happening at every moment for every subject, no matter how humble or unskilled. Once the special technique of Hearing the Hearing has been accomplished, it necessarily retrospectively posits itself as having always been occurring. But perhaps equally significant is the structure of the relation between the transcendence and the immanence, the dualism and the monism, endemic to this particular understanding of the Absolute. Spinoza's monism is also dualistic (the one substance expressed as two mutually exclusive but mutually identical attributes of Thought and Extension), his dualism is also monistic. The same odd fact is also true in a different way of the Schelling-Hegel Identity Philosophy (the dualism in Spirit's necessarily

• 142 • 聖嚴研究 Hearing the Absolute Hearing • 143 •

positing itself as its own negation as Matter, the monism in the reappropriating negation of this negation). Avalokiteśvara's method, on the other hand, is radically dualistic (Hearing is not sound, Hearing is permanent, unobstructed, unconditioned, while sound is impermanent, limited, conditioned), but when sought in isolation from sound. Hearing is not found as a self-standing entity. Its unconditionality, its permanence, its omnipresence is not something standing over against the conditionality of the sounds to which it is opposed, but is a pure indeterminate, completely lacking in its own self-nature, and this is precisely what makes it permanent and unconditional. Hearing is not sound, but it is not "Hearing" either. Not being Hearing as opposed to Sound, Hearing is present only as Sound. But not being Hearing, it is also not exclusive of Seeing, Feeling, Thinking. Seeing too is nowhere but in sights, but is not sights. Feeling to is nothing but feelings, but is not feelings. Hearing, by being not-sound, is also not Hearing, and this means that it is also not not-seeing, not not-feeling, and so on. Hence the sutra tells us, "As soon as one sense organ has returned to the source, the liberation of all six sense organs is accomplished." 一根既返源,六根成解脱. Not-seeing, however, is precisely seeing, by exactly the same logic: seeing removed from sights is nothing on its own, and it is this alone that allows it to see. Because "Hearing" is at once the all-inclusive absolute and a particular sense-faculty opposed to others, its affirmation as absolute works through its negation as particular, and these are shown to be one and the same. This unique structure means that it is precisely the transcendent dualism that is the immanent monism. This, it seems to me, is an apprehension of the Absolute unavailable outside the unique practices and premises of Chinese Buddhism. It leaves all experience, including cognition, transformed into soundlikeness, as noted above: flowingly impermanent, never preexisting the perception of them, event rather than static object,

having no unperceived reverse side, fully exhausted in being perceived, unrevistable, all-pervasive, unobstructed, identical-to-the-permanent-perceiving-which-does-not-stand-beyond-them, undiminished in presence and absence, ungraspability, perceived by a sense-faculty that cannot exist in the same field of perceptibility

Listen! Who hears the sounds of the world right now? Who, in hearing all sounds, *is* all sounds, and at the same time *is* hearing, which is at once all seeing, all feeling, all thinking? Who in hearing the sounds of the world right now is at once both all conditional suffering and all unconditional resolution of suffering? Who is *Avalokiteśvara*, the Hearer of the Sounds of the World?

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聴聞絕對之聽聞一《楞嚴經·觀音圓通章》的各種詮釋及其現代哲學涵義

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▮摘要

無論以其心性思想或其修證論來講,或者著眼於其文理 脈絡,《大佛頂如來密因修證了義諸菩薩萬行首楞嚴經》 (簡稱《楞嚴經》)可說以所謂〈觀音圓通章〉一段經文為 一經的重心。此一段經文所講的乃是觀音菩薩自述其修證佛 法的方法,即以聽覺為中心的一種修行手法。雖然做為一經 的重心,此一章經文則用字艱澀難解,多容猜疑,歷來註家 字義解釋以及全章詮釋各各不同。聖嚴法師所著《觀音妙 智——觀音菩薩耳根圓通法門講要》,全書亦是專門講此一章,詳細的發揮法師自己的看法。本文乃探討此一章的各種 解釋以及現代哲學涵義,特別著眼於此經如何用這種以聽覺 為中心的模式,來規定宇宙的又超越主客對待、又包容主客 兩面的究竟原理(佛性、心性),以及此種模式的究竟原理 如何可用來解決西洋傳統宗教與思想中,以視覺為中心的模 式來規定的宇宙究竟原理所帶來的某些問題。

關鍵詞:觀音圓通章、觀音法門、楞嚴經、入流亡所、聞性、視覺中心主義、註釋變換

Empowerment and Mutual Adaptation:

Exploring the Care for Vulnerable Workers by Social Enterprises in the Light of the Workplace Ethics of the Mind

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Abstract

This paper investigates the role and functions of social enterprises in empowering vulnerable people. We explore the Sunny Kitchen approach to empowering vulnerable women in Taiwan. Specifically, we analyze the methods and policies implemented by this social enterprise to suggest newer and improved alternatives to developing mutual adaptation in the workplace. Our findings incorporate aspects of the Ethics of the Mind formulated by Dharma Drum Mountain, Othus yielding robust workplace ethics elements necessary to empowering the vulnerable people. This study contributes to the field of social enterprising by revealing critical factors important to dealing with vulnerable people.

Key words: empowerment, social enterprise, Six Ethics of the Mind, workplace ethics, vulnerable worker, mutual adaptation

① Dharma Drum Mountain (法鼓山; Pronounced "Fagu Shan") is an international Buddhist Foundation by late Master Shengyen covering spiritual, educational, social and cultural aspects; the Foundation is headquartered in the Jinshan District, New Taipei City, Taiwan (ROC).

1. Introduction

Committed to the mission of uplifting the character of humanity and to building a pure haven on earth, the Dharma Drum Mountain (herein referred to as DDM) advocates the Six Ethics of the Mind that promote purification, peace, happiness and health in the world; the DDM is yet one the most influential Buddhist organization in the Chinese Buddhism environment and its reputation stemming from Master Shengyen proven charisma is widely known and appreciated. This advocacy entails family ethics, living ethics, school ethics, environmental consciousness ethics, workplace ethics, and interethnic relations ethics. Emanating from Master Shengyen's teachings, the six ethics share the same basic principles: fulfillment of one's duties and mutual care in interpersonal relations.

The identification and practice of workplace ethics is incontestably opportune, a good way to improve employees' morality and thus boost performance at work. Moreover the charismatic outreach of these principles makes them an ad-hoc approach for dealing with vulnerable populations. The latter in most parts being crippled by the lack of abilities, readiness, and social support usually face big challenges in simply finding jobs especially permanent ones. Their fragile self-esteem and selfconfidence put such a pressure on them that in some cases they tend to resign, misinterpret remarks from colleagues or self-isolate; and they also experience difficulties to focus on their tasks. Generally speaking these behavioral patterns exert some negative impacts on the mentality and work ethics. Given their relative powerlessness or inability to self-awareness, the task is for any current or potential employer to emphasize on improving the workplace atmosphere and developing collective rather than individual learning schemes.

The workplace ethics is a critical aspect for businesses in general and is especially delicate with regard to those dealing with vulnerable people. In that respect, social enterprises particularly may play a pivotal role in balancing the social values development and business competitiveness. A failure to identify the specific dimensional importance for strengthening workplace ethics for the vulnerable people and therefore designing appropriate training programs that will rebuild or enhance professional ethics and positive workplace attitudes, could subsequently engender the failure of any skills development to produce the expected results. On the other hand if the training process successfully integrates skills development and workplace ethics it will enhance the skills learning and build positive and strong workplace ethics.

From a psychological point of view, effectively enhancing workplace values and methods represent the employer's commitment toward the workers to letting them experience some kind of family-like care that they might be missing. The same way such policy has the potential to stage a mutual adaptation process between employer and workers for the edification of workplace ethics.

The current research is conducted upon a social enterprise operating vegetarian restaurants, the Sunny Kitchen (hereafter referred to as SK). They have focused on the use of counseling and assisted skill learning combined with heuristic work ethics to develop training schemes for the vulnerable women in Taiwan. We table on the experiences of this social enterprise and explore how an integration of its results with the Six Ethics of the Mind could be replicated in other social enterprises and possibly drive more significant outcomes:

- (1) Explore the combination of technical skills and heuristic work ethics in the training of vulnerable women.
- (2) Investigate the significance of the impact of Master Shengyen ethical principles in empowering vulnerable workers by social enterprises.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section II presents and discusses relevant theories and works on empowering vulnerable people in general and women in particular and also the importance of workplace ethics. Section III provides extensive

summary of the SK situation and the relevant issues related to the training of the workers. Section IV presents our findings and solutions for effectively and sustainably empowerment of the vulnerable people and the subsequent benefits of such policy to the business unit and the society. Section V concludes by refining our remarks.

2. Literature Review

The focus on women's vulnerability has its roots in the UN action for women rights with highlights in the 1975 International women's year, the 1975 First World Conference on Women (Mexico City). Especially the keynote came from the creation of the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) in 1976 setting the UN decade for women from 1976-1985. As of 1979 the UN General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). These policies were to set forth a framework for governments to address the issues that the women were facing in different societies around the world.

Further, the September 1995 Beijing Platform For Action has formulated the 12 Critical Areas of Concern which entail Women and Poverty, Education and Training of Women, Women and Health, Violence against Women, Women and Armed Conflict, Women and the Economy, Women in Power and Decision-making, Institutional Mechanism for the Advancement of Women, Human Rights of Women, Women and the Media, Women and the Environment, The Girl-child.

The empowerment of women has therefore been taken to all stages of the social sphere and the 2010 Beijing+15 saw the participation of 3,440 NGO representatives (representing 463 NGOs) from 138 countries at the fifty-fourth session of the Commission on the Status of Women (Landman, 2011).

Empowerment, especially for women, however implies

tackling different issues in different countries. For example in many African and Middle East countries, empowering vulnerable women means enhancing literacy, hygiene and basic disease prevention, entrepreneurship and employment etc. These factors of vulnerability are heavily due to an overall economic underdevelopment and the cultural shackles; hence the strategic approach is somehow different as it is still the dependent on the implementation of broad political framework for development according to the sixth African Development Forum (Addis Ababa, 2008). In a sense, empowerment still could be viewed as from the public domain.

In Taiwan however there is a framework put forward by the government to identify vulnerable people and provide them ad-hoc assistance. But many social enterprises have risen to address the issue as part of corporate social responsibilities (CSR), independent foundations as well as NGOs.

2.1 Issues regarding employment and training for vulnerable people in Taiwan

As of June, 2012, Taiwan's employed population was 10.82 million while the unemployed represented 0.477 million (4.21% of the labor force). The statistics did not reflect a widened gap between the rich and the poor. The government did implement some measures to resolve employment problems, but the interventions were basically short-term programs, short-term subsidies or temporary, low-level jobs. Subsequent increasing economic inequalities became a pressing issue. Between 2009 and 2010, low-income families increased by 28%; and the income gap reached 6.19, as measured by the ratio of the average disposable income of the top 20% households to the bottom 20%. The situation of the vulnerable people has since become more critical in the job market. The unemployment rates of people with disabilities or the indigenous people were much higher than the national average. Awareness of the vulnerable people situation became

crucial along with initiatives to reduce the threshold.

The notion of vulnerability has some slight nuances in the job market. According to the Taiwanese Employment Services Act, the categories of vulnerable groups include people who are the sole income providers of the family, people with disabilities, people at middle or old age, indigenous people, people in low-income households and beneficiaries of any welfare support, and people experiencing long-term unemployment. In addition to the abovementioned six vulnerable groups, the Council of Labor Affairs of the Executive Yuan identified and provides support for people who are rehabilitated, family women seeking to re-enter the job market, people with special needs, victims of domestic or sexual violence, victims of crime or trafficking, people from middle- or low-income households, vulnerable job-seeking youth, people from high-risk families or households with economic vulnerability, and foreign or mainland Chinese spouses with work eligibility.

The government provided various policy measures to address the employment issue for vulnerable people; in order to promote employment and to increase job opportunities for vulnerable people, the government adopted large-scale policy incentives for businesses that offer jobs for the vulnerable people. However at the organizational and individual levels, it proved very difficult improving the employment prerequisites with disintegrated policy assistances. In the practice, these policy measures often treated employment promotion, job trainings, and social support as separate issues, and there was a lacking of integration among policies (Yen, 2001; Chen et. al., 2004). Employment programs focused on mitigating the unemployment problem by offering short-term compensations or temporary work opportunities. The burden of training and the concern of "job fit" were shifted mainly to the employers who participated in those policy programs. Subsequently conflicts have emerged between the employers and the workers as most workers did consider that they were being paid by the government, not by their actual employers. Employment

programs, such as Multiple Employment Development Program turned out to have no significant positive impact on employment stability for vulnerable workers (Lin, 2009).

2.2 Social enterprises and work integration for vulnerable women

The three prerequisites for employment for vulnerable people are job opportunities, work abilities, and supporting conditions (family support as well as social support) (Hu et. al., 2011). Social enterprises can play a pivotal role in work integration. Contrast to traditional profit-oriented business enterprises or philanthropic charities, social enterprises aim to manage double bottom lines (i.e., social and economic goals), addressing social needs through business operations. Social enterprises have the potential to transform all incentive policies into integrated employment initiatives, and work integration social enterprises (WISEs) have become an important vehicle to tackling the problem of unemployment for the disadvantaged or vulnerable people. WISEs are defined as economic entities which main goal is work integration for people experiencing serious difficulties in the labor market; and this goal is achieved by offering professional trainings to boost productivity through four models: Transitional occupation, creation of permanent self-financed jobs, professional integration with permanent subsidies, and socialization through a productive activity. (Davister et al., 2004).

Many WISEs are sheltered workshops created by nonprofit organizations. In Taiwan, there were a total of 104 government-subsidized sheltered workshops providing approximately sixteen hundred employment opportunities for vulnerable people (Council of Labor Affairs, 2011). To address the employment issue and to provide permanent self-financed jobs for vulnerable people, some WISEs do not rely on governmental subsidies but aim to be market competitive and financially independent. The Sunny Kitchen belongs to this category.

While there are many empirical researches on job training in Taiwan, few are specifically focused on vulnerable women (Yu et. al., 2007). Lin & Tu (2010) have provided substantial information on the employment needs of female victims of domestic violence. The research found that most women who experienced domestic violence were willing to work, but the main barriers to getting a job included but not limited to: lack of professional skills, age, low educational degree, and time conflict between work and family duties. They suggested that vulnerable women needed an integrated employment services process that include four main stages: (1) a sheltered workshop where vulnerable women can gradually be familiar with the work requirements, needed skills, and workplace rules; (2) self-adaptation for job development, that women develop work interest and skills, self-confidence, and social skills, in addition to being able to cope with child care, family care, and financial concerns; (3) job market assistance that help women to get job information, prepare for job interviews, and be involved in a supporting group, and (4) continuous support for employed women.

2.3 Workplace Ethics of the Mind

The DDM in its advocacy for better living conditions has set forth the Six Ethics of the Mind as the springboard to achieving purification, peace, happiness and health in the world. These social principles include family ethics, living ethics, school ethics, environmental consciousness ethics, workplace ethics, and interethnic relations ethics. Buddhist Master Shengyen's teachings summarize the six ethics around these basic principles: the "mind" as the foundation, and the emphasis on fulfillment of one's duties and mutual care in interpersonal relations. The following paragraphs extensively discuss key aspects of the workplace ethics of the mind as suggested by Master Shengyen.

The "Six Ethics of the Mind" is a collection of Master Shengyen's main thoughts regarding Workplace Ethics. In addition,

we searched the electronic database of the Complete Works of Master Shengyen, a catalogue of 100 books in order to establish a quasi-exhaustive knowledge about Master Shengyen's teaching on workplace ethics. The word "ethics (倫理)" appeared 539 times in the collection, while "ethics & work (倫理&工作)" gave 30 results. "Workplace (職場)" had 9 accounts, and "Employee & employer (員工&老闆)" appeared 25 times. Overall, our word search indicated that, in the Complete Works of Master Shengyen, five books are quite directly relevant for workplace ethics: *The Human Life, The Dharma Drum Mountain Way, Reason and Tenderness, Master Shengyen on Protecting the Spiritual Environment, Footpath*, and *Peaceful World*. ②

(1) Fulfilling One's Duties

Master Shengyen emphasizes that in essence ethics is about fulfilling one's duties (*The Dharma Drum Mountain's Way*, 519; *The Human Life*, 140) which makes the living more meaningful; this also entails differentiating clearly "equality" and "fairness." The former is from the Buddhist doctrine of "impartiality" with a personal commitment to treat all beings equally, while the latter depicts a "discriminatory mind" by which one desires fair treatment by others. The Master's teachings put an emphasis on the equality between all people; therefore even though the tasks and roles may be different, but the roles and duties remain intrinsically equal. Hence the focus of ethics is rather fulfilling duties than probing unfairness (*Reason and Tenderness*, 85; *Peaceful World*, 119).

(2) Mutual Care

Master Shengyen encourages us to see all types of organizations, business enterprises, nonprofit organizations, or governmental units, as a community of life (*Master Shengyen on Protecting the Spiritual Environment*, 51). In this respect, he pointed out that, from the workplace ethics of the mind's standpoint a

❷《人間世》、《法鼓山的方向》、《是非要溫柔》、《聖嚴法師心靈環保》、《人行道》、《平安的人間》。

business corporation does not belong to the boss but belong to all stakeholders (Reason and Tenderness, 15-16, 21). He made a parallel between human body and corporation, suggesting that a corporation that gives care to its employees can be compared to a person caring about his own organs (Reason and Tenderness, 40, 42). All stakeholders of a corporation should give in to their best to fulfill their duties, as do all organs perform properly in the human body. The Mutual Care principle means cultivating a pleasant, cooperative, and harmonious workplace where everybody actively seeks ways to interact with, support, and benefit others (Peaceful World, 21). However the care for others is not synonym of being a "yes-man" regardless of the consideration of responsibilities and job quality that one is entitled to. For Master Shengyen, kind and compassionate managers know how to give their care to others while fulfilling their supervising work (Footpath, 93; Master Shengyen on Protecting the Spiritual Environment, 129).

3. Methodology

3.1 Case Selection

This study chose the Sunny Kitchen as the primary data collection field for the study. One reason is that the Sunny Kitchen, a successful social enterprise committed to empowering vulnerable women by offering them training, self-employment and work opportunities, fits well the purpose of the current study. The second reason is the strong mutual trust between this social enterprise and the researcher who serves as pro bono management consultant since 2008. Another strong argument is that the approaches (rooted in Buddhist principles) undertaken by the manager of this social enterprise are rarely stressed on if not inexistent in many other social enterprises.

3.2 Background of the Sunny Kitchen

The Sunny Kitchen organized human, economic, social resources to sustain a vegetarian cafeteria that serve vulnerable women and other stakeholders. The Sunny Kitchen was established in 2001 by the Association for Community Resource Sharing in Taiwan. The Association was founded in 1998, dedicating itself to fostering mutual care in communities and to improving living standards. The Kitchen initiated a pioneering community-service program in Taipei that trained and hired vulnerable women to provide meals for the elderly living alone in different communities. The program successfully created a sustainable model of mutual care between vulnerable women and the seniors living alone.

In 2009, the Association expanded its social impact by turning the Kitchen into an all vegetarian cafeteria which incorporates environmental and health consciousness into the social entrepreneurial efforts for the mutual care of vulnerable women. Basically the SK welcomes any vulnerable woman identified or who has initiate a connection with the Cafeteria. The manager will talk with the woman to know her background, motivation, and overall abilities. Workers are assigned tasks according to their abilities. The manager identifies four general categories with regard to work abilities:

"Category A" workers who are creative and can autonomously complete their tasks and be creative enough to cope with challenges arising throughout the whole process;

"Category B" workers just need to have some standard operating procedures set up and follow them strictly to carry out their tasks. They don't need close supervision as long as the standards and well predefined;

"Category C" workers in addition to having some standard operating procedures set require assistance and monitoring in completing their tasks;

"Below C" workers can be hardly assigned regular tasks in the kitchen nor be trained in a normal way. These latter are just granted

the financial support they need and are subject to a follow up by the manager as they usually are not suitable to work at the cafeteria.

3.3 Data Collection

The research used open-ended interviewing as the primary qualitative research device (Seidman, 1998). From September 2011 to April 2012, the researchers interviewed the manager/trainer for three times thus getting a deep understanding of the management concepts of the enterprise. The researchers also interviewed the three workers working at the SK at the time. The interviews provided information regarding how important workplace ethics is to the management of the SK and the workers' learning attitude and abilities, as well as how a social enterprise adapts itself to achieve better result in empowering vulnerable workers. The length of the each interview ranged from 1 to 1.5 hours. All interviews were recorded and transcribed for analysis. The researchers also visited the enterprise for three times and each visit lasted from 2 to 3 hours. The purpose of the actual site visits is to observe how the enterprise actually operates, how the training is delivered, and how the group dialogue is conducted. In addition to the interviews and site visits, relevant documents, such as trainees' guide, trainer's personal notes, and meeting minutes, were collected.

According to the manager, vulnerable women background in the kitchen: single mother, women experienced domestic violence, women with minor mental problems (such as anxiety, patient with minor Asperger syndrome), women lacking work experiences or specialization, or being unemployed for some considerable time. Table 1 provides a glance of the background of the women that have been involved in the training of the Sunny Kitchen.

Table 1. Vulnerable Women Participatied in the Sunny Kitchen (2001~2012)									
Number of Women trained since 2001	Age	Marital Status	Average education	Ethnicity	Training time	Pay (Current)			
100 (approx.)	17~55	Married/ unmarried	Low (mostly middle school)	Chinese/ Aborigines	$2 \sim 24$ months	NTD 140/hr (USD 4.7/hr)			

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Workplace Ethics of the Mind

The Sunny Kitchen is a social enterprise initiative to help the vulnerable women get some occupation with remuneration in order to overcome financial challenges. The women carry in their minds some shackles so deeply rooted that they have come to lose selfconfidence. Hence the necessity to empower them so that they find themselves fit in their jobs, in their workplace and in the society as a whole. The work at the cafeteria is similar to housework in a family; therefore, most women can do the work after some basic training. Workers need to learn a variety of skills working in the cafeteria, such as receiving customers, taking orders, preparing foods, cleaning tables, doing dishes, cleaning the environment, checking inventories, and buying groceries, etc. The findings about the situation of these vulnerable housewives suggest different approaches to tackling their challenges and implementing viable solutions; we refer to the Six Ethics of the Mind campaign by the Dharma Drum Mountain to develop some solutions.

4.2 Conformation and Adaptation to Rules

Women with different degrees of social difficulties and frustrations are brought together to work together in a kitchen. From such interactions arise conflicts that tend to embitter the relations between them. There have been cases where one housewife complained about the fact that she was working harder than others do. This observation is inherent to the basic division of labor and the description of the scope of task and level of involvement expected from each participant. Therefore some do take themselves as the standard against which others efforts should be gauged.

Eventually being all under different social pressures and coming from media as varied as the number of participants, it is capital to see oneself as part of a whole, a family-like workplace where efforts and competencies are complementary. The process requires that each of them adapts, however the time to adapt do differ based on physical barriers or functional and learning barriers. Referring to the Living Ethic principle we suggest all the housewives should be enrolled in such a process encompassing values of respect and acceptance of others independently from their level of performance at the workplace; on the one hand this will allow those with adaptation difficulties to overcome frustrations through continuous support from others. Some women who fail to meet the standard show their frustrations in such ways like "is it that serious?", "Don't be too strict." On the other hand the housewives who quickly adapt and even become more productive do move on from picturing themselves as being exploited to full understanding of their role in the construction of a better work environment.

The manager developed standardized operational procedures so as to strengthen the efficiency of the kitchen. Efficiency implies not only cost consideration but also to provide a good working environment to produce quality food for the customers at a very competitive price. This emphasis on efficiency seems to be contrary to a stereotyped nonprofit organization with warm, family-like working atmosphere. Yet, as a self-sufficient social enterprise, efficiency gives the social enterprise the market competitiveness it needs to achieve its mission. One result is that the Kitchen is able to offer the women higher pays and give them more flexibility in the tasks and schedules.

A specificity of the Sunny Kitchen is that unlike the classic businesses there are more direct interactions between managers and workers. Although the women are by moments associated to the establishment of rules governing the functioning and the standard operating processes there are still signs that they are sometimes maladapted. The job is as ordinary to a woman as cooking, however the processes are standardized at Sunny Kitchen and the workers have some minor problems adapting. Cooking is the specialty

of women and some have even built up some micro powers of their own in cooking based on their level of expertise; these are sometimes irreducible to abiding the standards established. Others are not really familiar with cooking and find themselves weakened and catching up difficultly. Working at a restaurant is extremely busy and most housewives experienced "cultural shocks" working in the Kitchen. A woman shared her experience:

She (the manager) taught me how to slide vegetarian ham. It's very easy and I knew very well how to do it. But she insisted I must not slide the ham as I used to. She taught me to slide the ham in a specific way so as to minimize the unused part. She also taught me how to follow SOP to make noodles. Here at Sunny Kitchen everything has a SOP! In the beginning I very much disliked those details. Now I know they are really necessary.

An empowerment here means making the cooking more specializing in such a way that the workers perceive value in it, different from what they used to do at home, and further, that they vest themselves fully in the learning process. The context is very good to empower a woman in a sense that within a household, the kitchen is really the place where the woman can enjoy some feelings of sovereignty and full use of her power. Training and empowerment shall therefore allow for the woman to connect rules and instructions with values and meanings, rather than passively receive instructions; the latter one leaves her in frustration because she has feelings of being stripped out of her power. Concurrently the more these women make theirs the skills they are being taught, their power increases along with their level of self-confidence. They need to understand and adapt that efficiency implies respect to the self, the work, and to the customer.

It should be noted that, while workers need to follow procedures and rules in the kitchen, they are encouraged to reflect and discuss rules or issues with the manager and with each other, especially at the group dialogue sessions. Group dialogue provides a facilitated reflection process for vulnerable women to confront the conflicts at work. The group dialogue aims to raise the workers' awareness about their mind-sets, self-images, relationships, and histories and to make meaningful connections between their lives and the workplace. The manager recalled a group discussion about how to make a dish of butternut squash:

I taught them (workers) to peel and make a dish using butternut squash. After the technical training, we had a group discussion. I asked them whether or not they peel butternut squash at home and why. Some said yes, for the peel is hard and not tasty. Some others said they did not peel butternut squash because the peel is nurtrious. I then asked them to think why the Sunny Kitchen chose to peel butternut squash. The discussion continued for about another 30 minutes. I want all of them to know why so that they can share it with the customer. So they can talk to the customer just like talking to their family members or friends. They are afraid of talking to customers. The peeling of butternut squash is just an opportunity for them to talk and to connect the work with their home experiences. Then they can be less afraid of talking to customers.

Hence, by identifying and confronting the challenges in the workplace, the group dialogue fosters a better understanding of responsibilities of work, senses of community and intimacy, and the meanings in work and in life.

4.3 Communication and Equanimity

The case of the Sunny Kitchen has revealed some serious problems arising from communication between the participating housewives. As mentioned in the past sections, the workers are assigned tasks according to their basic abilities to learn and to react to the different situations. Naturally this basic distinction reveals some differences that may influence interactions among the workers. There may arise communication gaps, intrinsically inherent to their individual characters and personality types, such as omissions in speaking, which is typical at home but tend to create misunderstanding and inefficiency at work. On some few occasions when these women need service from others, they usually laconic statements, making it difficult for colleagues to catch the details. The manager told a real story to highlight the importance for the workers to be able to use more precise words in the workplace:

Anna is making a dish. She said loudly to Betty, "Bring me some green onion." Betty did. But Betty did not cut the green onion into pieces. Anna was unhappy about it because, in the middle of making a dish, she had no time to cut green onion by herself. She think Betty would be smart enough to know what she needed were "green onion in short pieces"—ready to be putting into the pot. But Anna can improve her communication by saying more precisely about what she needs.

Another communication problem is emotional sensitivity. Some women are highly words-sensitive and this is dependent of their degree of equanimity or personal background. Therefore, ignoring these aspects can create resentments that may lead to adverse reactions or self-isolation. The manager shared an experience:

One day, Anna was making rice dumplings. She put both pots with fillings and plates with rice dumplings on a not-so-big kitchen desk. Betty just walked by and saw a pot near the edge of the desk. Being afraid that the pot would be knocked over, she pushed the pot a little further inside yet squeezed the plates and a pot. That pot almost dropped. Anna yelled "why touch my things?" "I saw the pot was about to fall," replied Betty. Anna said "I had placed the pots like that too many times and

the pots never fell." Betty defended "I was helping you." At the group dialogue session, I asked Anna, Betty and other workers to reflect why the conflict happened and what changes could be made to make things better? Through the group session, Anna realized that she was easily annoyed by others and felt offended. Betty discovered that she needed to pay attention to the boundary between people as well as the importance of communication.

These women's vulnerable social position undermined by frustrations requires that one be very delicate through the words, the tone and attitudes. The time pressure is very high during the dining hours. The workers need to complete an order in a few minutes. So the Sunny Kitchen has tried to reduce communication and coordination problems by reducing interactions between the women once they are in the kitchen: each one has her kit so they don't have to share the cooking tools or waste time waiting.

Personal attitudes constitute another type of challenge contributing to creating uncomfortable workplace feelings. Some workers fail for instance to inform the Sunny Kitchen manager of their absence. Yet they don't think it really matters to engage in such preventive measures. This creates mixed feeling, if not frustrations, from both the colleagues and the managers because some readjustments need to be made leaving coworkers with heavier workloads. However when the women who defaulted are reminded of the setbacks associating with such behaviors, they usually take it personal worsening thus the workplace ambiance. For illustration, an absent woman was afraid to call in to inform her absence. Hence the importance for developing good communication methods that builds on the full knowledge of the challenges that each worker faces personally and that they do not necessarily have confidence or knowledge to deal with those conflicts.

Involving with the vulnerable women also requires that the

manager be charismatic enough or at least she must always pay a great attention to the psychological, emotional and character relative clues and deal with them with finesse; this is very important especially in so far as these vulnerable women are concerned. Tackling this aspect means concretely empowering the vulnerable women so that they really find a fit in their job, most plausible way to creating a viable workplace ambiance where all workers share real feelings of fulfillment through confidence, mutual trust and support and skills development. One afternoon, the researchers visited the Sunny Kitchen and witnessed how the manager demonstrated adaptability, resilience, and care in handling an urgent issue that she was short of workers for the evening hours of that day. There were only two inexperienced workers and the manager herself available for the evening. The manager called for a group meeting to decide what to do with the evening. The two newly recruited workers were invited to discern whether or not to close the cafeteria in the evening due to the shortage of workers. One suggested that they should still open the cafeteria because the three of them would be able to handle the dinner hours, despite the shortage of workers and the intensified work pressure. She pointed out the importance of customer satisfaction and revenues. The other worker raised the doubts that only the manager could handle the cooking well. It would be messy for them to face so many customers and dinner orders. The group reflection seemed to give the manager a space to come up with innovative solutions. She suggested that they could use the afternoon to concentrate on preparing two specific dinner items: noodle and fried rice with mixed vegetables. By doing so, they could greatly reduce the pressure to fulfill a wide variety of dinner orders that could not be handled by the inexperienced workers. They would also be able to open the cafeteria in the evening and generate revenues. The manager taught the two workers how they could share with the customer about the shortage of hands and the changes in the menu for that evening, asking for customers' understanding and

sympathy. The evening thus became a special event for the workers and the customers to express their mutual caring.

The workplace ethics of the mind put forward by the DDM stresses on the importance of the workplace as a medium where people through interactions with others fulfill their duties, become enthusiastic workers, give of themselves to others, and helping colleagues achieve their own goals. In the Sunny Kitchen case, the Manager who is a fervent Buddhism practitioner has considered her role as also a self-discovering process, a spiritual growth. She has realized that in addition to the lack of skills her employees were also missing some other values, interpersonal, personality related values. But aware of her own barriers at the human side she usually experiences tough communication problems with the workers; and she does not find herself entitled to address problems in others character that she had not resolved in her own personality; and she does not really dig into the past of the workers but never refute any new worker. Therefore the manager sends out workers once they have reached 60-70% of skills development. Even though aware of the human side values, that she reckon are critically fading from the society as a whole but could be reinforced by social enterprises, she does not address them in so far as her own employees are concerned. Of course the employees get fully empowered and become more successful in the society but she believes the backbone is still missing which is communicating moral values development, spiritual development for the completeness of the benefits to the society.

We suggest that the workplace must develop positive emulations where colleagues help each other, discuss openly on how to overcome difficulties and barriers; there must not be wild and unconstructive competitions where each worker only sees her set of duties and fail to see the intertwined connection with others coworkers tasks. This view is consistent with ideals of mutual care meaning cultivating a pleasant, cooperative, and harmonious workplace where everybody actively seeks ways to interact with,

support, and benefit others (*Peaceful World*, 21) suggested by Master Shengyen. In the SK case we have made some observations of clustering, building groups and isolating other housewives on different grounds. The workplace becomes divided between influential women, the weak and isolated women and a third group of those women who do not align themselves with any of the former groups, but rather develop consensus making attitudes with all colleagues. The Sunny Kitchen is an enterprising initiative developed to ensure employment and reintegration of vulnerable housewives, so it is crucial to address such problems adding up to the existing frustrations of the workers. The principle of Mutual Care appropriately explains how to reach good outcomes in helping the workers interiorize shared values that spread beyond the organization itself.

The housewives, also vulnerable people, suffer different frustrations from being jobless and being condescendingly looked at. The jobs that they usually are offered are really humble ones (kitchen work) putting them at first in a situation of acceptanceresistance. The job most critically requires equanimity which unfortunately is ignored or overlooked when dealing with these vulnerable women, who face frustrations, and further they find themselves in very precarious situations; yet at this stage they still have a high sense of self, develop self-empathy as hostile attitudes arise from their immediate social environment. Eventually that sense of self sometimes constitutes a barrier to their learning process or adaptation. Because they accept jobs that otherwise they would not have agreed to do, some attention must be granted to that aspect of equanimity, though dealing with this aspect might prove challenging sometimes as evidenced in the case of SK; the DDM preaching come in handy with considerations that managers need to know and interiorize first and effectively communicate them to the workers.

5. Conclusion: Self Discovering through Service to Others

The Sunny Kitchen case provides a promising perspective on how social enterprises can effectively empower vulnerable people, straighten and restore the torn social values that have occasioned such vulnerabilities. More specifically, most of the women who have gone through the training process have effectively reached a certain level of empowerment; many have benefited from starter funding to run their own businesses or have been hired in some local businesses. Eventually some of them fail to reintegrate the society and get back to the SK. The manager receives them for she believes that one must fail at least seven or eight times in order to be sure to reach a success once the training completed and that they undertake to develop. Actually this is more about the combination of humanistic values and technical knowledge within an organization.

The first level of empowerment however has been for the manager to allow and encourage these housewives to recover their decision making rights; in a sense this entails enrolling them into a participatory decision making process and granting them freedom of initiatives so that when they are assigned with a task in any given sequence order, that they freely complete it in any sequence order that better reflects them, matches or enhances their capabilities and helps them interiorize the process. In doing so many of the women moved quickly from being instructed and monitored to being actively initiating and undertaking tasks with higher sense of responsibility that transcends a mere execution of assigned work.

We also argue that social enterprising should not be a fashionable concept but true social rehabilitation and empowerment tool; this dimension is fully embedded in the Six Ethics of the Mind. The principles developed by Master Shengyen are highly meaningful in the fact that they remind any organization, corporate and social enterprises that taking care of the disadvantaged people

should no more be seen as an act of commiseration but rather as a golden opportunity for an outspoken self-assessment and self-correction. However how the Six Ethics of the Mind can replace the "CSR fashion" within corporate should be left to future studies. In this instance the manager of SK confessed having recovered the inner peace that she had lost for many years; she were able to reunite with her mother after 30 years of separation. Her experience in empowering the vulnerable people and promoting vegetarianism was described this way "Put your heart, you don't always have to set a goal".

Empowering means also restoring hope that is of an intangible dimension, which touches the essence of life and the fundaments of the society itself. The way to that hope can and is being paved by social enterprises; but reaching that hope and ensuring the society, as a whole, sustainability requires that we spread and incorporate the six ethics of the mind in any organization, should it be for profit or non-profit.

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培力與相互調適 ——社會企業關懷弱勢就業者之 「職場心倫理」探究

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▮摘要

本文以陽光廚房社會企業培力弱勢婦女為案例,探究社會企業培力弱勢就業者之角色與功能。從法鼓山「心六倫」之職場倫理觀點視之,研究發現社會企業將技術訓練與職場倫理學習相結合,有助於弱勢就業者在培訓過程中同時提昇工作操作技術並建立正向之職場倫理觀;此外,對弱勢就業者之培力有賴於管理者與員工之相互學習與調適,共同開展社會企業倫理內涵與方法。

關鍵詞:培力、社會企業、心六倫、職場倫理、弱勢就業者、相互調適

規畫法鼓山成為金山/北海岸 地區面對複合性災害之區域急難 救助公共空間

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▮摘要

法鼓山的方法——「提倡全面教育,落實整體關懷」。 此研究正是要規畫願景與實務方案來建立法鼓山成為金山/ 北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間,並 且具有引導避災、應變災害與心靈歸屬功能的區域中心,讓 此區域的民眾心安平安,知福幸福。本研究依此理念,提出 「法鼓山於金山地區災害應對策略藍圖」,並分類成「災害 前」、「災害後」與「地方災害行動研究」三個行動項目, 以落實法鼓山整體關懷計畫的一環。

本研究以金山/北海岸地區之地理資訊系統(Geographic Information System, GIS)為主要的研究工具,進行此地區的環境基本背景分析,以及完成評估此地區可能遭受的自然環

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境災害與複合性災害的狀況,包括水災、土石流、斷層/地震、海嘯與核災等;這其中法鼓山園區距離山腳斷層僅約1.5公里,以及與核一廠、核二廠直線距離分別僅約為5.7公里與6.2公里,將會是所面對最大的災害威脅所在。另外,針對新北市所公告的二十九處與金山區公所所公告的十處金山區避難社區公共空間,進行空間之現況分析與調查,結果發現新北市所公告者,僅有四處地方處於海嘯發生時較安全的區域,而金山區公所所公告者,僅有一處處於較安全的區域,即絕大部分公部門所規畫的避難社區公共空間均位於海嘯高度危險區域。另外,本研究已繪製出金山區域遭遇海嘯時受災的範圍、影響的人口數與逃生方向的路線等,並以金山綜合高中與國小為範例,分析逃生路線與建築物之海拔高度安全性評估。

在本研究所提出的「法鼓山於金山地區災害應對策略藍圖」中,僅少數議題項目有初步的展開,如「災害前」中的「災害模擬」項目,其中的「定點演習」已有計畫逐步展開,而「區域評估」即為此報告所揭露的研究內容。未來依然有相當多的重要課題等待執行。

關鍵詞:全面教育、逃生路線、海嘯、地理資訊系統、區域中心

一、研究計畫之背景及目的

一九八九年春天簡樸的農禪寺大殿,六十歲的聖嚴法師 帶領著一千多位菩薩,持誦二十一遍〈大悲咒〉感應覓得法 鼓山的故事。

法鼓山在二〇〇五年的十月二十一日——觀世音菩薩出家日,正式落成開山,為廣大的眾生服務。法鼓山的落成開山大典,以更謙卑感恩的態度和發願迴向的心念,來傳達法鼓山所堅持的理想和對後代子孫不變的承諾。法鼓山位於新北市金山區三界村,坐落在北部濱海公路與陽金公路交會的一處山坡上,三面環山,雙溪交抱,坐北向南;左有高崗聳立,如古鐘懸空,俯瞰法鼓山地形,則似巨鼓縱臥。聖嚴法師集合了十方善信功德,建設一個整合教育、修行、文化的「法鼓山世界佛教教育園區」。

然而近日在日本發生強烈地震引發海嘯之後,臺灣日前 也首度發布海嘯警報,儘管最後只是一場虛驚,但同樣處在 環太平洋地震帶上的臺灣,非但建築耐震力較差,防災的法 規及經驗又遠不如日本,一旦面臨同樣規模的地震或海嘯, 後果勢將更為嚴重,尤其是法鼓山所處的金山地區。

在日本,除了防災救難體系分工明確,效率一流,而且 還將遍布各地的量販店納入,使民間力量融入救災體系;更 重要的是,日本發生重大災難之後,不分朝野,都把所有力 量和資源用在救災工作,至於責任的追究則暫時擱置。他山 之石可以攻錯,日本這次強震,臺灣雖然倖免於難,卻未必 能保證永遠不會發生類似災變,所以政府固然要全面檢視防 災體系,即時補強漏洞,民眾也要做好準備。我們法鼓山能做什麼呢?

法鼓山的共識中,涵括內容有:理念、精神、方針、方法,每一項皆由兩句話勾勒出其意義。其中法鼓山的方法——「提倡全面教育,落實整體關懷」,而「落實整體關懷」正是此計畫題目的一部分。此計畫正是要規畫願景與實務方案來建立法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間,並且具有引導避災、應變災害與心靈歸屬功能的區域中心,讓此區域的民眾心安平安,知福幸福。

二、研究方法

(一)金山/法鼓山環境基本背景分析——地理資訊系統

金山位於新北市北端,東北臨東海,西南與大屯火山群 嵩山、七星山、陽明山相接。行政區的關係位置則是西南與 臺北市接壤,西北接石門區,東南鄰萬里區,土地面積4,921 公頃,沿海有特殊海岸景觀,是北海岸沿線集居規模較大轄 區之一。金山地區背山面海,地勢大致由西南向東北遞降。 北磺溪貫穿其間,北方有清水溪、西勢溪來匯,南岸有石搥 子溪、金包里溪(尾水溪)、員潭子溪及磺溪子溪等溪流蜿 蜒,為火山地形放射狀分歧河系的中下游部分。依地表地形 特徵可將金山地區區分為山地丘陵地形、河流地形、沖積平 原地形及海岸地形。金山區背山面海,西沿大屯山列300公尺 等高線至海岸。

為了進行金山/法鼓山之環境基本背景分析,本研究

以建置此地區的基本地理資訊系統(Geographic Information System, GIS)為主要的研究方法,來呈現以下相關的分析結果與更具實體現況的表達。首先為建立地區之數值化地形圖,而後再利用此數值地形圖為基礎,建立區域各種人文與環境數據分布圖層。

1. 數值地形圖建立的步驟

- 1.1 底圖資料
- (1) 地形圖:按需求區域選用地圖。
- (2)電子檔化:借得地圖後使用掃瞄器將地圖掃描存成電子檔,記得轉換檔案型態成為*.BMP(可利用影像處理軟體輔助),以供之後校正使用。

1.2 地形資料數位化

開啟ArcMap、ArcCatalog建立數化環境,ArcMap為主要數化之平台,ArcCatalog為主要檔案管理之平台。等高線的選擇依照所需之精度決定,若要更接近實景,亦可選擇每50公尺一條等高線。目前本研究室已有全臺灣地區土地等高線數位化資料,擷取北海岸地區之資料,即可初步建立北海岸地區之數值地形圖。

2. 以數值地形圖為基礎,建立區域各種人文與環境數據分 布圖層

利用航空照圖、現有環境監測站資料、實地調查等資料,繪製各種人文與環境數據分布圖層,例如聚落分布、土地利用分布、水系分布(河川、溪流、灌溉水道等)、地質分布(順向坡、逆向坡等)、地形(等高線)、人口分布等。圖一為北海岸四區(三芝、石門、金山、萬里)與法鼓

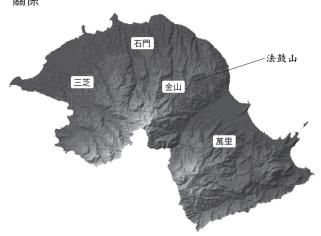
山之地形圖關係。圖二為顯示出法鼓山園區之地形,是由西 勢溪的兩條上游溪流貫穿區域之「雙溪交抱」而成。圖三為 北海岸水系分布資料分析,法鼓山園區位屬磺溪集水區。

金山區轄區內十四個村,現有人口18,806人,設籍戶數共 有4,145戶,主要集中在金包里老街、民生路、中正路、中山 路、忠孝一路,即本區都市計畫區內,占全鄉人口的60%,區 內人口密度每平方公里534人。其餘則分散在沿海地區、外圍 農業區、或散立在山坡地上,以小聚落型態分布。圖四為金山 人口分布與行政區域圖。而法鼓山主要的協助區域面對複合性 災害之區域急難救助公共空間,就是以此區域的民眾為主。

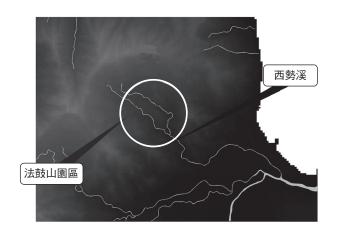
(二)金山區域遭遇環境災害之分析

臺灣的地理位置處於菲律賓海板塊和歐亞大陸板塊相互擠壓所造成的板塊碰撞活動帶,其中包含了板塊之間的隱沒作

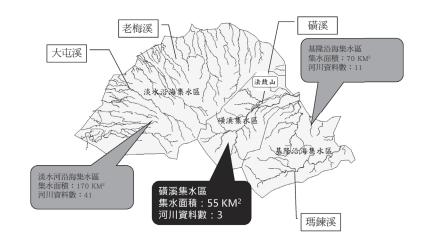
圖一:北海岸四區(三芝、石門、金山、萬里)與法鼓山之地形圖 關係



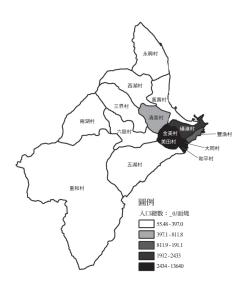
圖二:法鼓山園區之地形,由西勢溪的兩條上游溪流貫穿區域之 「雙溪交抱」圖



圖三:北海岸水系分布資料分析,法鼓山園區位屬磺溪集水區



圖四:金山人口分布與行政區域圖

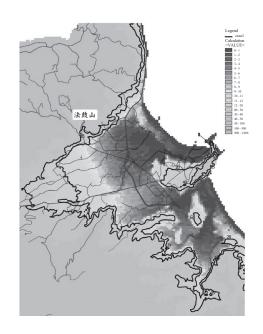


用與碰撞作用,這個地體構造環境,使得臺灣成為世界上著名之研究造山運動及地殼變形的區域。從地質年代來看,臺灣係屬相當年輕的構造地質,全區地質結構仍相當地不穩定,極易因地層的運動而導致局部區域的環境變遷。加上降雨量大且集中於夏季、梅雨季及颱風季,因而降雨所引發之物理侵蝕作用相當強烈,更加深整體環境之不穩定性。所以每當天然災害如颱風、地震、豪雨侵襲後,往往便伴隨發生人命傷亡的重大災害事件,譬如近幾年來在臺灣先後發生九二一大地震、八掌溪事件,碧利斯、象神、奇比、桃芝、納莉等重大風災;在國際上,二〇〇四年南亞海嘯、二〇一一年三月十一日東日本發生大地震,緊接引發了海嘯與核電廠事故的複合性災害,讓環境災害出現了大規模傷害的例子,顯示出如何因應自然環境重大災害之緊急應變能力的重要性。

北海岸地區是全臺灣核能電廠分布最多的一個區域,於 金山、萬里兩地皆各設核能電廠乙座。因此,本研究針對金 山區域遭遇環境災害的探討,將以水災、土石流、斷層/地 震、海嘯與核災為分析項目,以下為以分析金山區域海嘯問 題為範例,說明分析的步驟:

- 1. 觀察浪高與可淹沒海拔高度的關係。
- 2.利用已處理的金山區域地形圖,套疊實際衛星圖(GOOGLE)與受災區域的關係。
- 3. 提供金山地區與法鼓山後續各項緊急防災方案擬定之 各項基礎資料。圖五為金山區域地形高度圖,做為計算受災 而積與影響民眾人口數的重要依據。

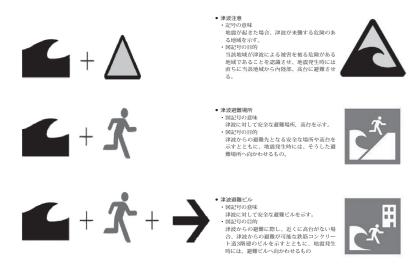
圖五:金山各村里與等高線圖關係



(三)複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間分析

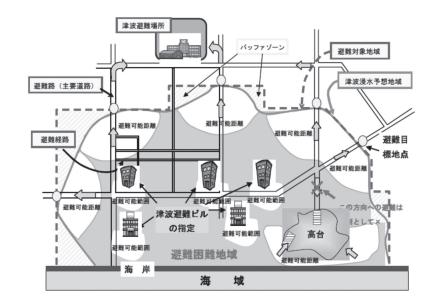
在日本,除了防災救難體系分工明確,效率一流,而且 還將遍布各地的量販店納入,使民間力量融入救災體系。 他山之石可以攻錯,此計畫正是要建立法鼓山成為金山/北 海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間,並且具 有引導避災、應變災害與心靈歸屬功能的區域中心,讓此區 域的民眾心安平安,知福幸福。圖六為日本相關海嘯之標誌 圖。圖七為日本千葉縣緊急避難路線、避難場所與受難區域的 示意圖。未來將以此範本規畫法鼓山/金山區域。

圖六:日本相關海嘯之標誌圖❶



● 〈津波避難標識の図記號検討〉,日本・総務省消防庁《防災のたあの図記号に関する調査検討委員会報告書》第三章,2005年,頁16。參見:http://www.fdma.go.jp/neuter/topics/zukigou/index.pdf。

圖七:日本千葉縣緊急避難路線、避難場所與受難區域的示意圖 (未來將以此範本規畫法鼓山/金山區域) ❷



三、期末研究成果與進度

(一)金山區域遭遇環境災害之探討

1. 水災

金山依山靠海,火山地形構築了大部分區域,只有少數的特殊地形與火山無關,在磺港伸入海岸的獅頭山海岬為古老的五指山層,據調查可能受微量陸地上升作用的影響而

❷《千葉県津波避難計画策定指針》,2010年,頁6。參見日本千葉縣官方網站:http://www.pref.chiba.lg.jp/bousaik/tsunamihinannkeikaku/documents/tssunami.html。

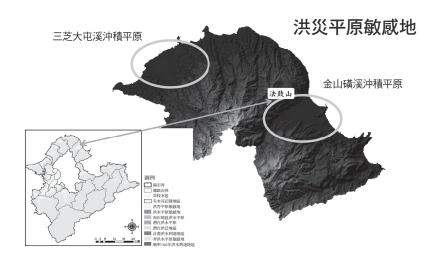
形成,獅頭山海岬抵擋了部分東北季風形成天然良港——磺港。金山中角海岸西北方的尖山(狀似斗笠)一帶有古老的南莊層,約為目前法鼓山、金寶山的位置。整個地形是由陽明山國家公園區往金山區緩坡傾降,一直到金山海邊。在這個區域內東北季風順著金山斷層(北磺溪),往陽明山國家公園吹送,強烈的東北季風因地形的影響氣流往上升,造成金山地區雨量非常豐沛。

金山區境內有數條溪流,其河道大多較為狹窄,加上河道內常堆積土石,故在豪雨過後河水可能漫溢出河道,造成災害。金山所處的磺溪沖積平原屬於洪災平原敏感地(見圖八所示)。二○○○年十一月象神颱風侵臺,由於雨量過大,因西勢溪河道狹窄,且臺電公司混凝土電力桿遭到沖毀,在西勢三橋上造成河道堵塞,河水漫溢而出。由於象神颱風帶來大量雨水,使得西勢溪溪水暴漲,兇猛的水勢造成了鄰近道路崩塌,溪床更下切達2、3公尺深,溪水在西勢溪橋附近漫溢而出,加上部分土石,沖毀周遭農田。❸

2. 土石流

金山區內多屬山坡地,西北方因大屯山群噴發出的熔岩 往西北方流瀉,大部分被火成岩所覆蓋;區內主要由大屯山 北麓紅土階地緩坡及磺溪等溪流沖積而成的金山平原所共同 構成。在地形上則屬於東北角之沉降海岸地形,地勢大致由 西南向東北遞降,由於坡地極多,加上境內也有不少溪流, 金山區境內計有八條土石流潛勢溪流,其土石流編號與坐落

圖八:金山所處的磺溪沖積平原屬於洪災平原敏感地



位置詳見圖九所示。其中編號DF215,坐落於西湖村的土石流 潛勢地區,鄰近法鼓山園區,是必須加以注意與規畫防範的 對象。以下為新北市金山區重和村土石流致災資料的整理: 4

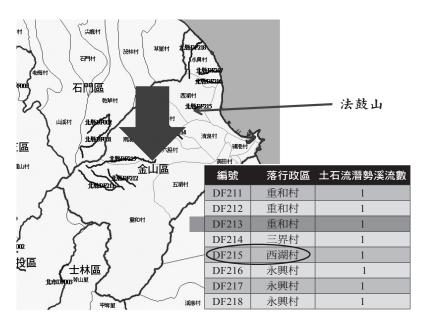
- (1) 發生地點:新北市金山區重和村(新北市DF213)
- (2) 發生時間:民國八十九年十一月一日(象神颱風)
- (3) 發生原因:象神颱風時累積雨量為718mm(民國 八十九年十月二十九日~十一月二日)
- (4) 土石流警戒基準值:350 mm
- (5)參考雨量站:三和站
- (6) 災損情形:象神颱風帶來豪雨,造成金山區重和村

[●] 新北市災害防救深耕計畫・成果資訊網:http://www.drc.ntu.edu.tw/plowing/R07 dc.php。

[●] 行政院農業委員會水土保持局・土石流防災資訊網:http://webarchive.swcb.gov.tw/web/246.swcb/246old.swcb.gov.tw/history/history-caseDetail37f8.html?No=2。

新北市DF213土石流潛勢溪流發生土石流災害。該次土石流災情嚴重,造成重三社區活動中心、三和國小,以及重和村十三鄰磺溪頭十二號之民宅遭到土石掩埋,從溪流漫溢而出的土石一路到達三和國小門口,高度約莫1.5公尺左右,三和國小校車及轎車皆淹沒於水中。重光溪上游山崩之土砂造成下游民房沖毀及環湖一、二號橋及便橋被沖毀。三界村四鄰有住宅遭土石流掩蓋。

圖九:金山區土石流潛勢溪流坐落位置;法鼓山園區接近DF215土 石流潛勢溪流**⑤**



● 行政院農業委員會水土保持局・土石流防災資訊網:http://246.swcb.gov.tw/debrisInfo/DebrisStatistics.aspx?county=新北市。

3. 斷層/地震

圖十的結果顯示法鼓山園區與山腳斷層最接近距離為1.43 公里,若此處斷層發生錯動,目前法鼓山的建築是否可承受?需進一步地檢驗。以下為整理出山腳斷層的基本資料: **⑤**

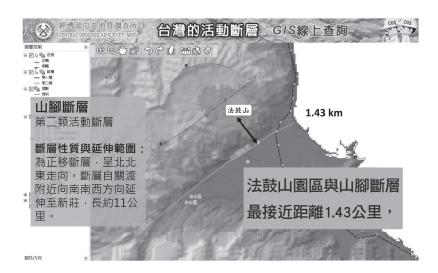
- (1)活動斷層的歸類:第二類活動斷層(1)(係更新世晚期,即距今100,000年內曾經發生錯移之斷層)。
- (2)斷層性質與延伸範圍:為正移斷層,呈北北東走向。斷層自關渡附近向南南西方向延伸至新莊,長約11公里。
- (3)地形特徵:於林口台地東南邊緣有直線狀斷層崖及 三角切面。林口台地東南側新莊斷層活動形成斷層角窪地, 此斷層可能仍在活動,為造成臺北盆地西側地盤下陷的原因 之一。
- (4)地質特性:新莊斷層應與金山斷層同時發生逆衝斷層作用,其後在林口層沉積末期,現今臺北盆地之西北緣大約沿新莊一金山斷層發生正移之山腳斷層,斷層側相對下降約500公尺以上,形成臺北盆地之盆地地形;而山腳斷層曾於距今六萬年前左右發生活動,且未涉及盆地以北之金山斷層本身。新莊斷層在上新世為逆衝斷層作用,在更新世晚期迄今為正斷層作用(形成山腳斷層)。鑽井資料顯示山腳斷層位於新莊斷層東側,為正斷層,斷層走向北偏東20度。又根據中央地質調查所在五股地區的鑽井資料顯示,山腳斷層為

[●] 林啟文、張徽正等著〈臺灣地區活動斷層個述〉,《臺灣活動斷層概論 (第二版)·五十萬分之一臺灣活動斷層分布圖說明書》,經濟部中央 地質調查所發行,參見: http://kbteq.ascc.net/archive/cgs/part2/p10.html。

正斷層,斷層錯移松山層以下的沉積物,但未錯移松山層。

由表一可知,模擬的潛勢評估是根據每次模擬事件造成各地不同的地表加速度(PGA)的數值來判斷;該研究採用如表一的中央氣象局地震震度分級表,以相對應為5級的地震規模而言,PGA的門檻值應為80gal,5級的地震規模即可能造成嚴重損失。依據金山地區歷年的統計數據顯示,大於80gal里震度平均次數為3.71、大於10gal里震度平均次數為66.43次。◆

圖十:法鼓山園區與山腳斷層最接近距離1.43公里❸



- ❸「臺灣的活動斷層」,中央地質調查所,GIS線上查詢:http://fault.moeacgs.gov.tw/MGFault。

表一:交通部中央氣象局地震震度分級表(民國八十九年八月一日公告)

震度 地動加速度 分級 (PGA)範圍			人的感受 屋內情形		屋外情形
0	無感	0.8gal以下	人無感覺。		
1	微震	0.8~2.5gal	人靜止時可感 覺微小搖晃。		
2	輕震	2.5~8.0gal	大多數的人可 感到搖晃,睡 眠中的人有部 分會醒來。	電燈等懸掛物有 小搖晃。	靜止的汽車輕輕搖晃,類似 卡車經過,但 歷時很短。
3	弱震	8~25gal	幾乎所有的人 都感覺搖晃, 有的人會有恐 懼感。	房屋震動,碗盤 門窗發出聲音, 懸掛物搖擺。	靜止的汽車明 顯搖動,電線 略有搖晃。
4	中震	25~80gal	有相當程度的 恐懼感,尋求分 的人的地方, 避的的人幾乎 都會驚醒。	房屋搖動甚烈, 底座不穩物品傾 倒,較重家具移 動,可能有輕微 災害。	汽車駕駛人略 微有感,電線 明顯搖晃,步 行中的人也感 到搖晃。
5	強震	80~250gal	大多數人會感 到驚嚇恐慌。	部分牆壁產生裂 痕,重家具可能 翻倒。	汽車駕駛人明 顯感覺地震, 有些牌坊煙囪 傾倒。
6	烈震	250~400gal	搖晃劇烈以致 站立困難。	部分建築物受損,重家具翻倒,門窗扭曲變形。	汽車駕駛人開 車困難,出現 噴沙噴泥現 象。
7	劇震	400gal以上	搖晃劇烈以致 無法依意志行動。	部分建築物受損 嚴重或倒塌,幾 乎所有家具都大 幅移位或摔落地 面。	山崩地裂,鐵 軌彎曲,地下 管線破壞。

※資料來源:交通部中央氣象局;註:1gal=1cm/sec。

4. 海嘯

海嘯是由海底地震、海底斷層、海底火山爆發及海底滑坡、塌陷所激發,海嘯波的波長可達幾百公里,以時速接近一千公里的速度橫過海洋,在海洋中心的船隻有時根本不會察覺海嘯波的存在,直至它們靠近濱海區域漸漸升出水面,表現形式是海水陡漲,縣然形成「水牆」,撲向濱海陸地及村莊,然後海水又驟然退去,或先退後漲,有時反覆多次,造成生命財產巨大損失,造成災難及損失。在海嘯波到達前,還常伴有強烈的地震或震災發生。

臺灣在過去因海嘯所造成的災難不多,在歷史上有記載的,計有一七八一年的高雄與一八六七年的基隆海嘯, ⑨後者之相關記載如下:

(同治六年)冬十一月,地大震。……二十三日,雞籠頭、 金包里沿海,山傾地裂,海水暴漲,屋宇傾壞,溺數百人。 (《淡水廳志》)

一八六七年十二月十八日,北部地震更烈,災害亦更大,基隆城全被破壞,港水似已退落淨盡,船隻被擱於沙灘上;不久,水又復回,來勢猛烈,船被衝出,魚亦隨之而去,沙灘上一切被沖走。……(Alvarez, Formosa)

國內核一廠廠址發生海嘯預估最高海潮海拔是9公尺,最

低處之海拔是11.99公尺。核二廠廠址發生海嘯預估最高海潮海拔是10.28公尺,廠址最低處之海拔是12公尺。海嘯入侵日本內陸後,可由其水體厚度來訂定其海嘯高度,許多工程設計包括日本岩手縣海牆,或甚至臺灣核電廠皆以該高度為設計目標。然而須知海水入侵內陸時,會由海嘯波轉為海嘯湧潮,也就是類似洪水的行為。海嘯湧潮的速度是愈靠近沿岸速度愈快,愈深入內陸速度愈慢。速度停止時海嘯範圍稱為淹溢範圍,此時所有海嘯動能皆轉換為位能。

當海嘯湧潮以高速移動時,若遇到阻擋,動能轉位能的結果,會產生堆積或跳躍,須知海嘯湧潮後方的水體長達兩百公里以上,其源源不絕之海水挹注,若前端海水遭阻攔,則後端海水會壅高。此類壅高程度有時可高達原海嘯波之兩倍以上。其中又以靠近海岸之設施最為危險,如核電廠、海牆等。由此可說明海嘯進入日本岩手縣宮古市會由原本的10公尺增長至14公尺。

而預估金山地區發生海嘯時所可能遭受的影響,請詳見 以下章節: (二)海嘯逃生路線之虛擬分析。

5. 核能災害

我國核電廠防震設計及廠址之選定,係參照美國核能法規之規定,除詳細調查廠址及周圍之地質,且廠房須坐落於堅實岩盤上。核一、二廠即以廠房基礎面(與岩盤接觸面)耐震0.3g與0.4g為設計基準。民國九十六年七月經濟部地調所,將山腳斷層由樹林向北延伸至臺北市北投區,長約13公里,再由北投向北延伸至新北市金山,長約21公里,另參考地調所民國九十六年年度報告,山腳斷層似有向外海延伸約

^{●「}臺灣自1661年起之11次臺灣歷史海嘯紀錄」(2013,吳祚任整理),參見: http://tsunami.ihs.ncu.edu.tw/tsunami/history.htm。

16.6 公里。以下為核一、二廠基本概況: ❶

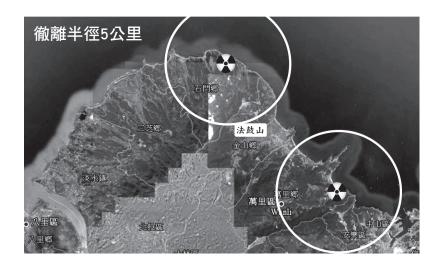
(1)核一廠(新北市石門區乾華里小坑十二號):

核一廠位於新北市石門區的天然峽谷,離臺北市直線距離約28公里,占地約為245公頃,廠區內裝置兩部63萬6千瓩汽輪發電機組,總裝置容量為127萬2千瓩。於民國五十九年核准興建,六十年底開始施工,一、二號機分別於六十七年及六十八年商業運轉。廠址附近人口稀少,附近有香火鼎盛的十八王公廟,沿廠側山路可達民風純樸的茂林社區。

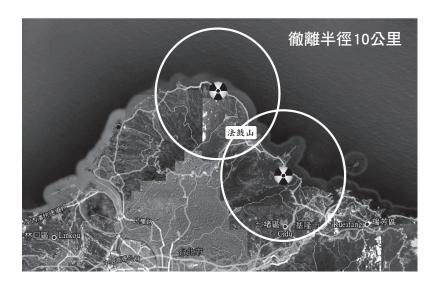
(2)核二廠(新北市萬里區野柳里八斗六十號):

第二核能發電廠位於臺灣北端,離臺北市直線距離約22 公里,占地約為220公頃,共裝置兩部機組,容量各為985,000 瓩。於民國六十三年九月開工興建,一、二號機分別於民國 七十年十二月及七十二年三月商業運轉。目前為臺灣電力供 應系統中,裝置容量最大的發電機組。

根據日本官方公布,日本福島第一核電廠之核子事故, 為國際原子能總署核能設施發生事件或事故之判定等級 (INES)的第七級,而我國目前核能電廠緊急應變計畫區為 5公里,以本次日本發生之事故損害影響來看,放射性物質外 釋之影響遠大於5公里。因此本研究以GOOGLE EARTH 來分 析第一核電廠與第二核電廠,核災撤離半徑5公里、10公里與 30公里的模擬分析,並且標定出法鼓山園區的相關位置,其 圖十一:第一核電廠/第二核電廠與法鼓山園區之相關位置圖;核 災撤離半徑5公里模擬圖

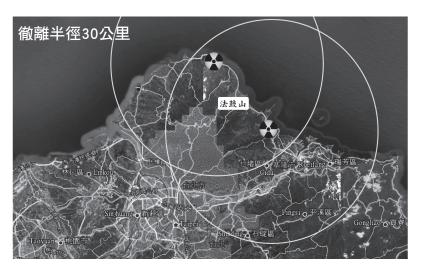


圖十二:第一核電廠與第二核電廠之核災撤離半徑10公里模擬圖

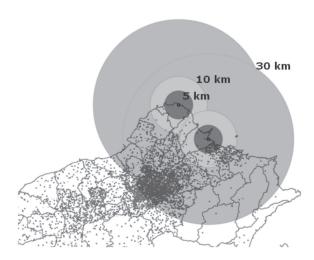


[●] 新北市政府消防局・防災宣導互動網:http://www.fireprotection.tpf.gov.tw/guidance/firenewsdetail.php?id=146。

圖十三:第一核電廠與第二核電廠之核災撤離半徑30公里模擬圖



圖十四:第一核電廠/第二核電廠之核災撤離半徑5至30公里模擬與 人口密度之關係圖



結果如圖十一、十二與十三所示;法鼓山園區與核一廠直線 距離約為5.7公里,與核二廠直線距離約為6.2公里,表示無論 是哪一個廠發生核災,園區人員只能選擇撤離一途,並且由 於距離太近,此災害的緊急應變將是分秒必爭。另外圖十四 顯示了第一核電廠與第二核電廠之核災撤離半徑5至30公里模 擬與人口密度之關係圖;並於表二統計了核一廠/核二廠之 疏散半徑5、10、30公里所影響人口數,若以疏散半徑30公里 計算,核一廠影響約350萬人,核二廠影響約530萬人,從結 果來看,臺灣毫無能力可以承受可能的核能災害。

表二:核一廠/核二廠之疏散半徑5、10、30公里所影響人口數統計

疏散範圍	影響人口數				
以此其文单的建	核一廠	核二廠			
5 km	8410	26640			
10 km	40600	303800			
30 km	3488600	5327000			

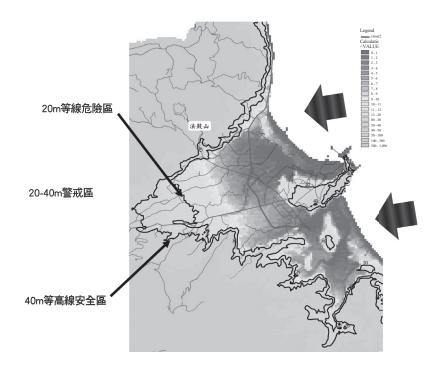
(二)海嘯逃生路線之虛擬分析

透過區域整體地形分析並虛擬海嘯高度與受害區域之關係,圖十五為以40公尺與20公尺等高線套疊金山/萬里加投地區之主要人口密集地區的地形分布圖,來虛擬海嘯發生時與可能受害區域之關係圖,由於此地為北海岸最大的沖積平原地形,若如同一八六七年基隆海嘯的發生海外斷層錯動現象,則此地區將成為最大的受災區域。圖上愈是標示深色的區域,表示海拔高度愈低。本研究以40公尺與20公尺等高線

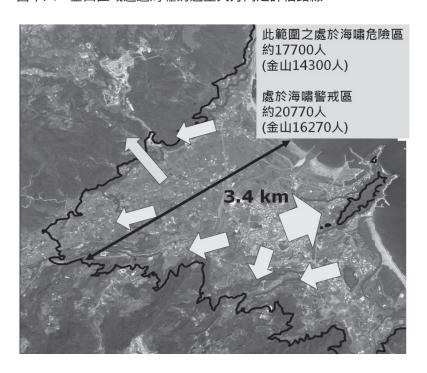
套疊,並設定40公尺等高線以上為安全區,20公尺等高線以下為危險區。從圖中結果顯示主要人口密集地區幾乎都落於海拔10公尺以下的範圍。在與人口分布對比,此區域處於海嘯危險區約有17,700人(金山14,300人),處於海嘯警戒區約有20,770人(金山16,270人)。

針對金山地區公共空間及海拔高度分析了解金山地區人

圖十五:以40公尺與20公尺等高線套疊地形分布圖,來虛擬海嘯發生時與可能受害區域之關係圖;40公尺等高線以上為安全區,20公尺等高線以下為危險區。



圖十六:金山區域遭遇海嘯的逃生大方向之評估路線



口分布之外,還可釐清實際社區活動圖與居住狀態分析。並 將依虛擬海嘯造成可能威脅之視點,來逐一清查。主要逃生 路線為依據生活圈之最近逃生路線,圖十六為金山區域遭遇 海嘯的逃生大方向之評估路線,由於金山地區的平原區域與 超過海拔40公尺高地的距離甚近,海岸離通往陽明山國家公 園高地的道路之直線距離,約為3.4公里,疏散距離不遠。

(三)金山避難社區公共空間之探討

金山社區目前居住人數為22,366人(統計至民國一百年

· 198 · 聖嚴研究

四月底止),為能更明確了解金山社區現有的公共空間,本計畫藉由交通部北海地區景觀道路工程規畫書取得金山所規畫出的行政區域,歸類出分散農村南(北)二區、磺港密集區、金美密集區、溫泉密集區等五大區塊為主,見圖十七「金山區居住現況與人口活動區域分析」所示。圖十八為金山都市計畫及等高線圖的套繪結果,從都市計畫公、私有土地之配置,看防災公園設置的可能性及機會,考慮現有金山都市計畫區域與海高度的關係,目前僅有獅頭山公園符合條件。

比較分析相關機關所規畫的避難社區公共空間,圖十九顯示了新北市公告金山區避難社區公共空間分布圖(民國九十九年社會局) ① 與金山區公所公告金山區避難社區公共空間的分布圖, ② 進一步地分析這兩個機關所公布的金山區避難社區公共空間與海拔高度的整理分析(見表三與表四),結果發現新北市所公告的二十九處金山區避難社區公共空間,有二十三處地方處於海嘯高度危險的區域,僅有四處地方處於海嘯發生時較安全的區域。而金山區公所所公告的十處金山區避難社區公共空間,僅有一處地方處於海嘯發生時較安全的區域,其餘者皆處於海嘯高度危險的區域。

表三:新北市公告金山區避難社區公共空間及高度分析

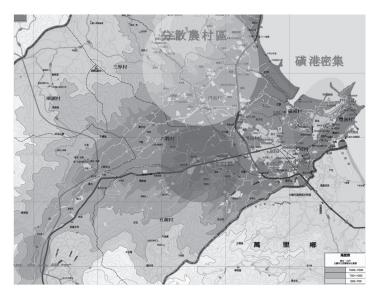
規書法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間・199・

>= 11> 	0-10M	11-15M	16-20M	26-30M	31M以上
海拔高度		高度危險	中度危險	較無危險	
	公(兒)	公(三)二	金山高中	磺港社區 托兒所	三和國小 兩湖分校
	威靈宮	金山國小	聖德宮	磺港村集 會所	朝天宮
	萬聖宮	中角國小			慧明禪寺
收容及避 難處所	清泉社區 活動中心	金包里慈護宮			永民社區 活動中心
美性 <i>恢</i> 见[7]	豐漁社區 活動中心	磺港承天宮			法鼓山
	萬壽社區 活動中心	鎮天宮			
		金山區公所(四樓)			
		金山區藝文暨 老人活動中心			
收容及避		中山堂 (一樓禮堂)			
難處所		六三社區活動 中心			
		五南社區活動 中心			
處所	7	14	2	2	4
小計		23		(5

[●] 新北市市政府: http://www.ntpc.gov.tw/。

[●] 金山區公所:http://www.jinshan.ntpc.gov.tw/_file/2986/SG/51549/FG0000002986000010 2 2.html。

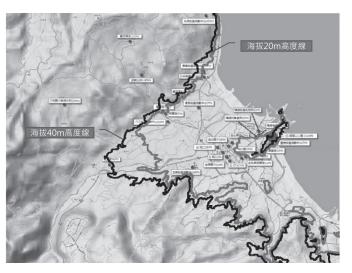
圖十七:金山區居住現況與人口活動區域分析



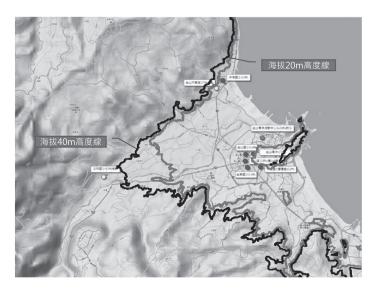
圖十八:金山都市計畫及等高線圖套繪



圖十九: (A)新北市公告金山區避難社區公共空間分布圖(民國 九十九年社會局)



圖十九: (B) 金山區公所公告金山區避難社區公共空間分布圖(民國一○○年)



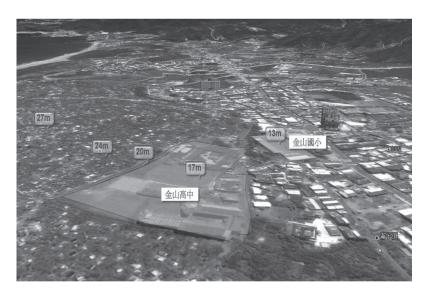
表四:金山區公所公告金山區避難社區公共空間及高度分析

新北市金山區臨時災區民眾收容所設置概況表										
	收容 人數	服務區域	收容所類型					收容	海拔	
所別			水災	火災	風災	土石流	海嘯	核災	優先順序	高度(m)
金山區公所 (四樓)	80	全區	*	*	*	*			1	11
金山區藝文 暨 老 人 活 動中心(五 樓)	40	全區	*	*	*	*			2	11
中山堂(一樓禮堂)	330	全區	*	*	*	*			3	12
金山國小	100	全區	*	*	*	*			4	14
金山高中	200	全區	*	*	*	*			5	17
金美國小	100	全區	*	*	*	*			6	11
中角國小	50		*	*	*	*			1	13
金山天龍宮	500		*	*	*	*	*		1	27
三和國小	2000	全區					*		1	53
金山青年活動中心	5000	全區						*	1	8-29

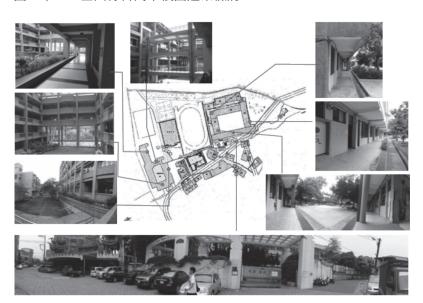
(四)以金山綜合高中及國小為範例,分析逃生路線與 建築物之海拔高度安全性評估

針對海嘯的發生,各別區域的逃生路線與建築物之海拔高度安全性評估,若要真正地落實,需要與當地居民共同一起規畫。目前此研究將以金山綜合高中與金山國小為範例,初步分析學生在校逃生路線與評估建築物的海拔高度安全性。圖二十顯示了金山綜合高中與金山國小之相關位置與海拔高度示意圖,圖二十一為金山綜合高中校園建築的檢討;若先不論建築物高度,校園均處於20公尺以下的地形,加上校園與海岸之間的地形反而較高(27公尺),若海嘯躍過此27公尺的高度,則校園將會遭受巨大的海嘯衝擊。圖二十二為金山綜合高中之教室建築量體3D模擬,分別在(A)整體校區、(B)高中教室區、(C)國中教室區規畫了虛擬海嘯警戒紅線。此紅線的規畫設計會是在平時緊急應變的教育上,能夠有效地深植學生心中。圖二十三為金山國小及金山國中、金山綜合高中環境剖面關係圖與實景照片比較。

圖二十:金山綜合高中與金山國小之相關位置與海拔高度示意圖

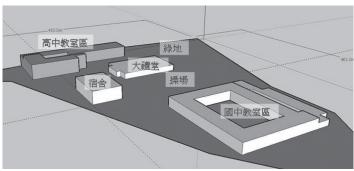


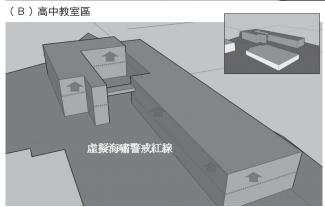
圖二十一:金山綜合高中校園建築檢討

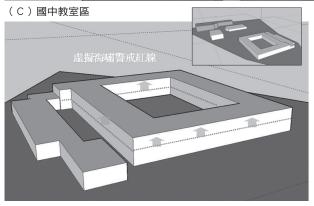


圖二十二:金山綜合高中之教室建築量體3D模擬,規畫虛擬海嘯警 戒紅線:

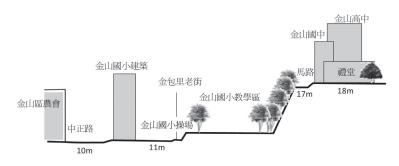
(A) 整體校區







圖二十三:金山國小及金山國中、金山綜合高中環境剖面關係圖與 實景照片比較





(五)法鼓山於金山地區災害應對策略藍圖

圖二十四顯示本研究所規畫之「法鼓山於金山地區災害 應對策略藍圖」,主要分成災害前、災害後與地方災害行 動研究三個分類行動項目。以下為各分類行動項目的規畫內 容。

1. 災害前

- (1) 逃生避難規畫
 - ■金山整體區域規畫
 - ■單一對象(學校、社區等)
- (2)災害模擬
 - ■定點演習

已規畫:雲來寺逃生路線規畫(圖二十五)、天

南寺逃生路線規畫(圖二十六)、高雄紫雲寺逃 生路線規畫(圖二十七)、臺中寶雲別苑逃生路 線規畫(圖二十八)。各寺之詳細逃生路線規畫 結果,詳見附件一所示。

計畫中:德貴大樓、安和分院、臺東信行寺、臺 南分院等。

■區域評估

建築、組織、社區資源、地形、災害史、氣候。

- (3) 常備設施
 - ■物品:水、發電機、污水處理、通訊。
 - ■防災公園:細部規畫。
- (4) 防災教育
 - ■計區
 - ■學校
 - ■醫院
 - ■地方組織
 - ■觀摩
- (5) 防災系統組織化
 - ■聯繫
 - ■系統測試
 - ■臨時動員
 - ■鄰近資源

2. 災害後

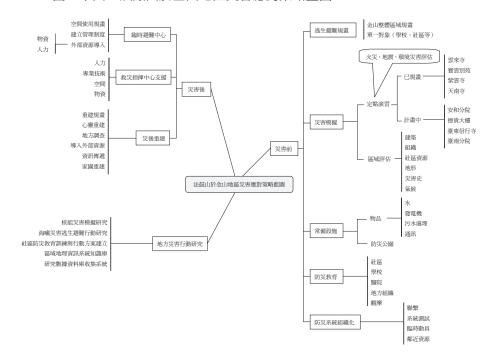
- (1) 臨時避難中心
 - ●空間使用規畫

· 208 · 聖嚴研究

- ●建立管理制度
- ●外部資源導入:物資/人力
- (2) 救災指揮中心支援
 - ●人力
 - ●專業技術
 - ●空間
 - ●物資
- (3) 災後重建
 - ●重建規畫
 - ●心靈重建
 - ●地方調査
 - ●導入外部資源
 - ●資訊傳遞
 - ●家園重建
- 3. 地方災害行動研究
- (1)核能災害模擬研究
- (2)海嘯災害逃生避難行動研究
- (3) 社區防災教育訓練與行動方案建立
- (4)區域地理資訊系統知識庫
- (5) 研究數據資料庫收集系統

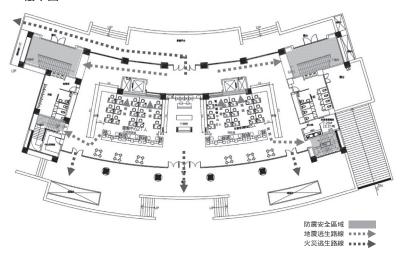
規畫法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間·209·

圖二十四:法鼓山於金山地區災害應對策略藍圖



圖二十五:雲來寺逃生路線規畫

1樓平面

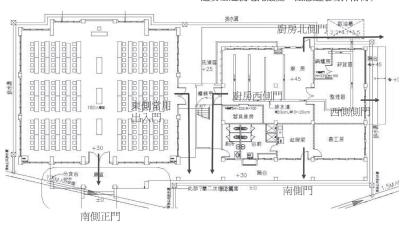


圖二十六:天南寺洮生路線規畫

齋堂1樓平面

說明:齋堂1樓

■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及箭頭 方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。(現場較缺 乏安全之就地掩蔽處,注意遠離易掉落物)



圖二十七:高雄紫雲寺逃生路線規畫

1樓平面

說明:

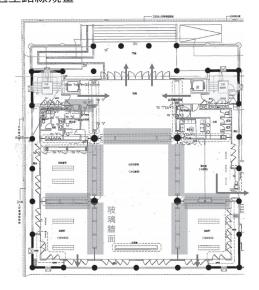
■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。(現場較缺乏安全之就地掩蔽處,注意 遠離易掉落物,以及玻璃牆面)

圖示說明:

◆ 火災及地震逃生方向

安全之就地掩蔽處

玻璃易碎危險區



圖二十八:臺中寶雲別苑逃生路線規畫

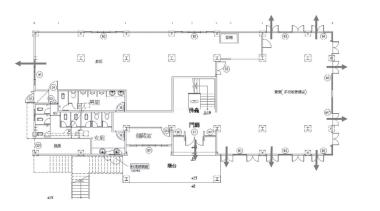
行政大樓1樓平面

部田

■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及 箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。 (現場較缺乏安全之就地掩蔽處,注意 遠離易掉落物,以及玻璃牆面)

圖示說明: ◆ 火災及地震逃生方向 安全之就地掩蔽處

玻璃易碎危險區



四、結論與建議

本研究已透過金山/北海岸地區之環境基本背景分析, 完成評估此地區可能遭受的自然環境災害與複合性災害的狀 况,包括水災、十石流、斷層/地震、海嘯與核災等。這其 中法鼓山園區距離山腳斷層僅約1.5公里,以及與核一廠與核 二廠直線距離分別僅約為5.7公里與6.2公里,將會是所面對最 大的災害威脅所在。另外,本研究已繪製出金山區域遭遇海 嘯時受災的節圍、影響的人口數與洮牛方向的路線。然而針 對新北市所公告的二十九處避難社區公共空間,與金山區公 所所公告的十處金山區避難計區公共空間,進行空間之現況 分析與調查,結果發現新北市所公告者,僅有四處地方處於 海嘯發生時較安全的區域,而金山區公所所公告者,僅有一 處處於較安全的區域,即絕大部分公部門所規畫的避難計區 公共空間均位於海嘯高度危險的區域; 而且公部門所謂的澼 難社區公共空間,絕大部分僅提供避難空間所需,對於實際 引導避災路線、救難物資的種類、數量及分配系統、飲用水 可用天數、發電機系統、對外聯絡網絡、救難物資運送路線 規書、安頓災區民眾臨時居住等,均無規畫與實際行動。

面對未來可能的各項災害之議題,本研究較為具體之工 作成果,如下列條列所示:

- (一)社區可利用之公共空間:居民熟悉度高的社區空間分布、社區空間現況分析。
- (二)公共空間海拔高度安全性檢測:學校、社區活動中心、集會所、里辦公室、其他(公所、廟宇、高樓建

築)。

- (三)虛擬海嘯逃生路線:區域整體地形分析、虛擬海嘯高度與受害區域之關係、主要逃生路線、依據生活圈之最近逃生路線。
- (四)協助法鼓山緊急應變專案在擬定雲來寺、天南 寺、高雄紫雲寺、臺中寶雲別苑等單位,各項災害演習項目 與各相關之逃生路線的基本分析資料,如各地點防範淹水措 施的評估,建築物於地震發生時的安全地點、各種受災的不 同情境之逃生路線規畫等。
- (五)依照已評估出的金山/北海岸地區可能面對複合 性災害情況,以及現有區域之急難救助公共空間的現況分 析,提出「法鼓山於金山地區災害應對策略藍圖」,以落實 法鼓山整體關懷計畫的一環。

整體而言,無論是斷層/地震、海嘯與核災的潛在複合性災害,法鼓山所在的金山地區,總生活人口超過兩萬人,是必須有一個能夠應付區域急難救助、引導避災、短期/中期安頓、安心的區域中心。法鼓山能夠扮演這樣的角色嗎?論地理條件,法鼓山的位置擁有合適的條件;論組織動員的能力,過去法鼓山已有相當多的海內外急難救助經驗,唯當下法鼓山園區的各項主客觀條件,是否有能力成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助中心,以落實聖嚴法師提出之法鼓山的方法——「提倡全面教育,落實整體關懷」?是我後輩追隨者的一大挑戰。

而在本研究所提出的「法鼓山於金山地區災害應對策略 藍圖」中,僅少數議題項目有初步的展開,如「災害前」中

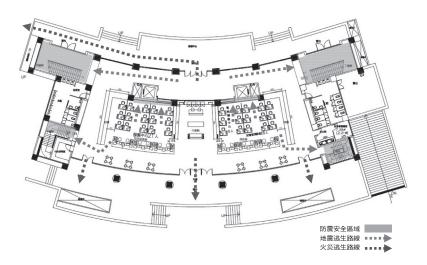
· 214 · 聖嚴研究

的「災害模擬」、「定點演習」已有計畫逐步展開,而「區 域評估」即為此報告所揭露的研究內容。未來依然有相當多 的重要課題等待執行。

附件一:雲來寺、天南寺、紫雲寺、寶雲別苑逃生路線 規畫

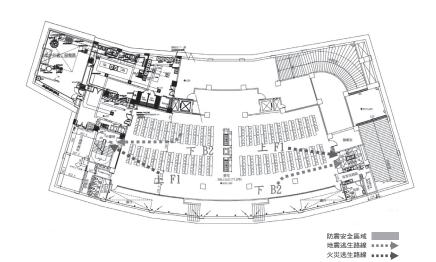
(一)雲來寺逃生路線規畫

1樓平面

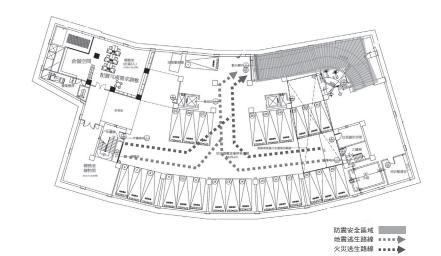


規畫法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間·215·

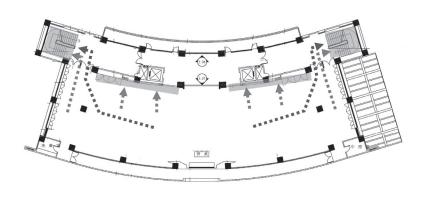
地下1樓平面



地下2樓平面

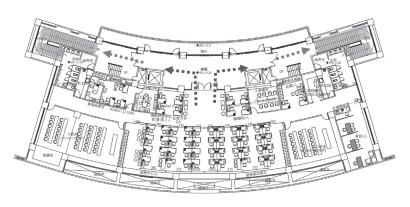


2樓平面



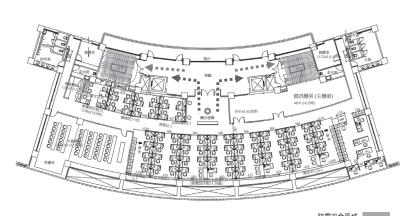
防震安全區域 地震逃生路線 火災逃生路線

3樓平面



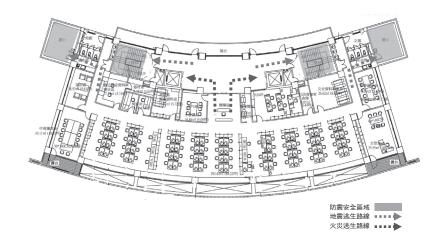
防震安全區域 地震逃生路線 火災逃生路線

4樓平面



防震安全區域 地震逃生路線 •••• 火災逃生路線 ••••

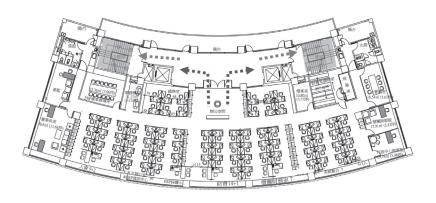
5樓平面



· 218 · 聖嚴研究

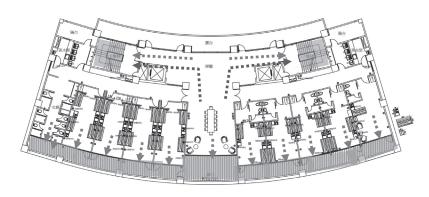
規畫法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間·219·

6樓平面



防震安全區域 地震逃生路線 火災逃生路線

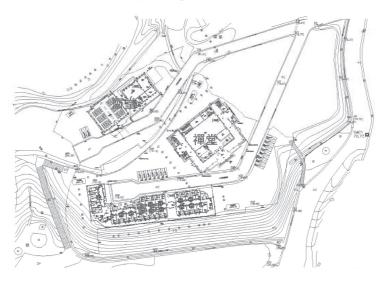
7樓平面



防震安全區域 地震逃生路線 ••••• 火災逃生路線 ••••

(二)天南寺逃生路線規畫

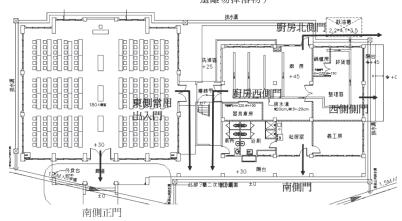
平面空間分布及地形概況示意圖



齋堂1樓平面

說明:齋堂1樓

■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及 箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。 (現場較缺乏安全之就地掩蔽處,注意 遠離易掉落物)

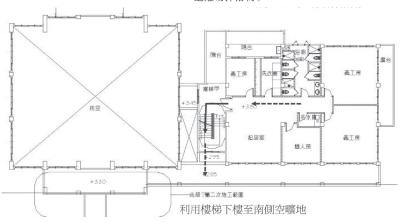


· 220 · 聖嚴研究

齋堂2樓平面

說明:齋堂2樓

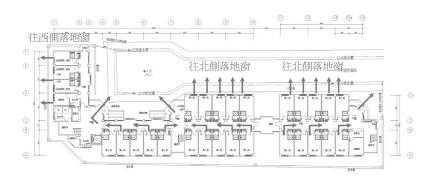
■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及 箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。 (現場較缺乏安全之就地掩蔽處,注意 遠離易掉落物)



寮房1樓平面

說明:寮房1樓

■火災逃生路線,如圖粗線及箭頭方向。

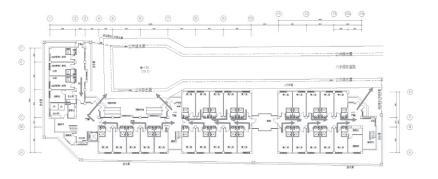


規畫法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間・221・

寮房1樓平面

說明:寮房1樓

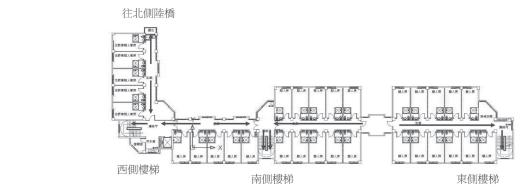
- ■地震逃生路線,如圖粗線及箭頭方向。
- ■就地掩蔽沿各室門口梁柱處。



寮房2樓平面

說明:寮房2樓

- ■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及 箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。
- ■就地掩蔽沿各室門口梁柱處。

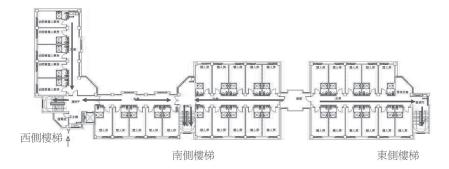


· 222 · 聖嚴研究

寮房3樓平面

說明:寮房3樓

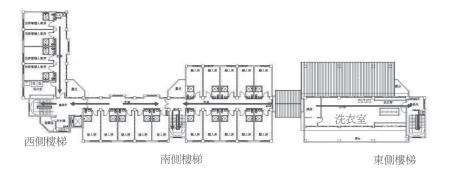
- ■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及 箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。
- ■就地掩蔽沿各室門口梁柱處。



寮房4樓平面

說明:寮房4樓

- ■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及 箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。
- ■就地掩蔽沿各室門口梁柱處。

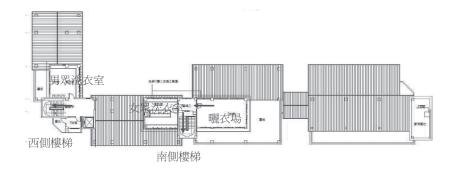


規畫法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間・223・

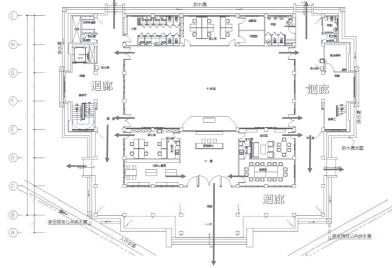
寮房4樓屋頂突出物平面

說明:寮房4樓

■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及 箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽(現 場較缺乏安全之就地掩蔽處,注意遠離 易掉落物)。



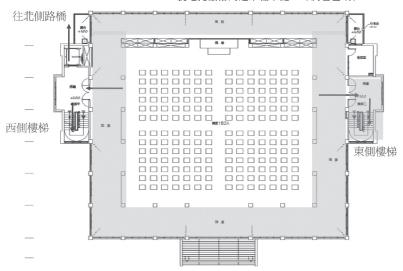
禪堂1樓平面 說明:禪堂1樓 ■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及節頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽,或者沿迴廊梁柱處掩蔽。



禪堂2樓平面

說明:禪堂2樓

- ■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及箭頭 方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。
- ■就地掩蔽沿周邊梁柱下處。(灰色區域)



(三)高雄紫雲寺逃生路線規畫

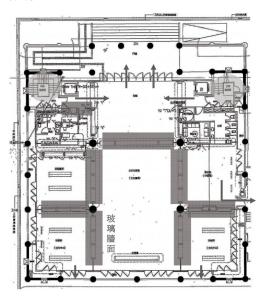
1樓平面

說明:

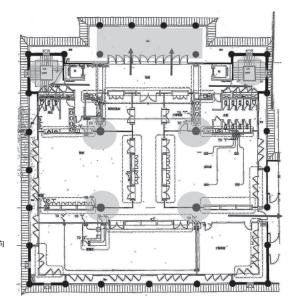
■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。(現場較缺乏安全之就地掩蔽處,注意 遠離易掉落物,以及玻璃牆面)

圖示說明:

- ◆ 火災及地震逃生方向
- 安全之就地掩蔽處
- 玻璃易碎危險區



2樓平面



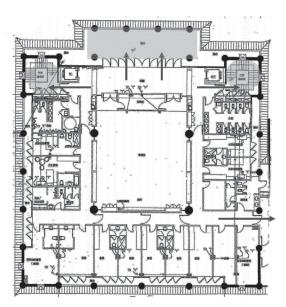
◆ 火災及地震逃生方向

安全之就地掩蔽處

玻璃易碎危險區

圖示說明:

3樓平面



圖示說明:

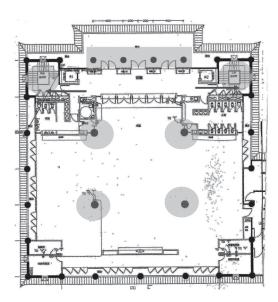
◆ 火災及地震逃生方向

安全之就地掩蔽處

玻璃易碎危險區

· 226 · 聖嚴研究

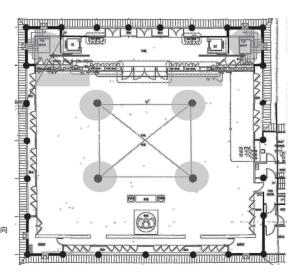
4樓平面



圖示說明:

- ◆ 火災及地震逃生方向
- 安全之就地掩蔽處
- 玻璃易碎危險區

5樓平面



圖示說明:

- ◆ 火災及地震逃生方向
- 安全之就地掩蔽處
- 玻璃易碎危險區

規畫法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間·227·

(四)臺中寶雲別苑逃生路線規畫

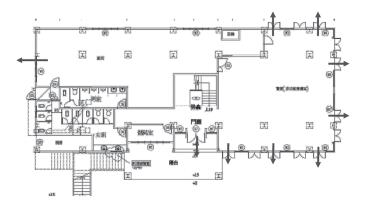
行政大樓1樓平面

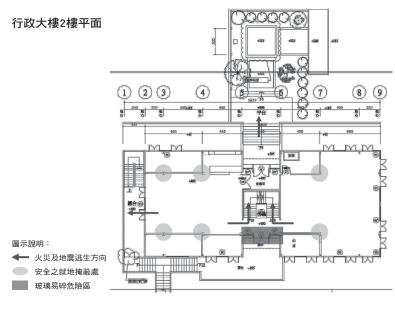
設田

■火災逃生路線與地震相同,如圖粗線及 箭頭方向。唯地震必須先就地掩蔽。 (現場較缺乏安全之就地掩蔽處,注意 遠離易掉落物,以及玻璃牆面)



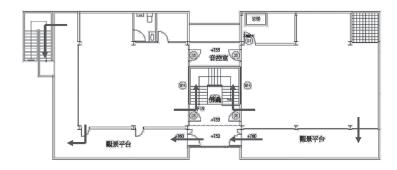
- ◆ 火災及地震逃生方向
- 安全之就地掩蔽處
- 玻璃易碎危險區





· 228 · 聖嚴研究

行政大樓3樓平面



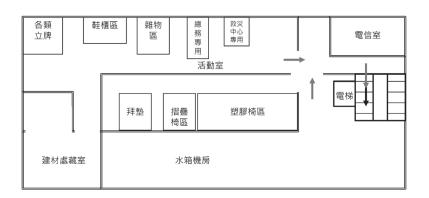
圖示說明:

◆ 火災及地震逃生方向

安全之就地掩蔽處

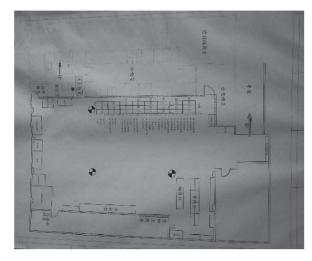
玻璃易碎危險區

行政大樓地下1樓平面



規畫法鼓山成為金山/北海岸地區面對複合性災害之區域急難救助公共空間·229·

行政大樓地下1樓平面



圖示說明:

◆ 火災及地震逃生方向

安全之就地掩蔽處

玻璃易碎危險區

平面建築分布及逃生方向示意圖



圖示說明:

◆ 火災及地震逃生方向

安全之就地掩蔽處

玻璃易碎危險區

· 230 · 聖嚴研究

附件二:本文圖表說明一覽

圖表目次	各圖表說明
<u>富</u> 一	北海岸四區(三芝、石門、金山、萬里)與法鼓山之地 形圖關係
圖一	法鼓山園區之地形,由西勢溪的兩條上游溪流貫穿區域 之「雙溪交抱」圖
圖三	北海岸水系分布資料分析,法鼓山園區位屬磺溪集水區
圖四	金山人口分布與行政區域圖
圖五.	金山各村里與等高線圖關係
圖六	日本相關海嘯之標誌圖
圖七	日本千葉縣緊急避難路線、避難場所與受難區域的示意 圖(未來將以此範本規畫法鼓山/金山區域)
圖八	金山所處的磺溪沖積平原屬於洪災平原敏感地
圖九	金山區土石流潛勢溪流坐落位置;法鼓山園區接近 DF215土石流潛勢溪流
圖十	法鼓山園區與山腳斷層最接近距離1.43公里
圖十一	第一核電廠/第二核電廠與法鼓山園區之相關位置圖; 核災撤離半徑5公里模擬圖
圖十二	第一核電廠與第二核電廠之核災撤離半徑10公里模擬圖
圖十三	第一核電廠與第二核電廠之核災撤離半徑30公里模擬圖
圖十四	第一核電廠/第二核電廠之核災撤離半徑5至30公里模 擬與人口密度之關係圖
圖十五	以40公尺與20公尺等高線套疊地形分布圖,來虛擬海嘯發生時與可能受害區域之關係圖;40公尺等高線以上為安全區,20公尺等高線以下為危險區。
圖十六	金山區域遭遇海嘯的逃生大方向之評估路線

圖表目次	各圖表說明				
圖十七	金山區居住現況與人口活動區域分析				
圖十八	金山都市計畫及等高線圖套繪				
圖十九	(A)新北市公告金山區避難社區公共空間分布圖(民國九十九年社會局) (B)金山區公所公告金山區避難社區公共空間分布圖 (民國一○○年)				
圖二十	金山綜合高中與金山國小之相關位置與海拔高度示意圖				
圖二十一	金山綜合高中校園建築檢討				
圖二十二	金山綜合高中之教室建築量體3D模擬,規畫虛擬海嘯警戒紅線: (A)整體校區, (B)高中教室區, (C)國中教室區				
圖二十三	金山國小及金山國中、金山綜合高中環境剖面關係圖與 實景照片比較				
圖二十四	法鼓山於金山地區災害應對策略藍圖				
圖二十五	雲來寺逃生路線規畫				
圖二十六	天南寺逃生路線規畫				
圖二十七	高雄紫雲寺逃生路線規畫				
圖二十八	臺中寶雲別苑逃生路線規畫				
表一	交通部中央氣象局地震震度分級表				
表二	核一廠/核二廠之疏散半徑5、10、30公里所影響人口 數統計				
表三	新北市公告金山區避難社區公共空間及高度分析				
表四	金山區公所公告金山區避難社區公共空間及高度分析				

Planning the DDM for Facing Complex Disasters and Supplying a Regional Emergency Public-Space in Jinshan / North Coast:

A Project to Extend Loving Care to All

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Abstract

The Dharma Drum Mountain approach is that "to promote comprehensive education and extend loving care to all." Based on this, this study will supply various analysis information to plan the Dharma Drum Mountain for the issue of facing the complex disasters and supplying a regional emergency public-space in Jinshan / North Coast. Moreover, we will provide a management proposal to guide the Dharma Drum Mountain to be the regional center for disaster prevention and loving care to all in the future. Based on this, this study provides a "The disaster response strategy blueprint for Dharma Drum Mountain in Jinshan." This strategy blueprint is classified three action items: Pre-disaster, Post-disaster and Local disaster action research.

This study shows the environmental information of Jinshan and North Coast region by using geographic information system (GIS) as the main analytical method. The various environmental disasters or complex disasters which could be suffered in Jinshan and North Coast region, including floods, landslides, faults / earthquakes, tsunamis and nuclear disaster have showed in this study. The result

indicates the nuclear disaster could be huge threat due to the linear distance between Dharma Drum Mountain and Nuclear Power Plant 1 & 2 are only 5.7 km and 6.2 km, separately. Another serious threat is earthquake because of the mountain-foot fault only 1.5 km distance from Dharma Drum Mountain. In addition, we find the official refuge public-space (new Taipei City publishes 29 places, Jinshan district office publishes 10 places) almost locate in high-risk tsunami area. Moreover, the study has drawn the suffer range, population of impact and escape routes when tsunami hits Jinshan area. We also show the Jinshan high school and elementary school for example to evaluate the campus escape routes and buildings altitude safety assessment for tsunami.

In "The disaster response strategy blueprint for Dharma Drum Mountain in Jinshan," only a few issues project be implemented, likely regular exercises and regional assessments in disaster simulation of Pre-disaster are showed in this study. There is still a considerable number of important topics awaiting execution in the future.

Key words: comprehensive education, regional center, Geographic Information System, escape routes, tsunami

試論聖嚴法師對中華禪之承傳和轉化

——以印順法師觀點為對比之考察

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▮摘要

聖嚴法師同時承接禪宗臨濟、曹洞兩大法脈,弘揚禪學、推廣禪法不遺餘力,有其一定的禪學思想;晚年更以「中華禪法鼓宗」做定位,表達法鼓山之信念主體乃是漢傳禪佛教。然而,晚近中國佛教的衰弱,有學者試著分析其中的原因,認為中國佛教的信仰主流——禪宗和淨土宗,有發展上的偏失,而提出了反省和評論。因此,聖嚴法師如何回應中國禪宗負面的評價,而表達他對中華禪發展的看法,成了值得探討的問題。

本文探究聖嚴法師禪學思想之進路,主要以印順法師觀 點做對比,認為聖嚴法師對禪學的創新詮釋,一方面在於回 應印順法師對禪宗的遲疑,而試著為禪宗找尋新的契機和發 展的可能,並避免弊端的發生。一旦了解印順法師對禪宗的 觀點,再參照聖嚴法師的承傳、調適和轉化,則更可凸顯聖 嚴法師禪學思想之特見。

關鍵詞:印順、聖嚴、中華禪法鼓宗、人間佛教、人間淨土

一、前言

禪宗是中國佛教宗派中最引人矚目的一個,太虛法師曾表示「中國佛學的特質在禪」;①他在〈唐代禪宗與現代思潮〉一文中說,禪宗具有「反信教的學術思想」、「反玄學的實用精神」、「反理論的直覺精神」、「反因襲的創化精神」、「全體融美的精神」及「自性尊圓的精神」等,②高度地推揚禪宗,表示「禪宗實為佛法之精蘊所寄,而又能圓攝各宗而無礙。」③太虛法師認為他的佛教革新運動的浪漫情懷,一部分即源自於禪。④而太虛法師的學生印順法師也認為其師的宗教生命是禪,是受到天台與般若影響的禪。⑤

然而,晚近中國佛教的衰弱,一些學者及僧人試著分析 其中的原因,指出晚近中國佛教的信仰主流——禪宗和淨土 宗,在發展上有所偏失,而提出進一步的反省和評論。如 此,如何思考禪宗的發展問題,及回應中國禪宗負面的評 價,成了值得探討的問題。本文即是以聖嚴法師為主,探索 他的因應之道。

進言之,聖嚴法師同時承接禪宗臨濟、曹洞兩大法脈,

弘揚禪學、推廣禪法不遺餘力,也有其特有的禪學思想;⑥晚年更以「中華禪法鼓宗」做定位,表達法鼓山信念主體乃是漢傳禪佛教,而藉中華禪法鼓宗的創立,維繫漢傳佛教命脈之延續,並把此一使命和責任,寄望於法鼓山的僧俗四眾。本文即是以聖嚴法師為例,來探討他對中華禪之承傳和轉化,主要以印順法師觀點為對比之考察。 ②意即,聖嚴法師對禪學新的開創和詮釋,以及中華禪法鼓宗的建立,一部分可說是回應印順法師對禪宗的遲疑,而試著為禪宗找尋新的契機和發展的可能。而一旦了解印順法師對禪宗的觀點,則更可凸顯聖嚴法師禪學思想之特見。

二、印順法師對佛法之抉擇及禪宗之評斷

(一)抉擇純正法義

印順法師生於一九〇六年,二十五歲出家,出家後與太 虚法師多所互動,認同太虚法師佛教改革之方向,並承繼 「人生佛教」的理想。但印順法師認為中國佛教之所以衰 弱,其中一個要因在於佛法純正義的喪失,使佛法實際面貌 受到掩蔽,因而真正的佛法難以昌明。因此印順法師抉擇純 正法義,回到阿含、般若及中觀的根本精神,也就是「緣起

^{● 《}太虚法師全書·第一編·佛法總學》(2p549)。(本文所引太虚文章 出於《太虚法師全書》光碟版,前數字表冊數,p後表面該冊數之頁碼)。

❷ 《太虚法師全書・第十三編・真現實論宗用論》(20p206)。

③ 《太虚法師全書・第十編・學行》(18p37)。

❹ 《太虚法師全書・第九編・制議》(17p584)。

^{●《}華雨香雲》(Y23p292-293)。(本文所引印順的文章皆是出於《印順 法師佛學著作》光碟第三版之內容,Y後之數字表冊數,p後表面該冊數 之頁碼)。

[●]關於聖嚴法師完整禪學思想之認識,可見辜琮瑜《聖嚴法師的禪學思想》,臺北:法鼓文化,2002年。

[●]關於印順、聖嚴兩位法師思想之對比,亦可參考林建德〈印順及聖嚴「如來藏」觀點之對比考察〉,《臺大中文學報》第40期,2013年3月, 頁291-330。

性空」,以此把握佛法的核心。換言之,印順法師所謂了義、純正的佛法,不能脫離緣起性空來認識。如印順法師說:「唯有依據緣起性空,建立『二諦無礙』的中觀,才能符合佛法的正宗。」③又說:「『緣起性空』的佛法真義,啟示了佛教思想發展的實相。」④對於「緣起性空」在佛法中的地位,印順法師於著作中致意再三,認為佛法的究竟義,即在於此;而所謂契合於真實道理(即「契理」)的佛法,即是契入「緣起性空」。而「緣起」與「空」分別代表原始佛法與初期大乘佛法的精義,印順法師所謂「立本於根本佛教之淳樸,弘闡中期佛教之行解」,⑩其中核心思想即此二者,而對於人間佛教之菩薩行有著重要的意義。

總之,印順法師抉擇純正法義,乃在於確立佛法修學知 見;而對於法義之抉擇,他曾表示:「不以傳於中國者為 是,不以盛行中國之真常論為是,而著眼於釋尊之特見景 行」,**①**亦即不從中國佛教的立場來著眼,而回到早期印度佛 教的經論體認佛陀本懷,並依此反思中國佛教的發展問題, 其中禪宗即是一例。

(二)禪宗之評斷

在確立佛法根本大義之後,印順法師對於在中國形成、

開展的禪宗,主要有兩個評論,認為禪宗走向訶毀知識(輕教)及專重自利這兩個偏差的發展。而此一走向,和印順法師所主張的菩薩行相並不吻合,即菩薩修行重視「悲智雙運」,而後期中國禪宗發展專重修證,並和老莊隱逸思想合流,而傾向聲聞行徑,已然有違菩薩利他入世的修行;其次,後世禪宗不重經教的聞思熏習,獨以心性為宗,此和菩薩重般若空慧之深觀亦有所別異。以下即針對這兩點分述之:

1. 佛法本意之遠離

如前所述,印順法師關心佛法的真實義,以「緣起性空」來格量諸家,並從中顯發大乘菩薩行的意義。而在印順法師佛教思想的判攝中,如來藏(佛性)思想屬於後期大乘佛教的主流,而中國佛教正承接於此,所以如來藏的教義在中國佛教界是最熟悉的一種教說。但印順法師表示,禪宗是屬於後期大乘,思想為真常唯心論,❷而相較於「緣起性空」,此真常唯心思想在他看來並非究竟,屬於四悉檀中「各各為人生善悉檀」,未必能直捷相應於佛法解脫的修行。

對於禪宗乃為真常唯心論,印順法師曾在《無諍之辯》 書中專文表達他的看法,認為禪宗說法,或者禪的思想中, 有所謂「觸著即犯」、「向背俱非」、「說似一物即不中」

❸ 《佛在人間》(Y14p108)。

⁹ 《中觀今論》(Y9pa4)。

^{● 《}印度之佛教》 (Y33pa7)。

^{● 《}無諍之辯》(Y20p123)。

[●] 印順法師說:「中國佛教之傳統學者,以『真常論』為根基(『三論』、『天台』融真常於性空,『唯識』則隱常於真常,『賢』、『禪』、『密』為徹底之真常者,『淨』則隨學者所學而出入之)。」《印度之佛教》(Y33pa5)。

的思維,總是問有以無對、問無以有對,出沒不定。但印順 法師認為這只是思想的表現方式,其內在意旨仍是「真常唯 心」,其中雖多少融攝空宗的方法,但實質上仍是真常唯心 為主的思想。®印順法師認為,中國古代禪師所說乃以心為 宗、以無為門,乃是絕對的唯心論,空無所得只視為是修行 上的方便。表面上禪宗之「說什麼都不是」,近於三論般 若,但這不過是形式的近似而已,實際上仍歸宗於「即心即 佛」的唯心思想。®

換言之,若從思想史脈絡考察,禪宗哲學的確滙集不同的思想傳承,如楊惠南表示禪宗的兩大思想傳承是「般若」與「佛性」。❸但在此兩者之間,究竟禪是佛性思想居多,還是般若為主?對此,印順法師表示,禪宗的思想雖與「空」有關,而骨子裡仍是談「真心」(或「真我」)的。❺

可知,印順法師始終認為緣起與空為佛法的核心要素,

但禪宗傳承如來藏思想為主,而且禪宗長時間在中國發展,深受老莊思想影響,而日益中國化,因此印順法師認為中國禪宗和佛法本意也就愈來愈遙遠,此在後世的發展愈發明顯,而成為具有中國風味的佛教信仰。 如但這在印順法師看來未必是件好事;如他表示,禪宗不只對般若空慧有忽視的傾向,在經教的態度上,受到老莊「絕聖棄智」、「知也者爭之器」影響,而不立文字、輕視經教,專重個人的身心體驗;此雖形成中國禪宗之特色,即但卻也不免產生流弊。 即印

- ① 如印順法師在《永光集》說:「從達摩到慧能,還是不離經教的。由於大唐開始衰亂,五代的衰亂更甚,北方的義學衰落,禪者也日漸中國化。一則由於『以心傳心』、『不立文字』的傳說,引發離經教而自成一套的禪語,如『祖師西來意』、『本分事』、『本來人』、『本來面目』、『無位真人』、『這個』、『那個』、『白牯牛』等。」(Y43p233-234)。
- ❸ 印順法師在〈談入世與佛學〉說:「中國的禪宗,自稱為直傳如來心印。在印度,這是重行的大乘『如來藏禪』,並沒有離教(達摩以《楞伽經》印心,就是真憑實據)。但在中國,受到了南中國文化的陶冶(早期如支道林、竺道生,都有類似的意境);受到老莊『絕聖(例如訶佛罵祖)棄智』(如說:『知之一字,眾禍之門』),以經書為『古人之糟粕』的影響,在中國南方,發展為『不立文字』、『教外別傳』,純經驗的佛學。純經驗的中國佛學,當然是主觀的──重於主體的體認,自己身心的解脫。針對當時義解有餘,修持不足的教風,不能不說是好的。在禪者的努力下,形成一窩蜂的中國禪宗。」《無諍之辯》(Y20p226-227)。
- ●如印順法師在《中國禪宗史》說:「禪者重自心體驗,憑一句『教外別傳』、『師心不師古』,對如來經教的本義,自己體驗的內容,也就愈來愈晦昧不明了!」(Y40pa8)。也說:「『觀心破相』,是禪者對經中所說的法門,用自己身心去解說。無論是否妥當,東山門下是這樣的。禪者不從事學問,對經中所說的,只能就自己修持的內容去解說。」(Y40p170)。

❸ 以上見印順法師《無諍之辯》(Y20p171-174)。

^{●《}大乘起信論講記》(Y7p296)。印順法師在〈「我有一顆明珠」讀後〉一文也表示:「中國佛教長於融通,禪者初期採用了《文殊所說摩訶般若波羅蜜經》;『摩訶般若波羅蜜』,為講說《壇經》的主體。弘忍以來,漸取簡短的《金剛般若波羅蜜經》;到神會更適應當時而專說《金剛般若波羅蜜經》了,而同時也引用《大乘起信論》,所以禪宗的內容,決不是以『緣起性空說』為主的。」《永光集》(Y43p235-236)。

❸ 楊惠南說:「影響中國禪,特別是『南禪』的第一個佛教思想,是《般若經》裡的『般若思想』。另一個影響中國禪的佛教思想,是《楞伽經》裡的『佛性思想』。」見楊惠南〈禪宗的兩大思想傳承是般若與佛性〉,《禪史與禪思》,臺北:東大圖書,1995年,頁1。對此,陳平坤也做了討論,見《慧能禪法之般若與佛性》,臺北:大千出版社,2005年。

⑥ 《無諍之辯》(Y20p173)。

順法師表示,禪宗初期都仍重經教,達摩「二入」中之「理 入」及「行入」,即顯示解行二門並重,但晚期卻從尊教走 向慢教,從教禪一致到教禪別行,如而成為他省思、評判禪宗 的原因之一。

2. 大乘精神之忘失

入世的菩薩道修行是印順法師思想的重點,他所主張的 人間佛教的核心亦在於此──即主張以人身在人間修學菩薩 行而至成佛。印順法師認為此契合於佛出世人間的本懷,畢 竟兩千五百多年前的佛陀亦在人間成佛的。相對的,中國佛 教雖是大乘佛法,但長久以來不重利他的精神,而急求自 證,此如太虛法師稱中國佛教是「說大乘教,修小乘行」, 而印順法師也順此觀點做反思。❹

此「說大乘教,修小乘行」之走向,印順法師認為是中國佛教受到印度佛教瑜伽僧之苦行觀影響,以及中國老、莊 隱遁思想的引導,才逐漸喪失大乘佛教的入世精神;**②**再加上 近現代中國人現實功利傾向較重,太強調家庭個人之私,每所以捨己利他的情操也相當淡薄。因此印順法師在評點「禪門之風格」時,曾指出禪宗初期頗近於聲聞行者,恬淡而有頭陀之風,重實踐而不重論說,有法堂而不立佛殿,經行坐禪於山邊林下,隨遇而安。他們殷切的解脫之心,所謂「己事未明,如喪考妣」,可說沿襲古代聲聞佛教之遺風,每而這也成為儒者批判中國佛教的理由之一。每

佛的理論——從世間而漸向出世的因果信仰,太差勁了!死了變鬼,一死而前功盡棄的習俗信仰,深深的影響中國佛教,與至圓至簡至頓的大乘佛教相結合,也就難怪『說大乘教,修小乘行』了!」《無諍之辯》(Y20p188-196)。可以一提的是,在《無諍之辯》中〈談入世與佛學〉之「大乘精神——出世與入世」有多次提到相關批評,印順法師在回顧其寫作時,也表示此文主要在談論中國佛教的小乘修行,印順法師說:「論『大乘精神——出世與入世』:我以為中國所重的大乘,自稱是大乘中的最上乘,其實是小乘精神的復活,急求自了自證,所以有『說大乘教,修小乘行』的現象。」《華雨集第五冊》(Y29p30-31)。

- ❷ 印順法師說:「中國佛教的崇尚山林,受了印度佛教中,一分苦行瑜伽僧的影響。到中國來,又與老、莊的隱退思想相融合。這才二千年來的中國佛教,與人間的關係,總嫌不夠緊密。現在到了緊要關頭,是不能不回頭恢復佛教的真精神,深入人間的時候了!」《佛在人間》(Y14p118)。
- ❸ 印順法師說:「據個人的了解,宋明以來,國族是在慢性的衰落中。近代的中國人,現實的、功利的、圖現前的,家庭與個人利益的傾向,非常嚴重。」《華雨集第五冊》(Y29p26)。
- ❷《華雨香雲》(Y23p203-204)。
- ❸《我之宗教觀》:「禪者重於自了與出離精神,不能為重人事、重現實的儒者所同意。新的儒者,面對隆盛的佛教──其實是禪宗,而從辨夷夏,道倫常的立場,抨擊佛教──其實是禪宗的自私,遺棄人事。透過佛道思想而重新活躍的儒家──理學,師承了孟子的攻擊精神。孟子攻計楊、墨,現在轉化為攻計佛、老。」(Y19p41)。

❷ 此過程可見印順法師《中國禪宗史》(Y40p331-345)。

^{❷ 關於「說大乘教,修小乘行」,印順法師多次著墨,印順法師說:「抗戰期中,虛大師從南洋訪問回來說:南方的教理是小乘,行為是大乘……。而中國呢,不但教理是大乘的最大乘,頓超直入的修持,也是大乘的最大乘。稱為大乘的最大乘,實是大乘佛教而復活了聲聞的精神──急求己利,急求證入。失去了悲濟為先的大乘真精神,大乘救世的實行,只能寄託於唯心的玄理了!」《學佛三要》(Y15p148-149)。又說:「中國佛教的重於自修自了,出家在家,一體同風,就是這種最大乘思想的實踐。……專心一意於自求解脫,甚至將在佛法中所有種種福德、慧解,看成與本分無關,可說是中國佛教的特色。晚唐以來,佛教漸向衰落階段,這種情形就愈來愈顯著。……中國佛教向高處發展,但從淺處看,在業果相續中,傾向三寶,而福慧輾轉增長,直到成}

以上兩點大致概括印順法師對禪宗的主要評論,發特別是後世的禪宗更是如此。如印順法師表示曹溪禪融攝了牛頭禪,也就融攝老莊思想,形成對知識輕蔑及專重自利的中國禪宗。發而且,禪宗雖有他的偉大處,但其偏重心性體證、歸隱山林的聲聞行徑,以及視深邃精密的義學論理為文字戲論,這都成為偏差的發展,愛也都和菩薩道本意不合。而印順法師之反思評斷,可謂愛深責切;就連太虛法師亦有相似之見,意即太虛法師雖高度推揚禪宗,但也不得不承認禪宗的聲聞走向乃是濃厚的。愛

- ② 國內學人如性廣法師、楊惠南、邱敏捷等人對禪宗之評論,也大致順著 印順的看法,主要以不重義學和聲聞傾向兩點來論斷之。如楊惠南說: 「中國禪,特別是唐以後的中國禪──所謂『南禪』,受到《般若經》 的深刻影響。《般若經》的中心主題是『一切事物都是空』(諸法皆空);……這樣的空,是要闡揚『不厭世間苦,不欣涅槃樂』的積極精 神。但是,中國禪,並沒有吸收《般若經》中這一方面的思想要素,仍 然走入山林生活的自度之路。」見〈禪宗的兩大思想傳承是般若與佛 性〉,《禪史與禪思》,頁24。
- ❸ 印順法師說:「曹溪禪在江南(會昌以後,江南幾乎全屬石頭法系), 融攝了牛頭,牛頭禪不見了。曹溪禪融攝了牛頭,也就融攝老莊而成 為──絕對訶毀(分別)知識,不用造作,也就是專重自利,輕視利他 事行的中國禪宗。」《中國禪宗史》(Y40pa9-10)。
- ❸ 印順法師說:「禪宗,自有它的偉大處。但它偏重心性的體證,過著山邊林下的澹泊生活,有著急了生死的精神,雖自稱為教外別傳的最上乘,而作風卻活像聲聞行徑。無邊佛法,被狹隘為『佛法無多子』。深邃的義學,精密的論理,都被看作文字戲論而忘卻了,這是佛教中偏重智證的一流。」《我之宗教觀》(Y19p41)。
- ② 如印順法師在論述太虛法師的「菩薩心行」即提到:「中國禪宗,自以 為最上乘,直體佛心,以『即心即佛』,『立地成佛』為標幟。依大師 的論判,『附屬於第一期』。的確,『大事未明,如喪考妣』的急證傾

三、聖嚴法師對中華禪之承傳和轉化

(一)傳承宗門法脈

聖嚴法師一九三○年生,十三歲出家,到一九四九年入伍,直到一九六○年退伍後再出家,依止東初法師為剃度師。東初法師是太虛法師的學生,乃曹洞宗創始人洞山良价下第五十代傳人,同時也在臨濟宗下常州天寧寺參學,亦在臨濟宗普陀山系的寺院出家,故一人傳承曹洞宗與臨濟宗兩個法脈,因此聖嚴法師從東初法師出家時,也得到兩系的傳承。此外,在一九七八年臨濟宗法脈的靈源法師,也將臨濟法脈傳給聖嚴法師,法脈字號為「知剛惟柔」,並給了他一份法脈傳承譜《星燈集》,使他與鼓山湧泉寺臨濟宗派下法脈有了傳承關係,同時成為臨濟義玄之下第五十七代傳人。⑩

向,清淨無為的山林氣息,都與聲聞乘大同。而禪者坐亡立脫的作略,與阿羅漢自在捨壽的風格,也極為吻合。不過,聲聞自稱阿羅漢,與佛阿羅漢解脫平等;而禪者則自稱成佛,與佛心心相印而已。禪者雖大抵近於『依聲聞行果而趣向大乘』,但『由了達人生三真相,歸佛法僧,信業果報,修十善行,厭取作,捨壞苦,以階進佛乘者。……中國之少數禪師,若百丈、永明,及少數居士,若龐蘊等,頗得其真。然居極少數人,而為我今所欲極力提倡的』(〈人生觀的科學〉)。百丈是適應時機,為『一日不作,一日不食』的實行者。永明是『萬善同歸』的禪匠。龐蘊為不廢人事的居士。所以大師稱譽為確能體得由人乘而直向佛道的真義。大師對禪宗是相當尊仰的;但真能直探佛陀本懷,依人生修十善行而進向人生之究竟,也只是少數人而已。」《華雨香雲》(Y23p328-329)。

⑩ 《聖嚴法師學思歷程》,臺北:法鼓文化,2005年,頁51-52。

因此在法鼓山法脈傳承,聖嚴法師認為傳承的是近現代中國的四位大師,分別是虛雲、太虛、靈源、東初,動而在這傳承中,太虛是東初的老師,靈源是虛雲的門徒。其中太虛法師雖屬現代化改革派的一系,但基本的佛教定位仍是中國佛教,視佛教法界圓覺的思想為最高理境,而虛雲法師乃近現代禪宗傳統的靈魂人物,也隸屬中國佛教的代表,因此聖嚴法師雖融攝現代和傳統於一身,但就法脈傳承看來依舊是以中國佛教的傳承為主體。

聖嚴法師早年未必定位自己是禪師,卻有著濃厚的學者 色彩,此在《聖嚴法師學思歷程》一書可知;而後期由於法 鼓山的建立及規模的擴大,宗教師的角色偏重,學者的面向 就較淡薄。早期聖嚴法師只是用禪宗的資料來傳播佛法的修 行,以禪的實用性的觀念和方法來指導大眾;❸但在後期即以 禪宗的傳承者自居,進而創立「中華禪法鼓宗」。而且,聖 嚴法師早年較著重於佛教思想的理智面,保持學者的中立客觀的態度,認為自己不屬於任何宗派與學派, @但後期「中華禪法鼓宗」的建立,可說是另一轉折, @當中顯示出聖嚴法師「傳承宗門法脈」之用心和苦心,而這也成為聖嚴法師對佛法的基本立場。

(二)禪宗法門之轉化

雖然聖嚴法師受印順法師觀點啟發甚多,也多次表達印順法師在他思想中烙印的深度,但從他的諸多論述中,可看 出兩人觀點上的差異,甚而有意識地回應印順法師的看法。 因此,對於印順法師評判中國禪宗不重義學和具有聲聞傾 向,聖嚴法師亦有其因應和轉化之道。聖嚴法師明白表示: 他走的路乃在於「結合印度佛教和漢傳佛教」;❸他雖受到印

- ❸ 聖嚴法師表示:「直到現在為止,我並沒有宗派,我並不一定說自己是禪宗的禪師,或是那一宗的法師。如果把佛法的源流弄得比較清楚,回歸佛陀時代的根本思想,那就可以把自己跟全體佛教融合在一起,能夠理解、同情,和承認各系各派的各種佛教思想,而不會受到他們之間彼此互異各執一是的影響。應該說:我是站在十字路口的街沿上,看風光宜人的各色街景,這就是我的中心思想。」見《聖嚴法師學思歷程》,直173-174。
- ❸ 聖嚴法師思想前期或後期的差異,可說是做為學者或思想家的聖嚴法師,及做為宗教家的聖嚴法師的不同。或者,聖嚴法師一直是個宗教家,但前期思想濃,後期信仰實踐重,有著做為宗教家繼亡存絕的任務在。
- 聖嚴法師表示:「將佛法普及於人間,是漢傳佛教的特色,特別是漢傳佛教中的禪佛教。不過,禪佛教本身的理論依據,與原始印度佛教密切相關,也與中國其他宗派交互影響,因此我走的路,便是將印度佛教和中國漢傳佛教的特質結合起來。」見〈如何研究我走的路〉,《聖嚴研究第一輯》,臺北:法鼓文化,2010年,頁19-20。

[●] 可見聖嚴法師專網簡介: http://www.shengyen.org。

[●] 值得注意的,在這傳承之中,並沒有印順法師,印順法師是太虛法師的學生,和東初和靈源屬同輩,因此聖嚴法師雖受印順法師影響很深,但並不認為是他的弟子或學生,只認為是他的晚輩和思想的受益者。

❸ 聖嚴法師表示:「有關於禪學,我沒有做多少學術性的研究,雖然我被哈佛大學的一位教授Kenneth Kraft博士邀請,為他所編的Zen Tradition and Transition(《禪的傳統和演變》)一書,寫過一篇名為〈坐禪〉的論文,從歷史的觀點談坐禪的演變,由美國的Grove Press於一九八八年出版。我也寫過〈禪與禪宗〉、〈壇經的思想〉,發表於《中華佛學學報》,但我畢竟不是以禪學做為研究題材的專家,我只是用禪宗的資料來傳播禪法的修行。雖然我已以中、英文出版了有關於禪的著作十多本,而那都是實用性的觀念指導和方法指導。」見《聖嚴法師學思歷程》,頁172-173。

1. 回歸根本法義:戒定慧的強調

聖嚴法師所提倡的「禪」,常緊扣著《阿含》經教所說 的戒、定、慧三學來談,此舉與中國古代傳統的教導未必都 相同。❸如聖嚴法師在《禪門修證指要》一書的〈自序〉也強

- 聖嚴法師表示:「在我成長的那個年代,佛教界是以太虛法師、印順長老的思想為主流。當時臺灣佛教界約有三、四十年的時間,幾乎一面傾向以印順長老的思想為依歸,在那樣的時代風氣下,我也順隨潮流,追尋印老的思想,因此我受印老思想的影響,可謂相當之深。我十分感恩印順長老帶給我的啟發,然而我走的路,一開始就跟長老不同。我走的是太虛法師的路,也是我師父東初老人的路,因為我認知到:漢傳佛教的包容性、涵融性及適應性,可以順應我們這個時代,發揮其普及化、人間性及人性化的功能;而印度大乘佛教的中觀、唯識,雖然哲學觀念很強,但應用於人間,其普遍性及生活化的推廣、應用,則仍有商量的餘地。事實上,釋迦牟尼佛在人間出現,就是希望我們將他的教法活用在生活上,融入生命之中,並普遍在人間推廣,而非僅僅讓少數的思想家、哲學家和學者進行思辨、研究分析之用。基於這些認知,我選擇了漢傳佛教。」見〈如何研究我走的路〉,《聖嚴研究第一輯》,頁19-20。
- ❸ 聖嚴法師說:「我在慧學方面,是從印度佛教的原始聖典《阿含經》入 手,對於《阿含經》中所說『此生故彼生,此滅故彼滅』的緣起緣滅的 道理,印象非常深刻,故當我解釋或說明佛法根本義理的時候,一定會 從這個立足點上出發又回到這個立足點來。就是我現在所弘傳的禪學,

調,任何佛教的修行,包括禪門的修行也是,都不應離戒定 慧三學,❸而此回歸佛教根本道次第的修行、修證,強調戒定 慧三學為根本原則,可說是聖嚴法師禪法教導的一大特點,❹ 這在中國禪史中應有其特殊性。

2. 融會般若與佛性

聖嚴法師接受印順法師的觀點,認為因緣、空性的思想,方是佛法的真髓所在,而佛教的根本義理也在於此。聖嚴法師即嘗試把禪宗所談的佛性、自性等概念和緣起性空做結合,認為禪宗所謂的明心見性,即是擺脫無明煩惱的清淨心及親證與佛同等的佛性,而此即是空性、即是般若智慧。聖嚴法師表示空性即是佛性,空性是功能,佛性是本體(功能之所屬),兩者可謂一體之兩面。如所以,聖嚴法師認為佛

若以中國禪宗祖師們留下的文獻來看,是屬於如來藏系統的思想,可是我把佛法回歸到緣起性空的原點,不論在修行方法的指導和修行理念的疏通,我都會指出最基本的立場,那便是所謂三法印:『無常、無我、寂靜』。如果偏離三法印的原則,那就很容易跟外道的常見和斷見混淆不清了。」見《聖嚴法師學思歷程》,頁170-171。

- 釋聖嚴〈自序〉,《禪門修證指要》,臺北:東初出版社,1994年,頁2-4。
- ●此如辜琮瑜說:「至於法師禪學觀念之建立,吾人可以發現,其思想雖自中國禪宗之傳承而來,卻以回歸佛陀本懷之基礎佛教教義『緣起性空』、『因緣法』、『因果法』而來,故而其雖承繼禪宗真如如來藏『眾生皆有佛性』之思想特質,卻也因般若空慧之闡發,更能掌握佛法大義。」見《聖嚴法師的禪學思想》,臺北:法鼓文化,2002年,頁34。
- 如聖嚴法師在介紹《六祖壇經》思想說:「其實《六祖壇經》是以般若 為方法,以如來藏為目標,用般若的空觀來破除煩惱的執著,以期達到 『明心見性』的目的。所謂『明心』就是無煩惱的清淨心,『見性』就 是見到與佛無二無別的佛性。佛性是如來藏的另一個名字,清淨心是般

性之概念和空性是相通的,佛性為空性的異名; ❷對此,聖嚴 法師在著作中再三致意,認為如來藏說既可滿足哲學思辨的 要求,也可滿足信仰的要求,可以連接緣起性空的源頭,也 可貫通究竟實在的諸法實相,而和神教外道的梵我、神我大 有區別。❸

3. 理性和知識的重視

印順法師對禪宗末流之狂禪輕教有所批判,而強調正知 正見的重要。然而,在聖嚴法師所強調的禪,一直重視聞思 修慧的過程。聖嚴法師表示,禪學與正信的佛教要重視「從 禪出教」及「藉教悟宗」兩種說法;一則透過禪的體驗來親 證佛教義理,另外則也要透過經教所示的修行觀念和方法來

若智慧的別名,它是用般若智慧以達見性成佛的目的。此二者雖有不同的名字,也有不同的立場,然而是一體的兩面。若得其一,必得其二,不見其一,不得其二;明心一定能見性,見性一定是心地光明。從中觀的立場看般若,若得般若即見諸法自性是空,那就是目的,不再另有如來藏、佛性、法性等目的可求。可是從如來藏系統來看,般若只是功能,不是其本體;功能必定有其所屬,所以產生了如來藏和佛性等思想。於是《六祖壇經》雖讓人見到般若的思想,實際上是以如來藏為根本,這是非常明顯的事。」見《禪與悟》,《法鼓全集》光碟版,頁297-298。

- ❷ 聖嚴法師說:「對一般人而言,『佛性』似乎是有一樣東西的存在,事實上佛性即無性,《金剛經》的『無相』,在《六祖壇經》中又叫作『無性』,早期《阿含經》則叫作『空』、『無常』、『無我』,都是空性的意思。」《漢藏佛學同異答問》,《法鼓全集》光碟版,頁10-11。又說:「開悟的人,若非中觀見,那他尚未開悟,他的開悟是假的。執空執有,皆非開悟。講『開悟』悟什麼?悟空性,此空性並非頑空。……佛法之開悟,是悟非常非斷之空性。」見《漢藏佛學同異答問》,頁68。
- ❸《自家寶藏——如來藏經語體譯釋》,《法鼓全集》光碟版,頁5。

引導修持, ●而這都是強調理性和知識在禪宗修行的重要性, 與禪宗傳統所說的「不立文字」、「直指人心」等,過於專 注於心性體證而捨棄經教有所別異。

4. 大乘入世精神之追求

印順法師對中國禪宗其中一個批判,即是禪宗聲聞傾向 太濃,而接近於老莊之歸隱思想。然而,聖嚴法師所提倡的 禪,受到太虛法師和印順法師之啟示,卻強調大悲心和大願 心,以此追求大乘精神以落實菩薩道理想,而這已然和印順 法師所批評的中國禪宗有所不同。每

- 聖嚴法師說:「佛教的產生,起源自禪修,故有『從禪出教』及『藉教悟宗』兩種說法。(一)從禪出教:一般人均存有錯誤觀念,以為修禪是專為禪宗而設的法門,只有禪宗才需要禪修。實際上,原始佛教和佛教理論的出現,都是我們的佛祖──釋迦牟尼佛透過修行禪定而創立。直至後期,歷代祖師們亦同樣經歷著深厚的禪修基礎和體驗,實證實修,新的見地不斷湧現,才分支出各種宗派的理論和修行方法。因此,禪便是佛教,禪修亦非禪宗專有的法門。(二)藉教悟宗:藉教悟宗是指依據教義理論指引的方法、觀念而修行、開悟;如果缺乏方法和理論,修行便顯得無從著力。佛陀在成佛以前,曾經體驗諸多的修行方法而致開悟,之後則繼續在當時的印度說法。佛陀曾說過,在有佛法的時期,沒有人能夠不依據佛教的教理和修行便能開悟。因此,如果有人主張不需依據佛法也能開悟,並且自稱是佛教徒,甚至吹噓自己已經開悟成佛,這都不是真正的佛教徒或佛教,只能稱為附佛法外道。真正的佛教徒,必定以佛經、佛教的觀念及方法,做為標準和修行。」見《動靜皆自在》,《法鼓全集》光碟版,頁25-26。
- 聖嚴法師表示:「一個開悟的人是不會離開世間的,而是隨順世間一切現象,無條件的度化眾生。……一個證得法性的人,必能安住在法性中,對他自己而言,是絕對的滿足,但面對外在的環境,則須配合環境的需要而運作。比如釋迦牟尼成佛之後,仍要度眾生。他因慈憫眾生的種種痛苦而出家修行,求解脫的目的不是為自己,而是為解脫眾生,所

5. 「人間淨土」的建設

法鼓山乃以「提昇人的品質,建設人間淨土」做為目標。因此法鼓山雖是漢傳禪佛教的道場,但「人間佛教」和「漢傳禪佛教」兩者間並不是對立的,甚而可相輔相成;而法鼓山體系所創設的教育、文化、慈善、環保等入世工作,皆是在人間淨土建設的理念下所推動的。此外,聖嚴法師認為漢傳佛教或者漢傳的禪佛教,包容及融合特質強,因此不只印度佛教、藏傳佛教可用來滋潤助長漢傳佛教的發展;同樣的,聖嚴法師認為「人間佛教」亦可助益漢傳佛教的發揚光大。每如此溝通現代的人間佛教與傳統的禪佛教,或者說,調合印順思想與傳統中國佛教信仰間看似緊張的關係,使不致於對立或衝突,甚而可適切交會、融合,聖嚴法師所創的法鼓山可說立下了示範。

6. 強調整合和融通

相對於印順法師力求辨異,聖嚴法師具有中國佛教徒的 融通性格,曾表示他所教授的禪法,除了經教所言之外,也

以成佛之後並沒有逃離人間。」見《漢藏佛學同異答問》,頁26,相關內容則見:頁25-27。也說:「在修行之前,在修行期間,必定要發起大願心來。願有通願及別願,通願是四弘誓願,凡是學禪的人,若不發四弘誓願,縱然得定,也不能得禪;別願則除四弘誓願之外,另外隨著個人的心願如何便發何願。」見《禪的體驗,禪的開示》,《法鼓全集》光碟版,頁114,相關內容則見:頁112-117。

● 所以聖嚴法師多年來以漢傳的禪佛教為背景,將禪佛教的觀念及方法,轉化成一個新名詞叫「心靈環保」,並以此為主軸,來推動「提昇人的品質,建設人間淨土」的理念。可知,聖嚴法師之「心靈環保」、「人間淨土」等,皆是以漢傳的禪佛教為背景的展現形式,即藉由漢傳佛教來從事佛教修行(即心靈環保)並實現佛教理想(即人間淨土)。

可知,印順法師重純正法義的抉擇,但聖嚴法師則重於 宗門法脈之傳承,在傳承的同時,卻又不斷進行調適和轉 化。如上所述之回歸根本法義,強調戒定慧做為修學綱領, 並融會般若與佛性兩者,特重理性和知識在佛法修學的重要 性,以及菩薩入世精神之追求及人間淨土的建設等,都顯示 聖嚴法師的禪學、禪法已然和中國佛教傳統不同而別開生 面,而這也在於回應印順法師的憂慮和質疑。例如回歸根本 法義、融會般若與佛性、重理性和知識,主要是關注於佛法 之本意,而菩薩入世情懷之著重及人間淨土之理想,則是為 在提振大乘佛教精神,因此可說聖嚴法師所開創的禪學特

[●] 聖嚴法師說:「我透過自己的經驗,將釋迦世尊以來,在經教中所見的 種種鍛鍊身心的方法,加以層次化、合理化地教導有心修學的人。」見 《禪的生活》,《法鼓全集》光碟版,頁73。

[●]此如同聖嚴法師說:「大體來說,我的思想屬於漢傳佛教,因此,不管是哪一種學說,只要經過我,就變成了漢傳佛教的學說,譬如唯識、中觀,它是屬於印度佛教的學說,但是經過我的詮釋以後,就融入了漢傳佛教的內涵;當然也有根本是屬於漢傳佛教的禪,可是我又把它與印度的中觀、唯識思想結合起來。」見〈以研究「聖嚴」來推動淨化世界〉,《聖嚴研究第一輯》,頁29。

色,亦是在印順法師影響、啟發下而來的,而不了解印順法 師佛法思想之特色,則未必能深切掌握聖嚴法師對中國佛教 及禪宗獨到的創發和貢獻。

四、試論聖嚴法師創立中華禪法鼓宗之禪門特色

聖嚴法師晚年的思想,在《承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗——法鼓山的傳承》 ⑤ 小書中明白顯示出來;書中表示,他以中國佛教之傳統為念,希望後世能珍視此遺產,以之為立足點,而做承先啟後、繼往開來的依據,而他所創立的中華禪法鼓宗即是肩負此一使命。其中,「中華禪法鼓宗」一節乃占據最多篇幅,此可說是總結聖嚴法師畢生心血結晶之所在;即他試著從中華禪法鼓宗的成立,起示範作用,來促使漢傳佛教的復興,使在南傳、藏傳佛教盛行的現代世界裡,可以看到漢傳佛教的參與。對聖嚴法師創立中華禪法鼓宗之禪門特色,以下即分四點做論述:

(一) 衰頹中重振漢傳佛教(救急存亡)

聖嚴法師對中國佛教之衰弱,一直有悲切之關懷,而試

圖力挽狂瀾。他曾有「中國當代佛教的苦悶」、「中國佛教冬眠了」、「中國佛教落伍了」等之感嘆,⑩認為中國佛教的問題在於教育失敗,而因此強調教育的重要,認為今天不辦教育,佛教就沒有明天。此外,人才凋零也是關鍵,因此必須透過人才的培養來提振佛教,而人才的培養正是透過教育,因此聖嚴法師表示:「佛教需要優秀的人才,優秀人才需要好的教育。」⑪可知,聖嚴法師認為教育失敗、人才稀疏這兩個佛教衰敗的原因,其實可說是同一個。⑩

[●] 如果說〈契理契機的人間佛教〉一文乃是印順法師說明一生核心思想之關注,那麼《承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》(臺北:法鼓山文化中心,2007年。)可說是聖嚴法師晚年思想定論之交代,內容含括聖嚴法師使命與責任之所在,說明法鼓山存在的意義和使命,以及介紹「中華禪法鼓宗」的宗門思想,值得分外留意。但不同的是,〈契理契機的人間佛教〉乃是對所有佛教人士包含佛教學者所說的,而《承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》預設的對象,主要是法鼓山弟子和信眾,以表達法鼓宗之思想主體,使後人得以依隨、參照,傳承漢傳禪佛教的法脈。

[●] 見〈再論今後中國佛教的教育與文化〉,《教育·文化·文學》,《法 鼓全集》光碟版,頁43、57、59。

[●] 見〈佛教需要優秀的人才·優秀人才需要好的教育〉,《教育·文化· 文學》,《法鼓全集》光碟版,頁152-155。

[●] 就聖嚴法師的觀點而言,中國佛教的落後是教育和人才的問題使然,而未必是教義思想的偏失;相對的,印順法師認為中國佛教根源性的問題,乃在於思想。也因為如此,聖嚴法師畢生著力最多乃在於辦學和從事佛教文化的出版工作,而印順法師則是深入經藏,著眼於佛教義理思想的探索,各自為佛教前景做出貢獻。因此,印順法師和聖嚴法師兩人雖共同認定晚近中國佛教是衰退的,也同時面對著近現代中國佛教的危機及挑戰,接續太虛法師復興佛教的心願,但印順法師和聖嚴法師兩人的關注點仍是有所不同。

❸ 晚年聖嚴法師在《承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》也表示:「漢傳佛教被否定的原因,是因近代漢傳佛教培養專精於漢傳的人才太少,解行並重的人、真修實悟的人不多見。因為深入漢傳佛教而能有修有證者不多,自我否定的漢人佛教徒就多了。將來我們法鼓山的僧俗四眾,會不斷的接

國佛教發展之憂心與殷切盼望。文中提到中華禪之沒落,使 得歐美人士之慕道習禪者,乃選擇日韓二系者居多,而到 二十一世紀初,才又開始重視中華文化之涵融及消融的特 性。但法師心中仍存有憂心,此憂心主要還是兩個部分:一 是人才寥落,即通宗通教而對其本末源流得識權實者極少, 以及願意探索漢傳佛教而為現代人釐清脈絡次第者也很少; 二是奔走於南傳及藏傳門下之淺學自驕者眾多。蛩

對此衰敗現象,聖嚴法師即試著以中華禪法鼓宗來建立 典範,救急存亡。他在〈告誡眾弟子書〉表示,現在漢系佛 弟子對漢傳佛教鄙夷的態度,乃是他們的無知淺聞,而不能 了解漢傳佛教之特色,他認為漢傳佛教出於印度大乘亦融貫 大小三乘,乃為發展中適時適境而又不違根本之佛教,其中

觸到南傳和藏傳的高層僧侶,一看他們會講、會說、會告訴你怎麼修行,修行什麼法門有什麼好處、什麼成就,就會覺得他們很好。如果我們對漢傳佛教都不會講、不懂得如何修行、不清楚漢傳佛教的立足點,當然就會跟著人家走了。」見《承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》,臺北:法鼓山文化中心,2007年,頁38。

● 聖嚴法師說:「數十年來使吾憂心而晝夜不已者有四:漢傳佛教人才寥落,其一也。漢人佛教界能通宗通教而對其本末源流得識權實者極少,其二也。漢人佛教徒中願意探索漢傳佛教而予以重新為現代人釐清脈絡次第者極希,其三也。淺學自驕者流競相奔走於南傳及藏傳門下則成群成隊者,其四也。」見《美好的晚年》,臺北:法鼓文化,2010年,頁7。此外,〈告誡眾弟子書〉一文,也論及現今漢傳佛教怪現象,如:(一)有一新一代之住持僧,對三百餘年歷史古剎竟非整舊如舊,而是重新設計,使古文物遭殃,令人心痛,此歸咎於僧人之未讀書;(二)弟子與師,爭奪開山之功勞;(三)身著漢僧服裝者,以漢寺及漢人社會為衣食資生,卻口口聲聲批評漢傳佛教。聖嚴法師表示,這些都是漢傳佛教發展令人擔心,乃至痛心之處。(同上書,頁7-8。)

禪宗百丈的戒律觀,既不違背、亦不墨守大小乘戒律,堪為世界佛教之參行。因此,聖嚴法師告誡他的弟子,否定漢傳祖脈源流而自以為是的並非是他的弟子。❺

總之,面對漢傳佛教衰頹之勢,漢傳佛教拿什麼和人 平起平坐?——復興佛教、繼絕存亡成為聖嚴法師的核心關 注,而聖嚴法師認為禪宗是一個可能,中華禪可成為世界信 仰風潮中漢傳佛教的王牌,而他把復興佛教的期望即寄放在 禪宗。因此,他提出「中華禪法鼓宗」之目的,乃期勉法鼓 山的僧俗四眾,以復興「漢傳禪佛教」為己任。如此,我們 不只可談禪的過去、禪的歷史,關於禪的現在和未來的開 創,也可特別注意,而聖嚴法師所立的「中華禪法鼓宗」即 是一個可能。

(二)融傳統於現代(繼往開新)

聖嚴法師以中國佛教之傳統為念,希望後世能珍視此遺產,以之為立足點,而做承先啟後。其中承先即是繼往,啟後則為開來,此承先啟後、繼往開來即意味著承傳和轉化;而他所創立的中華禪法鼓宗即是肩負此一使命。換言之,聖嚴法師認為傳統的中國佛教,需要的不是揚棄,而是轉化,在聖嚴法師晚年所著之《承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》,也表示融傳統於現代乃是他的使命與責任,他畢生的努力,乃是為了使得傳統的中印佛教諸宗,落實到現代人的一般生活之

母《美好的晚年》,頁8。

中,使得多數的現代人,看懂而會應用佛法的智慧。 60

此外,聖嚴法師認為,中華禪法鼓宗之承先啟後,此承 先啟後乃接續著釋迦牟尼佛以來,而至於漢傳佛教以及漢傳 佛教的禪宗傳統,其間過程皆是薪火相傳、一脈相承的。如 此,聖嚴法師以肯定而不否定、不輕蔑的態度來學習和接納 各個佛教傳統,並試著使法鼓山的禪佛教跟世界接軌,而廣 為世界的佛教接受。聖嚴法師表示,法鼓山即是在此承先啟 後的原則下,將漢傳佛教建立為法鼓山的主體,而把漢傳佛 教的禪法重新發揚光大。

(三)攝取諸宗之長(兼容並蓄)

聖嚴法師提到他是承接印度佛教根本思想,肯定藏傳佛教優良面,卻以漢傳佛教做為立足點;認為漢傳佛教之好是好在有其消融性、包容性、適應性、人間的普及性以及社會的接納性。因此,他是將印度佛教(包括巴利語系)乃至藏傳佛教,引為漢傳佛教的源頭活水,來滋潤助長漢傳佛教於現今及未來世界的發揚光大。相對的,若以印度佛教及他系佛教來批判修正漢傳佛教,等於為漢傳佛教舉辦告別式,此

不僅是人類智慧遺產的損失,也是佛教歷史的憾事。 60

聖嚴法師在《承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》小書中,第三節〈漢傳佛教的特色:融合諸宗精華的禪宗〉即表示,他是站在現代人所見漢傳禪佛教的立足點上,希望把印度佛教的源頭以及南北傳諸宗的佛法做一些溝通,\$P\$五節〈法鼓山所弘揚的禪佛教〉也表示,他立足於漢傳禪佛教的基礎上,不棄學術思想的研討,亦不被言教文字所困囿,而活用印、漢、藏三大主流的各派佛學,以期能無往不利及無遠弗屆。

換言之,聖嚴法師認為禪具有多樣風貌,而有各種呈顯的可能,如從印度佛教如來藏、空性思想,到中國文化的道家學說等,歷經不斷地融會、創造與發展,與中國佛教天台、華嚴等其他宗派相較,明顯有較高的可塑性;而且禪宗融合諸宗精華,影響中國佛教甚深、甚大,這都是禪的優勢

[●] 在《承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》的〈前言〉中,聖嚴法師表示,這本小書闡述他個人對於漢傳佛教的使命感與責任心,說明中華禪法鼓宗的淵源、因緣和目的,也是敘述他建立法鼓山教團的宗旨和目的。更表示,他身為漢傳禪佛教的臨濟、曹洞兩系的法裔,住世期間未能見到漢傳禪佛教快速復興,但至少也要將此一使命和責任,寄望於法鼓山的僧俗四眾來持續地推動,以利益普世的人間大眾。(頁4-5)。

³⁰ 同註**33**,頁8。

⑤完整文句為:「既然有人指責漢傳佛教之流弊,也就有人否定漢傳佛教之價值,並主張以印、藏佛教來取代漢傳佛教,或以之來批判修正漢傳佛教。我則不然,我是承接印度佛教根本思想,肯定藏傳佛教優良面,卻以漢傳佛教做為立足點,漢傳佛教之好是在於有其消融性、包容性、適應性、人間的普及性以及社會的接納性。因此我是將印度佛教(包括巴利語系)乃至藏傳佛教引為漢傳佛教的源頭活水,來滋潤助長漢傳佛教的發揚光大於現今及未來的世界。否則若以印度佛教及他系佛教來批判修正漢傳佛教,便等於為漢傳佛教舉辦告別式了。這種態度不僅是人類智慧遺產的損失,也是佛教歷史的憾事。何況人類文化的歷史是向前演進的,一定有其演進過程的必要性及合理性,如果再把歷史倒轉來走,回到其源頭豈不是僅剩下根本的原始佛教,而凡是發展的部派佛教以及印、漢、藏的各派大乘佛教,都要被修正或拋棄了呢?」見《承先殷後的中華禪法鼓宗》,頁6-7。

⁵ 同註**5** ,頁44、46。

⁶0 同註**6**3 , 頁53。

(四)學術與信仰之結合(解行並重)

相對於禪宗後期慢教、輕教的走向,聖嚴法師有所警覺和自我提醒。不只是禪宗信仰,他對佛教修行中過於神祕、虚玄、迷妄乃至偏激的修行,皆導之以理性、人文、正信、開明的信仰風格,試著回歸達摩以理、行二入做為修行指引,或者說回歸佛陀教法解行並重的特質,而此重理性、人文的風格,可說亦是受到印順法師之影響。愛

聖嚴法師重視佛教知見的弘化,重視培養佛教弘法人

才,包括培養佛教學者;特別是鼓勵佛教學者,非是僅做佛書研究的學者,而能帶有對宗教性的熱情與情操。對於佛教學術研究的重要性及必要性,聖嚴法師即表示:「一個偉大的宗教,應該具備三個條件:第一是信仰的實踐,第二是理論的基礎,第三是學術的研究。若無信仰的實踐,便不是宗教而是倫理學說;宗教的信仰和實踐,又必須有其深厚的哲學理論做為指導的基準,方不致流為地方性、民俗性和非理性的鬼神信仰。」每可知,聖嚴法師重視佛教學術思想的研討,投入大量資源培養佛學弘化及研究人才,同時也重視修行之信仰實踐(如成立僧伽大學),如此在理論與實踐,或者說智慧與慈悲二門,聖嚴法師可說開創了和傳統中國禪宗不一樣的風貌。

五、結語

本文探討聖嚴法師對中華禪之承傳和轉化,包括對印順 法師禪宗思想批判之回應。聖嚴法師曾以「只會看病而拙於 治病的學者風貌」∰評論印順法師,認為他能精準看出傳統佛 教問題之所在,但卻未有明確有效的藥方進行診治。意即,

從迷信的漢傳佛教拉出來,而我因此看到了有智慧、正信的漢傳佛教。 所以我講的漢傳佛教、我講的禪宗和淨土,都與歷史上的漢傳佛教有所 不同,這一點諸位學者如果用心看的話,可以看得出來。」見〈以研究 「聖嚴」來推動淨化世界〉,《聖嚴研究第一輯》,頁33-34。

^{●《}承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》:「中國佛教一講到禪宗,大概就是包含了一切宗派。在禪宗的寺院裡,有的研究華嚴、天台,有的研究唯識、三論,也有人研究律,而且禪寺裡絕多數人也是念佛的,以致有參『念佛是誰』的公案話頭。禪宗的寺院也容納了真言密咒,禪寺常持誦的有:〈尊勝咒〉、〈楞嚴咒〉、〈大悲咒〉、〈十小咒〉等。因此可說,禪宗乃是成熟而實用化了中國大乘諸宗的精華,也涵蓋了中國大乘諸宗的長處、用處。」(頁45)。

② 聖嚴法師說:「印順長老是不是漢傳佛教的?不是,他所研究、傳播的,他的信仰、信心是中觀,他批判瑜伽、唯識,只肯定中觀思想,他的一生是這樣。因此,簡單來說,印順長老不是漢傳佛教,而我是非常重視漢傳佛教。雖然如此,我受印順長老的影響還是非常深刻,他把我

❸ 《聖嚴法師學思歷程》,頁166。

[●] 釋聖嚴〈印順長老的護教思想與現代社會〉,《中華佛學學報》第4期, 1991年7月,頁10。

相對於印順法師重佛法根本法義,強調信佛但不一定信祖師,聖嚴法師不只信佛同時也信祖師,不一致時就進行個人的調解和轉化。此如聖嚴法師自己所說,他所走的路乃在於結合印度佛教和漢傳佛教,而此一路線,亦可說是聯結、修補印順法師與中國歷代祖師之間隙縫。換言之,聖嚴法師對禪宗進行回歸(承傳)、修正、補強、轉化和創新,立本佛陀之教法,吸收祖師大德之經驗,並融入個人之體會,已使中華禪有不同而貌的體現。每

對於聖嚴法師而言,禪可說是最具開創、活潑、多元和 靈動的特質,也因此聖嚴法師認為禪佛教最容易普及而廣為 大眾所接受。禪佛教既和印度原始佛教密切相關,也深和中 國各宗各派交互影響,而有更大的包容性、適應性。誠然, 禪一直有著無限的發展潛力,而可產生巨大的影響,特別是 禪運用在文藝領域中,更有寬廣的發揮空間。例如兩千年諾 貝爾文學獎得主高行健其多次公開表示在中國文化中,他最 推崇禪宗,他對六祖惠能的評價高過中國任何一個思想家, 而禪的思想也成為他創作的養分之一。高行健代表著作《靈 山》即具有一定的禪意,《八月雪》亦以禪史之架構為基礎 創作成劇本,可知禪之重視內在、直覺、體驗與感受,在宗 教、藝術、文學等領域有無限發展的潛力。⑥此外,在科學研 究上,禪及禪修亦能提供可能的貢獻和啟發,例如詹姆士· 奧斯汀(James Austin)雖是個神經科學家,但長期跟著日本 禪師學禪,把禪和腦科學研究結合在一起,近來發展不少著 述而受到學界矚目,⑥即是其中一例。

總之,本文從印順法師觀點來對比聖嚴法師禪學思想之

過去,中國思想界只把慧能當作一位宗教的革新家,殊不知他正是一位思想家,甚至可以說是一位大思想家,一位不立文字、不使用概念的大思想家,大哲人。我們應當從『思想家』這個層面去理解慧能。只有這樣,我們才能看清他在人類思想史上獨特的地位和意義。」(同上書,頁301。)還說:「慧能提示了一種生存的方式,他從表述到行為都在啟示如何解放身心得大自在。他是東方的基督,但他與聖經中的基督不同,他不宣告救世,不承擔救世主的角色,而是啟發人自救。」(同上書,頁302。)

- ⑤ 印順法師在《我之宗教觀》也表示:「禪者是著重體證的。真切的悟境,是性靈的直觀。所以禪者應用象徵的表現方式,流露出直覺的,藝術的壯美。禪者的心境,大抵不適於研究經教,不能重視名理,卻不妨美的文藝。禪者輕視義學,其實他根本無法學會嚴密的義學;但卻能發出意境高遠,而平淡現成的好詩文。真正的禪者,不是拘謹的,是熱情的,殺活自在的。」(Y19p43)。
- ⑤ 這些書皆由MIT所出版,計有Selfless Insight: Zen and the Meditative Transformations of Consciousness (2009), Zen and the Brain: Toward an Understanding of Meditation and Consciousness (1999), Zen-Brain Reflections: Reviewing Recent Developments in Meditation and States of Consciousness (2010), Meditating Selflessly: Practical Neural Zen (2011),其中Zen and the Brain一書有中文節譯本,見朱迺欣編譯《禪與腦──開悟如何改變大腦的運作》,臺北:遠流出版社,2007年。

❺ 相近的努力,曾經在臺灣佛教界掀起一陣旋風的現代禪李元松也是以禪之姿,力圖為漢傳佛教謀求出路;即以漢傳禪佛教的延續做為職志,盼能為中國佛教注入活水源頭。

⑤ 高行健說:「禪,其實,與其說是宗教,不如說它是一種立身的態度, 一種審美。」見《論創作》,臺北:聯經出版社,2008年,頁300。也 說:「自從鈴木大拙在美國哥倫比亞大學和美英各大學講禪後,西方已 有不少研究禪宗的著作。但都偏重於學問。而禪本身恰恰不是學問。西 方的學者、作家儘管對禪有興趣,但很可能一輩子都掌握不了禪的精 髓。禪把哲學變成一種生命體驗,一種審美方式,這點很了不起。……

特色,認為聖嚴法師之禪學詮釋,以及「中華禪法鼓宗」之創立,可說已開拓禪門新氣象。即相對於印順法師對禪宗的實然面,對「禪宗」進行學術性的描述、研究和分析,聖嚴法師則強調「禪」的應然面,試著陳述理想中的如來藏思想,應該是要和空性結合,或者即是空性本身。而過去中國禪宗在發展上或有偏頗之走向,但這不代表「禪」的本質即是如此;也就是說,「禪」本身是什麼,以及把「禪」理解成什麼,乃是不同的問題。例如中國禪宗主流固然可以說重於真常唯心思想,但「禪」之本身未必一定如此,也可是以般若性空為主。如此,「禪」的深意、內涵和境界,可以不斷地被導引、深化和創造,而在不離佛法根本原則下,對「禪」做創造性詮釋。因此,除了對禪宗的歷史背景進行考證、探究外,對於禪法、禪學開創性的拓展,也是可重視的面向,並試著思索漢傳佛教可能之出路和希望;對此,聖嚴法師可說立下一個可供參照的典範。

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On Master Shengyen's Lineage and Transformation of *Ch'an (Zen)*Buddhism:

By Way of Contrasting his Views and those of Master Yinshun

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Abstract

Master Shengyen's lineage of Buddhism belongs to both traditions of Lin-ji [Rinzai- $sh\bar{u}$] and Cao-dong [$S\bar{o}t\bar{o}$ - $sh\bar{u}$] Schools of Ch'an [Zen]. Having diligently popularized the philosophy and method of Ch'an meditation, he established in his old age a monastery and posited its core tenets, the "Dharma Drum Lineage of Ch'an Buddhism," being in line with Ch'an Buddhism as developed in China. Some analyses by Buddhism scholars, have suggested that the two dominant streams of Chinese Buddhism, respectively Ch'an Buddhism and Pure Land Buddhism, are responsible for the decline of modern Chinese Buddhism due to their developmental deviations and errors. Many reflections and reviews have been put forth. How Master Shengyen responded to negative assessments of Buddhism, therefore, not only reveals his special views on Ch'an but also gives rise to a problem that is worthy of further investigation.

This paper approaches the *Ch'an* philosophy of Master Shengyen mainly through contrasting his viewpoints with those of Master Yinshun. I suggest that Master Shengyen's creative interpretation of *Ch'an* could be taken as his response to some of Master Yinshun's ambivalences towards the *Ch'an* School. I also

· 268 · 聖嚴研究

suggest that Master Yinshun has been exploring new opportunities and possibilities to develop *Ch'an* Buddhism into one that could forestall various abuses. Once we understand Master Yinshun's views on *Ch'an*, while examining Master Shengyen's *Ch'an* lineage as well as his own adjustments and transformations, we can highlight more clearly Master Shengyen's unique perspective of *Ch'an*.

Key words: Yinshun, Shengyen, Dharma Drum Lineage of *Ch'an* Buddhism, *Ren Jian* Buddhism, *Ren Jian* Pure Land

聖嚴法師創建法鼓山之時代意義——以「四個環保」思想為對象之研究

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▋摘要

本研究以「聖嚴法師創建法鼓山之時代意義——以『四 個環保』思想為對象之研究」為題目,研究目的是:探討 聖嚴法師創建法鼓山在當代佛教歷史上的意義,並以「四 個環保 | 思想的研究為主軸,指出聖嚴法師一大使命、三大 教育、四個環保的理念,以及「心五四」、「心六倫」運動 之推動,是佛教參與現代社會建設的奮鬥努力;而法鼓山世 界佛教教育園區的落成開山,更是肩負著新時代之使命,具 有弘揚正法的功能,也是佛教在當代復興之命脈所在。進一 步而言,法鼓大學之籌建,發揮著大學院、大普化的教育功 能, 並非社會上普通的綜合大學, 也唯有這所大學的建立, 才是臺灣真正的第一所佛教大學;至於「中華禪法鼓宗」之 提出,則是從承先啟後的角度,說明立足於漢傳禪佛教的基 礎上,與世界佛教的會通,並且接納發揮世界各系佛教之所 長。換言之,法鼓山之建設,將是中國佛教未來發展的一個 重要指標,因此,本研究的成果,一方面可以做為法鼓山內 部的參考,另一方面,藉此研究得出的訊息是:佛教參與社 會建設將不能忽略「禪法」的堅持,因為法鼓山正是以「禪

修」的精神貫徹到各個活動之中,具有心靈啟蒙的作用,卻 又超越宗教的儀式與規範,成為現代社會不可缺少的安定力 量。這項特色,將有別於臺灣其他佛教道場,應該加以重 視。

關鍵詞:聖嚴法師、法鼓山、四個環保、心靈環保、中華禪 法鼓宗

一、緒論

法鼓山世界佛教教育園區是由聖嚴法師於一九八九年開始創建,並於二〇〇五年落成開山,法鼓山這個道場之建立,代表著近代佛教復興運動的一個重要里程碑。因為創辦人聖嚴法師(一九三〇~二〇〇九年)是以「建設人間淨土」為理念,實現自太虛大師以來佛教推動「人間化」的目標,並且在繼承中有其創造,將人間佛教的精神全面推動與普遍落實,因此,深具時代的意義。

人間佛教目前已是佛教界的普遍共識,在臺灣,也有可觀的成果,各大道場都有自己的特色與成就。不過,法鼓山的建設,是在聖嚴法師六十歲那年才開始,同時,也是這個時候正式提出「建設人間淨土」這個理念。換言之,法鼓山之所以出現,是為了落實「建設人間淨土」而來;而關於「人間淨土」這個名詞,它是與「人生佛教」、「人間佛教」具有關係,卻又有所不同。回顧上個世紀以來佛教的復興運動,「人間化」的追求是佛教現代化的重要努力,自太虛大師提倡「人生佛教」,印順法師繼之而有「人間佛教」的呼籲,到聖嚴法師之「建設人間淨土」,三者之間的異同也顯示各有特色。

剋就聖嚴法師而言,他是比較近於太虛大師而異於印順 法師,❶而目,聖嚴法師各種弘化事業,更能從「實踐」方

[●] 聖嚴法師說:「我走的是太虛大師的路,也是我師父東初老人的路,因 為我認知到:漢傳佛教的包容性、涵融性及適應性,可以順應我們這個 時代,發揮其普及化、人間性及人性化的功能;而印度大乘佛教的中

面完成自太虛大師以來佛教人生化、人間化的嚮往,因此,「如何建設人間淨土」或可視為聖嚴法師這一代人的總目標,而與前輩面對「佛教為什麼需要人間化」的問題,輕重有所不同。❷即此而言,對於聖嚴法師創建法鼓山的用心以及努力,實有加以探討的必要。❸因為「人間淨土」何以可

觀、唯識,雖然哲學觀念很強,但應用於人間,其普遍性及生活化的推廣、應用,則仍有商量的餘地。」見〈如何研究我走的路〉,《聖嚴研究第一輯》,頁19-20。又說:「印順長老主張的的是『人間佛教』,而我主張的是『人間淨土』,兩者聽起來好像差不多,但是內涵並不相同。……印順長老不是漢傳佛教的,而我是非常重視漢傳佛教。」見〈以研究「聖嚴」來推動淨化世界〉,《聖嚴研究第一輯》,頁33。

- 林其賢說:「聖嚴法師的生命歷程正是當代佛教現代化過程中,接續著佛教何處去的大問題繼續解答『為什麼要人間化』以及『如何人間化』的問題,而愈來愈偏重對後一項的答問。」見〈聖嚴法師人間淨土思想的實踐與弘揚〉,《聖嚴研究第一輯》,頁157-158。
- ③ 臺灣佛教的發展,各大道場各有不同的風格,亦有學者視之為「策略」 運用之得宜。例如江燦騰筆下的「臺灣四大道場」,是從臺灣的政治、 經濟和計會的脈絡裡勾勒出四大道場的興起與轉型發展,但正如李美華 所言:「……固然,從社會史的角度不失為探討一個教團組織興起與 發展的一個有效面向,不過往往很難窺知教團本身之所以能發展的內 在因素。若是就所謂的內、外在和主、客觀因素的學術分野來說,計會 史的角度是探討一個教團存立發展的外在、客觀條件,對教團本身,即 所謂內在、主觀的面向,則較難兼顧。」見〈法鼓十年(一九八九~ 一九九八年) ——從農禪寺到法鼓山的立基與開展〉,《聖嚴法師思想 行誼》,頁271。而李美華的研究是「法鼓十年」(一九八九~一九九八 年),當時法鼓山尚未興建完成,各項弘法事業陸續籌畫中,本文的 研究則是立足於法鼓山已經開山落成,根據的資料主要是聖嚴法師三 本書:《美好的晚年》、《我願無窮——美好的晚年開示集》,以及 《法鼓山故事》,因此,更像李美華所說的,屬於「局內人的觀點和語 言:,來呈現這個教團如何建構自己的歷史;筆者以為:這個論述之所 以有效,有賴三項因素之把握,其一是對聖嚴法師的悲心宏願有貼心的

以落實?而且,自法鼓山的落成開山,代表著硬體設施之完成,❹進入實際弘化的階段,而法鼓山的理想,在僧俗四眾的共同努力之下,將如何實現?這是從理論到實踐的層次,攸關佛教的未來發展,因此,值得重視。而本文選取了「四個環保」思想做為研究的對象,是由於「四個環保」之「心靈環保」,實是聖嚴法師的根本訴求,通過「心靈環保」達到人品的提昇,進而人間淨土得以建設,這是從方法到目標的一致性。其次,「四個環保」之「心靈環保」,一方面是研究的重點,另一方面,則是四個環保不能偏於「心靈環保」而忽略其他三個。❺合而言之,建設人間淨土是轉人間之污穢為清淨,關鍵在於人心的轉化,即從心靈出發,提出心靈

了解,其二是這個教團之事業有其客觀之落實依據,其三是能與「局外 人」做理性的溝通,基於這三點理由,本文的寫作當可超越「局內人的 觀點和語言」,而有客觀的學術分析。

- ◆ 法鼓山的興建工程,分為兩個階段,目前尚餘法鼓大學沒有完成。最新的消息是:「籌設多年的法鼓人文社會學院,今年有了轉變的新契機,在去年(二○一一年)九月六日已獲教育部核定通過四個學程,學校立案後即可招生;但當前,臺灣高等教育面臨少子化,學生來源減少及大學過度飽和的困境,政府積極鼓勵併校發展;因應時空變化,再加上法規的改變,根據教育部的建議,『法鼓學校董事會』決議:『以法鼓佛教學院為主體,增設原法鼓人文社會學院經教育部審查通過之四個學程(可再斟酌成立之數量),申請改名法鼓大學。』」見〈法鼓大學新契機:法鼓佛教學院、法鼓人文社會學院合併〉,《法鼓》雜誌,第266期,2012年2月。此外,法鼓佛教學院博士班從一○一學年度(二○一二年)首度招生,它是以「佛教禪修傳統與現代社會」為發展特色,於去年(二○一一年)六月獲教育部同意增設,為國內第一所獨立宗教研修學院博士班。
- ❺ 例如:亦有學者認為聖嚴法師的心靈環保是重心輕境的說法,相關之討論,詳見下文。

環保這個核心觀念,再以心靈環保為核心,推動四種環保的落實,便有「心五四」運動與「心六倫」運動之相繼產生,以完成法鼓山淨化個人與社會之目標。因此,四個環保思想具有關鍵性意義,本文即以四個環保思想的探討,以見聖嚴法師創建法鼓山,是將深奧的禪法落實於生活之中,活用佛法,用佛法的觀念來淨化人心,達到思想的淨化、心靈的淨化,以及生活的淨化,並由個人做起,逐步推向社會,完成心靈環境與社會環境之淨化,解決現實的人生問題,因而達到弘揚佛法的目的。

二、法鼓山的一大使命與三大教育

(一)法鼓山的自我定位

法鼓山的興建,就現實的層面來說,是有它的迫切需要,因為當時的中華佛學研究所與農禪寺均有覓地安置的問題。聖嚴法師說:

法鼓山的迫切需要,是由於一九八九年前後幾年,中華佛學研究所借用的中華佛教文化館已不敷使用,同時,經費來源的北投農禪寺也面臨拆遷命運,所以要急切尋找一塊山坡地。⑥

至於為什麼我們要擴遷中華佛學研究所到法鼓山去呢? 主要有兩個原因,第一是十年來我們佛學研究所一直在增 加設備和工作人員,老師由過去的兼任改為專任,學生讀書的環境也不敷使用,過去是採用班級集中上課的方式,現在則慢慢轉變成老師與學生一對三乃至一對一的方式,學生的注意力更為集中,學到的東西也就更多。因此,宿舍、教室、圖書館的數量及空間都不夠用了。另外,我們還在開發文化出版事業。由於拓展的方向多了,教職員的人數增加不少。從前研究所裡沒有使用電腦,現在也需要用電腦來處理資料。在各方面都感受到必須擴建場地,才能配合發展。

另外,農禪寺也面臨一個大問題,因為寺址本身是一塊 農田,不是建築用地,但是目前已有將近四十人來跟我出 家;而在修行活動方面則有念佛會、禪坐會的定期共修及 星期日的講經,參加人數愈來愈多,雖然已因此而擴建房 舍,但是場地仍不敷使用。更迫切的是為了配合臺北市關 渡平原的開發計畫,僅僅不到一甲地的農禪寺將來可能有 一半以上的土地會被徵收為公共設施之用。基於以上兩個 原因,我們必須遷移到另外的地方。◆

基於現實上之不敷使用,覓地興建道場是迫在眉睫之事,後來,由於因緣之難得,一九八九年三月底,便在臺北縣金山鄉三界村找到一塊願意轉讓的土地,因為它的地形俯瞰看之,似大鼓縱臥,因此,聖嚴法師遂命名為「法鼓

^{6 《}法鼓山故事》,臺北:法鼓文化,2010年,頁191。

<u>Ш</u>. 。

法鼓山之興建,是聖嚴法師為了實現自太虛大師以來佛教人間化的努力,法鼓山的理念是:「提昇人的品質,建設人間淨土。」因此,「教育」是聖嚴法師對於法鼓山賦予的任務所在,稱為:法鼓山的一大使命。❸換言之,法鼓山自我定位為「教育」團體,這是與一般宗教團體以拈香拜拜為訴求有所不同,不但如此,法鼓山的建築,一點都不像「廟宇」,到法鼓山參訪,本身即是教育所在。聖嚴法師說:

法鼓山的定位,不是一般傳統的香火道場,而是以三大 教育為基石的世界佛教教育園區。**⑤**

法鼓山是朝著教育的用途而發展,我們的建築並不像寺廟,但也不完全像學校,而是現代化的一座宗教教育建築物。**①**

發揮「宗教」與「教育」的功能,正是法鼓山有別一般

的道場,卻仍是道場而不是普通的教育機構。道場是朝「宗教」方面散發作用,法鼓山這個道場的建築,首先,它不是傳統式的「廟宇」概念,其次,它在融合現代化的同時,卻賦予「禪」的精神。

關於法鼓山的建設,聖嚴法師有一部口述著作,●詳細記載法鼓山的種種故事,其實,即是聖嚴法師對於這座道場興建之心路歷程,以及因為一些原則之堅持而有的困難,也因為這些堅持,讓我們今天可以一睹北臺灣第一聖地法鼓山觀音道場。然則,法鼓山為何是觀音道場?聖嚴法師說:

這除了是我聖嚴一生修行觀音法門獲得許多感應,同時也由於觀音菩薩的靈驗,使得法鼓山這塊土地與我僧俗四眾結緣;特別是這塊土地上原先就有一座觀音殿,所供的玻璃纖維觀音巨像,便是今已翻成銅像,供於山端的開山觀音。®

因為這是一個觀音道場,因此,到法鼓山是學習觀音菩薩的精神,也因為是觀音道場,法鼓山共有三尊觀音菩薩的 造像。聖嚴法師說:

開山觀音坐鎮坐守,居高臨下,感應事蹟豐富,久為當

❸ 這個說法一再出現在聖嚴法師的開示中,對信眾再三的叮嚀。

⁹ 《美好的晚年》,臺北:法鼓文化,2010年,頁177。

^{◆ 〈}法鼓山所發揮的教育功能〉,《我願無窮──美好的晚年開示集》, 臺北:法鼓文化,2011年,頁25。

^{●〈}傳承、創新,做安心的工作〉,《我願無窮——美好的晚年開示 集》,頁220-221。

[●]此即《法鼓山故事》,聖嚴法師說:「以這本小書獻給所有關心法鼓山的讀者。」(頁239)。

❸ 同註6,頁17。

地民眾及外縣市信眾祈願膜拜的信仰中心。沿著這條觀音信仰的命脈,法鼓山新鑄了另外兩尊觀音銅像,一尊是供於祈願觀音殿內的祈願觀音,一尊為聳立於象山鼻駝峰上的來迎觀音;此三尊觀音像,幾乎是由山頂至山麓,坐落於一條垂直線。❷

除此之外,祈願觀音殿的由內而外,共有三方匾額:分別是黃篤生居士寫的「入流亡所」、董陽孜居士寫的「大悲心起」,和聖嚴法師寫的「觀世自在」。聖嚴法師說:

三者都是根據大乘經典所介紹的觀音菩薩功德。低

「入流亡所」出自《楞嚴經》,是觀音菩薩自我修證的 境界;是入所修法門之流,而亡失了法門與自我中心,即 是能所合一而進入能所雙亡的解脫境。「大悲心起」在諸 觀音經、《大悲心陀羅尼》等,都說觀音以大悲心平等救 濟一切眾生,故稱為「施無畏者」。「觀世自在」在《大 日經》等可見到;觀音菩薩觀世間一切眾生的苦難音聲, 尋聲救苦,遍應遍救,而以種種形象自在化世。**⑩**

從這些敘述中讓我們知道:聖嚴法師是透過環境的氣氛來傳達宗教教育的意義。聖嚴法師說:

我們祈求觀音救助是絕對有用的;同時,也當於日常生活中,修行觀音法門的「入流亡所」、「大悲心起」,並且發願有一天也能「觀世自在」。這是法鼓山名為「觀音道場」的殊勝之處。大家最容易做的,便是護持法鼓山推動佛教的各項教育事業,也等於在做淨化社會人心的工作,便是大悲心的學習與實踐。**①**

至於「來迎觀音」,意思是觀音的本尊報身;是永遠不動不移地住於佛國淨土,也只有對聖位的佛菩薩做伴侶。觀音的千百億萬化身,是隨處祈求隨處現身的,也是主動到人世間來救苦救難的。不論是善人或惡人,不論平時信不信觀音,只要在危難時希望得到觀音的救助,觀音隨時隨地都會以妙化身在你身旁出現。這樣的觀音,就是隨時隨地主動來迎接你、歡迎你,使你平安,使你脫離各種苦難,因此稱為「來迎觀音」。

「祈求觀音救助是絕對有用的」,「只要在危難時希望 得到觀音的救助,觀音隨時隨地都會以妙化身在你身旁出 現」,這是「宗教」的教育,也是佛教做為一個宗教的精神 所在,以這樣的一個觀點來提倡「人間佛教」,它一方面可 以吸納原來屬於民間信仰的信眾,另一方面,則可以提昇信 仰的品質,因此,法鼓山雖然不具有傳統廟宇的刻板印象, 卻仍然具備宗教的精神,這是二十一世紀佛教的新發展,與

個 同註6。

❸ 同註❸,頁18。

⁶ 同註**6**, 頁18-19。

⁶ 同註6,頁19。

❸ 同註6 , 頁20。

其他道場有很不同的氣氛。

因此,所謂「教育」,不只是「理性」的教育,宗教也不一定是迷信的產物,法鼓山做為一個觀音道場,到此來學習,就是要參透人生「本來面目」的意義。於是,聖嚴法師在法鼓山工程興建之初,對於即將而有的建築,是有一些自己的想法,聖嚴法師說:

首先,房子既建於臺灣北部,就要有此地的色彩與特色。其次,要用現代化的建材,表現出中國傳統寺宇的大器格局。三,環保優先,盡量不破壞自然。法鼓山的建築,要像是從大地生長的有機體,與大自然融諧無礙;也不蓄意替大自然化妝。盡量不建高樓。四,房子與房子之間要有呼吸的空間。五,重視實用性的功能,每一處空間都是實用的。六,建築物的裡外環境,不可有讓人生起歹念、意圖做惡的死角;不論白天、夜晚,處處都是光明磊落、氣氛莊嚴的修行道場。七,重視採光、通風和景觀的功能,使得建築物的設計、配置和門窗,無一不是賞心悅目的構圖;不論從室內向外閱覽,或者從戶外看建築,都像是欣賞一幅幅的風景畫,而有「一窗一景」、「一門一景」的視覺響宴。這便是我最初的構想。

為了達成這些目標,聖嚴法師有了幾趟的考察之旅,在 參考中國大陸與日本的古寺建築,以及對照臺灣北部的地理

條件之後,獲得一個結論:

法鼓山建築除了向中國大陸及日本的傳統古寺借鏡之外,臺灣本地的氣候、環境與景致特色,尤其是金山一帶春冬多雨,再加上臺灣位處地震帶上等等因素,都是必要的思量。法鼓山的建築,除了要展現中國隋唐時期那種恢宏、開闊、素樸與穩實的精神內涵,對於防潮、防風、防震等環境強化設施,同樣不可輕忽。②

因此,法鼓山是有深厚堅固的地基工程。它的要求,遠 比政府規定來得嚴格;打樁的深度和密度,數倍高於政府標 準,是把地基做到最好、最安全。地底工程的深度,乃是與 地上建築物的高度成正比;向上蓋的建築有多高,往下打的 地基便有多深。打下的基樁,最深可達十六公尺。②然則,做 為一個「世界佛教教育園區」,它是以「教育」做為標誌, 此中的景觀,無論是建築的室內設計,或是園區的戶外景 觀。聖嚴法師說:

在我的想法,建築物的室內設計是景觀,建築物以外的環境也是景觀。道路是景觀,溪流是景觀,橋梁也是景觀;善於利用,一草一木都是景觀。②

²⁰ 同註**6**, 頁52-53。

② 同註**⑥**, 頁53-54。

² 同註**6**,頁115。

法鼓山完成之後,我相信任何人上山來,一進入法鼓山的境內,就能產生境教的功能。所謂境教是指進入這個環境,就會體驗到所謂人間淨土是什麼,就能夠體會到清靜的心靈是什麼,就會體會到智慧和慈悲是什麼,因為我們不僅是為了起房子,法鼓山是有生命的、是有精神的、有靈魂的。而且在周邊的景觀,我們很用心一項一項的完成。景觀不僅僅是為了觀光、供人旅遊的,這些景觀都是能夠讓我們沉澱身心、好好的體驗自己、體驗環境,進而體驗到我們這個世界的整體性,我們跟其他的人是一個生命共同體,當我們體驗到這些時,就是我所期盼的境教。

於是,走進法鼓山,便是逐步進入「人間淨土」,而法 鼓山在此實踐「三大教育」的理想,才有它的落實的意義。 聖嚴法師說:

法鼓山硬體設施的目的,則是為了提供全面教育與整體關懷之功能,這才是法鼓山建設的本懷。建築群與景觀,是為了讓來山或者住山的人受此環境熏習,進而變化氣質;即法鼓山一九八九年創建以來所提出「提昇人的品質,建設人間淨土」的理念初衷。❷

因為它具有一個具體的「環境」在「無言」地說法,稱 為「境教」。所謂「境教」,它是以「景觀」為基礎,加 上「人文」的設施,達到潛移默化的作用;其實,教育的目 標,是要啟發一個人的內在德性,讓人自然而然地投入,因 此,營浩一個「教育的環境」便顯得十分重要,而環境可以 分為「自然」與「人文」兩方面,「自然」是以「大自然」 做為依據,然後是在「環境設施」上,加入「人文」的精 神,法鼓山在這方面的氣氛營造是十分成功的,它既有自然 教育的功能,建築物也深具特色,可以說,在國內,聖嚴法 師不是第一個標榜「境教」的人,但以他的作法最為成功。 3 即此而言,提倡「教育」雖是臺灣佛教界這數十年來的共 識,但在眾多辦學的佛教團體中,法鼓山是以「全面教育」 來自我定位,稱為「一大使命」,這個「全面教育」的支撐 點是什麼?除了下文所說的「三大教育」之充分實踐以外, 重要的是它以「道場」的理念來經營,是一個具有現代化精 神的道場,不同於傳統「廟宇」的觀念;以「道場」的經營 及理念來辦學,具有宗教精神,也積極參與社會建設,這是 中國百餘年提倡人間佛教之初步實現。

❸〈二○○四年新春賀詞──和喜自在迎新歲〉,《法鼓山的方向 II》, 臺北:法鼓文化,2012年,頁27-28。

² 同註**6**, 頁165。

[●] 筆者長年研究教育與環境的關係,據筆者的觀察:除聖嚴法師以外,華 梵大學的曉雲法師可說是首先提倡境教思想的人,但真能實現這個想 法,還是聖嚴法師,因為法鼓山的建築不只是建築物,它更具有藝術之 美與禪宗的精神,配合大自然的環境,達到人文與自然的結合,是「境 教」之充分實現。

(二)法鼓山的三大教育

基於以上所說,以下要說到法鼓山的三大教育,因為三 大教育是用來實現法鼓山整體佛教教育之重要規畫,也是聖 嚴法師對法鼓山的功能與定位,以及對二十一世紀的佛教教 育所建構的未來願景。這三大教育包括大學院教育、大普化 教育以及大關懷教育,是構成法鼓山佛教教育的「整體性」 規畫,稱為「全面教育」。聖嚴法師說:

我們法鼓山的使命,是「推動全面教育」,以三大教育 來完成這項使命:

- 1. 以大學院教育培養建設人間淨土的高級專業人才;
- 2. 以大普化教育推廣各項提昇人類品德的活動;
- 3. 以大關懷教育普及各項溫暖人間環境的服務。

以上的一大使命、三大教育,都是為了實現法鼓山的理念,我們也依此努力了許多年。今年,法鼓山的第一期工程,四月取得縣政府四張建築執照之後,已於八月十四日灑淨開工;教育部六月核准法鼓人文社會學院成立後,七月二十八日召開了第一次董事會成立大會;今年八月確立了法鼓山的形象定位為「全面教育」等等。@

「全面教育」是考慮到法鼓山完成之後,將能發揮教育、研究、弘法的功能,也為一般信眾提供一個修學佛法、

淨化身心的良好環境,以及休假時或退休後的修行、安養的場所。因此,它含括學校的教育以及提昇人品的修行中心這兩部分。此外,更重要的意義是,法鼓山將以佛法的信仰與精神,培養人文社會科系及研究所的青年人才,一方面,增強弘法人才服務社會的知能,另一方面,也培養一般青年能以佛法的智慧及慈悲,服務社會,淨化社會。於是,法鼓山的教育事業分為三大項目,聖嚴法師說:

- 1. 大學院教育: 我們以創辦佛學研究所及法鼓山大學、舉辦國際佛學會議等,培育青年成為品學兼優、悲智雙修、合乎國際水準的領袖人才。
- 2. 大普化教育:我們以舉辦禪七、佛七、朝山、禮懺、禪坐、念佛、傳戒、誦戒、讀經、讀書會,以及兒童營、青少年營、各級教師營、各種成長營、社會菁英禪修營、佛學講座、生活講座、佛學推廣等共修活動,還有出版佛學叢書,發行佛學期刊雜誌,成就有緣的大眾共同來做淨化人心、淨化社會的工作。
- 3. 大關懷教育:我們以倡導環保清潔日、使用環保餐具、環保購物袋、舉辦大型的環保園遊會,同時改良禮俗,推行禮儀環保,舉行佛化青年成年禮、佛化聯合結婚禮、佛化聯合祝壽禮、臨終前後的助念佛號、開示佛法,乃至鼓勵往生的民眾參加佛化聯合奠祭禮等。每一項活動,都編訂了手冊,以便形成風氣,普遍推廣,使得大家能從入胎開始,直到生命終了,都是沐浴在接受關懷、接受教育的環境之中,同時也在終身做著成長自己、關懷他

❷〈法鼓山邁向十週年〉,《法鼓山的方向》,頁144-145。

人的教育工作。20

因為法鼓山的佛教教育事業並非僅是著眼於佛教教義之 研究與教學,而是關切到整體生命之全面發展,因此,從僧 伽人才教育到社會人才教育,必須有一套完整的規畫,此即 聖嚴法師所說:

前面各章,提到法鼓山的出現、建築、佛像、景觀與設施等,體現了法鼓山世界佛教教育園區的架構。而法鼓山硬體設施的目的,則是為了提供全面教育與整體關懷之功能,這才是法鼓山建設的本懷。建築群與景觀,是為了讓來山或者住山的人受此環境熏習,進而變化氣質;即法鼓山一九八九年創建以來所提出「提昇人的品質,建設人間淨土」的理念初衷。②

因此,三大教育互相對應,而又以「大學院教育」做為 深化「大普化教育」及「大關懷教育」的落實,因為「大學 院教育」的定位在於造就高層次的專業研究、教學與弘法的 人才,這是佛教提昇自身素質的一項重要因素,也是百餘年 來佛教界一直努力的目標。聖嚴法師說:

法鼓山大學院教育體系,包括自北投中華佛教文化館搬

遷上山的中華佛學研究所和二○○一年九月正式創辦的法鼓山僧伽大學佛學院。此外,我們的新學制「法鼓佛教研修學院」也於二○○六年正式獲教育部核准設立,二○○七年即可招生。法鼓佛教研修學院是全臺灣第一所獲教育部通過成立的單一宗教研修學院,研究生畢業之後,可獲頒宗教碩士學位;這是我們努力了二十餘年,終於盼來的成果。法鼓大學工程也很有進展,不久即可招收第一屆學生。❷

換言之,「大學院教育」包括有四個部分: 1. 僧伽大學,是法鼓山僧才教育養成之所在; 2. 中華佛學研究所,是法鼓山佛教教育中最早成立、影響極深遠之教育機構,目前則以研究機構之方式運作,成為其餘三個教育單位研究、教學之整合性資源; 3. 法鼓佛教學院,為法鼓山佛教教育發展歷程中重要的突破,前身為中華佛學研究所,在教育部立法認可單一宗教系所成立之後,成為臺灣第一所納入高等教育體系的宗教研修學院; 4. 法鼓大學,目前仍在籌建中。聖嚴法師說:

法鼓山僧伽大學佛學院自二〇〇一年九月起正式創辦, 招收年滿十八歲至三十五歲發願出家奉獻的青年。本院除 擁有與中華佛學研究所相同的師資,另在修行、生活與威 儀上設有專任的指導法師,主要由僧團具相當修行程度的

❷〈法鼓山的鐘聲〉,《法鼓山的方向》,頁131。

²⁸ 同註6, 頁165。

² 同註**6**, 頁166。

法師擔任。目前在海峽兩岸,本院以優穎的師資頗為凸顯,其他能與我們的師資程度相當的佛學院不是沒有,但也相當少見。⑩

僧伽大學佛學院的體制,除了四年制的大學教育,尚有 兩年制的僧才養成班和六年制的禪學系。❸

至於這所尚未完成的「法鼓大學」,此事一直成為聖嚴 法師晚年最後的一個心願,二〇〇七年三月,聖嚴法師在巡 迴全臺的關懷行程裡,向信眾談起心聲說:

「法鼓大學一定非辦不可嗎?」如果我們不辦法鼓大學,對法鼓山本身的影響不大,但是對我們的社會、對這個世界,卻是失去了光明的希望。我們期許法鼓大學是一具光源的發光體,是一處動能的發源地,為我們的社會培

育出淨化人心的種子。因此,法鼓大學非辦不可!❷ 到現在為止,法鼓山已經有二十年了,我也已經八十歲 了。這二十年之間,我常常認為自己要往生了,但最後都 很平安。所以辦大學是我最後的一個心願,希望能把它完 成。❸

因為正當法鼓山要辦大學之時,臺灣已經有一百五十多 所大學,而隨著臺灣的出生率愈來愈低,學生人口愈來愈 少,為什麼還要辦大學?這成為難以理解的事。然而,聖嚴 法師卻認為法鼓山要辦的大學,是跟其他大學不一樣,除了 學院設定、課程內容不一樣,培養出來的人才也不一樣,完 全是根據心靈環保、漢傳佛教裡最重要的核心價值而規畫 的,因此,這所大學是「非辦不可」!而依筆者的觀察,這 所大學也是「非辦不可」!不過,理由卻是對法鼓山的影響 太大,因為法鼓山的教育事業若要「全面」落實,達到具有 前瞻性的「整體」關懷,則聖嚴法師的最後願望必須加以實 現。因為聖嚴法師說過:

大學院教育包括一般的大學以及僧伽大學;大普化教育 包括禪修、念佛、講經說法、著述出版;關懷教育則包括 從個人到團體的關懷、從教團到社會的關懷、從生命開始

⑩ 同註**6**, 頁173。

¹ 同註**6**, 頁175-176。

 [□] 同註⑥ ,頁176。

³ 同註**6**,頁177。

❸ 〈法師最後遺願──法鼓大學〉,潘煊紀實《聖嚴法師最珍貴的身教》,臺北:天下文化,2009年,頁204。

⑤ 〈遇到困難仍然繞道前進〉,《我願無窮──美好的晚年開示集》,頁 220。

到生命終止的關懷。

在法鼓山的共識裡,我們的方法是「提倡全面教育,落實整體關懷」。所謂全面教育,就是指這三大教育。三大教育本身就是關懷,因為這三大教育都是為了達成同一個目標,那就是關懷。

因此,三大教育環環相扣,假如法鼓山缺少這所以佛法理念所辦理的一般綜合大學,則大學院教育只有佛教教育的體系,對於社會高等教育的參與將缺乏切入點,而放眼國內其他佛教團體皆有大學的情況下,法鼓山是以「全面教育」的理念來經營,更有「四個環保」、「心五四」與「心六倫」運動之推動,從個人之淨化到社會之淨化,皆有其一貫之理論與實踐,換言之,法鼓大學之所以不同於目前之一般綜合大學,是因為這是依法鼓山的理念而來,其次,也因為這所大學,是因為這是依法鼓山的理念而來,其次,也因為這所大學,把法鼓山的理念落實到社會的高等教育體系之中,即此而言,聖嚴法師創建法鼓山,其劃時代之意義也必以這所大學之建立而得到完成。

三、四個環保思想的提出與法鼓山「人間淨土」 之推動

四個環保思想是:心靈環保、禮儀環保、生活環保、自

❸ 〈我們的願景〉、《法鼓晨音》、臺北:法鼓文化、2000年、頁279-280。

然環保。四個環保思想之提出,實是法鼓山「建設人間淨土」的具體方案,乃至於後來的「心五四」、「心六倫」運動,皆是這個精神之顯現。以下,首先論述四個環保思想之根本:心靈環保。

(一)「心靈環保」提出的背景及其意義

「心靈環保」的提出,這是聖嚴法師針對當代臺灣社會的需要而貢獻的救世良方,也是面對世界紛擾的局勢所提出的呼籲。聖嚴法師說:

法鼓山提倡的四種環保,就是緣於佛法的觀點,配合著 現今世界的需要,因此名詞似乎是新創的,事實上即是佛 法。

現在世界人類的問題,大致有三類。第一是觀念的問題。許多的人很痛苦,彼此之間有衝突,便是因為價值觀的偏差和觀念的不正確。

第二是人與人之間的關係問題,包括族群與族群之間、宗教與宗教之間,或國家與國家之間的不和諧。第三是人類與自然之間產生的衝突和矛盾。人類想要征服自然,反而製造更多自然的災害。

現在人類問題不出三類,第一是人的身心的問題;第二是人與人互動產生的問題,小至家庭、社會,大至世界

❸〈四環即佛法〉,《我願無窮──美好的晚年開示集》,頁17。

各種族、宗教的關係。第三是人與自然的問題。大家都覺得自然是外在環境,其實自然就是我們的身體,為此,每位宗教領袖莫不呼籲全世界,要把環境大地當成自己的身體,好好照顧、珍惜,才能減少自然災難。

一九九三年我曾提出「心靈環保」這個名詞。當時因為社會脫序,出現了許多的亂象,而環保人士一連串抗爭的結果,非但未能改善環境,反而使得環境更形惡化。因此我就提倡了「心靈環保」的運動,我深切地感受到,人心如果不能淨化,社會也就不可能得到淨化;人的內在心理環境若不保護,社會的自然環境也沒有辦法獲得適當的保護。這樣的一個觀念,當時獲得各方面的回響,並將相關的訪談和演講結集為《心靈環保》一書。

換言之,聖嚴法師提出「環保」的思想是有其社會背景 以及對於世界局勢的關懷而來,基於世界的安定,社會的安 定,人心的安定,需要提出人心淨化的呼籲,這在佛教,即 是「禪」的修行,而聖嚴法師卻提出一個合乎時代精神的新 名詞:「心靈環保」。聖嚴法師說:

所謂「心靈環保」,是一個現代的名詞。其實,佛教很 早就主張,要把我們的心清淨,必須將煩惱心淨化,成為 智慧心,這就是心靈的環保。●

……「心靈環保」,這雖是一個很新的名詞,但在 二千五百多年前釋尊所講的佛法,已無一不與心靈環保有 關。**①**

其實,現代世界所說的「環保思想」是著重於「環境」 的保護,它的意思是:保護我們生活環境的自然生態,使之 產生自然的調節,假如破壞了生態的平衡,就會為自然帶來 災難,為人類的生存環境造成危機;而聖嚴法師提出的「心 靈環保」則是融會佛法的觀念,從「心靈」的淨化出發,以 當代新穎的語言加以表達,達到化俗的目的。聖嚴法師說:

多年來的我,即以漢傳佛教的禪佛教為背景,將禪佛教的觀念及方法,轉化成一個新名詞,叫作「心靈環保」。● 我們法鼓山,是在救人首要安心的原則下,依據《維摩經》所說「隨其心淨則佛土淨」的教示,提倡心靈環保,用禪修的觀念和方法來提昇人的品質,以期普遍推廣而來完成建設人間淨土的理念。我們以教育工作來完成關懷的任務,又以關懷工作達成教育的目的。❸

❸ 〈大悲心起〉,《我願無窮——美好的晚年開示集》,頁29。

❸ 〈心靈環保〉,《致詞》,臺北:法鼓文化,2005年,頁9。

❷《福慧自在──金剛經生活》,臺北:法鼓文化,2004年,頁39。

^{● 〈《}維摩經》與心靈環保〉,《修行在紅塵──維摩經六講》,臺北: 法鼓文化,1997年,頁124。

❷《承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》,臺北:法鼓文化,2010年,頁49。

❸ 〈佛教在二十一世紀的社會功能及其修行觀念〉,《學術論考II》,臺 北:法鼓文化,1997年,頁77。

因此,「心靈環保」是具備佛教的理論基礎,也有禪修 的觀念與方法,聖嚴法師是為了適應現代時空的背景,避免 現代人對佛教的負面刻板印象,於是,使用現代人可以理解 與接受的觀念。聖嚴法師說:

心靈環保的著手工夫,是從待人接物、日常生活的起心動念處隨時做起;心靈環保的過程,是從自私自利的自我身心觀照漸漸淨化,而至於無病無我的境界;心靈環保的最高層次,是從有法可求至於無求無染而又精進化世的佛的境界。◆

法鼓山的核心價值「心靈環保」,就是現代化的漢傳禪法,落實方法即在禪修。◆

即此而言,「心靈環保」從淺處講,是淡化宗教的色彩,提倡一種生活的態度,保持內心的清淨,不受環境的影響,超越環境種種的刺激、誘惑與考驗,以心平氣和的態度來面對問題,求得事情和解的目標,因此,在禪修的觀念上,它是教人放鬆身心、放下執著,並將煩惱心轉為清淨心、智慧心,不斷往深處發展;而在方法上,開發智慧的方法有兩種。聖嚴法師說:

有兩種方式,可以獲得佛的智慧:1 從受戒、修定,而

開智慧的心門。2. 不向心外求法,但將內心執著放下,當下便見自心即是佛心。第一種稱為次第的漸修漸悟,第二種稱為超越次第的頓修頓悟。中國的禪宗屬於第二種,又有二種法門: (1) 是臨濟派的話頭、公案禪, (2) 是曹洞派的只管打坐、默照禪。◆

由是而言,從「心靈」出發,面對日常生活的人事物,需要有一種生活態度的養成,培養一種生活的方式,稱之為「環保」,是因為環境需要保護,生活才有保障,才能維持它的品質;其次,環保需要從「心靈」的面對開始,是因為環境的問題在於「人」,人心是製造問題的根源,如果人的心念改變了,即能改變一個人、一個家庭、一個社會,甚至一個國家、一個民族。換言之,「心靈環保」可說是「禪修」的代名詞,它是不離生活卻講究「心」的清淨,然後是行為的清淨、環境的清淨,因此,向外延伸,便是「四個環保」。以下即介紹四個環保思想的內容。

(二)「四個環保」與「心五四」之社會淨化運動

「四個環保」是從「心靈環保」延伸出來的發展,此即 「心靈環保」是注重心靈不受環境的污染;「禮儀環保」是 注重我們的心儀、身儀、口儀要真誠而有禮貌的態度;「生 活環保」是注重生活的品質;「自然環保」是注重自然環境

[●] 同註●, 頁157-158。

⑤ 同註**⑨**, 頁281。

^{◎ 〈}漢傳佛教的智慧生活〉,《漢傳佛教的智慧生活》,臺北:法鼓文化,2000年,頁25。

的保護。聖嚴法師說:

如何做好環保工作?正如大家所知道的,我們生存的地球環境,已在迅速地惡化之中,主要的原因就出在人類過度的開發及浪費,造成自然資源及生活環境的大量損耗及破壞。因此,如何做好環保工作,已是如救燃眉的急務。可是環保必須要從世人價值觀念的改變做起。所以,我們法鼓山這個團體,正以心靈環保為主軸,再進一步推展禮儀環保、生活環保、自然資源及自然生態的環保。心靈富裕之後,便有充分的安定感及安全感,對內心對外境,便不會矛盾係完,與人相處之際,便會尊重對方,時時以禮相待;在日常生活之中,便不會因為奢求物質享受的滿足而浪費了資源、破壞了環境。因此,對於宗教領袖而言,心靈環保,特別重要。

人間淨土,必須是清淨、積極、悲智雙運的佛教建設。 必須是以人為中心,以人品的提昇為宗旨,以環境的淨化 為目標。∰

聖嚴法師認為:通過心靈的淨化,是保護環境的根本作法,因此,淨化社會,必須首先淨化人心;其次,則是以環境的淨化為目標。所謂「環境」,即是人的生存環境,而世

間的環保主張,往往只是針對自然環境的保護,以及各項污 染,包括土地污染、河川污染、空氣污染、核能污染等議題 提出對治的主張,或是面對許多破壞自然生態、製造污染的 資本家,以及官商勾結的政客等,提出嚴厲的批評或激烈的 抗議,而佛教在這些議題上,似乎溫和很多,以致於被批評 為:「而當代臺灣佛教的環保運動,不但沒有關懷資本家所 製造出來的工業污染問題;而且,對於近幾年來臺灣的民主 化運動,顯然也沒有任何貢獻。」**②**事實上,聖嚴法師「心 靈環保 | 的推動,根本的訴求是「教育」,透過教育來改變 人心,此即人心的淨化是從內心的觀念上做起,重視人格的 教育,人格的教育即是凸顯人生的價值是奉獻,人生的意義 是盡責,人生的目標是發願,換言之,是認識真實的生命, 並且懂得安頓生命的方法。於是,這個理念的成效也許不能 立竿見影,但在聖嚴法師的心中,這才是究竟根本的救世主 張;進一步言之,「心靈」是一個環境,從心靈出發,則有 「生活」環境;與人相處,則有「禮儀」環境;與整個生存 環境相處,則有「自然」環境。四個環保思想雖然是從「心 靈」出發,但並非停留在「心靈」的自我陶醉,當它具體表 現在生活的行為、與人來往的禮儀,乃至尊重生態環境的態 度上,豈能只是「重心輕境」!⑩於是,當代的環保思想經由

❻〈世界宗教領袖在二十一世紀的任務〉,《致詞》,頁53。

❸〈《維摩經》與人間淨土〉,《修行在紅塵——維摩經六講》,頁211。

❸ 楊惠南〈當代臺灣佛教環保理念省思:以「預約人間淨土」和「心靈環保」為例〉,《愛與信仰》,頁245。作者進一步指出:「這樣看來,期盼聖嚴法師走上街頭去向鎮日追求『成長』、製造污染、破壞生態的資本家抗爭,大概也是不可能的事了!」(頁247)。

動「重心輕境」乃是楊惠南對法鼓山「心靈環保」與慈濟「預約人間淨

聖嚴法師的詮釋,環保的層面便不只是物質的自然環境之保護,乃是從保護自我的內在環境出發,以達到保護人間的社會環境。而且,當做到「心靈」的自我保護的時候,由內而外,也達到社會與自然的環境之保護,因此,「心靈環保」是一個共法。聖嚴法師說:

心靈環保是應該不分古今的、不分地域的、不分宗教的、不分族群的、不分生活背景的。只要有心有願的人,都需要做,都應該做。**①**

換言之,心靈環保不分對象,只要是有心的人,隨時隨地,都可以做;並且,能以「心靈環保」帶動「四個環保」之實現,便是人間之淨化,也就是法鼓山「人間淨土」推動的目的。也因為基於「心靈環保」的信念,聖嚴法師進一步提出他的「心五四」的主張,這是一九九九年整合串連的「四安、四它、四要、四感、四福」理念,提出「心五四」運動。聖嚴法師說:

最初我提出「心靈環保」的觀念,就是從心的觀念來改善我們的生活環境和自然環境。心的觀念改善了之後,就會如佛經所說的:「隨其心淨,則國土淨。」自己的

心是清淨、安定的,那麼環境也不會有問題。之後我又提出「心五四運動」,以此具體實踐心靈環保。它是改善心靈、轉變心靈的五個項目,每個項目有四大重點,分別是「四安」:安心、安身、安家、安業;「四它」:面對它、接受它、處理它、放下它;「四要」:需要、想要、能要、該要;「四感」:感恩、感謝、感化、感動;以及「四福」:知福、惜福、培福、其實,「心五四運動」的基礎就是心靈環保、禮儀環保、生活環保以及自然環保的「四環」,而心五四運動便是為了來實踐、完成這四環的。◆

心五四運動的內容,是以人心觀念的改善為著眼,以社會環境的改善為目標,因此,我們法鼓山最先提出心靈環保的運動,接著配套推出禮儀環保、生活環保、自然環保的運動,用來協助今日世界各國共同推動的環保意識,並且提醒世人:環保的主要問題是在於自私的人心所造成,擒賊宜先擒賊王,環保宜先從心靈的正本清源做起,所以我們具體地提出了心五四運動的主張。❸

其實,「心五四」就是「心靈」的五個方面的生活態度,分別而言,則各有四個項目,它的內容即是以觀念的導

土」的批評。見〈從「境解脫」到「心解脫」:建立心境平等的佛教生態學〉,《愛與信仰》,頁278。

^{◆ 〈}法鼓山提倡的心靈環保〉,《好心·好世界──聖嚴法師談心靈環保》,臺北:法鼓文化,2012年,頁33。

❸ 〈四安、四要、四感〉,《不一樣的環保實踐》,臺北:法鼓文化, 2007年,頁30。

❸《自家寶藏──如來藏經語體譯釋》,臺北:法鼓文化,2001年,頁 65。

正來提昇人的品質。換言之,除了不受環境的影響而產生內心的衝擊以外,尚能以健康的心態來面對現實,處理問題,因此,它是建立正面的認知,避免負面的思考,是從情緒的穩定做起,乃至是從觀念與思想的疏導以及精神層面的提昇做起,稱之為「心靈環保」。這樣,不但可以消弭心靈的貧窮,更可以淨化與深化心靈的層次,過著健康、快樂、平安的生活,因此,所謂「淨化人心」,是以健康的心態面對生活,積極的行為投入世界,因而創造生命的意義。

仔細地說,法鼓山「人間淨土」之推動,是落實自太虛大師「人生佛教」與印順法師「人間佛教」的一貫理念而來,不過,三者之間仍有其差異。這個差異即是聖嚴法師立足於漢傳佛教,特別是中國禪宗提倡的如來藏思想,以建立「人間淨土」的理論。人間淨土最主要的意涵是「淨土在人間」,換言之,是肯定「人間」存在的意義,指出佛法之出現,是為人間所設,而釋迦世尊出現人間,旨在淨化人間。因此,如何淨化人間?在理論上,需要有一個建構的說明;在方法上,也需要有一個指引。

即此而言,「心靈環保」是建設「人間淨土」的根據, 這個根據指出「一念清淨心」的重要,因為當下的一念心與 佛相應,當下便是以佛為心,念念相應,便是具足佛的悲智 願行。聖嚴法師說:

從佛經中看,佛果位是很難圓滿的,若從禪宗的立場看,只要你能有一念心不被煩惱刺激誘惑,那一念心的當下,便跟諸佛無二無別;若以無常、空、無我的人生觀和

宇宙觀,做為觀察環境審視心境的標準,當下便得解脫。 20 我正在傳授的禪法,稱為心地法門,它的依據,是梵 文漢譯的《般若經》及《維摩經》所說:眾生(人)的內 心清淨, 眾生的行為即清淨; 眾生的心、語、身三種行為 清淨,眾生即見其所處的環境清淨、世界清淨。此所謂清 淨,就時間而言,有短有長,就空間而言,有小有大。所 以,不論你是凡夫或聖者,都有機會從這種心地法門獲得 利益。你能或於一念間清淨、或於一分鐘清淨、或於一刻 鐘清淨、或於一小時清淨,都能享受到心地清淨及體驗到 世界清淨的快樂。如果你一人的心地清淨,會影響多人的 心地清淨,進一步,你所處身的環境也就變成清淨。如此 一來,不論你在何處,只要保持心地清淨的體驗工夫,隨 著你的所到之處,他人必也能分享到你幾分清淨心的平安 與快樂。因此,我依據這樣的信心,在世界各地推行著一 項稱為「人間淨土」的運動,因為只要人的心地有一念清 淨,此人便是為這世界建設人間淨土的菩薩。**励**

這個「一念清淨心」是什麼?是從自我覺察到自我肯定的結果。聖嚴法師通過中國禪宗的禪修觀念與禪修方法,讓修行人體會到真正的自我之實現;其次,則是淡化宗教色彩,提出「四個環保」與「心五四」運動之推動。聖嚴法師說:

^{る 〈從東亞思想談現代人的心靈環保〉,《學術論考Ⅱ》,頁56。}

⁵ 同註**6**, 頁28-29。

我在國內外,推動的心靈環保,分成兩個層面:

一是學佛禪修的層面:是以有意願、有興趣於學佛禪修的人士為對象,用學佛禪修的觀念及方法,使得參與者,從認識自我、肯定自我、成長自我,而讓他們體驗到有個人的自我、家屬的自我、財物的自我、事業工作的自我、群體社會的自我,乃至整體宇宙時空的自我,最後是把層層的自我,逐一放下,至最高的境界時,要把宇宙全體的大我,也要放下,那便是禪宗所說的悟境現前。但那對多數人而言,必須先從放鬆身心著手、接著統一身心、身心與環境統一,而至「無住」、「無相」、「無念」的放下身心與環境之時,才能名為開悟。

二是「四種環保」及「心五四」運動:是以尚沒有意願學佛以及無暇禪修的一般大眾為對象,盡量不用佛學名詞,並且淡化宗教色彩,只為投合現代人的身心和環境需要,提出了以心靈環保為主軸的「四種環保」及「心五四運動。」

150

因此,「四個環保」與「心五四」運動之推動,便是落實法鼓山建設「人間淨土」的願景,即此而言,它是具有理論的依據以及方法的掌握,也因為這個理由,我們相信這是可以實現的。

四、四個環保思想之時代意義與漢傳佛教之 未來願景

「四個環保」思想實是聖嚴法師為了因應現代社會的變遷,讓大家都能安家樂業,因而提出來的二十一世紀生活主張,它的時代意義,及其與漢傳佛教未來的發展的前途,本文做出下列四點說明:

(一)指出新時代正確的方向

時代需要領航員,二十一世將是一個「全球化」的時代,也是一個「電子化」的時代,然而,人與人之間,是否更加密切地互動?還是因為宗教信仰之不同而引起更多的衝突?「四個環保」思想是以「心靈環保」為主軸,著重於「心靈」的淨化,然後,延伸落實到「禮儀環保」、「生活環保」、「自然環保」,它是由內而外,由心到境的過程,並非不切實際,猶如紙上談兵。因為生活上的少欲知足、儉樸寧靜、整齊清潔,禮儀上人人彼此互相尊敬與禮讓,自然環境上愛惜與珍重,這些目標的達成,都有賴從根源上下手,也就是要從「心靈」開始,強調觀念改變,心靈健康,心靈淨化,達到內心世界的反省;當痛苦轉為喜悅,封閉轉為開明,人與人之間的相處互動,才有更多的向上提昇的力量。聖嚴法師說:

我們法鼓山這個團體,正以心靈環保為主軸,再進一步 推展禮儀環保、生活環保、自然資源及自然生態的環保。

❺〈從東亞思想談現代人的心靈環保〉,《學術論考Ⅱ》,頁58-59。

心靈環保是向內心省察,啟發智慧心及慈悲心。心靈富裕之後,便有充分的安定感及安全感,對內心對外境,便不會矛盾衝突;與人相處之際,便會尊重對方,時時以禮相待;在日常生活之中,便不會因為奢求物質享受的滿足而浪費了資源、破壞了環境。◆

因為聖嚴法師相信貧窮及環境的改善,取決於人心的愚 癡與智慧,因此,在人心徬徨之際,法鼓山提出「四個環 保」思想,即是在濁世中引導大眾,邁向目標,並且不斷努 力,這個方向感的確定至為重要,因為方向正確,人間淨土 可以實現,便不再是一個理論的命題。

(二)從「教育」入手,帶動社會風氣

這樣的一個社會運動,有賴從小團體開始,慢慢擴散它的影響力,當接受的人愈來愈多的時候,它的功效就會愈來愈明顯,因此,在方向感正確之下,便是持續推動「四個環保」的演講與活動,藉著活動的推廣達到宣傳的效果,也加強凝聚內部共識的完成,當然,在大環境之下,我們做的可能只是杯水車薪的工作,會讓人懷疑效果不大,或是會被扭曲我們的存在意義。例如:聖嚴法師曾經舉過一個例子說:

一九九三年年初,法鼓山推動了一次「清潔日」運動, 有五千多位信眾同時在全省不同的地方打掃環境,於是就 有人說:以後環境髒了,就請法鼓山的會員來打掃。這是錯誤的觀念,我們不是清潔隊,而是提倡「清潔日」的觀念,希望以此拋磚引玉,帶動風氣,期待每一個家庭、每一個人,都能像法鼓山的信眾這樣,照顧自己的家,照顧自己所處的環境,乃至到任何地方,也能照顧所居住的生活環境;那麼,我們的環境就是淨土,法鼓山的「四環」運動就算成功了。❸

法鼓山存在的價值或意義,是在於它提出的理念獲得世人的重視與肯定,並且願意加入,一同努力;而不是落在「具體」的事上幫別人善後。因為事情永遠做不完,要幫助別人,不是有人丟垃圾,我們幫他撿起來即可,這不能解決根本的問題。要解決問題,是從教育著手,不但給人一個觀念,而且是帶著對方一起努力,換言之,我們不是專門來清理垃圾,我們也不是專業的清潔隊員,而是藉著清理垃圾的機會,提倡「清潔」的觀念,這一天稱為「清潔日」。也不是只有這一天才需要清理垃圾,而是訂在這一天學習「清潔」的重要,這正是「天下溺,援之以道」的方法,假如視為「援之以手」,就會讓人誤會「手援天下」,事情永遠解決不完。因此,定位為「教育」,是通過一個活動喚起大眾對環境清潔的重視,即此而言,聖嚴法師創建法鼓山的時代意義,即是帶動社會的風氣,至於目標之完成,更有賴社會

❸ 〈世界宗教領袖在二十一世紀的任務〉,《致詞》,頁53。

❸ 〈心靈環保──淨心與淨土〉,《平安的人間》,臺北:法鼓文化, 2012年,頁40。

大眾的支持與追隨。不但如此,即使只有少數人的響應,也 要繼續做下去。

(三)為世界和平發揮佛教的影響力

聖嚴法師是把「心靈環保」做為「全球性」的運動,因 為心靈的提昇是超越國界、超越宗教、超越民族,甚至沒有 宗教信仰的人皆可分享。聖嚴法師晚年致力於人類整體的平 安與世界永久的和平,他看到二十一世紀是一個多元文化的 社會,多元文化也是未來發展的必然趨勢。換言之,什麼是 人類的正確價值觀念?假如不能接受多元文化,並且堅持只 有自己的價值觀念才是正確的話,則這個世界只會因為思想 立場的不同而互相批評,甚至發生衝突。因此,聖嚴法師提 出「心靈環保」,其所關懷的對象,更是要為二十一世紀的 地球村建立人間的淨土、人間的天堂而來。聖嚴法師說:

法鼓山提倡的四種環保,就是緣於佛法的觀點,配合著現今世界的需要,因此名詞似乎是新創的,事實上即是佛法。

⑤

我們希望法鼓山的硬體建設,是屬於臺灣的,亦是屬 於國際的;是屬於現在的,亦是屬於未來的。值此落成機 緣,除了邀請諸位貴賓指教之外,也期望大家攜手,共同 為世界人類的永久幸福與和平做一些事情。 60

但願在二十一世紀,經由大家的努力能使所有的宗教, 在多元文化的地球村共存共榮,把地球村建設成人間的淨 土、人間的天堂。動

因此,「心靈環保」之提出,正有促成世界和平的作用,以建立一種全球性的共同倫理,也就是「全球倫理」之出現。愛若是剋就「心靈環保」而言,聖嚴法師說:

多年來,法鼓山一直在推動心靈環保,除了在國內提倡之外,我也在關係著整體人類未來的全球性會議,包括「千禧年世界宗教暨精神領袖和平高峰會」(The Millennium World Peace Summit of Religious and Spiritual Leaders)、「世界經濟論壇」(World Economic Forum),以及二〇〇二年在曼谷召開的「世界宗教暨精神領袖理事會」(World Council of Religious Leaders)中,提出心靈環保的理念。心靈環保的內容指出了什麼是人的正確價值觀念,也就是人生的責任是盡責盡分,人的功能是從奉獻中成長,人的意義是隨時消融自我而經常喜悅自在,人的生命是融入於無限的時空而又超越於無限的

❸〈四環即佛法〉,《我願無窮——美好的晚年開示集》,頁17。

⑥ 〈在多元文化的地球村共存共榮〉,《我願無窮──美好的晚年開示集》,頁14。

⁶ 同註**6** ,頁16。

[●] 詳細討論,可參見胡健財〈佛教文化事業與儒家思想──聖嚴法師「心 六倫運動」之當代實踐〉,二○一二年東亞儒佛會通與諍辯研討會,臺 灣大學人文社會高等研究院,2012年3月23-24日。

時空。如果我們能夠清楚了解這些,就不會茫然無序,就 不會空虛無聊。❸

我曾經參加二○○二年在泰國曼谷召開的第一屆「世界宗教暨精神領袖理事會」(World Council of Religious Leaders),主要是為了討論如何解決宗教衝突的問題。開幕典禮吸引了四千多人參與,世界各宗教領袖代表總共有七十多人與會,大家共同為世界和平而祈禱。泰國王儲也於大會開幕典禮中致詞,肯定大會宗旨。……在六月十二日至十四日三天會議期間,分組討論了四個主題:防止及緩和種族衝突、恐怖主義,貧窮與發展,以及環保與倫理問題。我參與了環保小組的討論,擔任共同主席;此外,我也參加了貧窮與發展小組,並於會中發言。個

環保是備受全球關心的議題,然而,許多人在談論環保時,只強調不要浪費自然資源、要重複使用自然資源,永保青山綠水的自然生態;可是如果人的價值觀沒有改變,人與宇宙的一體觀不能建立,永遠都只能頭痛醫頭、腳痛醫腳,不會完成環保的終極任務。……為了徹底、有效解決問題,環保工作應該先從內心做起,也就是倡導我所主張的「心靈環保」;否則雖然解決了某一些問題,卻又會製造另外更多的問題。人的價值觀如果不能從個人的擴大為全體的,從眼前的延展到永遠

的,環保是無法真正做好的。65

因此,「心靈環保」之提出,它的時代意義,已經從臺灣社會的未來發展擴展為一項全球性的運動,希望能夠促使 人類社會更和諧、更繁榮、更進步,而這也是法鼓山定名為 「世界佛教教育園區」的由來。

(四) 漢傳佛教未來發展的重要指標

最後,我們藉著討論「四個環保」思想提出的時代意義,同時檢討它與漢傳佛教未來發展的關係。因為「心靈環保」之提出以及「四個環保」之落實,這是與聖嚴法師推動「人間淨土」的理想具有密切的關係,並且,這也是立足於漢傳佛教的傳統而來,因此,假如法鼓山的理想得以實現,也可以藉此以見中國佛教未來之復興。

即此而言,首先需要看到聖嚴法師對漢傳佛教中禪宗思 想的重視,他稱之為「最圓滿究竟的無上大法」:

漢傳的大乘佛法,從龍樹的中觀學發展為三論宗,從無著與世親的瑜伽學發展為唯識宗,依《法華經》及龍樹的《中論》發展為天台宗,依《華嚴經》發展為華嚴宗。以上四個宗派,對於釋尊所說的教法,在義理的組織次第、禪觀的修習次第上,都有極其嚴密的分析說明。最後,依《楞伽經》、《金剛經》、《維摩經》等發展出的禪宗,更將次第井然的各宗佛法,匯歸最高、最上、最圓滿、最

❸ 〈心靈環保是全球性的運動〉,《人間世》,臺北:法鼓文化,1997年,頁79。

ฬ 〈將心靈環保推向世界〉,《人間世》,頁66。

❸ 同註❸, 頁66-67。

究竟的無上大法,那就是不落階梯、頓悟佛性,不立文字、直指人心的禪宗。∰

禪宗之高明,因為禪宗的智慧是定慧均等、定慧不二, 定是與空性相應,與慧一致,是即定即慧的大智慧,這個智 慧恆靜恆動。聖嚴法師說:

恆靜則不會由於環境的影響而蠢動,恆動指的是智慧的功能,會適應眾生的需要而運作。這是最高的禪定,也是最上的智慧。❸

這種無我的心境,不一定是徹悟的人才能體驗,即使是一般凡夫,若願意嘗試,也可以體驗。只要捨棄當下一念的執著,你的當下「是心是佛」,這時你的心境就同佛的智慧心;如果後一念又有執著,你的當下「是心是眾生」,這時你的心境又回到了凡夫的煩惱心。因此,中國有一位禪師要說:「一念清淨,一念是佛;念念清淨,念念是佛。」又說:「一念清淨,一念見佛;念念清淨,念念見佛。」®

聖嚴法師的禪法,是發揮永明延壽禪師的「一念成佛 論」來論證人心的淨化,並且通過蕅益智旭的「現前一念 心」來闡明人間淨土的可能性。聖嚴法師說: 到了中國的宋初,有一位永明延壽禪師(西元九〇四~ 九七五年)倡導禪淨合習,主張萬善同歸,他自己每日持 名念佛十萬聲,同時以日行一百零八件善事為恆課。他看 到了禪宗修行,未必人人能得開悟,淨土宗念佛也未必能 夠及時親臨淨土,所以在其所著《宗鏡錄》中主張:「凡 聖所作,真俗緣生,此一念之心,剎那起時,即具三性三 無性六義。」故亦常常提起「一念相應一念成佛,一日相 應一日成佛」的觀照。若悟真如妙心,已見真空佛性,此 念即是無念的般若;若凡夫未悟,即以妄心念佛,此心亦 與佛心相應,亦與佛身同處淨土;但能一念念佛,只此一 念,縱然是散心,亦與佛心相應。 18

詳細考察蕅益的「唯心」,乃是天台家所說即妄即真的 現前一念心,是即空、即假、即中的圓中之心,即此凡夫 當下的念佛心。所以此間的凡夫,雖還不曾往生西方,而 彼西方即在此凡夫當下的一念心中。是以蕅益非常愛用永 明延壽所說的話:「以一念相應即一念佛,一日相應一日 佛。」或:「一念相應即一念佛,念念相應即念念佛。」 此所謂「一念」,絕對是指凡夫當下的妄念心。**⑩**

此當中,一念成佛,關鍵在「一念相應」,此「一念相應」,即相應於清淨。「心靈環保」的理論基礎,即是念念

⁶⁶ 同註46,頁17。

⁶ 同註**6** ,百22。

⁶⁸ 同註46, 頁24。

⑤ 〈人間佛教的人間淨土〉,《學術論考》,臺北:法鼓文化,1997年, 頁462。

^{● 〈}明末淨土教的修證方法〉,《明末佛教研究》,臺北:法鼓文化, 1997年,頁186。

回歸清淨,只要隨時把握當下一念,「縱然是散心,亦與佛心相應」,給予凡夫菩薩莫大的鼓勵。於是,即使凡夫當下一念是妄心,即妄可以成真,是對自己的一種肯定,這個肯定正是如來藏思想的特點。

此外,「肯定自我,消融自我」,則可以用聖嚴法師調心的四個層次加以說明。聖嚴法師說:

因此我把話頭禪及默照禪整理之後,便在頓中開出次第 化的漸修法門,是任何根器的人都適合用來起信實修的好 方法。在修證過程中,我也標明了從淺至深的四個階次, 那便是散亂心、集中心、統一心、無心,每一階次各有修 行及進階修行的方法。這是經過我幾十年的練習整理以 後,把漢傳佛教的禪法重新發揚光大的。**①**

這是說,聖嚴法師的禪法有頓有漸,不但如此,這個禪 法雖然立足於中國的禪宗,但它的源頭仍是從釋迦牟尼佛而 來。聖嚴法師說:

佛法的源頭是從釋迦牟尼佛而來,最基礎的聖典是《阿含經》;我們法鼓山的禪法是結合了《阿含經》,並且運用中國禪宗的特色,而貼切、適應著今天的時代環境,在 態度上是開放的,在觀念和方法的立足點上,則本於中國

的禪宗。 @

釋迦牟尼佛時代之後,漸漸成為發展的佛教,在印度成為小乘阿毘達磨的、大乘中觀的、唯識的、如來藏的,然後輸出到南方成為南傳佛教,到漢地成為漢傳佛教,到藏地成為藏傳佛教。漢傳佛教又發展出十大宗或八大宗,禪宗便是其中之一。其實禪宗也在不斷地發展變化,可是在發展變化之中,不會放棄釋迦牟尼佛的根本原則。個

於是,聖嚴法師自述法鼓山的禪法具有「整合」的意義,一方面承襲傳統,另一方面具有「創新」的功能,因此,需要重新「開宗」。聖嚴法師說:

因法鼓山的禪法,是整合了印度及漢傳諸宗之同異點,並且參考現今流行於韓國、日本、越南的禪法,乃至南傳內觀法門、藏傳的次第修法,重新整理漢傳佛教的傳統禪法之後的再出發。因為是在承襲傳統禪法之外又有創新, 所以必須重新立宗。@

我把漢傳禪法的臨濟及曹洞兩大宗,既分流又合用,也 就是將大小乘次第禪及頓悟禪,與話頭禪及默照禪會通, 因應不同禪者的需要或不同時段狀況的需要,彈性教以適 當的方法,以利安心。而其宗旨,則皆匯歸於話頭或默照 的祖師禪,是跟平常人的現實生活密切結合的。在傳承之

[●] 同註●, 頁12-13。

[@] 同註●, 頁51。

[®] 同註**②**,頁9。

[@] 同註**@**, 頁53。

時,原則上兩脈並傳,亦可視因緣而傳其中的一脈。立足 於漢傳禪佛教的基礎上,不棄學術思想的研討,不被言教 文字所困囿,活用印、漢、藏三大主流的各派佛學,才是 無往而不利的,也是可以無遠弗屆的;又因我們承繼了中 國禪宗臨濟及曹洞兩系的法脈,所以名之為「中華禪·法 鼓宗」。⑥

我們大家必須在承先啟後的原則下,將漢傳佛教建立 為法鼓山的主體,我們是承繼中國大陸的禪宗,但已不是 十九世紀中國大陸那樣的禪宗。那時的中國禪宗,是山林 式的,尚沒有接觸到南傳及藏傳佛教的優良面及實用面, 但是我接觸到了,同時我也接觸到了韓國、日本,乃至越 南的禪佛教。我把這些新見聞,運用在傳統的禪法之中, 故當禪修者初用話頭不得力時,可以用呼吸法、可以禮 拜、可以經行、可以念佛等等方法做輔助。還有,默照禪 在中國已經失傳八百多年,但是,我在日本曹洞宗的禪堂 看到,我也參加了他們稱為「只管打坐」的修行,實則便 是默照禪的別名。我到美國後也接觸到南傳的內觀禪。我 把它們分析整合起來,便是法鼓山所傳的中華禪法。同時 我在閉關修行的時候,用的即是類似於默照禪。因此我把 話頭禪及默照禪整理之後,便在頓中開出次第化的漸修法 門,是任何根器的人都適合用來起信實修的好方法。在修 證過程中,我也標明了從淺至深的四個階次,那便是散亂 心、集中心、統一心、無心,每一階次各有修行及進階修 行的方法。這是經過我幾十年的練習整理以後,把漢傳佛 教的禪法重新發揚光大的。**⑩**

聖嚴法師指出法鼓宗需要立宗的原因是:法鼓山的禪法 繼承了臨濟與曹洞兩大法脈的合流,所以必須重新立宗; 並且是整合了印度及漢傳諸宗之同異點,參考現今流行於韓 國、日本、越南的禪法,乃至南傳內觀法門、藏傳的次第修 法,重新整理漢傳佛教的傳統禪法之後的再出發。

因為「心靈環保」是建設「人間淨土」的根據,另一方面,如上文所述,「心靈環保」是以漢傳佛教的禪佛教做為主軸,因此,發揚漢傳佛教的禪佛教,攸關四個環保思想之實現;相反來說,四個環保思想之落實成功,則是漢傳佛教再出發之一次考驗,即此而言,兩者關係密切,益見漢傳佛教未來發展的重要,需要加以重視。

五、結論

本研究以「聖嚴法師創建法鼓山之時代意義——以『四個環保』思想為對象之研究」為題目,研究目的是:探討聖嚴法師創建法鼓山在當代佛教歷史上的意義,並以「四個環保」思想的研究為主軸,指出聖嚴法師一大使命、三大教育、四個環保的理念,以及「心五四」、「心六倫」運動之

推動,是佛教參與現代社會建設的奮鬥努力;而法鼓山世界 佛教教育園區的落成開山,更是肩負著新時代之使命,具有 弘揚正法的功能,也是佛教在當代復興之命脈所在。進一步 而言,法鼓大學之籌建,發揮著大學院、大普化的教育功 能,並非社會上普誦的綜合大學,也唯有這所大學的建立, 才是臺灣真正的第一所佛教大學;至於「中華禪法鼓宗」之 提出,則是從承先啟後的角度,說明立足於漢傳禪佛教的基 礎上,與世界佛教的會通,並且接納發揮世界各系佛教之所 長。換言之,法鼓山之建設,將是中國佛教未來發展的一個 重要指標,因此,本研究的成果,一方面可以做為法鼓山內 部的參考,另一方面,藉此研究得出的訊息是:佛教參與社 會建設將不能忽略「禪法」的堅持,因為法鼓山正是以「禪 修」的精神貫徹到各個活動之中,具有心靈啟蒙的作用,卻 又招越宗教的儀式與規範,成為現代社會不可缺少的安定力 量。這項特色,將有別於臺灣其他佛教道場,應該加以重 視。

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The Contemporary Significance of Ven. Master Shengyen's Contribution to the Establishing Dharma Drum Mountain:

The Studies on Four Kinds of Environmentalism Thought

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Abstract

This study, titled as "The Contemporary Significance of Ven. Master Shengyen's Contribution to the Establishing Dharma Drum Mountain—The Studies on Four Kinds of Environmentalism Thought," aims at revealing the importance of Ven. Master Shengyen's establishment of Dharma Drum Mountain in modern Buddhist history. It also points out using the Four Kinds of Environmentalism thought, as the theme that the engagement of Buddhism in the construction of modern society is demonstrated in the following movements, started by Ven. Master Shengyen: One Great Mission, Three Types of Education, Four Kinds of Environmentalism, The Fivefold Spiritual Renaissance Campaign, and The Six Ethics of the Mind Campaign, etc. Furthermore, the building of Dharma Drum Mountain World Center for Buddhist Education dawns the beginning of a new age, which spreads the Buddha Dharma while reviving Buddhism to the modern world. Besides, the establishment of Dharma Drum University carries with it the mission of education through academics and public outreach, not just a common university in our society. In this sense, it should

be considered as the first Buddhist University in Taiwan. As for the founding of the Dharma Drum Lineage of Chan Buddhism, it not only honors the past but also creates the future, for it is based on the foundation of Chinese Chan Buddhism while communicating with different sects of Buddhism of the world, accepting and learning from their strength. In other words, the establishment and development of Dharma Drum Mountain can be an index for the future development of Chinese Buddhism. Therefore, this study can serve, on the one hand, as a reference for Dharma Drum Mountain's interior affairs; on the other, our message is: The social engagement of Buddhism cannot afford to ignore the importance of "Chan Practice." The practice has permeated every kind of activity held by Dharma Drum Mountain, which enlightens the spirit, yet freeing itself from the bondage of rituals and ceremonies. Thus, it has become an essential spiritual force in bringing peace to the mind. This quality has differentiated itself from other Buddhist centers, and therefore is worthy of our attention.

Key words: Ven. Master Shengyen, Dharma Drum Mountain, Four Kinds of Environmentalism, Spiritual Environmentalism, buddhist cultural enterprise, Dharma Drum Lineage of Chan Buddhism

讓佛教回歸眾生 ——聖嚴法師「心靈環保」視角下的 漢傳佛教

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▮摘要

聖嚴法師以弘傳「心靈環保」理念做為漢傳佛教普及、 推廣活動的核心內容。通過多年的努力,聖嚴法師在漢傳佛 教的普及和推廣方面已經取得了卓有成效的建樹,是漢傳佛 教國際化、普及化、俗信化的楷模。聖嚴法師普及、推廣 漢傳佛教的主要內容可從兩個方面予以說明:一方面,理論 上澄清佛教的基本思想,將人們誤解、不解的佛學知識、義 理等闡釋清楚,容易讓人理解和接受,從而能夠明白佛教的 真正精神和蘊涵是什麼。另一方面,實踐上指出具體的修行 方法。將佛教修行方法變得不再神祕、不再難以落實,從而 糾正了人們對佛教修行過程中的具體困惑。綜合聖嚴法師普 及、推廣漢傳佛教的活動,從中顯示出三個特點:一是內容 上的生命性,二是方法上的多樣性,三是境界上的易行性。

關鍵詞:聖嚴法師、漢傳佛教、普及

一、引言

聖嚴法師是當代中國社會乃至世界上極為有影響力的高僧之一。他不僅自己學習、研究和實踐佛法,更重要的是他還通過自己的身體力行去推廣、普及和弘揚佛法,讓未信者生起信心,讓已信者增長信心,讓原本是佛陀時代不脫離眾生的佛教重新回歸其本位,回歸大眾,重新在大眾中確立正知正見,使大眾值聞佛法,從而使佛教在眾生的受持、認可和流傳中獲得新的生命力。

在聖嚴法師諸多著作中,既有理論性、學術性比較強的著作,也有通俗性、普及性的著作。這些著作早在二十世紀五○年代就已經面世並受到了世人的關注和廣泛閱讀,尤其是在海外影響頗為廣泛和深遠。但是,由於種種原因,多年以來聖嚴法師這些非常有價值的著作在大陸卻鮮有流通,尤其是做為正規出版物,在大陸地區基本上看不到。直到二十一世紀初,大陸的一些出版社才逐漸將這些著作中的一小部分陸續公開出版發行,使得大陸民眾有機會得以閱讀、研究和實踐佛法,由此也使人們逐漸認識到聖嚴法師的無量慈悲心和喜捨心,以及聖嚴法師在推廣、弘傳和振興漢傳佛教的積極努力與重要價值。通過閱讀這些大陸出版的簡體字本的著作,人們漸漸地認識到真正的佛教應當是什麼,以及與之相關的佛教教義體系、哲理體系、信仰體系和修行體系等,使得做為一種宗教文化的佛教,比較有系統地展現在世人面前。其中,以《學佛群疑》、《佛學入門》❶和《正信

的佛教》(陝西師範大學出版社,二〇〇八年初版)等三部著作為代表的「學佛三書」,是聖嚴法師對漢傳佛教普及、宣傳和推廣的最重要三部著作,這三部書具有易讀性、通俗性、大眾化的特點。在書中,聖嚴法師以問答的形式解答了眾生心中許許多多關於佛教理論和修行方面的疑問與困惑,對於佛教的普及和大眾化具有積極的意義。

本文將以「學佛三書」為考察中心,結合聖嚴法師提出 的「心靈環保」的理念,從中尋找出聖嚴法師對漢傳佛教發 展的貢獻。通過這一解讀,使我們更清楚、更深刻地認識到 聖嚴法師在當今漢傳佛教發展中的地位,和他所提出「心靈 環保」理念的獨特價值,從而為我們應對和解決當代由於科 技發展所造成的人與自然、人與社會、人與人,和人自身種 種緊張關係,提供一種可能實踐的方法。

聖嚴法師不僅是我們了解、學習佛教基本知識的導師, 從學理上教給我們有關佛教的歷史、理論與文化;他更是 我們的人生導師,從實踐上告訴我們人生的目的、意義、價 值和生活態度。按照聖嚴法師的觀點,「學佛三書」雖然是 為初學者入門所寫的書,但事實上,只要通讀過這三部著作 的人都會發現,三書與大家平常所讀到的和理解的佛學入門 書又有所不同,其中包含了聖嚴法師數十年的生活經歷、生 命體驗和對佛法的真正實踐,即使是有修行的出家眾、有一 定專業知識的在家眾,和專門的學術研究人士閱讀此三部著 作,從中也都會有新的收穫,會使我們的知識得以增長、智 慧得以提昇和生命得以體悟。這無疑是人生的一種快樂、生 活的一種進步。

[●] 由臺灣法鼓文化出版之書名則為《佛教入門》。

二、聖嚴法師從理論上澄清佛教的基本思想

佛教從兩漢之際(西元前二年)傳入中國,已經經歷了 兩千多年的發展歷程,期間經過了初傳、滋長、興盛、衰微 的不同變化,人們對佛教的認識也各不相同,有皈信者、有 認同者、有同情者、有鄙夷者、亦有謾罵者等,態度不一而 足。尤其是沂代以來,漢傳佛教發展極度衰微,國人對包括 佛教文化在內的中國傳統文化的批判極為猛烈,大有視佛教 文化為洪水猛獸之勢,世人對佛教的認可度極低,與佛教有 關的義理和修行方面的內容,在世人的認知視野中變得更加 不可思議。為了能夠救偏補弊,矯正人們對佛教認識上的偏 見和誤解,以及將佛教向更廣大的地區和人群中普及,聖嚴 法師做了種種不懈的努力,尤其是從理論和實踐兩個方面做 了深入、細緻而又切合實際、符合民眾需要的工作,希望通 過這一工作的落實,能夠直正起到對佛教的正本清源、還佛 教本來面目的任務。近代以來的中國社會,人們對佛教及其 相關理論的認識和具體實踐出現了嚴重的偏差,無論是對佛 教形成、發展的歷史還是佛陀的本跡情況,在認識上、意識 中都是如此。此外,與佛教教義體系和信仰體系相關的內 容,如佛菩薩觀念、因緣果報思想等屬於佛教最重要、最基 礎的內容常常被人們誤解,當時的佛教信仰狀況普遍不容樂 觀、值得憂慮。

(一)對佛教的總體認識

人是一種會思考的動物,當人們面臨種種困惑和問題

時,總會尋找各種辦法去解決,有科學式的解決,也有宗教 式的解决,有理性思考的解决,也有感性思想的解决。世人 多數認為,在科學式解決和理性思考解決問題無望的情況 下,人們才會通過宗教式的解決、感性的思想來達到化解問 題的目的。因此,關於學佛或者皈依佛教的原因,世俗人往 往認為是由於人生的失意、感情的困惑、人際關係溝通的困 難、家庭的變故、自身的病變等原因轉而學佛,甚至皈依佛 教。事實上,這種觀念是對佛教總體認識的一種誤讀,甚至 是錯解,是對真正學佛、信佛動因的誤解,甚至曲解。為了 糾正人們對皈信佛教問題上存在的認識偏差,聖嚴法師指 出:「通常都說看破紅塵就是落髮為僧,那可能是指仕途失 意、事業失敗、婚姻離散、家庭破碎, 已經沒有東山再起的 信心和勇氣,在窮途末路,心灰意冷之餘,就到佛門中找一 條苟安倫生之路,所謂:伴著青聲紅角,了此殘生。這景象 是非常消極、悲觀,甚至悲慘的!佛門中的確有這種人,但 這絕對不是進入佛門學佛者的通途和正途。」❷從佛教的本身 來講,學佛應當是一種積極的態度,而絕非世人所理解的消 極地遁入佛門。但是,對佛教的這種誤解卻一直到現在還存 在,因此,對這種觀念的澄清就顯得非常必要。

(二)對佛陀的認識

因為對佛教的誤解,也導致了世人對佛、佛陀以及菩薩等佛教信仰對象的誤解。近代以來,隨著西方文化的傳入,

❷ 聖嚴法師《學佛群疑》,陝西師範大學出版社,2008年,頁4-5。

尤其是西方基督宗教的傳入,基督教的有神論思想進一步強 化了原本已經將佛教神化的觀念,更是將佛、佛陀以及菩薩 等佛教的信仰對象當作其他有神宗教的神、主宰神等來崇 拜。這種信仰風氣的形成固然與傳統重視神靈的民間信仰以 及外來的有神宗教有關,但是,這也是人們對佛教本質及其 最基本的教義、教理認識不清而造成的結果。為了能夠糾正 人們長久以來形成的這些誤解,聖嚴法師有針對性地就這些 具體問題逐一進行了澄清。在對佛陀的看法上,他指出: 「佛陀既不是創世主,也不是主宰神,佛陀只能教導眾生離 苦得樂的方法,佛陀自己雖已離苦得樂,但卻不能代替眾生 離苦得樂。」❸佛,原本是指覺悟了的人,覺悟了人的生死 和宇宙實相的人,佛陀也有生老病死,並不能夠免於生死之 苦和人世間諸事,對於人世間的諸多問題、諸多災難,佛陀 有時也無力解決。但是,佛或佛陀之所以能夠成為受大眾尊 敬、崇拜和信仰的對象,就在於佛或佛陀雖然不能夠免於諸 多世事,但是他能夠洞察、了達這些事情存在的本質、原因 和真實相狀,並能夠就未解決的問題提出一種合乎事理的方 法,同時,也能夠以一種積極的、正確的態度去面對我們的 人生和世界。這就是佛的智慧、佛陀的智慧。從解救眾生苦 難的角度來講,他完全不同於有神論思想中的主宰神,雖然 佛和佛陀表現出無限的智慧和無比的能力,但是,「佛的 全知、全能並不等於神教所說的『萬能上帝』、『萬王之 王』,因為對眾生而言,佛不能改變眾生的業力,只能夠教

化眾生自己努力來改變他們的命運,但也需要看眾生本身的條件。」◆對生死問題、生命問題的把握和解決還得依靠人自身,任何幻想通過求助神來解脫自己的苦難的想法,在正信的佛教看來是行不通的,唯有運用佛的智慧才能真正地解決問題。

(三)對菩薩的認識

❸ 聖嚴法師《正信的佛教》,陝西師範大學出版社,2008年,頁3。

⁴ 同註2, 頁73。

⁵ 聖嚴法師《佛學入門》,陝西師範大學出版社,2008年,頁102。

(四)對佛教思想的認識

傳統的民間信仰對於鬼神、靈魂、死後的世界,以及如 何到達死後世界等問題非常關注。世人普遍認為這些異於人 的存在物是一種直實的存在,而且對現實中的人有著非常大 的影響。世人相信鬼神以及對鬼神膜拜是基於一種寄託或希 望,這些神祕存在物對於滿足人們的心理需求和精神慰藉起 到一定的作用,因此,自近代以來佛教界的一些佛事活動往 往都與之有著密切的關係,「超亡送死」成了佛事活動的一 項重要內容。但是,做為正信的佛教和佛教徒對民間流行的 這些態度則不應如此,對這一現象,聖嚴法師指出:「正信 的佛教徒, 並不崇拜神鬼, 僅對神鬼保持若干程度的禮遇, 假如一個正信的佛教徒崇拜了神鬼,在原則上是有罪的。」6 世俗人之所以延請佛教徒做法事的重要目的就是超度死者的 广靈,希冀能夠淮入一個天國境界,所以他們執著於靈魂存 在的永恆性,還希望靈魂能夠轉世。這樣的看法,自正信的 佛教來看卻是尤其缺陷。因此,聖嚴法師指出:「佛教不相 信有一個永恆不變的靈魂,如果相信了靈魂的實在,那就不 義,從根本上對靈魂做了淮一步地說明,他說:「正信的佛 教, 並不接受這一套靈魂的觀念, 因為這在緣起緣滅的理論 上不能成立,站在『生滅無常』的立足點上看,一切事物都

是生滅無常的,物質世界是如此,精神界亦復如此。」③不接受民間信仰中的鬼神、靈魂觀念,是否就表示正信的佛教排斥甚至否認鬼神和靈魂呢?答案是否定的,聖嚴法師說:「一個正信的佛教徒,唯有崇拜佛、法、僧三寶,絕不崇拜神鬼。但是,正信的佛教並不否認神鬼的存在,因為神鬼也是六道輪迴的兩大流類。」④不將鬼神、靈魂執著為信仰內容的重要部分,而是放在佛教思想的理論中做重新思考,然後給出了令人信服的說法。

(五)對佛教與現代生活的認識

近代以來佛教的發展離不開整個中國乃至世界近代化和 現代化的大環境,現代文明在諸多方面改變了我們的生活習 慣和行為模式,給我們的生活帶來了極大的便利。這些變化 勢必會對中國傳統的思想、觀念造成衝擊,在傳統與現代之 間,如何選擇、如何平衡兩者之間的關係,曾經引起多方的 激烈爭論。就佛教而言,同樣也面臨著這樣的問題。傳統的 觀念認為,佛教是一種出世的宗教,應當遠離現實社會,應 當保持原有的生活習慣、舉止容貌,甚至應該嚴格堅守戒律 等。學佛者或者佛教信仰者的生活應當僅僅限於簡單、原始 的生活狀態,而不能享受現代文明帶來的便利和種種物質條 件的改善。這種觀念已經成為世人的一種共識,很少有人懷 疑它的正確性和合理性。然而,聖嚴法師卻以一種正本清源

⁶ 同註**3**, 頁41。

⑦ 同註❸, 頁37。

³ 同註3 · 頁38 ·

⁹ 同註3, 頁41。

三、聖嚴法師從實踐上指出具體的修行方法

佛教除了有系統而又深奧的理論之外,做為一種宗教信仰體系,修行實踐是其中重要的一個環節,可以說,理論的高深與淺顯並不一定能夠引起世人的關注和修行者的濃厚興趣,但是,如果沒有一套健全而又行之有效的修行體系,則無論如何也不能保證該宗教在解決人心問題、人生問題以及社會問題的攝受力、影響力和感召力。能否使一種宗教具有現實生命力的一個重要內容,就是該宗教信仰體系內要有一套比較明確、切實可行而又能夠有明顯效果的修行方法和修

行體系。近代以來佛教在修行方法和修行實踐方面顯得非常薄弱,就修行者而言,不同的修行者對佛教的感受、領悟以及接納的程度不同,如何讓未信者生起信心,讓已信者增長信心是當時佛教界面臨的一個重要問題。沒有廣大的信眾基礎,佛教將無從發展,也無法真正地發揮它濟世救人、關懷現實社會的初衷。因此,如何讓佛教信眾有便利和切實可行的修行方法?如何讓未信者能夠找到修習佛法的門徑?這對佛教的普及、發展和興盛有著重要的意義和價值。因此,針對不同的信仰者和未信仰者,聖嚴法師結合自己的人生經歷和修行經驗,從實踐的角度提出了一些具體的修行方法。這無疑對佛教的發展起了積極的推動作用。就佛教信眾的構成來看,可分為在家眾和出家眾兩類,雖然出家眾是佛教的主體,但是,在維持佛教發展過程中,在家眾也起了非常重要的作用,因此,做為一般的修行者,如何讓在家眾更好地修行?成了弘傳、普及佛教的一項重要內容。

(一)修行戒定慧

在家居士學佛、修佛、成佛的方法及其過程,最重要的 是堅持戒、定、慧三學。我們雖然經常講、經常提到「三 學」,但是,許多人並不能夠真正地理解「三學」的意涵。 對於在家居士而言,「三學」中的「戒」是基礎,堅守戒律 是修行中必不可少的一項內容,這裡的「戒」主要是指「五 戒」,即不殺生、不偷盜、不邪淫、不妄語、不飲酒。但 是,每一戒的具體內容、真實意涵是什麼?有很多的修行者 並不是很清楚,他們只會嚴格按照戒律所說,一成不變地去

⑩ 同註❷, 頁10。

[●] 同註❷, 頁10。

除了「五戒」之外,佛教的修行方法還有定、慧,和「六波羅蜜」——布施、持戒、忍辱、精進、禪定和智慧。對於這一整套的修行方法,信眾們雖然也能夠說出其中一部分,但是,真正地從佛教教義本身能夠做比較清晰和準確把握的人不多,甚至很多人還存在著各種各樣的困難,尤其是將這些修行方法具體落實在修行實踐中則更是莫衷一是。因此,為了能夠正確指導修行者如法如律地修行「三學」和「六波羅蜜」,聖嚴法師做了專門地闡述。例如,一般人認為,「不飲酒」是五戒之一,無論是在家居士還是出家僧尼都應當遵守,然而,實際情況發生變化時,是否飲酒也應當區別對待呢?因此,聖嚴法師指出:「若將酒當作菜的佐料,如已沒有酒味,失去醉人的力量,應該不在酒戒之限。」優對於佛教的戒律雖然說是要堅持,但是,也應當根據實際情況區別對待,過分執著於某一條戒律,在一定程度上

也是屬於違背戒律的行為。

「定」的修行方法到底如何?有些人不能夠真正理解,認為修定就像是枯木坐像般地安坐。事實上這種理解也是有一定的偏差。為此,聖嚴法師做了系統說明,他說,「定」有兩重層次和九個要點,具體包括:1. 第一層次的四個要點是:「堅固的信念」、「冷靜的思考」、「安詳的言行」和「專注的精神」。這一層次的修行屬於日常生活中就可以經常運用並落實的修行方法。2. 第二層次的五個要點是:「堅信修行的方法」、「思考修行的情形」、「調身」、「調息」、「調心」等。優通過這樣逐層解釋和分層說明,使一般修行者能夠對「定」的修行方法有一個清晰的認識,如果能夠循著此一方法逐步修行,也會走上正軌的修行道路,而不是沒有捉摸、沒有把握的修行,減少在修行過程中所走的彎路。

佛教修行禪定,並不是終究目的,而是修行過程中的一個環節,憑藉修定的方法,會達到開啟佛教智慧的境界。因此,在「定」之後的一個修習環節就是要修「慧」。如果說「定」對一般人而言還比較容易把握,那麼如何修「慧」在實踐過程中則存在一定的困難,畢竟佛教所說的智慧並不是常人能夠容易理解和容易把握的一件事。因此,為了能夠很好地理解和把握慧的內容以及修行慧的方法,聖嚴法師提出了慧的修行有三個步驟:即「聞、思、修」。「聞」是指「虛心學習」,本著「眾生無邊誓願度,煩惱無盡誓願斷,

[№] 同註6, 頁130。

❸ 同註❷, 頁13。

❷ 同註6, 頁132-134。

法門無量誓願學,佛道無上誓願成」的悲心和宏願,努力學 習各種世間法和出世間法,深入經藏,深入世間,為開啟 佛教智慧做最基本的準備。「思」是指「縝密研究」,是 將已經獲取的知識、信息通過自己的思考、簡擇和分辨之 後綜合考慮,並不斷地形成自己的想法。「修」是指「曺 際體驗」,慧的修行重在落實,只有通過具體的實踐修行 才能夠體會到真正的慧是為何種狀態、何種感覺、存在。 🛭 慧的三個層次是由淺入深、由小到大的過程,其中,「聞」 是初級的、最基本的一步,是進入後兩個階段必不可少的一 個步驟。「思」是中間環節,是連接聞和修的過渡,通過這 一橋梁可以使修行者將積累的知識轉化成實現生命的提昇。 「修」是三者中的落腳點,佛教是一種實踐的宗教而不是純 粹的理論宗教,因此,只有將修行者的所見所聞、所思所想 落實在宗教實踐中,這些知識才具有價值和意義。這三個環 節如同鳥之兩翼、車之兩輪不可或缺,是一個完整的系統。 這一點,正如聖嚴法師指出那樣:「慧是包括知識範圍的 『認識心』和『檢擇力』,知識不能涵蓋慧的內容,從知識 可以昇華到慧的領域,佛教不是知識的宗教,卻是使知識昇 華為智慧的宗教。那是因為除了肯定世間的知識之外,更著 重在超知識的『悟』的經驗下而獲得智慧,智慧便是由悟而 得的超知識的『認識心』和『檢擇力』。↓❻

(二) 佛菩薩信仰

如果說「三學」和「六度」是較為嚴格的、規範的和要 求比較高的一種修行方法,在修行過程中具有一定的難度, 那麼,佛菩薩的信仰、崇拜則是修行中比較容易把握和實踐 的一種方便法門。佛菩薩信仰是佛教信眾乃至非佛教人士比 較認同的信仰對象,觀音信仰則是佛教菩薩信仰中影響最為 廣泛、信眾最多的一種信仰型態。據《妙法蓮華經》中記 載:「佛告無盡意菩薩:善男子!若有無量百千萬億眾生, 受諸苦惱,聞是觀世音菩薩,一心稱名,觀世音菩薩即時觀 許多人選擇了觀音信仰,除了《妙法蓮華經‧觀世音菩薩普 門品》中有宣揚觀音信仰的內容之外,在《心經》、《楞嚴 經》等諸多經典中都有相類似的內容。具體而言,如何修觀 音法門成了許多信眾關注的焦點,為了能夠讓眾生如法如儀 地修習觀音法門,獲得觀音菩薩的加持和護佑,聖嚴法師結 合自己觀音信仰的經歷,為初學者提供了修習觀音法門的正 確方法。他指出,這一「聞聲音法」包含四個步驟:「1.專 念普聽一切聲音,不選擇對象,不分別對象,由大至小,由 近至遠,不以耳根去聽,乃讓聲自來。2. 知道自己在聽聲 音,也有聲音在被自己所聽,此時只有聲音和自己的和應, 沒任何雜念現前。3. 僅有聲音而忘失了自己,自己已融入無

[₿] 同註6, 頁136-137。

⁶ 同註6, 頁136。

[●] 姚秦·鳩摩羅什譯《妙法蓮華經·觀世音菩薩普門品》,《大正藏》冊 9,頁56下。

分別無界限的聲音之中。4. 聲音與自己雙亡雙照,雙亡則無內外自他,雙照則仍歷歷分明。」 ®這樣一種次第分明、層次清楚的修行方法使得初學者有了一定的依據,便於初學者進入修行領域,並進而在修行上得以提昇。

(三)放生報恩

 恰忽視了放生這一行為本身所具有的深刻意義;放生對於被 放的生物固然意義重大,但是,放生的修行方法卻可以培養 修行者的慈悲心、喜捨心以及我們對待生命的態度,這一點 對於實踐放生修行的修行者而言,意義可能更重要一些。

佛教並不是常人所理解的無情、無恩、不食人間煙火, 而是與社會、眾生的諸種情感密切相關。佛教提倡布施、放 生是為了培養人的恭敬心和慈悲心,同時也是為了培養人的 感恩心和報恩心,而佛教接受了信眾的布施也會以同樣的心 態回報眾生。因此,佛教有報四恩的思想,即報三寶恩、報 眾生恩、報國家恩、報父母恩。聖嚴法師通過自己的身體力 行極好地詮釋了佛教的報恩思想。

(四) 念佛法門

唐宋以降,隨著佛教義理研究的衰落,佛教修行的方法 中逐漸以念佛法門最為流行,尤其是以念阿彌陀佛最為盛 行。這種修行法門既是修行中的易行道,又是末法時代修行 者能夠容易把握的一種修行方法。與之相應的是念佛所追求 的淨土世界,儘管佛教的淨土世界種類很多,有自心淨土、 彌勒的兜率淨土、藥師佛的琉璃淨土和阿彌陀佛的西方淨 土,但是,自近現代以來,修行者以追求西方淨土為主,形 成專修彌陀淨土的修行法門。如何處理好不同淨土之間的關 係、處理好與之相應修行方法的關係,聖嚴法師顯示出了謹 慎的態度。例如,關於念佛法門,其中就有一定的次序和方 法可以遵循,對於這一問題,聖嚴法師表達了他自己的觀 點。他說:「我要勸告諸位,修念佛法門的學佛過程,最好

❸ 同註6 , 頁160。

⑩ 同註❷, 頁19-20。

② 同註②, 頁20。

四、聖嚴法師普及、推廣漢傳佛教的特點

聖嚴法師傾一生之精力研究佛教、實踐佛教、弘傳佛教,尤其是對近代以來漢傳佛教的復興與發展起到了非常重要的作用,他普及、推廣漢傳佛教時非常注重提昇人的生命、淨化人的心靈,為了實現這一目的,又強調使用多種多樣的實踐方法,這既使佛教義理變得淺顯易懂,又使佛教修行實踐變得切實可行,從而拉近了佛教修行者與其追求的生命境界的距離,使這一目標的實現成為可能。

(一)內容上的生命性

關注生命、提高生命境界是宗教具有的核心內容,佛教亦是如此。佛教的思想和修行都是圍繞人的生命展開,有鑒於此,聖嚴法師提出關愛生命、珍惜生命的核心內容是「心靈環保」,並且認為,只有心靈淨化了,心的認識改變了,我們的世界就淨化了,生命就得到了提昇!因此,無論是理論上還是在實踐上,聖嚴法師所闡述的內容都是圍繞這一核心問題展開,這成為聖嚴法師在普及、推廣漢傳佛教的重要特點,這也是有別於其他宗教家、宗教學者的一項重要內容。

(二)方法上的多樣性

依「聖嚴法師108自在語」(貳):「踏實地體驗生命,就是禪修。」至於如何在生活中進行展現生命、體驗生命的禪修,其方法多種多樣。從最簡單的禮拜佛菩薩、念佛,到較為複雜的禪定修行,都可以實現人生生命的提昇。我們的社會是多元的社會,是紛繁複雜的社會,人的存在又具有各自不同的特點,從佛教的本質上來講,佛陀教度眾生的法門有八萬四千法門,這就是應順世俗而隨機說法,實現隨緣救度。秉承了佛陀的基本教義,聖嚴法師結合當下社會的不同人群和個體的特點,隨機應變、方便說法,這樣做的目的與佛陀的本懷一脈相承,這也是對佛教思想的正本清源和繼承發展。讓更多的人認識佛教、認可佛教、接納佛教,最終用佛教的理念服務社會、服務眾生、提昇個體生命。

② 同註**⑤**,頁171。

❷ 同註❸, 頁47。

(三)境界上的易行性

追求成佛、追求解脫、追求生命的完滿是漢傳佛教修行體系中的重要目的,對這一境界的追求在外人看來似乎高不可及、深不可測,甚至有些無法企及、無法達到的感覺。因此,針對如何成佛、如何解脫、如何實現人生的完滿和自足,聖嚴法師指出,所有境界的實行其實關鍵在於我們的「心」。因此,聖嚴法師提出了「心靈環保」的思想,唯有心靈得到「灑掃」、心靈的塵垢得以清除,人生才能夠有意義、有價值,其目的就是為我們指出實現追求生命境界的可能性和易行性,將這一看似高遠的目標放在我們當下人生、當下社會中即可以實現。

五、結論

聖嚴法師為了實現淨化世人的心靈、實現眾生的「心靈環保」,從而推進整個人類社會和諧、和平、和樂地發展,他不僅提出自己的理論,還親身去實踐這種理論,其悲心之可敬、願力之可歎,實是值得我們去學習、效法。佛教在中國兩千多年的發展歷史,彰顯出這樣一個道理:佛教的發展離不開廣大信眾的護持和推動,而佛教能夠更加健康、正常地發展尤其是離不開有重大影響、起關鍵作用的高僧們的參與和引領,正是在他們的努力和推動下,佛教才不斷地推陳出新,不斷地獲得新的生命力,始終保持著佛教做為有別於其他宗教的特殊本質,在不同時代發揮著積極作用。聖嚴法師正是在佛教發展歷程中起到中堅作用的高僧,他對扭轉當

代漢傳佛教發展中出現的不利狀況起到極其重要的作用,對 於當代漢傳佛教重新回歸佛陀的本懷、以漢傳佛教的本來面 目回到眾生中去有著重要的意義和影響,從佛教發展史的角 度來看,聖嚴法師無疑是一位具有里程碑性質的人物。

Letting the Buddhism Return to the Common Life:

Viewed From the "Spiritual Environment -alism" of Master Shengyen

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Abstract

Master Shengyen promoted the idea of "Protecting the Spiritual Environment" as the core content of the Buddhism popularization and promotion. After many years effort, Master Shengyen has obtained very fruitful achievements in the Chinese Buddhism popularization and promotion. He is the model of Chinese Buddhism internationalization, popularization and secularization. The popularization and promotion of Buddhism of Master Shengyen mainly include two aspects: On the one hand, he clarified the basic thought of Buddhism in theory. On the other hand, he pointed out the specific methods of Buddhism practice. From the theory and practice of Master Shengyen, we can find three characteristics: one is caring for the life in the contents, two is the methodological diversity, and three is easy to reaching the realm of life.

Key words: Master Shengyen, Chinese Buddhism, popularization

聖嚴法師的環境哲學思想

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▮摘要

聖嚴法師在臺灣提出「心靈環保」新名詞,在思想深度 與實踐廣度上,持續落實「提昇人的品質,建設人間淨土」 的運動,至今已匯聚成一股淨化、療癒人文與自然病症的力 量。本文直接標示出聖嚴法師的環境思想,首先解釋建立於 心靈環保的環境哲學,可以說是一種環境存有論,它強調一 種非二元對立的整體觀,回歸心靈淨化提昇自我,人在環境 中肯認自己的位置與責任;在此基礎下,進一步與深層生態 學思想做一對比。

深層生態學者納斯以自我實現的概念架構出「生態智慧 T」,他是從其生存的地理空間中孕育與建構出生態哲學, 而聖嚴法師則植根於佛法在人世間的事實與潛態,從心靈環 保中開展環境智慧;因此,我們說建立於心靈環保的環境哲 學也可以揭示出聖嚴法師的環境智慧;再者,聖嚴法師的環 境哲學思想與全球化地球公民素養之普遍化可以接契,本文 要從目前國家幸福思潮,特別是不丹模式正在進行一種深層 內在的反思,不丹國家幸福指數的實踐已成為全世界許多工 業文明國家注目的焦點,它所以能夠匯聚與開發出驚人的力 量,依開創者的說法,其中有很重要的根源是來自於佛法。 聖嚴法師提出心靈環保的目地即是為臺灣社會帶來更多的光明,更大的願景、更安定的人心,同時在物質與精神方面成為美化世界,淨化世界的中心。於是,我們可以說心靈環保的環境哲學具有一種跨文化、普遍性的環境思想;另一方面它也是一種全球共通的語言,可以做為面對當前環境事實處境底下的個人自處與對應之道,它是臺灣可以輸出並貢獻給全球之重要的核心價值。

關鍵詞:聖嚴法師、心靈環保、環境存有論、深層生態學、 不丹國民幸福指數

一、前言

全球宗教界很早即關注於環境議題上,若以西方環境倫 理學史家納什(R. F. Nash)的觀點,他認為是聚焦在對史學 家林恩·懷特(L. White)於一九六七年的文章〈我們的生態 危機之歷史根源〉而展開,儘管這大致是從學術研究、論辯 為重,但宗教參與環境,的確為環境議顯帶來更多的討論與 實踐,這不只是揭露更多的事實,更是一種關於環境價值的 態度釐清與行動抉擇。更具體地說,由於宗教關注環境,使 得人類對待非人類的生命與自然都有了極為重大的改變;同 樣地,臺灣聖嚴法師提出「心靈環保」新名詞,在思想深度 與實踐廣度上,持續落實「提昇人的品質,建設人間淨土」 的運動,至今已匯聚成一股淨化、療癒人文與自然病症的力 量。本文直接標示聖嚴法師的環境思想,即要從當前環境倫 理學與環境哲學的發展脈絡為進路,嘗試揭示出聖嚴法師的 環境智慧,或者說聖嚴法師將禪佛教中的生態智慧開發出的 內容,並且這些內容和當前環境思潮與全球環境議題有所契 合與回應。主要的論述內容有三項:首先,說明建立在心靈 環保的環境哲學可以表述為一種環境存有論;其次,在此解 釋模式底下,將其與深層生態學的環境哲學做一對比;最 後,從目前國家幸福思潮,特別是不丹國家正在淮行一種深 層內在的反思:人民真正的幸福究竟是什麼?本文指出心靈 環保的環境哲學固然不是一種關於國家幸福的理論研究,但 它確實是根植於臺灣,既具在地性,並且也是一種普世的核 心價值;聖嚴法師就曾經提出心靈環保的目的,是要為臺灣

社會帶來更多的光明、更大的願景,以及更安定的人心,同 時在物質與精神方面成為美化世界、淨化世界的中心。

二、建立於心靈環保的環境哲學是一種環境存有論

自從聖嚴法師提出心靈環保的觀念之後,近年來已有諸多的研究並累積相當豐富的成果。 ①我們很清楚此一概念並不是憑空創造出來,其中有禪佛教的思想淵源,它同時蘊涵著某種心靈修為境界的理想性,但並不是一個形上學的玄思理念;按聖嚴法師說法,它一方面暢佛本懷,一方面如佛陀教誨切近於人間,是每一個有情可以感同身受,透過它可以讓每一個人貫通體會人我,以及物我彼此和諧關係的可能性。聖嚴法師早已將心靈環保與環境危機的根源連接起來,②此一洞見與深層生態學運動的創造者納斯反省西方生態危機的哲學根源有相同的初衷。

環境存有論(environmental ontology)是深層生態學家

納斯(Arne Naess)首先提出;3之後,美國應用倫理學者科 廷(Deane Curtin)對於納斯的「生態智慧T」與佛教思想之 間的關係提出論述,科廷針對深層生態學之自我實現提出解 釋, ❹他認為納斯受到佛陀的影響,因為佛陀對於生命存在 的「苦」(Suffering)有極為明顯的迫切感受,納斯體會到這 樣的態度,並促使他對深層生態學進行探索與行動,正是在 這樣的脈絡底下,科廷認為納斯更像是一位環境存有論哲學 家,他之所以會如此肯斷,還包括納斯從一開始就指出人類 的世界觀是環境危機的根源,我們有必要提出一種「觀看世 界的新方式」(new way of seeing the world),每嘗試透過存 有論來揭露人與自然的最源初的關係;對於納斯而言,自我 實現是生態哲學的最初原則,也是最終極的依歸;自我實現 的過程即不斷地擴展,同時與其他生物、自然之間的疏離就 漸愈縮小,深層生態學揭示生態自我的終極價值,並提出一 套實踐的行動規範,以實現人、非人類生物與地球能夠永續 共存的理想,這就是它的環境哲學;納斯的自我實現即可以 被理解為一種存有論的表達方式,這種自我實現就是在一種 生態自我的圓現之際; 人是什麼? 在深層生態學之環境存有 論的觀點來說就是生態自我。至此,我們可以說環境存有論

[●] 特別是指編輯在《聖嚴研究第一輯》、《聖嚴研究第二輯》(臺北:法鼓文化,2010、2011年)中,包括釋果鏡〈聖嚴法師淨土思想之研究—以人間淨土為中心〉、周柔含〈通往人間淨土的鑰匙——淺談聖嚴法師的菩薩戒〉、林其賢〈聖嚴法師人間淨土思想立場的抉擇〉、釋果光與釋常諗〈漢傳禪佛教的當代實踐——聖嚴法師的「心靈環保」〉、釋果暉〈聖嚴法師之漢傳佛教復興運動——以漢傳禪佛教為中心〉等文章;以及其他如:林朝成〈佛教走向土地倫理——「人間淨土」的省思〉,《成大宗教與文化學報》第5期,2005年12月,頁59-90;楊惠南〈當代臺灣佛教環保理念的省思——以「預約人間淨土」與「心靈環保」為例〉,《當代》第104期,1994年12月,頁32-55。

② 聖嚴法師《好心·好世界──聖嚴法師談心靈環保》,臺北:法鼓文化, 2012年,頁138。

③ Arne Naess, *The Ecology of Wisdom*, edited by Alam Drengson and Bill Devall, Berkeley: Counterpoint, 2010, 93 ∘

[◆] Deane Curtin, "A State of Mind Like Water: Ecosophy T and the Buddhism Tradition" in *Beneath the Surface*: Critical Essays in the Philosophy of Deep Ecology, edited by Eric Katz, etc., Mass. MIT Press, 2000, 254.

⁶ Ibid., 264.

是指出人在環境整體的脈絡處境中如何自處,乃至自我定位的論述。至少,在深層生態學的觀點下,環境存有論是以一種整體性的思維進路,在人與自然的整體關係底下理解、回答人是什麼;同時,在解答上述的問題之際,並且解答了物我(人與他者)關係,而這種物觀不是傳統哲學的宇宙論與知識論所對應的主題。❸

聖嚴法師建立在心靈環保的環境哲學為什麼可以是一種環境存有論呢?從心靈環保的觀念提出之後,一直到「心五四」與「心六倫」的實踐中,自然環境的關懷面向從未被脫鉤;再者,如聖嚴法師說環境的污染源於人心未能淨化,這即與納斯哲學地反省相同。最後,針對人與自然的整體關係,聖嚴法師曾多次地闡述,例如:「環境就是我的大身體,我的大身體是和一切眾生所共有的,不僅地球環境是共有的,整個宇宙也是共有的。宇宙的時間無限,空間也是無限的,如果能這樣想,就不需非要占有、非要奪去什麼。如果我們對待環境裡的所有東西,都能把它當作是我們的身體一樣看待,就能好好保護它。」◆此外,在《金剛經》與心靈環保的脈絡中亦表達出人與自然環境的整體觀,法師說:「要將所有動、植物生存的環境,都看作是我們身體的一部分,沒有這些動、植物,人類也無法單獨生存。這些共同生

活的生物環境,相互之間都有它自動、自然的調整作用,如果人為加以破壞,使自然生態環境失去平衡,也會為人類帶來災難。」**③**

人與自然環境的整體觀的說法,在目前地球村的全球尺 度下亦得到實證;法師在提出心靈環保的思想時,就表達出 這是根據佛法說正報與依報的律則而來。

事實上,關於人身與自然環境的整體關係,在佛教經典中亦可以尋得從緣起法則來解釋的內容,人與生活世界中一切法皆在緣起法則之下運作存在著;而當我們要說法師的環境存有論時,它既是事實,也是價值的表述;一方面如果要用生物上的定義來說人性的話,根本上它表示了單一要素是不充分的;因為:(一)人固然是依待眾多的因緣而存在,但除了生物性外,尚有心理、社會與道德要素等;(二)人原本就可能因「三毒」讓人喪失或扭曲生物本能,當然也有可能會摒除自利且仁慈對待他者;(三)所有對於意識的分析、心性的洞見,都讓我們清清楚楚地體認人性的脆微與希望,特別是從心靈環保對於人性的解釋,法師就說過心靈環保的內涵之出發點,是出於人的情意、觀念(思想),與精神的淨化。每我們將更清楚法師的「佛性」觀點,所有複雜的關係網絡、我與非我的困限,在此可以領悟通透。

從哲學地反省人與自然環境的關係,進入或轉向宗教家 的實踐時,可能出現更多不同的局面;例如,美國環境倫理

[●] 概括非個已生命存在的「他者」,其所包括的有「非個己之他人」、「非個已之非人類生命」、「非個己之無生命存在物」和「個已與他者 共在的整全之自然」。

^{▼《}不一樣的環保實踐》,臺北:法鼓文化,2007年,頁120。

³ 同註2, 頁80。

⁹ 同註2, 頁49。

學之父羅斯頓(H. Rolston Ⅲ)的環境思想中,也有類似的 哲學轉向,羅斯頓將他的環境倫理學標示為「走向荒野的哲 學」,它的論旨在於自然環境中發現與揭示人的存在意義, 甚至說,這樣的工作不只是事實的揭露而已,人類做為整體 中的一個成員,在自我認識外,還有一項價值評價的工作; 人的存在總是還有價值的事需要做評價,因為人會自我提 問:人是什麼?人是生物學理論所解釋的一項事實,除此之 外,也是倫理與宗教的能動者等向度的事實。人類的宗教實 踐或能力,使得人類對待他人與非人類的生命都有了極為重 大的改變,這不只是一項事實,更是一種價值的抉擇;在基 督教、伊斯蘭教,包括佛教的宗教教義中,都有極為明確地 盲說,並且告誡它們的追隨者,人性的自然化是一限制,要 突破這個困限並進入利他的理想,以及分享人類在自然史與 文化史當中所出現的價值。羅斯頓說:「宗教是我們人性的 關鍵。」●宗教將人提昇到具有文化活動的生物,他能夠真正 體現人性當中良心的光輝。

有一個更具體的例子,可以用來說明環境存有論中的人性觀點,那就是關於「受苦」的訊息,它在自然中與在人類身上的突現大不相同,自然界的非人類生物並不懂得受苦的全幅意義以及尋求解脫之道。佛教是首先宣說生命是苦的宗教,痛苦固然是不幸的遭遇;但是,當它出現在人類身上的同時,它也是一種承受的能力,以及反映了某種避免或跨越

聖嚴法師宣說事實真理,實亦即是在告誡我們,人性的自然化是一限制,因此對治之道是提昇人的品質;心靈環保所照應的面相從一開始就是整全生活世界,涵蓋人、社會與自然。因此,法師當初提出心靈環保的動機在於:「我深切地感受到,人心如果不能淨化,社會也就不可能得到淨化;人的內在心理環境若不保護,社會的自然環境也沒有辦法獲得適當的保護。」❷法師更直接契應佛陀的教化實踐,他認為:「釋迦牟尼佛成佛之後,是先從人心的糾正、人心的改善的主,那就是心靈環保的工作;他是一位成功的環保運動大師。」❸人心淨化與環境淨化的社會運動在道德邏輯而言是同一件事。人性的事實可以透過禪修的實踐,禪不是漠視放任的「無所為」,麻木的「無所感」,而是細膩覺察的謹言慎行,面對污染與無節制的開發,這與禪的道德戒律在道

[₱] H. Rolston III, Genes, Genesis and God: Values and Their Origins in Natural and Human History, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999, 296-307.

¹ Ibid., 304.

⑩ 同註❷,頁138。

❸ 同註2,頁185。

德邏輯上是不相容的,面對此一不相容的糾結會有適當的介入,或者放手,讓自然自運,這才是真正的禪的修行與智慧。以智慧莊嚴自己的心即是心靈環保,人在那裡,環保就做到那裡,更可以凸顯聖嚴法師心靈環保之環境存有論的特殊之處。

聖嚴法師建立在心靈環保的環境哲學是一種環境存有論,法師固然不是環境哲學的建構,而是基於宗教家的慈悲智慧,揭示人在環境整體中的事實脈絡,以及在價值的選擇與如何實踐,給出可能性根據與指引。在西方環境存有論的模式下,我們可以綜結聖嚴法師環境存有論的內容:

- (一)人與自然的整體關係不是形而上、抽象的關係, 而是相互依存的事實與倫理的關係,而展現此一關係的連接 中介是人的本質或人性觀。
- (二)人在面對他者的倫理規範是基於禪佛教戒律,依 不同的脈絡而言是具有包容與多元性,倫理原則並不要求是 定言式的,而是一種脈絡倫理論者。
- (三)環境存有論的特殊性是一種無執的、無我的層次,但亦不離他者的存在之事實與倫理之回應,它是無染自在的表現。

三、聖嚴法師環境哲學與納斯深層生態學的自我

 現是其理論的核心,也是引起諸多爭議的地方;儘管從小我到大我的擴展過程,人似乎同時提昇了更高的生命尊嚴與價值,但終究生態大我的實現只是一種理想,一種生活方式而已。而聖嚴法師依禪佛教的思想談自我,則經過幾層的思慮,最後開展出既具方便權宜與特色的修行次第禪法。優再者,本文選擇對比兩者的「自我」觀點,並非只是針對定義自我的差別相而已;一個個己生命的道德關懷擴及他者,甚至是自然環境如何可能的問題,從環境存有論的觀點看來,對於自我有必要做更多的解釋,它要能夠指出人在環境整體的脈絡處境中如何自處?乃至自我定位?以及為他者付出之道德關懷與個己生命道德品質之提昇同時是可能的。

納斯曾對之規定:「我不在任何狹隘的、個體論者的意義下使用『自我實現』。而毋寧是想要給它一個更寬廣的意義,它是建立在一種更廣的解悟的大我和狹義的本我論者(egoistic)的自我之不同上,那在某些東方的傳統中被認識為小我(atman)。這種大我包含了地球上之連同它們個體自身的所有生命形式。」 @深層生態學的大我超越心理學的

[●]本文主要針對提出「深層生態學」語彙的哲學家納斯,做為與聖嚴法師之「心靈環保」思想之對比,無法涵蓋所有深層生態學者,或此一環境運動仍在持續進行中的全貌;本文提及在此一思潮中的某些觀點,可能會有不同學者的主張;若如,對於自我的概念,納斯與福克斯(Warwick Fox)就有不同,本文在不同脈絡中做出標示區分;而在某些行文直接說深層生態學則是指納斯的深層生態學觀點。

[●]釋果暉〈聖嚴法師之漢傳佛教復興運動──以漢傳禪佛教為中心〉, 《聖嚴研究第二輯》,頁332-350。

[•] Arne Naess, "The Deep Ecologiy Movement: Some Philosophical Aspects," *Philosophical Inquiry* 8, 1986, 28.

小我,它必須透過充分地實現潛能而到達的形上學的大我,也是在與人類、生物圈共同體的關係中實現的「生態自我」(Ecological Self),深層生態學做為一種環境哲學整體論的圖像,在生態自我的表述中成形。進一步說人與他人、非人類生命之他者在自我實現的過程當中,若有其他生命的自我實現受到阻礙時,我們的自我實現也將會受阻,普遍的價值就無法被圓現。深層生態學以自我實現表述人或個體存在物與環境整體之間的整全圖像時,都是由人之做為環境中的一個存在個體,或說透過人的觀法之展示來完成的。再者,只有人能夠將這種整全關係樣貌展示出來,在這個過程中或頓時之體現,無論如何都有依循著維持此一關係所必要遵從的規範;因此,我們可以說人性是在表述此一種完整圖像所不可或缺的必要條件。

從深層生態學對環境危機的反省而言,納斯自認為並不是環境倫理學的一支,也與淺層生態學運動有別;特別是深層生態學指出一種根本方法,傳達出人與自然生態為一整體的限制底下認清自我與非人類世界的關係,或者說如其深層之意,指的就是一種哲學的生態觀。根據 Erazim Kohák 的說法,覺深層生態學看出人在自然中處位的概念之生態問題的根源,從我們的生態學根源的深層提問,不僅揭示出我們與非人類世界的關係,甚至是反省人自身的本質。

納斯深層生態學的基本觀念指出所有的生命在根源上是

一,以及所有的存在都是相互依賴的;因此,它就必須解釋這樣的一種理論如何透過自我實現建立起來?雖然深層生態學致力於批駁人類中心主義的缺失,並試圖為我們指引一條向上提昇之道;但是,透過自我實現的概念做為推衍的表現風格,或許是因為人性個已習氣的牽絆,要與自然整體融合在一起,就顯得困難重重。

自我實現在生態智慧哲學體系中有多重意義,它凸顯出深層生態思想在方法論上的特殊原則,以及用來展示人與非人類生命,甚至與自然之圓滿和諧關係的可能性根據;納斯通過與其他心理學或宗教哲學對自我的不同理解,特別是印度哲學的吠陀思想,此一觀點認為所有的事物都是同一,且是終極的「梵」(Brahman)的不同示現,每一個個別事物與這普遍超越的「梵」可以被表述為小我(atman)與大我(Atman)解釋模式,一方面它說明了每一個個別事物都是這整全的一部分,以及深層生態學強調的深層認同,自我實現就是小我不斷邁向大我的過程。

或許納斯的生態自我能夠成立,然而,首先必須面對一個問題,即每一個己都追求此一相同的目的,自我實現能夠符應回答嗎?再者,果若如是,納斯會贊同我們必須去感受他者的悲喜,如同是擴大了我們的小我,而這會再出現幾個問題:(一)到底對他者的關懷同情與全然的認同兩者之間的差異是什麼?事實上,有時候我們只需要有慈悲的感情而不需要有全然的同一;(二)我們對於他者的遭遇之關愛,常常並不需要有與之相關的知識;(三)如果自我實現牽涉對他者的痛苦之認同,而這隱含著人的幸福,那麼在人與自

[•] Eccy de Jonge, *Spinoza and Deep Ecology: Challenging Traditional Approaches to Environmentalism*, England: Ashgate Publishing Ltd., 2004, 5.

然萬物為一整全的前提之下,我們總是鬱鬱寡歡的;因此, De Jonge就質疑為何納斯認同採用小我來詮釋自我實現的意 思。❸

在環境哲學的議題裡,人做為一個已存在,他與自然的關係之間,如何突破人的生物本能、道德限制,甚或是存有論的困限的確是難題。深層生態學辯稱自我利益、易衝動的,這並不是人性的自然狀態,但只是由於環境因緣的影響而產生;而正面的觀點則是肯定人可以改變為仁慈的,若以一種隱喻的說法,所有的人彷彿是大樹中的葉片;只是,這裡顯示一個深層生態學難以證實的問題,因為事實上我們大部分的人並不是深層生態學陣營的人;在面對諸多質疑之後,深層生態學的自我似乎充滿著玄思神祕的色彩。

另一位深層生態學者福克斯(Warwick Fox)繼續推進自我實現的概念,他將自我實現與德行倫理學視為相同的,因為他相信德行的發展有助於開發我們自己對於善的愛,而這會引導我們去肯認自然的價值。⑩他進一步針對自我實現的自我之內容做更多的解釋與充擴,首先他區分超個人的生態學自我與超個人心理學的自我之不同在於態度之不同,而不是存有論意義上的不同;後者仍然是狹義的自我,是從傳統心理學推衍出來的,它是建立在三種基本面向之上,即:(一)欲望衝動的自我;(二)規範判斷的自我;(三)理性化決定的自我。⑩這三種態度將人界定為個體,並與自然

區隔開來,要了解這三種自我的特質,可以從其對他者的關係,或如何肯認他者、與非人類世界關係來做分析,如第二項自我肯定非人類存在的價值,並表現出關懷與道德規範的要求。只是,我們仍然可以提問:超個人生態學的自我如何發展呢?

福克斯針對此自我進行更寬廣的發展提出三項方式的認同: ② (一) 個人的認同, (二) 存有論的認同,以及(三) 宇宙論的認同。存有論的認同與禪佛教的禪修經驗之開放性類同,福克斯認為我們大部分的人是無法到達此一存有論的認同境界,宇宙論的認同則是特殊的興趣之進路才有可能,若如神祕學、玄思哲學等,福克斯指出像斯賓諾莎、甘地等人。De Jonge則認為,儘管我們可以接受上述關於較狹隘的自我認同三種面向,我們仍然必要知道我們是從哪一個面向決定進行較寬廣的認同,此一反省繼續質疑自我實現的可能性。②

按福克斯的觀點,他認為宇宙論的認同較能支持並助長進行,但是關於存有論的認同是讓我們更清楚自己的存在之處位與自我,無論如何這也是重要的一個步驟。上述三種面向結合為自我並構成我們做為一個整全的人,存有論的認同雖然較隱晦,但是自我實現總是必須帶出一種對其他存在者的情感,如藉斯賓諾莎哲學的語彙說法,假使所有的存在都

¹ Ibid., 40.

¹ Ibid., 52.

Warwick Fox, *Toward a Transpersonal Ecology: Developing New Foundations for Environmentalism*, New York: State University of New York Press, 1995, 45.

¹ Ibid., 249.

[@] Eccy de Jonge, ibid., 50.

是單一實在開展的不同面向,也就是說會有某一面向是涉及所有的存有,當然包括狹隘的自我。福克斯的解題果真說明深層生態學的個已自我,並趨向承認一個大我,而且我們只是整全的一部分。由De Jonge看來,深層生態學挑戰的難題並未成功,反而讓我們更不清楚,自我實現對於自我的本質仍未闡明。

上述針對深層生態學透過自我實現過程當中,由於自我 的本質與生態自我的可能性所出現的難題,就是指人與他者 或與自然的關係之間,如何突破人的生物本能,特別是在小 我擴展到大我的過程中,極有可能的競爭、利益衝突,以及 包容差異性的限制難題;現在,我們檢視心靈環保的環境哲 學如何面對上述的難題。

聖嚴法師對於自我的權宜區分與界定說明,❸基本上是如納斯深層生態學之主張眾生平等,但卻有更多的宣說,法師說:「『自我』的內容,從小至大可分幾個層次來看:(一)我的心,(二)我的身體,(三)我所生存的社會及環境,(四)整個地球,(五)整個宇宙就是我的身體。如果能將自我提昇擴大到第五個層次,自私心就會減少,安全感自然增長。」❷此一層次似已達到深層生態學的生態大我階段,然事實上,則還有一「無我」境地;這雖然是從自我層層開展,實則逐漸脫落自我,直到無我,到達此一階段是深層開展,實則逐漸脫落自我,直到無我,到達此一階段是深

層生態學所缺少的。無我的修練歷程,從對治散亂到集中,再由統一到無心的次第與法門,決定了心靈環保的環境哲學面對與排解自我實現的障礙成為可能的。法師說這即是禪宗所謂「悟境現前」,每至此境界要把宇宙全體的大我放下,這三個層次的修行次第是:(一)日常生活的起心動念為著眼處;(二)從認識自我、肯定自我、成長自我,從體驗小我到社會,乃至宇宙大我;(三)漸進練習將層層的我逐一放下到無我的慈悲與智慧。無我的宗教情操出現,那是對個已存在的生活世界,包括自然環境的悲苦,啟動一種向上救度之道,當然也有可能面對差異與利益衝突時,做出謙讓甚或奉獻與成全,無論如何,此種舉措在深層生態學之小我不斷擴展到大我的過程中似乎不可能出現。

深層生態學之生態大我與生活世界中的各個領域面向之間的連接也是一個難題,生態大我的實現是一理想的理念推演的終點;法師一直強調無我之事實,並無形上的玄思,但只是平常生活之道,仍然是相同的用心而表現在家庭生活、社會與自然環境中;事實上,從此即透顯出法師心靈環保之最後歸結處:如來藏思想,眾生皆有成佛的可能性!至此亦真正凸顯出與深層生態學自我觀點的最大差異處。無我的智慧不離日常生活之體驗與實踐,它非起點亦非終點。法師說:以無我的智慧,體悟日常生活中一事一物、一花一草,一切自然、社會、生理、心理等現象,事事物物,都是說無生無滅、悲智具足的實相法。尊重生命、珍惜資源,為眾生

[●] 是指法師為了讓人能夠突破對無我的說法之抗拒心理所採行的善巧,參 見釋果暉〈聖嚴法師之漢傳佛教復興運動──以漢傳禪佛教為中心〉, 《聖嚴研究第二輯》,頁333-340。

❷ 同註❷, 頁184。

⁴⁹ 同註2 , 頁31。

聖嚴法師的作法讓更多非佛教徒能夠參與心靈環保,不僅是 創造出新的語言,也是一種更具廣度與包容的文化形構,更 讓我們自行體解如何每天生存在地球生境之內,此即境教之 意。法師說:「佛教也認為,任何一個空間方位,無一處不 是佛菩薩救濟眾生的地方及修行的道場,因此自然界的一草 一木、一石一沙,都被看成是修道的地方,所謂:『一沙一 世界,一花一如來。』青青翠竹、鬱鬱黃花都是如來說法的 型態,我們把整個的自然環境都當作是諸佛的法身,為我們 說法,給我們恩惠。所以對任何一樣東西都要珍惜,用它、 吃它是為了要維持生命,而生存是為了要修行,要自利利 人。」❷

四、不丹GNH與聖嚴法師環境哲學的普世價值

將聖嚴法師的環境思想與不丹的國民幸福指數(Gross National Happiness, GNH)連結起來,主要的意圖是從不丹對全球國家幸福理論的主流趨勢之反省,同時看到建立在心靈環保的環境哲學有其洞見與普世價值。事實上,法師在國際諸多的場合宣揚心靈環保,並且得到正面的回應,我們甚至可以說,不丹之GNH為目前全球研究、關注的一個焦點,而聖嚴法師之心靈環保將成為臺灣可以貢獻給全球的一個核心價值。心靈環保的環境哲學固然不是一種關於國家幸福的理論,但它確實是根植於臺灣,既具在地性,並且與每一個人直正的幸福快樂相關,也具有一種普世的核心價值。法師就

❷ 聖嚴法師《學術論考Ⅱ》,臺北:法鼓文化,1992年,頁57-58。

[●] 聖嚴法師《修行在紅塵──維摩經六講》,臺北:法鼓文化,2011年,頁 131。

❷ 心靈環保對於自我的主張與修行過程,甚至可以用來解答目前西方某些學者對佛教環境哲學的質疑,若如有學者指出在禪修的過程中,許多的修行者他們轉向內在,因而不重視參與外在世界中的事件,以及「活在當下」的名言,可能會培養出對未來漠不關心的態度,甚至不只是漠視個別修習者自身的未來,也會漠視地球上眾生的共同的未來。參見:林朝成、黃國清、謝美霜(譯)《佛教與生態學──佛教的環境倫理與環保實踐》,頁221-222。甚至包括詹姆士(Simon P. James)也針對幾個禪佛教與環境倫理之間的議題之論述,如:禪是無關乎道德的,因此,無法做為任何倫理學的基礎;禪是人類中心主義的,於是無法產生一種環境倫理;以及禪完全是一種寂靜主義者,無法承擔實際的環境事務等問題。見:Simon P. James, Zen Buddhism and Environmental Ethics, England: Ashgate Publishing Ltd., 2004.

²⁹ 聖嚴法師《禪的世界》,臺北:法鼓文化,2010年,頁312。

說過:「心靈環保也就是時時刻刻從自己的心裡邊來安定、淨化,以期幫助自己過著平安、快樂的生活,同時也使他人過得很愉快。」如此外,將環境議題置放在國家幸福思潮中時,促使我們做更寬廣思索,人與環境之間一種正面積極的和諧關係是什麼,或者應該是如何的狀態才會讓我們有幸福的感覺,這或許是世界屋脊下的幸福國度所散播出來的訊息,但我們更可以說心靈環保的環境哲學讓我們更清楚感受到環境幸福感。

最近一談論到「國民幸福指數」(GNH),就直接聯想到不丹,甚至幾乎將之與不丹結合,形成「不丹GNH」。GNH是國家幸福總值,做為衡量國家的發展系統,它有四個支柱以及從九大領域來做綜合計算。它由第四代國王吉格梅·辛革·旺楚克(Jigme Singye Wangchuck)首先在一九七二年創立公布; 他綜觀全球的發展之後發現,有許多國家國內生產總值(Gross Domestic Product, GDP)高,但人民不快樂,並且喪失傳統文化、價值觀與自然環境。最後他自問:是否有適合不丹的典範案例?以及做出一個結論:GNH比GDP更重要,發展的意義在於提昇人民的快樂福祉,這也是國王的責任。他並且堅持真正傳統文化價值是基於慈悲、寬容與智慧之上,直言之,就是以佛法的精神為代表。到了第五世國王繼承並充擴GNH,政府治理的最終目的即在於提昇GNH,

他將權力下放給人民,一方面也是要人民有責任意識,因為幸福必須包括對國家之承擔責任與義務。此一評量系統看來是非常入世,雖然不丹是一個藏傳佛教傳承久遠的國度,但在系統內之各項衡量指標並不見相關的字語。它是一哲學理念,而不是一套為經濟發展存在的指標;它更像是進步與發展最後的目標,不單純是傳統GDP的替代產物,而無寧是一種補足、充擴。簡言之,GNH是不丹提出的另一種發展的概念,有別於傳統成長的概念,它持續挑戰當前發展的主流思考。

GNH的目的在於提出了增進快樂的一種刺激,讓不丹人 民、企業與政府公職人員可以問:我要如何增進GNH?GNH 指標可以幫助他們在實踐中回答這些問題。GNH由四個領域 (或支柱)與九大項目,以及將近三百個變項的調查統計問 卷組成。其四個領域是:

- (一)公平合理、永續的社會經濟發展;
- (二)保護自然環境;
- (三)維護與弘揚傳統文化;
- (四)良好的政府治理。

而九個評估指標項目分別為:心理健康、時間使用、社 區活力、文化、身體健康、教育、環境多樣性、生活標準、 政府治理。

幸福指數是指把主觀幸福感做為一項指標,通過問卷調查運用專門的測量工具去獲得人們主觀幸福感的數量化結果,進而做為政府治理之制定發展規畫和社會政策一種重要參考。因此,GNH是不丹面對國家社會問題的一種應對方

⑩ 聖嚴法師《法鼓山的方向》,臺北:法鼓文化,1992年,頁522。

[♠] Karma Ura, "Explanation of GNH Index," 1, http://gnhusa.org/wp-content/uploads/2010/04/Karma-Ura-Explanation-of-GNHf.pdf.

式,如人口、GDP、交通、貿易,以及城市化的問題,GNH 必須能夠解決這些問題;甚至,包括此系統指出自我肯定、 感情聯繫、社區歸屬感等內在價值觀,才會增進我們的幸福,也是構成快樂的要素;我們甚至可以說GNH是一種新的 出路,解決與改變物質至上、消費主義的社會方案,因為它們要求良好的政府治理來實現公平富足的社會。

根據卡瑪·尤拉(Karma Ura)的說法, @GDP本身並不 是為了衡量幸福而設立的,它只是為了衡量生產狀況,而且 是被用於市場交易的商品的生產狀況,用GDP來衡量國家的 好壞是不充分的,GDP並不能從整體上成為幸福的代名詞。 再者,一個有限的生活世界與人類幸福之間的關聯是:一方 而我們有過好日子的能力,另一方面是面對此一種限制,必 須在有限的自然資本下活現美好的生活。GNH所揭示的普遍 真理,是快樂必須是生活在一個有限的自然生態系統之內, 同時是一個健康公平的社會,以及歸返內在的節制、簡樸以 及仁慈、分享善的價值的信念,它可以透過任何修行系統為 指引,任何宗教或實踐,舉凡可以更平和地自我察覺心情平 靜、樂於助人、與人分享,在幸福評量系統中的諸多項目條 件齊全了,幸福自然會出現。尤拉就說GNH還可以激勵每一 個參與者開發培養他們的第三眼(a third eye),❸那是一種 超越個己利益,能夠洞察快樂的整體性,所有的指標向度、 所有的評量指標都是相互嵌結在一起的,第三眼寓意著人的 潛能,體解所有的事物是相關聯的。GNH起源於不丹政府更周延與深入地反省快樂是什麼,以及要帶給人民幸福感受,這不是短暫的;做為一種國家發展的度量系統,它既告知不丹人民與世界,目前不丹人的滿足感水平,以及讓不同時間、地區的不丹人了解政府的政策。由於它嘗試多元地滿足人民需求,既有相應的規範且又在生態有限性的事實底下實現,因此,我們說不丹GNH具有跨越國界的可能性。再者,GNH與其他當前主流的國家評量系統,如GDP、人類發展指數(HDI)等不同,GNH的路向較傾向人民自己決定國家發展的走向,在GNH的研究中重新將政治與個人倫理價值的事再嵌結起來。幸福固然是個人的事,但是政府有責任與義務提供與創造環境幸福條件,讓每一個子民在其生活歷程中能夠公平努力去自我實現;GNH的普世價值就在於政府之持續完善與分享環境幸福條件,形成一個全球共通的語彙,既可以做為評估也是影響政治決策與領導者的行動。

聖嚴法師提倡心靈環保,強調觀念轉變、心靈健康與淨化,這對大多數人都有用,不論那一種宗教,以及是否為佛教徒,如果能從自己著手來改變混亂的風氣,社會亂象就會少一些。再從GNH的最新潮流看來,聖嚴法師的環境思想更可以為人類幸福與和自然生態系統之間的關係提出特殊的解讀方式。前述聖嚴法師的環境思想是一種環境存有論,因為它指出:

- (一)人的事實處境是在一個有限的生態整體下生存與 發展;
- (二)我們有必要依循一套規範,讓我們與他者共存與

❷ 卡瑪·尤拉 (Karma Ura) 是不丹研究中心主任。

³ Karma Ura, ibid., 4 °

延續;

(三)在傳達事實處境、遵循規範與選擇價值觀的同時,它對人性品質的提昇是有幫助的,即能夠有助於更幸福地生存與發展。

心靈環保的主張與不丹GNH抉擇的路徑極盡相似,包括 內心的平靜與幸福的關係,一個人要有幸福感受必要在他的 生活世界網絡中有和諧的關係,以及在一個有限的地球生境 下的生活方式。

心靈環保做為一項社會運動,淨化人間的活動,要廣布全世界,而這份工作,則首先從本土開始,從每一個人的自心做起,這是一種建構、分享價值的邏輯,也是社會關係網絡幸福感的可能性根據。聖嚴法師說:心靈環保是時時刻刻從自己的心裡邊來安定淨化,以期幫助自己過著平安快樂的生活,同時也使他人過得很愉快。尤拉也曾經指出:「在感官享受的過程中,我們忘了也可以從心靈深處獲得同樣的快樂感受;如果內心和感官結合,我們對通過外部資源來獲得快樂的依賴程度會降低,從而更多地依靠自我,依靠來自內心的滿足和寧靜,這是我們忽略的部分。……這個世界還有很多人沒有體會過真正的『安靜』。」 學聖嚴法師說過,我們需要的很少,但是想要的太多;心靈環保具有普世化的洞見與格度,即是針對目前全球環境議題的困限具有指引性的出

路,以及從心靈環保的思想中回答幸福是什麼。物質的貧窮雖然會造成人類生活的不便,但不會有毀滅世界的危機;而心靈的貧窮,卻會引來世界的危機與人類的毀滅。如何能夠感到幸福,除了真正的心靈平靜自然產生的知足幸福之外,聖嚴法師說如果能夠奉獻權利,則會讓人感受到快樂知足;每況且生存在這個世間,只要有能力奉獻、有機會奉獻,就沒有人能夠阻撓奉獻的權利。向外或向他人追求幸福是不可靠的,而且可能很痛苦;如果自己能創造幸福,並視奉獻為個人的權利,這樣的人即使物質生活再窮困,還是能夠享有真正的快樂與幸福;因此,我們可以說最大的快樂幸福源自於心靈環保。

聖嚴法師在提出心靈環保之際就察覺到一個事實真理: 自然生態是有限的,地球本身是個有限公司而非無限公司, 不可能無限供應;為了人間淨土在地球上實現,法師呼籲我 們應該珍惜自然資源,「地球本身的資源有限,如果我們揮 霍無度,自己認為是享福,實際是糟蹋,是損福;糟蹋的愈 多,損福就愈多。這不僅是物質的糟蹋,也是對眾生心靈的 損害,所造成的惡果,到頭來仍然必須由我們自己承擔。」❸ 因果律則也說明了環境事實,近年來人類宰制利用大自然, 此貪欲行為的結果不僅讓自己陷入無窮盡的追逐痛苦,更造 成了有限的地球環境之困境。法師生動的描述:「地球是人 類及一切萬物的母親,可以吸吮母親的乳汁,卻不可以摧殘

[●] 卡瑪·尤拉(Karma Ura),〈國民幸福指數在不丹〉,沈顥、卡瑪·尤 拉主編《國民幸福——一個國家發展的指標體系》,北京:北京大學出 版社,2010年,頁50。

❸ 聖嚴法師《真正的快樂》,臺北:法鼓文化,2011年,頁64、174。

⁵ 同註2,頁188。

母親的身體。任意地浪費自然資源,如同折母親的骨骼、抽母親的血液、剔母親的皮肉、拔母親的毛髮,樣樣行為都是加速母親早日死亡。」 分法師的環境哲學不僅表達察覺到環境有限的事實,同時說我們必要有規範,讓我們與他者共存與延續;在傳達事實處境下,也主張人性品質必須提昇才有助於更幸福地生存與發展。因此,法師說:「解決這個問題最重要的還是讓每個人覺得自己是自然的一部分,是自然循環的一部分,目前的環境,子孫還要用,人人能夠惜福,不但不要透支,還要加給它一點存款。」 ③

心靈環保的環境整體觀不致於陷入鬆泛與玄思之中,因為有佛法的根據;而且做為一個人間佛教的菩薩行者,直接體證佛陀的心法;我們甚至可以說聖嚴法師的環境智慧,實即環境悲心;聖嚴法師說:環境就是我的大身體,從佛教立場來看,森林或大自然是眾生的家,人類看到的是森林,但是從佛教的眼光來看,是看到了一座有許多眾生居住的大城市;會而且,對於心靈環保的實踐強調整體觀,一方面說自然環境是一整體,同時說所謂整體是要看長遠的利益,要讓子孫將來也能快樂地活下去。尤拉說不丹推動GNH是要開發人的潛能,體解所有的事物是相關聯的;我們則可以說聖嚴法師推行心靈環保是要開啟每一個人的佛性慧眼,能夠體悟、也能夠慈悲地對待和人密切連接的他者與環境。

最後,從聖嚴法師的環境思想已經在國際間產生影響力 道而言,它已是一項具有普世性的核心價值。法師歷年來 多次在國際場合會議中宣揚與分享心靈環保,以及建立在心 靈環保理念的環境保護工作,包括在「千禧年世界宗教暨精 神領袖和平高峰會」、「世界經濟論壇」與「世界宗教暨精 神領袖理事會」等,心靈環保已是一個全球性的運動,法師 說:「是在推動一個超越宗教、超越民族、超越國界的大運 動,它是屬於全人類的心靈提昇運動,乃至於不論有沒有宗 教信仰的人都可以一同分享。」❹甚至與法師共同擔任「環保 小組」的另一位主席允諾在二〇〇二年於約保舉辦國際「地 球憲章」的會員大會中建議將「心靈環保」列入地球憲章; 從這一個發展的軌跡看來,自然資源與自然生態的環保聚集 更多的力量與解題的可能性;無論如何,我們仍必須強調這 是建立在心靈環保的環境主張所揭示出的可能性,當我們面 對整體、有限的地球生境之事實,同時,這不僅是人對於環 境事實的覺察,也是對人性真理的體悟,建立在如來藏的佛 性思想的具體實踐;看見真理,分享真理的智慧,以及同時 是救度自己、利益眾生,拯救生境的大慈悲。

五、結語

聖嚴法師強調淨化人心,建設人間淨土乃基於心靈環保 為基礎,進而推展到社會與自然環境的淨化,如此才算是具 體落實,能夠普遍與持久;本文透過環境存有論的解釋、與

砂 同註❷, 頁172。

❸ 《聖嚴法師心靈環保》,臺北:法鼓文化,2009年,頁40。

^{毎 同註♠, 頁312。}

⑩ 同註❷, 頁216。

納斯深層生態學自我觀念的對比,以及不丹GNH的潮流趨勢三個主題,直接對應的是:人處身在環境脈絡之下,究竟是什麼以及應該是什麼的問題;心靈環保揭示出一種人與無常、苦、不淨的生活世界共在的存在方式,當面對環境的事實與責任時,提出一套靈活、整體的自我提昇與調整之道;同時能夠覺察自身的事實處境並能夠恰當地表達應然之道,它既是對事實真理的體悟,也是倫理抉擇的表達,這是法師從禪佛教揭示人在自然環境中的事實與價值的表述,讓我們對自然環境有另一層的觀點,我們對環境的覺察不僅僅是事實的知識,同時也可以是一種道德意識的作用,這就是心與境界清淨之境教內容。聖嚴法師認為境教勝於言教與身教,以智慧莊嚴自己的心即是心靈環保,人在那裡,環保就做到那裡,更可以凸顯聖嚴法師心靈環保之環境思想特殊之處。

心靈環保從臺灣法鼓山建立起來,它可以做為當前全球 普世價值的一種典範;特別是從環境幸福思潮看來,建立在 心靈環保的環境思想,不僅主張在內與外的統一和諧,它更 揭示一種融貫的價值邏輯:內外相依共存,心靈淨化、環境 整體淨化才是健康幸福之道。本文透過不丹GNH來表述心 靈環保的普世價值,心靈環保面對全世界GDP的主流思潮, 它從環境哲學思想中回歸佛陀本懷,推動世界淨化,心靈環 保將再次發聲:它既是臺灣精神資產,也是人類普世價值資 產。心靈環保的理論與實踐既有跨文化的普遍性價值,它同 時也是一個全球共通的語言;如果GNH是不丹國家貢獻於國 際計會的一項普世價值,則我們可以說「心靈環保」是由聖 嚴法師創立之法鼓宗,以植根於臺灣進而可以貢獻給全球生活世界的一個核心價值。

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・374・聖嚴研究

Venerable Master Shengyen's Thoughts of Environmental Philosophy

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Abstract

Religious groups have been concerned about environmental issues for a long time. The Venerable Master Shengyen puts forward a new term called "Spiritual Environmentalism," which in turn leads to the movement "Uplift the Character of Humanity and Build a Pure Land on Earth." Since its conception, this movement has become a purifying force that not only enhances human minds but also protects the environment.

This article aims to discuss why Master Shengyen's environmental philosophy can be an environmental ontology. The Venerable Master Shengyen's environmental ontology emphasizes that human nature comprises both wisdom and compassion which requires continual practice on the part of practitioners. Based on this, people are inclined to care for and protect 'the others,' including other humans, nonhuman creatures and our environment. This paper will also compare the concept of 'self' in deep ecology and Master Shengyen's environmental philosophy. Naess chooses the term "Self-realization" to construct "Ecosophy T," whereas Master Shengyen applies Buddha Nature to develop environmental wisdom. Finally, by way of analyzing the case of Bhutan GNH, this paper will demonstrate why Master Shengyen's environmental philosophy is a valuable theory. Indeed, The Venerable Master Shengyen believes that the goal of spiritual environmentalism can

lead to a significant contribution to Taiwan society.

Key words: Venerable Master Shengyen, Spiritual Environmentalism, Environmental Ontology, Deep Ecology, Bhutan GNH

聖嚴法師的華嚴思想

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▮摘要

本文研究聖嚴法師的華嚴思想,對其著作中的相關資料 進行歸類與分析,系統地闡釋其重要觀點及發掘其思想特 色。研究成果歸納如下:

- (一)《華嚴經》義理廣博精深,中國華嚴宗教判將其 歸於最高教義,其萬法相即相入、重重無盡的事事無礙法界 玄妙難解,聖嚴法師以深入淺出的筆法闡釋其中精義,幫助 現代學佛者領解意旨,以指導真理的修學。
- (二)聖嚴法師透過華嚴判教的討論帶出性相融會之旨,強調各類法義之間的平行融通。表面看似別異的各類教說都自法界流出並返歸法界,與華嚴至理具內在相通性,若打開各類教義的封限,即可融通無礙。這個論點有其積極意義,各類法義的修持都能導向華嚴真理的開顯。
- (三)聖嚴法師詮釋《華嚴經》文本的思想,指出此經 揭顯佛陀自證法界,具信、解、行、證的嚴整次第,信心成 滿而發菩提心,歷經十住、十行、十迴向、十地的階位而成 佛。強調信心的重要地位,華嚴義海甚深,要依信心始得趣 入。他運用簡易表達論說重重無盡的華嚴真理世界,通過如 來法身遍在遍攝以解明時空中萬法的無盡交融。再者,解明

三界唯心的法界緣起思想,三界生死與成等正覺都是唯心緣 起,若能止滅妄心,令真心現前,即與諸佛清淨法界相應。

(四)聖嚴法師《華嚴心詮》註解宗密《原人論》,是 一部植基於《起信論》如來藏思想的判教撰述。聖嚴法師此 書的思想特色是將華嚴事事無礙法界與如來藏理事無礙法界 進行貫攝,使《原人論》擁有代表華嚴教學的合法地位。如 來藏與法界觀的巧妙結合,使華嚴法界至理較易理解,並可 依憑空性與真心的觀照而得到開顯。

關鍵詞:聖嚴法師、華嚴思想、事事無礙法界、如來藏、性 相融會

一、引言

聖嚴法師博涌佛教經論,曾負笈東瀛獲得佛學博士殊 榮,一生孜孜不息傳揚教法與指導禪修,實為難可值遇之解 行兼備的一代高僧。法師著述弘富,觸及各佛教領域,用筆 深入淺出,集結成卷帙龐博的《法鼓全集》,為後代學人研 習佛教智慧的絕佳依憑。法師晚年積極倡導漢傳佛教,在繁 忙之餘拖著病體,為精選的古代祖師著作撰寫當代註釋,以 助現今和當來的佛子領略中國佛教各宗的思想要義。關於聖 嚴法師的佛學研究範圍與廣度,他本人在第二屆「聖嚴思想 國際學術研討會」的開幕演講中說:「除了戒律學和明末佛 教外,中觀、唯識、天台和華嚴,我都曾經講過,也出版了 相關著作:在天台方面,我寫了一本《天台心鑰——教觀綱 宗貫註》,內容是研究蕅益智旭撰述的《教觀綱宗》,從中 可以看出我的天台思想;此外,在華嚴方面,則出版了一本 《華嚴心詮——原人論考釋》,研究的是圭峰宗密的《原人 論》,從這裡也可看出我的華嚴思想。」❶此處值得注意的是 法師挑選《教觀綱宗》與《原人論》做為介紹天台與華嚴這 兩大宗派學術的代表,除了篇幅較小的考量之外,有何內容 上的特殊之處?

聖嚴法師書寫《天台心鑰》的因緣與隨後的研讀推廣努

[●] 聖嚴法師〈以研究「聖嚴」來推動淨化世界〉,《我願無窮——美好的 晚年開示集》,臺北:法鼓文化,2011年,頁67-76。

力,筆者已發表過專文討論,②在這篇論文中將聚焦於《華嚴心詮》❸的探討。以宗密《原人論》為依據來導讀華嚴思想,可能存在某種問題,華嚴宗判教學說的極點「圓教」,是本於《華嚴經》由佛陀自覺之「海印三昧」所流出的「事事無礙法界」,而《原人論》義理關懷已有所轉向,其最高教義是本於《大乘起信論》的如來藏說,屬「理事無礙法界」,在華嚴判教中僅位列「終教」層次。④以聖嚴法師佛教學識之博深,不可能不知這種的思想轉折,所以如此選擇的背後或許存在著法師想要傳達的特殊意趣,由此而演示別具意義的當代華嚴義理思維。

本文擬分四節:首先,「引言」,如本節所述。其次、「由華嚴判教所示的真理趣入之道」,探討他藉由華嚴判教說的討論所帶出的性相融通見解,而指導華嚴真理的進趣之道。(三)「華嚴圓融無盡真理的詮釋」,討論法師如何以深入淺出的方式詮釋華嚴事事無礙法界的義理內涵。(四)「《華嚴心詮》的思想特色」,論說法師詮解《原人論》所提出的如來藏真心說與華嚴法界觀的融通思想,彰顯其華嚴

思想特色。最後,於「結論」總結整體的研究成果。

二、由華嚴判教所示的真理趣入之道

印度佛教源自釋迦牟尼的覺悟與說法,佛教教義在各個時期與不同地域,以釋尊的原始教法為基礎,適應各種宗教心靈需求,融合多元宗教文化要素,及佛教行者的實踐體驗,開展出許多流派的佛法體系,有學者甚至提出「佛教」應做複數的表達。每印度不同時空環境所形成的眾多佛教經論,在魏晉南北朝時期經由翻譯而大量湧入中國,面對內容和風格如此多樣的佛典與佛說,甚至彼此在教義學說之間存在重大的理論分歧,漢地佛教學者於是進行「判教」(教相判釋)的工作,對這些經論教義加以分類、疏理與會通,統合成淺深次序儼然的教法體系,藉以消解顯在的學說歧異,還蘊有為自家所宗經論爭取最高地位的意義。三論、天台、法相、華嚴等義學發達的宗派,無不提出其精深的判教架構與論述。每

中國華嚴學統的判教理論,主要由法藏這個流脈所傳下。相傳初祖法順(杜順)撰作《五教止觀》,提出法有我無門、生即無生門、事理圓融門、語觀雙絕門與華嚴三昧門的五教組織,可對應於後來法藏所建立的五教架構。然而,學者的考證指出這部著作摻雜唐代玄奘唯識學譯語,當非法

[●] 參見〈聖嚴法師在臺灣法鼓教團推動天台教觀的努力──以《天台心鑰》 一書為中心〉,發表於「第三屆聖嚴思想國際學術研討會」,2010年5月 於臺北臺灣大學。修訂稿收入《聖嚴研究第三輯》,臺北:法鼓文化, 2012年,頁349-386。

❸ 聖嚴法師《華嚴心詮──原人論考釋》,臺北:法鼓文化,2006年。

[◆] 參見P. N. Gregory, Inquiry into the Origin of Humanity: An Annotated Translation of Tsung-mi's Yüan jen lun with a Modern Commentary. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press, 1995, 31-33; 另參見董群《融合的佛教──圭峰宗密的佛學思想研究》,北京:宗教文化出版社,2000年,頁98-100。

[●] 參見D. Keown, *Buddhism: A Very Short Introduction*. Oxford:Oxford University Press, 1996, 2.

[●]關於判教的意義及諸家的判教學說,可參閱廖明活《中國佛教思想述要》,臺北:臺灣商務,2006年,第五章到第九章的相關章節。

順之作。另一部歸屬法順的著作是《法界觀門》,對真諦和 達摩笈多的判教論有所承襲,以直空觀、理事無礙觀、周遍 含容觀三重觀門為骨幹。其中周遍含容觀展開為十門,主要 彰明萬法遍容互攝、無盡無礙的華嚴真理世界。◢二祖智儼的 判教理論尚未統一,其一在《搜玄記》見到承自慧光的漸、 頓、圓三教判、《華嚴經》被置於頓、圓二教。其二是依於 真諦的小乘、三乘、一乘三教判,《華嚴經》屬一乘教,意 謂究極絕對的真理;若將三乘教又二分為大乘始教與大乘終 教,則成四教判。其三是《孔目章》中所見小乘、初教、終 教(熟教)、頓教、圓教(一乘)五教,其後被法藏確立 為華嚴宗的教判。第四種是立基於華嚴一乘立場的同、別 或共、不共的分判,賦與《華嚴經》究極和獨特的位置。 3 法藏為華嚴判教思想的集大成者,他承接本宗前輩論述,完 成與統一了華嚴判教體系的建構。法藏判教學說以「五教 十宗」為基本間架,五教判承自華嚴前輩,又在唯識學派窺 基八宗判教的基礎上建立十宗判。五教判將教義淺深層次定 為:(一)小乘教,小乘諸宗的教義,如四《阿含經》與 《毘曇》、《成實》等論。(二)大乘始教,說一切法皆悉 真空,如《般若經》與《中論》、《百論》等。(三)終 教,空有雙陳,說一切法唯是真如,如來藏含具真實功德,

如《勝鬘》、《密嚴》、《涅槃》等經,《起信》等論。 (四)頓教,不透過語言文字而直顯離言絕慮的真理,如 《楞伽》、《維摩》、《思益》等經所明。(五)圓教,如 《華嚴經》別教一乘,顯示諸法主伴具足,無盡自在。⑨大 乘始教在「空始教」之下,還包含「相始教」的唯識教義。 另外,一乘教除「別教一乘」,尚有以《法華經》為代表的 「同教一乘」。十宗判教是以義理宗旨為標準的判攝,前六 宗屬小乘部派宗旨(我法俱有宗、法有我無宗、法無去來 宗、現通假實宗、俗妄真實宗、諸法但名宗);大乘中則開 出一切皆空、真德不空、相想俱絕與圓明具德四宗,⑩分別 對應於空始教、終教、頓教和圓教。法藏以此判教理論凸顯 《華嚴經》的優位性,尤其《法華經》與《華嚴經》雖同屬 「一乘」,但「別教」特顯《華嚴經》不與他經相雜的純粹 圓滿意義。

在聖嚴法師所譯由日本學者合撰之《中國佛教史概說》的第九章第三節論「華嚴之判教」,列示華嚴五教判為小乘教、大乘始教、大乘終教、頓教與圓教,其中「大乘終教」項下言:「是指說明萬法皆有本來不變的真如,但依外緣而現有染淨之相的《起信論》等。」而於「圓教」項下說:「是指但說一乘的完全之教,即是《華嚴經》與《法華經》等,但此又分同教一乘與別教一乘。超越諸教而說無盡佛法

[◆] 參見高峰了州著,釋慧嶽譯《華嚴思想史》,臺北:彌勒出版社,1983
年,頁107-112。

❸ 參見木村清孝著,李惠英譯《中國華嚴思想史》,臺北:東大圖書公司,1996年,頁78-84。

[●] 參見《華嚴一乘教義分齊章》卷1,《大正藏》冊45,頁481下~482上;及《華嚴遊心法界記》,《大正藏》冊45,頁642下。

[●] 參見《華嚴一乘教義分齊章》卷1,《大正藏》冊45,頁481下~482上。

的《華嚴經》,便是獨一無二的別教一乘之圓教。」❶明白將《華嚴經》與《起信論》的義理層級予以區隔,華嚴重重無盡的圓融無礙之理,盡攝事、理、理事無礙、事事無礙四個法界,而《起信論》的高度僅及於理事無礙法界。聖嚴法師熟悉華嚴宗的判教學說,在《華嚴心詮》中可見到相應的解說,❶但因深入研究中國佛學與明末佛教思想的機緣,也表達了較具融通的傾向,他在《明末佛教研究》第三章第四節「明末的唯識思想」,提出欲了解明末唯識思想的淵源,應先了解《華嚴經疏鈔》與《宗鏡錄》兩書的中心思想,依所引澄觀《華嚴經疏鈔玄談》的兩段文句而後論述說:

雖然明知唯識學中,以八識為生滅及涅槃之因,法爾種子,有無不同,故說五性差別,既立識唯惑所生,故立真如常恆不變,不許隨緣。也知《楞伽經》及《大乘起信論》等的主張,與唯識家不同,以為八識通於如來藏,隨緣成立,生滅與不生滅,和合而成,非一非異,一切眾生,平等一性,所以真如隨緣。這是性相二宗的矛盾處,可是依照華嚴宗教判立場,建立五教差別,唯識是僅高於小乘,而稱為大乘始教,性宗是第三,稱為大乘終教,到了第四,大乘頓教如《維摩經》等經,即已不說法相,唯辨真性,訶教勸離,毀相泯心。而此四教,均非究竟,到

了第五大乘圓教,即是華嚴宗的立場,則唯是無盡法界,性海圓融,緣起無礙。故說法相法性,無不從此法界流,無不還歸此法界。真心與妄心,八識與真如,隨緣不隨緣,根本原是同一法界體性,合則互成,分則雙乖。®

華嚴圓教的主旨是「無盡法界,性海圓融,緣起無礙」,這是《華嚴經》之所以超勝於他經的獨特義理。然而,聖嚴法師引述華嚴五教判,其論說並不停留於此種義理偏圓高下的判分,轉而強調法相(唯識學)與法性(如來藏說)兩宗的融通無礙,❹說明二者雖義理看似殊別,但根源於同一的法界體性,皆自真實圓滿法界所流出,亦皆能復歸真實圓滿法界,若是將兩者相合則可收到義理相輔相成的綜效。筆者根據聖嚴法師在這段文句中所標附註的指示,回到《華嚴經疏鈔玄談》卷五的原文,發現澄觀所強調者其實是法相會歸法性這個方向,法相攝入法性:

三、終教中少說法相,多說法性,所說法相亦會歸性。 ……言「所說法相亦會歸性」者,如說五蘊,五蘊即空,空即法性。下文云:「三世五蘊法,說名為世間,彼

[●] 野上俊靜等著,釋聖嚴譯《中國佛教史概說》,臺北:臺灣商務,1972年,頁96-97。

❷ 例如,《華嚴心詮》之頁44-45、83、126-129。

❸ 聖嚴法師《明末佛教研究》,《法鼓全集》第一輯第一冊,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁243-244。

[●] 參照《華嚴經疏鈔玄談》卷5原文,「法相」指以戒賢為代表的唯識學說;「法性」或指以智光為代表的中觀學說,或指終教的佛性如來藏所欲呈顯之真性。參見《新纂卍續藏》冊5,頁752中、768上~中。聖嚴法師此處使用「法性」的後一義。

滅非世間,如是但假名。」又云「有諍說生死,無諍說 涅槃,生死及涅槃,二俱不可得」等。又如說心:「心即 離念,法界一相,華藏世界海,法界無差別」等。其文非 一。故此宗中,非不有相宗意,顯性以為玄妙,令物達 此,速證菩提故。**⑤**

終教的法性教義依據《起信論》含有阿賴耶識的生滅與不生滅二義,可涵蓋相宗的藏識生滅之說,其論說較相宗更為完整通透。 16相宗之說屬於大乘始教,其功用在幫助智慧潛能尚不足以理解法性真心的修學者提昇到終教層次。終教顯示真實心性,與華嚴法界義容易銜接,有助於修學者快速獲致菩提覺證。聖嚴法師閱讀澄觀的教義判攝而標舉性相二宗的平行融會,有別於原始文脈的會法相歸法性的縱向含攝,其中蘊涵著他個人的重要義理關懷。

《明末佛教研究》第三章第五節「性相融會的佛教思潮」,反映出聖嚴法師對性相融會的具體見解,以及性相二宗與華嚴圓教的融攝關係。佛陀的一切教法都是出於化度有情的方便,應病與藥,靈活運用,不應執著死方,強行割

裂。聖嚴法師認為出於佛教學人的根性好樂不同,產生法性 與法相的義理領會與諍競,從而又有人提倡融會之說:

唯識唯性,雖有染淨之諍論,沒有內外之差別。一類 人的根性好思辨樂分析,故用唯心識觀,逐層剝落,轉識 成智。又一類人的根性好簡潔善直入,故用真如實觀,不 用攀緣,直指心源,明心見性。所以唯識偏於相,唯心偏 於性,是一體兩面,不是背道而馳。這是性相融會論者的 看法,當然不能算不對,釋迦世尊根本未曾分別性相的不 同。性相的分流,是由於後來的祖師們,從對佛法的修證 經驗,以及對經教的認識而做的說明,佛說法門無量,門 門皆通涅槃,法法皆是正法,金棒切成數段,段段皆是真 金,佛法宜從基礎扎根,再向縱與橫的全面發展,如果強 調發展某一種特定的法門,這是宗師的責任,如果能夠顧 及全面佛法的普遍發展,那才是大師的胸襟。●

佛陀的覺證境界本無性相的區分,說性說相不過是出於 教化的方便,性相二義全與最高真理相即,都是通向圓滿 覺證的真正法門。爭論法性與法相的孰是孰非,只落於片面 的理解,無由了知如來智慧的整全境界。雖然在佛法修習上 可能暫時要求一門深入,但打開法性與法相教說的封限,將 可發現法性與法相的相互融通,兩者本為一致。再進一步探

❸ 《新纂卍續藏》冊5,頁768上~中。

^{●《}華嚴經疏鈔玄談》卷5言:「既言體即常住,明非唯生滅,常住即如來藏。言『生滅與不生滅和合』者,即《起信論》文,彼論具云:不生不滅與生滅和合,非一非異,名阿黎耶識。既二和合名阿黎耶,則知黎耶非獨生滅,謂唯真不生,純妄不成,真妄和合,方成藏識。」(《新纂卍續藏》冊5,頁768中。)換言之,法相宗所說的阿賴耶僅具生滅一義,法性宗所言生滅與不生滅和合的阿賴耶是更真實的意義。

¹ 同註**1** ,頁256。

索,兩者皆為圓教所融攝:

性相二字,本無定界,以此二字,可表同一意義, ……所以性相不妨互用。……性宗的真空是在肯定妙有, 護法系的唯識宗,親證法性無所得時,是無疏所緣緣的影 像相,仍有親所緣緣的真如體相。結果,不論說性說相, 最後還不是沒有。所以性相二系有其共通之點,融會之說 當然可以成立。雖然性相融會論的著眼點,不在於此,而 在先把性相當作一內一外、一真一妄、一實一虛地對立起 來,然後泯相歸性,導相入性。視相為事而視性為理,在 圓教的立場,事理圓融,乃至事事無礙,所以性相融會。

一般的性相融會論是先將法性與法相區別對立起來,然後再思考兩者之間的可融通關係。非常有趣的,引文中所言「先把性相……對立起來,然後泯相歸性,導相入性」,正與前一段中所述澄觀的原本觀點合符,襯托出聖嚴法師之性相融會思想的平等特色。正確了解法性和法相可相互融會的深層意涵,須知本無性相的分別,由法相能趣入法性,自法性可通達法相,法性與法相在表面上有偏於事或偏於理的闡釋面向,但自華嚴圓教的理事無礙與事事無礙的觀照立場,兩者的界限泯絕無蹤。

聖嚴法師這種性相融會論的更進層意義,是法性與法相

諸種教說均是進趣華嚴真理世界的資源。畢竟詮說佛陀自 覺聖境的華嚴妙理過於玄奧,難以把捉,卻又是朝向佛陀悟 境之佛教行者無可迴避的觀行挑戰。再者,修學各種佛教教 義和法門而不明華嚴奧義,最終將無法突破修證的瓶頸。因 此,華嚴至理與諸教法義的融攝與相成關係,有予以貫串和 詮解的必要,以架構起諸教與華嚴之間的修學和悟理橋梁。 在《華嚴心詮》第五章「會通本末」,聖嚴法師於「考釋條 目」的第一條「本末會通」,以華嚴的性起思想(法界緣起 觀)詮說《原人論》會通諸教的根據:

會通本末,先由本會末,再以末通本。此亦即是華嚴的性起思想,又名為法界緣起觀,性起是由真常的本具佛性,開展出凡聖十界眾生,以及眾生所居的世界環境,然後由於聞法修行的因緣,實證一直法界的真如。◎

關於聖嚴法師如何融通華嚴的法界圓融思想與《原人 論》的如來藏思想這個問題,留待下文專門討論,此處引出 這段話語意在顯示聖嚴法師的思想特色之一是嘗試消解華嚴

[●] 聖嚴法師在《比較宗教學》論及諸教無差別的意義:「賢首以圓教攝盡大小乘一切法,因為差別的諸法,不離一心的實相,所以在現象有差別,於本體則統一。若以圓教的立場看,一切差別並不存在,故說事無礙、理無礙,理事無礙、事事無礙。既云事事無礙,故在華嚴法界(宇宙)觀中,乃是重重無盡(無始無終、無邊無涯)的境界。」(《法鼓全集》第一輯第四冊,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁414。)

²⁰ 同註3 , 頁287。

法界觀與如來藏真心說之間的義理間距,而言種種聞法修行的因緣,皆為實證一真法界真如的憑藉。在《華嚴心詮》的最後一段,聖嚴法師論說《原人論》引用《起信論》會通諸教的目的有二,其一是說明諸教皆通向「真一之靈心」的佛性如來藏心;其二是通過一真靈性的領會,運用種種道品的修行以返歸真性:

旨在期勉一切修學佛道之人,都能夠洞明妄心之麁細, 同時修行道品,而反還真心,得見真性。**②**

如果說宗密的靈性真心思想類通於華嚴法界思想,那麼,聖嚴法師以上兩段話的重要意義,在於提醒現代學佛者修行須先明瞭最高真理的內涵,始能會通各種佛教學說,然後修學種種道品均導歸真性的覺證。經過聖嚴法師詮解的華嚴判教說,焦點已非置放於各種教義宗旨的淺深區辨,而重在闡釋各階教法與華嚴至理的內在相通,從而確立一切法門導歸華嚴真理的修學價值。此外,證成華嚴圓教義理在佛法修證上的重要位置,了解華嚴深妙觀門的意義不代表必須立即依此義理內涵以進行觀修,而是做為各種修學法門的目標指向,打開各階教法的無形封限,開顯真實圓滿的佛陀悟境。

② 同註**③**, 頁304-305。

三、華嚴圓融無盡真理的詮釋

華嚴學可包含兩部分,「《華嚴經》思想」是以《華嚴 經》本身文義為根據所進行的思想詮釋;而「華嚴宗思想」 是對華嚴宗學者以《華嚴經》為主要文本而建構的體系教學 所進行的義理闡釋,在學術研究上兩者本應有所區隔。儘管 如此,由於法藏一系華嚴教學的巨大影響,《華嚴經》與華 嚴宗的思想在古代乃至今日一些佛教學人眼中是允許合一論 說的。聖嚴法師受過當代佛教學術訓練,清楚知悉兩者之間 的關聯與同異,注意到兩類思想的分別;然而,基於《華嚴 經》思想與華嚴宗義理的密切關係,時而將兩者合在一起論 說,使經義與宗義互相發明。檢閱聖嚴法師著作中對《華嚴 經》文句的詮釋,已自然帶入華嚴宗的相應思想,但這是經 過他的消化融通後所做的有機結合,非意在藉宗義解經義, 而在講述他個人所領略的華嚴思想。又如他詮解華嚴五祖 宗密所撰《原人論》的專著《華嚴心詮》,前篇「緒論」 第一章標題是「華嚴學」,各節依次說明「《華嚴經》的 傳譯」、「《華嚴經》的內容」、「《十地經》與《十地 論》」、「華嚴宗的先驅」。其中,說明《十地經》相當於 《華嚴經·十地品》的單獨流涌本,《十地論》是其註釋 書。「華嚴宗的先驅」一節概述華嚴宗之前中國祖師研究 《華嚴經》與《十地論》的情形。「緒論」第二章題為「華 嚴宗」,開始介紹華嚴宗初祖到五祖的生平、著作,而涉及 義理之點, 主要是判教學說的概述。在這樣的論述架構下, 《華嚴經》與華嚴宗的關係可說分中有合,合中有分。如果

我們依照現行學術操作欲強行區別聖嚴法師著作中所涉及的 華嚴經義與宗義,反而難以呈現他的融通觀點。本文在討論 進路上因此將不分割經義與宗義,而是重在彰顯聖嚴法師所 表述的華嚴思想要義。
②

《華嚴心詮》「緒論」言及《華嚴經》的內容要點,首先,說明此經結構的次第性,這部篇幅龐大的經典雖由原先各部單行經典編輯而成,卻「非常謹嚴,其組織架構、先後次第,並不重疊雜亂。……全經共有四大項目,便是信、解、行、證。寂滅道場的兩品是起『信』;普光法堂的六品、忉利天宮的六品、夜摩天宮品的四品、兜率天宮品的三品、他化天宮品的十一品,都是生『解』;普光法堂重會的〈離世間品〉,是實『行』;最後重閣講堂的〈入法界品〉,是實『證』。」 愛至於全經內容梗概如下:

整部的內容,是說佛自證的法界,說初發心之菩薩,開示菩薩道之出發點,說安住於菩薩心,說菩薩之利他行, 說以自己之功德迴向眾生,說住持佛智、負荷眾生,說如 大地之樹木以開示菩薩道,說菩薩之究竟即是佛地。20

此經目的在揭露佛陀的自證法界,彰示菩薩行從最初發 菩提心,經歷十住、十行、十迴向、十地而趣入佛地果證 的實踐過程。最初發菩提的位置相當於傳統五十二階位說的 「十信」位,這個階段極為關鍵,因如來自證的法界甚深微 妙,《華嚴經》的世界觀是無量無盡不可思議,非淺智者所 能理解,「信」成為入門的關鑰。聖嚴法師說:「淨信成 就,即有廣大無邊之功德,即能該攝住、行、向、地四十位 功德,所以主張『信滿成佛』。」❸自初期佛教伊始,即對 佛教行者有「隨信行」與「隨法行」的類型區分,後者是見 道的利根者,能依憑已身慧根領悟甚深法義;前者為鈍根, 雖自身智慧潛能猶尚不足,卻因相信佛陀而能全心相信佛陀 的教說,由淨信而起思惟、修行,最終亦得證入終極真理。 「信」的作用是在行者與甚深法義之間填補斷裂點,由這樣 的連結發起實踐的動能與學證的機緣。華嚴的圓融無礙義 理,一即一切,一切即一,一位即一切位,通過「信」而與 最高真理重新接續,即與一切菩薩修行位次產生連結,朝向 佛果聖境的豁顯。聖嚴法師對《華嚴經》的修行次第指引給 與極高肯定,引用經中兩處講述「信滿成佛」的文句而說: 「這是因該果海的一個例子,比《大般涅槃經》的眾生皆有 佛性,更為積極,信心具足即成佛,是多麼可喜!」◎《華嚴 經》不僅說理精深,也為研經者提供趣入的道路與證理的希 望。「信滿成佛」非指「立即」成佛,而是達於信心成滿即

[●] 筆者感謝審查者所提供的意見,期許在論文中能對華嚴宗幾位祖師的重要思想概念與判教觀點有所介紹,以便幫助讀者更進層地了解聖嚴法師的華嚴論述。華嚴宗前三祖的判教觀已略敘於前,但在思想概念的層面,即使是「略示」,也是項大工程,不易分辨清楚。由於本篇論文篇幅所限,將此工作留待後續更精細的研究。

② 同註③,頁24-25。

❷ 同註❸, 頁24。

[ூ] 同註❸, 頁24-25。

² 同註3, 頁25。

步入見道位,智慧雖未圓滿而與如來同知同見,尚處菩薩因 位但未來「必然」成就佛果,所以說「因該果海」。

所信、所解、所行、所證的華嚴圓融無礙真理,古來便 以難知難解著稱,華嚴祖師法藏用金獅子為譬喻來幫助則 天武后了解經中「天帝網義、十重玄門、海印三昧門、六相 和合義門、普眼境界門」的深妙意趣,又於八方上下各設鏡 子,燃燈其中照亮佛像,讓鏡像互相反射,以比況重重無盡 之理,傳為佳話。②譬喻只在輔助法義的理解,最後還是得通 過直接說理的法說文字深入離言理境的領解。②聖嚴法師為了 幫助現代讀者了解精深的佛教法義,常能做非常深入淺出的 表達。對於《華嚴經》圓融無礙的至高真理,他用一段話來 概括其要義:

《華嚴經》的根本思想之所在,縱橫於三世十方的一切時空,都是事事無礙、相即相入、一即一切、一切即一的,因中即已有果,果上亦不離因的。②

這段話告訴讀者華嚴的真理世界在時間和空間上都是一即一切,一切即一,相即相入,重重無盡;成佛的因果也是

相即不離的。在《普賢菩薩行願讚》**②**講記這本小書中,聖嚴 法師將其中八個偈頌歸為「重重無盡讚」,以非常淺顯的方 式闡述重重無盡的華嚴圓融無礙法界。關於空間上的重重無 盡,重點在佛身與世界的小大相互含容:

在一粒微塵的任何一個突出點上,都有如微塵數量的 諸佛,諸佛及佛的弟子們都坐在其中,說法聞法;像這樣 的十方世界,每一個世界的每一個微塵的任何一個突出點 上,我相信都充滿了無量無數的微塵諸佛。**①**

華嚴境界的以小納大,在一粒微塵的尖端上,含有微塵數量的世界,每一個世界中又含有不可思議數量的佛國淨土,每一佛國淨土中,均有佛及無數菩薩弟子們坐著說法聞法,他們經常都在修著菩提大道的勝妙行處。❷

這是一個由深信而後進行觀想的不可思議境界,大能含小較易理解,小能容大就不符於人類的現實經驗,華嚴的真理世界觀因此令人難以接受,更何況得以領略其間奧妙。聖嚴法師由自身對華嚴真理的淨信而進入其中,他的追隨者也出於對法師的信任,而能憑藉他的淺易文字表述來想像芥子納須彌的奇妙景像。這種空間上的相即相入,聖嚴法師嘗試

❷ 參見《宋高僧傳》之〈法藏傳〉,《大正藏》冊50,頁732上~中。

❸ 中國古代祖師詮釋《法華經》「會三乘歸一乘」的部分,就以法說、譬說、因緣說對應於上中下三種根機,足見直接說理的法說才是最根本的憑藉。「三周說法」的意義可參見聖嚴法師《絕妙說法──法華經講要》,臺北:法鼓文化,2002年,頁73-74。

❷ 同註❸, 頁25。

^{● 《}普賢菩薩行願讚》為唐·不空所譯,收於《大正藏》冊10,頁880上~ 881下。

^{動 聖嚴法師《普賢菩薩行願讚》,臺北:法鼓文化,1999年,頁31-32。}

³ 同註**3** , 頁91。

說明其原理:

其實三世諸佛的法身,不占時空、遍及時空又超越時空;既非形而上,也非形而下;不即亦不離,亦不落中間。所以小處不離大處,小處不僅通於大處,根本就同於大處,也不受大小所限。這就是四種無礙法界(事、理、理事、事事)的最高層次「事事無礙法界」。❸

不論大小的空間都相即於佛的法身,法身無邊無際,無 所障礙,不為時空所限又遍在於時空中的每一點,因此每個 處所也都不受大小所限,既容受一切處所,也為一切處所容 受。空間上是如此,各個事物、各個時間段落也都是如此, 映現出一個萬法無盡交融的世界。

空間上的重重無盡已如上述,也同時帶出時空中萬法交 融無礙的理論思考,聖嚴法師對時間上的長短互攝更有精彩 的詮說,打破世人執取三世分別的慣習思考模式:

在極短的現前一剎那中,含有永遠的未來時間,所以活於現在的我,已進入了未來的諸劫之中;其實,過去、現在、未來,均有無量劫,而此無量劫,既在短如一剎那間,也在長如俱脈劫中。因此,就在任何一個一剎那間,我都可同時見到三世一切如來,我也經常進住於三世一切

諸佛的境界之中,這種境界雖然是如幻自在解脫,卻又能 產生重重無盡的大威德力。❸

常人為逝去的時日而生感慨,憧憬未至的光陰或時而害怕面對,又想抓住現在的時間點,在看似遷變不息的時間流動中失落了心靈的自在解脫。在華嚴的真理世界裡,過去來今的每個時間剎那都含攝一切時間,時間的遷流只是一種表層假象。吾人可通過華嚴無盡圓融真理的觀照,嘗試去經驗在任何一個時間點都與三世諸佛同在,進入三世諸佛的無礙無盡的智慧覺照境界之中。這種真理悟境好像離我們非常遙遠,但基於深切信解而進行觀照,方法運用得力之時,可能發現真理與我們如此切近而不自覺知,聖嚴法師說:

這不是出於推理的想像,而是自內實際的證量體驗,因為當你的妄念不生又不滅時,現前的一念,便與無盡的三世時間不一不二。每

他的詮釋常為讀者帶來莫大的信心與鼓舞,當覺得華嚴 真理世界太過深奧難解,想要放棄觀修的努力之時,聖嚴 法師教導行者放下思慮分別,不做功用,聽從內在真理的聲 音,通過觀照心性的不生不滅,讓事事無礙的無盡交融境界 自然顯現。

❸ 同註❸, 頁97-98。

⁶ 同註**6** ,頁98。

聖嚴法師在《華嚴心詮》所揭示《華嚴經》的另一個思想重點是「唯心緣起」,引用的幾處經文包括〈十地品〉第六現前地項下的「三界虛妄,但是心作。」❸又引此地重頌說:「了達於三界,但從貪心有,知十二因緣,在於一心中,如是則生死,但從心而起,心若得滅者,生死則亦盡。」❸另外,徵引〈夜摩天宮品〉經文說:「若人欲求知,三世一切佛,應當如是觀,心造諸如來。」❸依這種生死起盡根源於心,如來由心所造的唯心緣起義理,聖嚴法師提出如此的修行指導:

若能知道十二因緣構成的生死流轉是從妄心而生起的話,便當滅此妄心,妄心若滅,生死亦盡。三界生死既是唯心緣起,出離三界而成就佛果,亦是依此妄心處著力,妄心滅盡時,清淨真心現前,……可見,三界生死,是唯心緣起,成等正覺,亦是唯心緣起。

②

如來清淨法界不離眾生的心靈,晉譯《華嚴經·夜摩天 宮菩薩說偈品》說:「如心佛亦爾,如佛眾生然,心佛及眾 生,是三無差別。」如不必在心外求佛,能就妄心起正確觀 照,與實相真理相應,妄心滅卻,真心現起,即照見諸佛的 廣闊無盡的智慧境界。此義頗有將華嚴法界觀與禪宗修持融 通的意味。在《禪與悟》一書中,解說得稍為明晰:

淨心緣起又叫法界緣起。佛心是清淨的,因為無所執著;既無執著,就是無自無他。在時間上能與三世諸佛同一個心,在空間上則與法界一切眾生同一個體。他們不以為自己是佛,也不以為有眾生可度——因為已經沒有自我,所以也沒有對象;但只要任何一個眾生發起善意,與佛有緣,佛就跟他相應,在他面前出現。◆

聖嚴法師所教導的華嚴法界觀法,並非直接去觀想萬事萬物無盡交融的奧妙理境,那可說是在當前世上所有佛教行者的智慧能力之外,可行的修學方法是在信解事事無礙與唯心緣起的華嚴精妙理趣之後,深切憶念心中的佛陀,藉由無執空性和清淨真心的觀照息止妄念,在佛力加持之下而與諸佛的法身相應,由此進入無盡無礙的清淨法界。

聖嚴法師詮釋華嚴圓融無盡法界真理的特色,在於以深 入淺出的表達來幫助現代讀者了解其義。儘管如此,這種萬 法在時空上相即相入、重重無盡的真理世界,遠遠超出人類 的現實經驗,聖嚴法師也提供了可行的修學方法。首先,以 「信」做為趣入之鑰,讓行者與最高真理產生連結與獲得佛

⁵ 《大正藏》冊9,頁558下。

³ 《大正藏》冊9,頁560上。

❸ 《大正藏》冊9,頁466上。

[ூ] 同註❸, 頁28。

^{●《}大正藏》冊9,頁465下。八十卷《華嚴經》的對應頌文為:「如心佛亦爾,如佛眾生然,應知佛與心,體性皆無盡。」(《大正藏》冊10,頁102 上。)

[●] 聖嚴法師《禪與悟》,《法鼓全集》第四輯第六冊,臺北:法鼓文化, 1999年,頁255。

力的加持;其次,以空性和真心的觀法為進路來息止妄念, 令清淨真心現前,以助顯華嚴法界真理。在這裡,可窺見融 會華嚴圓融思想與如來藏真心思想的蹤影,此點值得進一步 探討。

四、《華嚴心詮》的思想特色

聖嚴法師註解華嚴宗祖師的著作,不採擇更具代表性的法藏撰述,而取用宗密《原人論》這本看似非正統華嚴宗教學的典籍,有其特別的用心。《原人論》基本上是部判教論述,內容精要,有利當代讀者了解佛教各階教義,甚至也納入中國傳統的儒道二教,對它們既破斥又會歸,進行三教會通的演繹。會再者,聖嚴法師重視佛教各類法義的融通,及義解與觀行的結合,華嚴宗的種種觀門易流於理論面多於實踐面,宗密提倡「禪教一致」說,與他可說在精神上甚為合致。會還有很重要的一點,聖嚴法師對佛性如來藏思想的啟發真理價值及其當代實踐意涵給予極高評價,例如在《自家寶藏——如來藏經語體譯釋》的〈自序〉指出:「因此我敢相

信,適應未來的世界佛教,仍將以如來藏思想為其主軸,因為如來藏思想,既可滿足哲學思辨的要求,也可滿足信仰的要求,可以連接緣起性空的源頭,也可貫通究竟實在的諸法實相。」 ④ 就他的領會,如來藏信仰非如某些學者所言是接引印度神道的方便說,它同時具有空與不空二面,並不違背緣起性空的法義,且與佛教究極真理能夠貫通,適應當代世界佛教的多元需求。聖嚴法師以自身的佛教學養和時代關懷來重新理解與詮釋《原人論》,《華嚴心詮》中可窺見他對華嚴教理的獨到見解,以及他通過這本書的闡釋所欲傳達的融質性佛法智慧。

選擇《原人論》做為介紹華嚴宗教學的代表讀本,如前所述,學者主張此書以《起信論》為本,義理層次應屬理事無礙法界,不及華嚴思想頂點的事事無礙法界,因此,第一個需要處理的課題,是為《原人論》找到代表華嚴宗義的合理基礎。在聖嚴法師的佛學思想中,如來藏學說與華嚴性起思想本來就是互相貫通的,不必強行割裂為兩套佛教義理系統。他在《華嚴心詮》第四章「直顯真源——佛了義實教」說:

如來藏系的思想之所以特別受到漢傳佛教的歡迎,且被普遍而持久不衰的弘傳,是因為《華嚴經》說:「眾生皆具如來智慧」,又說:「初發心時,便成正覺。」以及

[●] 聖嚴法師在《華嚴心詮》說:「宗密的《原人論》則破除儒、道二教的 迷執,目的是為收攬儒、道二教而會歸佛教,……這正是佛教教化世俗 的權巧手法:先使自己同於彼,再轉彼方向於己。」(頁66-67)。

❸ 聖嚴法師在《華嚴心詮》第二章「華嚴宗」裡面提到華嚴宗觀門的修證 難處及其他行門的助成作用:「華嚴宗所設的種種觀門,理論面多於實 踐面,無怪乎華嚴學者若從著手的實踐面而言,多教人以念佛,或與禪 宗合流而成為禪者。其實,華嚴宗諸祖,都與禪悟有關,也都是重於教 理的禪師。及至宗密,便於《禪源諸詮集都序》等著作中,提揚『禪教 一致』說了。」(頁56)。

[●] 聖嚴法師《自家寶藏──如來藏經語體譯釋》,《法鼓全集》第七輯第十冊,臺北:法鼓文化,2001年,頁7。

《涅槃經》說:「一切眾生,悉有佛性。」便使得大家生起了都能有機會頓悟成佛的信心,也顯示了大乘佛教生佛平等的偉大思想。這也正是宗密大師會將如來藏系的大乘佛法,置於五教之中最高層次的原因,於是《原人論》便稱此一層次,為「直顯真源」的「佛了義實教」了。母

在這段引文中,聖嚴法師嘗試說明宗密採取如來藏說為最高教義的原委,著眼點在肯定眾生本具如來智慧的生佛平等理念,這是一切眾生得以成佛的理論依據,在實踐意義上有助於行者確立和鞏固成佛的信心。信心是推進實踐的根本,若無法建立成佛的信心,一切高尚深遠的大乘教理與行法將失落其實修基盤,流於陳義過高的想望境地。聖嚴法師側重如來藏思想,含有對大乘佛法在當代世界得以廣泛落實的深切關懷。此處值得注意的,是用《華嚴經》文句來印證如來藏說,這並非出自巧合而引到適用於如來藏義的兩句經文,聖嚴法師認為宗密通過《原人論》的真心思想融會了華嚴法界說與《起信論》如來藏說:

至於為何稱為「一乘顯性教」?是直顯如來真性,亦 名法性,一切萬法皆是由此如來真性所展現,一切萬法也 皆入於此如來的真性,此一真性亦名一法界性,所以這是 「諸法從此法界流,無不還歸此法界」的一真法界論。由 於這與《起信論》的真如心,性質類同,所以《原人論》 將之同名為真性。由於功能類同,故亦同名為真心。

無論是《起信論》的本覺真心論,還是華嚴的一真法界論,都是在顯明如來的真心(就究極真理的功能而言)與真性(就究極真理的性質而言),兩者之間就不應存在義理的分歧,義理得以融通與互補。《原人論》以《起信論》為本的真心思想因此並未脫離華嚴法界學說,都指向如來的自覺圓滿境界。

其實,上述融會結果是通過聖嚴法師對《起信論》義理 及華嚴法界說所做的重新詮釋而得以連結。《起信論》的 「一心開二門」,意指由本覺的「真心」開演出如來的廣大 性智與眾生的業識心,義理通於《華嚴經》的法界說與唯心 緣起:

(《起信論》)所說❹的真心,都是指的無分別的如來 廣大性智,不同於虚空相,因其體性雖離妄動,亦滅境 界,確實仍有智用的功能,所以諸佛利生的方便心,眾生 微細的業識心,都是由此真心開演出來。這樣的真心,豈

⁶ 同註3, 頁258。

[●]指《起信論》的兩段論文:「若心離於妄動,則一切境界滅,唯一真心,無所不遍。此謂如來廣大性智,究竟之義,非如虚空相故。」 (《大正藏》冊32,頁580上。)及:「有三種心微細之相,云何為三? 一者真心,無分別故;二者方便心,自然遍行利益眾生故;三者業識心,微細起滅故。」(《大正藏》冊32,頁581中。)

不是同於《華嚴經》所說的「法界性」的「性」及「唯 心造」的「心」嗎?豈不就是本覺的異名嗎?因為真心是 「無所不遍」,本覺也是「無所不遍」。◆

《起信論》與《華嚴經》的心性思想,有著類同的結構,同樣由遍在的真心或法界開演出染淨的世界,佛與眾生同一靈知心性,但有覺與不覺的別異,真心的覺悟智用展現為佛陀的利生方便心,真心遭受覆蓋而成為眾生不覺的業識妄心。聖嚴法師明確表示《起信論》本覺真心的不變隨緣、隨緣不變思想,由如來本覺推演出隨染大用,與《華嚴經》的性起思想是相通的。 《儘管如此,我們不可自動推論華嚴真理觀的深妙玄理也可見於《起信論》或《原人論》當中。在這兩部典籍裡面,並未明顯見到事事無礙的華嚴終極理趣的描述。那麼,是否表示聖嚴法師所做會通工作僅限於部分觀點,忽略華嚴法界觀與《起信論》如來藏義在義理層次和內容的巨大差異?聖嚴法師的會通層面事實上伸展到最高理境的思想義涵,《華嚴心詮》可見到緊密連結華嚴事事無礙觀與如來藏理事無礙觀的論述:

由於如來是以法性為身,名為法性身,法性遍一切時 時、遍一切處、遍於十方三世一切法,若有情、若無情, 若凡、若聖,此身即遍十方法界,亦名法界身。是以每 一事法界都不離佛的一真法界,名為理法界,是故一切眾生,都在一佛身中,都於一時發菩提心、修菩薩行、成等正覺、寂滅涅槃;乃至也於如來一念之中,悉成正覺,不論成或未成,都是平等平等。所以如來度盡一切眾生,未見有一眾生可度,因為一切眾生不離如來的一真法界。因此即知,眾生是如來自心中的眾生,諸佛也是眾生自心中的諸佛。這便是因該果海、果徹因源的別教一乘。❸

「別教一乘」是華嚴宗透過教相判釋為華嚴教理所爭取 到的尊榮殊特地位,而以「事事無礙法界」為其四種法界 觀的究極演示,含容事、理、理事無礙三法界而為它們所不 及。在這段引文中,「心佛眾生三無差別」、「因該果海、 果徹因源」、「初發心即成正覺」等內容都屬事事無礙法界 的層次,一切眾生本具如來智慧德行,佛心與眾生心平等交 融;行者信心成滿即得見道,了知一位一切位,一行一切 行,因含於果,果入於因,一切萬法就是這樣相即相入,重 重無盡。事事無礙法界的理境深玄,有待親身體證,難以運 用人類的理性語言做適切圓滿的表達,但可藉較易把握的 「理事無礙觀」做為跳板,而趣近其意義的理解與領悟。任 何事法都本自圓滿遍在,不離佛的一真法界的「理法界」, 此即理與事之間的無礙交融。每一件事法既然通過理法界而 於一切時空圓滿遍在,一法於是含容萬法與遍入諸法,一切 諸法之間的關係展示便成為一即一切、一切即一的無盡相攝

❸ 同註❸, 頁261。

母 同註3, 頁260。

[ூ] 同註❸,頁256。

圖景。理事無礙的進層延展意義就是事事無礙,況且《起信 論》不變隨緣、隨緣不變的真心與萬法關係,就聖嚴法師的 理解,即是華嚴最高真理的一種表達方式。

聖嚴法師肯定如來藏思想的當代實踐指導價值,也承認 華嚴事事無礙觀的了義真理層級,但光是論說華嚴重重無 盡的湛深難解理境,易導致理論面蓋過實踐面,所以他通過 詮解《原人論》所展示的華嚴思想的最大特色,是將《起信論》的如來藏真心思想與華嚴圓融無盡思想互相貫通,同時也將《華嚴經》與華嚴宗的義理密切連結,化繁為簡,構成一套既具理論深度,又能指導實踐的特殊華嚴觀法。通過真心的染淨緣起,統整了《起信論》、《華嚴經》及華嚴宗的心性論與法界觀,如來的法界身(法性身)是理法界,無所不遍,不變隨緣,隨緣不變,開展為心佛眾生的平等融通無礙,及成佛因果的相即互攝,眾生本來具足一切,修行的目標即在豁顯此真理境界。如來藏與法界觀的巧妙結合,通過空不空如來藏的義理及息妄顯真的觀修進路,將華嚴的如來自覺境界貼近人類心靈進行闡述,高妙的真理世界可以運用空觀與真心觀的法門來趨近,讓華嚴最高真理易為現代讀者所接受,也建立起修證信心並掌握實踐之道。

五、結論

本文研究聖嚴法師的華嚴思想,對其著作中的相關資料 進行歸類與分析,系統地闡釋其重要觀點及發掘其思想特 色。研究成果歸納為以下幾點:

(一)《華嚴經》的義理廣博精深,中國華嚴宗的教相 判釋將其歸於最高層教義的「別教一乘」,其一即一切,一 切即一,萬法相即相入,重重無盡的事事無礙法界自古即以 玄妙難解著稱。聖嚴法師能以深入淺出的筆法,化繁為簡, 闡釋其中精義,幫助現代學佛者領解圓融無礙法界觀的意 旨,以指導最高真理的修學。這是聖嚴法師傳揚華嚴思想的 功績之一。

[●] 聖嚴法師《華嚴心詮》,頁257。在《華嚴心詮》中尚有貫通空性、佛性 與法界的更明確語義:「此空性在凡夫的有情眾生,稱為佛性,因為若 能覺悟此諸法自性是空,便稱為見性,所以佛性亦名覺性;成佛以後, 此空性即成為佛的法性身,簡稱法身,亦名法界身。」(頁264)。

^{●《}起信論》言:「若心離於妄動,則一切境界滅,唯一真心無所不遍。 此謂如來廣大智性,究竟之義,非如虛空相故。」(《大正藏》冊32, 百580上。)

- (二)聖嚴法師熟悉華嚴宗的小、始、終、頓、圓五教 判,這種判教觀本意在為《華嚴經》爭取獨特尊榮的地位。 聖嚴法師透過華嚴判教的討論帶出性相融會之旨,強調各 類法義之間的平行融通,這是他深入中國佛學與明末佛學 而得的領悟。從佛陀的自覺圓滿境地來看,並無各階法義的 區分,佛教學者們卻各依片面的理解,生起法性和法相的諍 論。表面看似別異的各種教說都自法界流出並返歸於法界, 與華嚴至理具內在相通性,若打開各類教義的封限,即可融 通無礙。聖嚴法師這種立基於華嚴判教所開展的性相融合論 有其積極意義,各類法義的修持都能導向華嚴真理的開顯。
- (三)聖嚴法師詮釋《華嚴經》文本的思想,首先,指 出此經揭顯佛陀自證法界,具信、解、行、證的嚴整次第, 從信心成就而發起菩提心,歷經十住、十行、十迴向、十地 的階位而成佛。強調信心在本經修學的重要地位,華嚴義海 甚深,要由信心支撐始得趣入;信心成滿即上登見道,親身 領悟廣大無邊的佛智境界。其次,論說重重無盡的華嚴真理 世界,運用簡易的表達,通過如來法身遍在遍攝以解明時空 中萬法的無盡交融。三世諸佛的法身,遍在時空又超越時 空,時空中每一點也因此遍入一切又含容一切,可於一剎那 遍見三世諸佛,吾人也經常入於三世諸佛的境界之中。這是 唯自證的境界,可藉觀照心性的不生不滅而通向領悟。此 外,解明三界唯心的法界緣起思想,三界生死是唯心緣起, 成佛正覺亦是唯心緣起,若能止滅妄心,令真心現前,即與 諸佛清淨法界相應。
 - (四)聖嚴法師詮說華嚴宗思想的專門之作是《華嚴心

證》。此書註解宗密的《原人論》,一部植基於《起信論》如來藏思想的判教撰述。聖嚴法師此書的思想特色是將華嚴事事無礙法界與如來藏理事無礙法界做緊密連結,使《原人論》取得代表華嚴教學的合法地位。《起信論》的本覺真心合於華嚴的一真法界,由真心開展出染淨諸法的原理通於法界唯心緣起的意旨。再者,透過較易理解的理事無礙觀念以彰顯事事無礙法界的深奧理趣,諸佛一真法界的理法界遍在一切與含容一切,與此相即的每件事法也因而含容萬法與遍入諸法,展開為事事相即相入的無盡圖景。如來藏與法界觀的巧妙結合,使華嚴法界至理易為現代讀者所理解,且可憑藉空性與真心的觀照而得獲開顯。無論是在理論面或實踐面,聖嚴法師將華嚴法界思想與空性、如來藏的義理都做了很好的會通。

・410・聖嚴研究

Venerable Shengyen's Thoughts on Hua-yen Buddhism

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Abstract

In this article, we discuss Venerable Shengyen's Hua-yen thoughts, through classifying and analyzing the relative materials found in his works. His main ideas are systematically interpreted and the characteristics of his thought are explored. The conclusions can be draw as followed:

- 1. The thoughts of the *Hua-yen Sūtra* are very rich and profound, and were classified by the Hua-yen School in China as the highest level of Buddhist teachings—one vehicle of distinctive teaching (別教一乘), which is famous by its subtlety and difficulty in understanding. This teaching shows the dharma realm of the non-obstruction between phenomena and phenomena (事事無礙法界) that one is in all and all in one, and everything penetrates into each other. Venerable Shengyen was able to explain Hua-yen's profound theories in plain terms. This would assists modern Buddhist practitioners to understand the meaning of the dharma realm view of harmony and non-obstruction (圓融無礙), and could give them a good instruction on how to approach and realize ultimate truth. His way of interpretation is one of the contributions he has made to the dissemination of Hua-yen teaching in modern world.
- 2. Venerable Shengyen was versed in Hua-yen's doctrine classification of five teachings (hīnayana, beginning, advanced, sudden and perfect teaching). This kind of doctrine classification

aimed originally to establish the Hua-yen Sūtra in the highest and most unique place. Through the discussion of this theory of doctrine classification, however, the Venerable introduced the idea of the harmonization of dharma-essence and dharma-phenomenon (性相融會), for which he was inspired by Chinese Buddhist theories and the Buddhist thoughts in Late Ming China. From the perspective of Buddha's perfect enlightenment, there wouldn't be the division of different teachings, however, the Buddhist scholars saw from one-sided view and raised the arguments regarding dharma-essence and dharma-phenomenon. On a superficial level, there seem be different teachings, in fact they all flow from and return back to the dharma realm, and they all have an intrinsic harmony with the highest truth of Hua-yen Buddhism. As the limitations of various teachings were removed, it can be seen that all teachings are harmonious and non-obstructive. This idea of the harmonization of dharma-essence and dharma-phenomenon based on Hua-yen's theory of doctrine classification is of positive significance, shows that the practices of various teachings all lead to the revelation of Hua-yen's ultimate truth.

3. Regarding the thoughts of the *Hua-yen Sūtra* interpreted by the Venerable, some points deserve notice: first, he pointed out that this sutra reveals the dharma realm realized by the Buddha himself, and is with the orderly steps of raising faith, understading, practicing and realizing. As the faith has been completely raised, the Bodhi mind is developed, and then having passed through the practice stages of ten dwellings, ten practices, ten dedications and ten grounds, the Buddha-hood is obtained. The Venerable emphasized the important position of raising faith in the practice process of this sūtra. Owing to the profundity of Hua-yen theories, the faith is a indispensable support to enter into them. As long as the faith is fully developed, the practitioner can step on the stage of seeing the Bodhi and truly comprehend the broad and infinite realm of Buddha's wisdom. Second, the Venerable explained in plain terms the infinite layers of interpenetration (重重無盡) of the Hua-yen's world of truth. Based on the dharma-body of tathagata

・412・聖嚴研究
聖嚴法師的華嚴思想・413・

which is omni-present and contains all dharmas, the infinite interpenetration of all dharmas in time and space is explained. The dharma-body of the Buddhas of all times is omnipresent in and transcends time and space, therefore, every point in time and space interdependent with it could penetrates into all and contains all. The Buddhas of all times can be seen in a mere ksana, and we can always enter into the realm realized by the Buddhas of all times. This is the spiritual state to be experienced by oneself, and can be realized through seeing the non-arising and non-ceasing nature of mind. Third, the Venerable explained the idea of intercorrelated origination from the dharma realm (法界緣起) which imply that all dharmas in the three realms are originated from the mind (三界唯 心). The birth and death in the three realms is originated from the mind, also is the becoming of the Buddha. If one could ceased the deluded mind, allow the pure mind to manifest, then he would be union with the dharma realm.

4. Venerable Shengyen's work dedicated to the explanation on the thoughts of the Hua-yen School is The Interpretation on the Hua-yen's Core Meaning (華嚴心詮). The book is a commentary on Zongmi's (宗密) Inquiry into the Origin of Humanity (原人論), which is a work on the doctrine classification of teachings based on the tathagata-garbha theory of The Awakening of Faith in the Mahāyāna (大乘起信論). The characteristic thought in the Venerable's book is to integrate the theory of the dharma realm of the non-obstruction between phenomena and phenomena (事事 無礙法界) with that of the dharma realm of the non-obstruction between reality and phenomena (理事無礙法界), and this could legitimize Zongmi's (this) work to be the representative of Huaven's thoughts. The true mind of primal awareness (本覺真心) in The Awakening of Faith is considered to conform to Hua-yen's one true dharma realm (一真法界), and the theory that all the pure and defiled dharmas originated from the true mind is in common with the meaning of mind-only intercorrelated origination from the dharma realm. Moreover, the Venerable expounded the profound implication of the dharma realm of the non-obstruction between

phenomena and phenomena in terms of the principle of the dharma realm of the non-obstruction between reality and phenomena to show that the realm of reality (理法界), as the one true dharma realm of all Buddhas, is omni-present and included in all, so each dharma corresponded with the realm of reality also embraces all dharms and is embodied in them. This depicts a picture of the intercorrelation and interpenetration between phenomena and phenomena. The ingenious integration of tathāgata-garbha theory and the dharma realm view may shed some light on Hua-yen's ultimate truth for the modern readers, and the highest truth could be unveiled by means of the meditation method of seeing the emptiness and true mind. Either in the theoretical dimension or in the practical dimension, the Venerable provided a good integration of Hua-yen's dharma-realm thought and the theories of emptiness and tathāgata-garbha.

Key words: Venerable Shengyen, Hua-yen thoughts, dharma realm of the non-obstruction between phenomena and phenomena, Tathāgata-garbha, harmonization of dharma-essence and dharma-phenomenon

Between Zen and the Pure Land:

Locating Yongming Yanshou's Model of Chan as Bodhisattva Cultivation

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Abstract

This paper challenges how the prominent Chinese Buddhist master Yongming Yanshou 永明延壽 (904-975) has been treated in the Buddhist tradition. Yanshou's writings and example have been inspirational throughout East Asian Buddhism down to the present day. In this paper, I argue that Yanshou's thought has been inadequately understood, owing to sectarian distinctions, on the one hand, and devotional attributions, on the other. The triumph of Linji faction interpretation of Chan as "a separate transmission outside the scriptures" (jiaowai biechuan 教外別 傳) relegated Yanshou's scripture laden interpretation of Chan as anachronistic, especially in Chinese Linji and Japanese Rinzai circles. The development of a Pure Land in the Song dynasty inspired devotees to re-envision Yanshou as a master dedicated to rebirth in the Pure Land. I argue that both of these developments serve to obscure Yanshou's actual aim: one by excluding him from the ranks of "true" Chan/Zen; the other by misconstruing an aspect of Yanshou's Buddhist cultivation, Pure Land practice, as a leading indicator, at the expense of his principal thrust.

Key words: Yongming Yanshou, Chan, Pure Land, bodhisattva cultivation

・416・聖嚴研究
Between Zen and the Pure Land・417・

1. Introduction •

In this paper, I challenge the ways in which the prominent Chinese Buddhist master Yongming Yanshou 永明延壽 (904-975) has been appropriated (and misappropriated) in the Buddhist tradition. Yanshou is a major figure in post-Tang Buddhism whose writings and example have been inspirational throughout East Asian Buddhism down to the present day. In this paper, I argue that Yanshou's thought has been inadequately understood, owing to sectarian distinctions, on the one hand, and devotional attributions. on the other. The triumph of Linji faction interpretation of Chan as "a separate transmission outside the scriptures" (jiaowai biechuan 教外別傳) relegated Yanshou's scripture laden interpretation of Chan as anachronistic, especially in Chinese Linji and Japanese Rinzai circles. The development of a Pure Land focused devotionalism in the Song dynasty inspired devotees to re-envision Yanshou as a master dedicated to rebirth in the Pure Land. I argue that both of these developments serve to obscure Yanshou's actual aim: one by excluding him from the ranks of "true" Chan/ Zen; the other by misconstruing an aspect of Yanshou's Buddhist cultivation, Pure Land practice, as a leading indicator, at the expense of his principal thrust. Instead, I locate Yanshou's model of "Chan as bodhisattva cultivation" at the center of his thought and postulate it as a "new" model of Chan for the contemporary East Asian Buddhist world, moving beyond the dichotomies of Japanese Zen and Pure Land sectarianism, and a simplistic Chinese Pure Land devotionalism.

The Zen reading of Yanshou is largely due to the unhistorical treatment of his work in relation to other Chan sources. Chan "lamp records" (denglu 燈錄) compiled in the early Song dynasty are the earliest records, for the most part, to document the profusion of Chan movements in the mid- to late Tang dynasty. Reading these sources as reliable records, the Zen trope of the "golden age" was located among Chan Tang masters. As many scholars have now made known, the so-called "golden age of Zen" was largely a product of the Song dynasty, when the records of these masters were shaped into the famed iconic images that are typically associated with the "Zen brand" in modern interpretation. Yanshou's writings, situated in the post-Tang period, have been regarded as post-dating the Tang golden age masters and as an anachronistic nostalgia for an age whose time had passed. In fact, Yanshou's writings pre-date all the lamp records of the Song and the interpretations of Chan that they promote. In spite of the prevalence of Linji Chan rhetoric and the antinomian passions it inflames, Yanshou's model of Chan represents a more reasonable and balanced interpretation that actually informs the functioning Chan model in China and in Chan influenced developments throughout East Asia until the Tokugawa period in Japan. The functioning Chan model in post-Tang China was institutionally similar to the doctrinally inspired, conventional Buddhist models that preceded it. It relied strategically on scripture recitation and conventional forms of cultivation and pious worship. The seon-kyo 禪教 model that Korean Seon is predicated on owes much to the chan-jiao 禪教 synthesis that Yanshou advocated. Japanese Zen, too, was largely predicated on a kyô-zen itchi 教禅一致 model, until Zen was disenfranchised by Tokugawa rulers in favour of Neo-Confucianism. This outsider status spawned the Hakuin style of "pure" (junsui 純粋) Zen that formed the basis for Rinzai Zen interpretation that has cast a long shadow down through the modern period—it served as the basis for the international Zen movement promoted in the writings of D.T. Suzuki and the Kyoto School.

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・418・聖嚴研究 Between Zen and the Pure Land・419・

Partially as a result of the way Yanshou's legitimacy has been undermined in Chan and Zen circles, the prevalent image one finds of Yanshou is as Pure Land master. This has little to do with Yanshou's thought, as is often assumed, and is largely attributable to the aspirations of Pure Land devotees in the Song dynasty, well after Yanshou's passing. Later Song biographies of Yanshou, like the Longshu Jingtu wen 龍舒淨土文 and the Lebang wenlei 樂邦 文類 add legendary, supernatural episodes that confirm Yanshou's primary Buddhist allegiance to the Pure Land. These episodes have no basis in Yanshou's actual life, but are attributions based on the aspirations of Song Pure Land devotees. As Yanshou's reputation rose in Pure Land circles, so did the tendency to read his writings through the lens of Pure Land interpretation. This initiative transformed Yanshou's Chan based bodhisattva cultivation into Pure Land practice. My presentation highlights the role of the Song dynasty Pure Land protagonist, Li Gonglin 李公鱗 (1049-1106), in reinterpreting Yanshou to emphasize Pure Land cultivation.

In this paper, I will also consider possible implications for Yanshou's understanding of "Chan as bodhisattva cultivation" for contemporary Buddhist practice. How is Yanshou's model of Chan more appropriate than the one fostered through Linji/Rinzai Chan rhetoric? How does the model of bodhisattva cultivation compare to Pure Land cultivation? These are some of the questions I hope to entertain.

2. Questions Regarding Yongming Yanshou's Buddhist Identity

The question of Yongming Yanshou's 永明延壽 (904-975) Buddhist identity has been a perplexing one for Chinese Buddhists. There are various reasons for this, but it was in part due to the changing times in which Yanshou lived. Between the chaos of the late Tang and Five Dynasties periods and the new conception of Chinese culture and civilization in the Song, Yanshou lived through an era marked by transformation and upheaval. The traditions

of the past glory of the Tang provided a model for the present, but the circumstances contemporary with Yanshou heralded new developments that inquired into the root premises of Chinese culture and society. The same forces that persuaded Chinese intellectuals to re-examine their Confucian heritage also forced a re-examination of the central features of a well-entrenched Chinese Buddhism. The well known outcome of this process was the emergence of Chan and a Tiantai inspired Pure Land movement as central traditions in Chinese Buddhism. Penning such works as the Wanshan tonggui ji 萬善同歸集 (J. Manzen dôki shu; Anthology on the Common Destiny of Myriad Good Deeds) and Zongjing lu 宗鏡錄 (J. Sugyôroku; literally, Records of the Source-Mirror) Yanshou figured as a leading architect of these new trends.

As a learned Buddhist literati, Yanshou straddled the past and the present. His own thought was heavily influenced by the doctrinal formulations of his predecessors, and Yanshou was very "catholic" in his approach. He saw no need to heed the sectarian boundaries that increasingly infiltrated Chan sensibilities, and created a system of thought that freely incorporated, rather than disparaging, the contributions of the past. He cited liberally from throughout Buddhist canonical sources, and quoted an array of doctrinal, scholastic masters in support of his positions. Not surprisingly, Tiantai and Huavan scriptures and exegetes figured prominently among his quoted sources. His own system was built "ancestor," but in the Buddhist context, frequently associated with "school," religious doctrine of principle, or "lineage." For Yanshou, zong carried with it the connotation of "implicit truth," namely the implicit truth of Buddhism embedded in the message of all Buddhist scriptures and doctrinal formulations.

In spite of the catholicity of Yanshou's approach, he identified himself as a Chan master in all his writings. Yanshou's notion of Chan may strike the modern reader as odd, especially for those raised on a diet of modern Rinzai Zen orthodoxy. The sectarian

· 420 · 聖嚴研究
Between Zen and the Pure Land · 421 ·

nature of Japanese Buddhism rendered Yanshou's interpretation unsuitable, although he did exert a profound influence on the pioneering founders of Zen in Japan: Nônin, Eisai, and Dôgen. Indeed, one of the projects of modern Chan and Zen studies is to recover Yanshou's sense of Chan and to restore it to a place of legitimacy. As I have argued elsewhere, it is best to understand Yanshou's Chan in terms of a staunch advocacy of bodhisattva practice. 2 To take the title of one of his major works, the Wanshan tonggui ji 萬善同歸集 as an illustration, the wanshan 萬善, or myriad good deeds, represent the bodhisattva practices that lead one to their tonggui 同歸, common end or destiny, i.e., nirvâna. While the Wanshan tonggui ji came to be regarded in Chinese Buddhist circles as a work of Chan and Pure Land synthesis, my previous work demonstrated that this was too narrow of a focus to fairly represent Yanshou's intentions. To reduce Yanshou's aim in the Wanshan tonggui ji to a Chan–Pure Land synthesis is to unfairly pluck but one of the myriad good deeds Yanshou advocated and privilege it above all others. While this reductionism fulfilled the needs of later Chinese Buddhists who saw in Yanshou a champion of Pure Land teaching, it dose not sit well with Yanshou's own broad advocacy of Chan-based bodhisattva practice.

3. Revisioning Yanshou as a Pure Land Master, Past and Present

The traditional view of Yanshou as syncretising Chan and the "teachings" (chanjiao yizhi 禪教一致, J. kyôzen itchi), primarily in reference to the Zongjing lu, was disparaged in modern Zen circles as a marked decline from the heights of a reputed "pure Zen" (zhunchan 純禪, J. junzen or junsui zen 純粋禅). In Chinese Pure Land circles, Yanshou's reputed efforts toward syncretising Chan and Pure Land (chanjing yizhi 禪淨一致, J. zenjô itchi) were looked upon with considerably more favour, as vindicating and providing justification for the prevailing tendency toward combined practice in Chinese Buddhist circles. This view was well-established to the point of ubiquity. It was assumed in modern studies of Pure Land Buddhism whenever Yanshou's mentioned was named, and was the received opinion in Western language studies of Yanshou.

Recently, a new reassessment of Yanshou as a Pure Land master appeared. The work in question, An-yi Pan's *Painting Faith: Li Gonglin and Northern Song Buddhist Culture*, charges that I, in my previous work, had misrepresented Yanshou so as to call into question Yanshou's Pure Land affiliation. "Recent scholarship in the West," Pan contends, "has over focused on the Amitābha cult—a misguided view that has led to a revisionist tendency to

This was the thesis of a paper presented at the Third Chung-Hwa International Conference on Buddhism in Taipei, Taiwan, 1997, "Yung-ming Yen-shou: Ch'an Master, Pure Land Master, or What?: Bodhisattva Practice and Pure Land Practice in the Writings of Yung-ming Yen-shou."

③ This was the contention of my McMaster University Ph.D. dissertation, published in revised from as *The Meaning of Myriad Good Deeds: A Study of Yung-ming Yen-shou and the Wan-shan t'ung-kuei chi*, New York, Berlin, et. al.: Peter Lang, 1993, especially 109-170.

[◆] See, especially, Shih Heng-ching, The Ch'an-Pure Land Synthesis in China:

With Special Reference to Yung-ming Yen-shou, New York, Berlin, et. al.: Peter
Lang, 1992.

³ An-yi Pan, *Painting Faith: Li Gonglin and Northern Song Buddhist Culture*, Leiden: Brill, 2007, 263. Pan also makes the same charge against Dan Getz regarding his interpretation of Xingchang's alleged affiliation with Pure Land, in Getz's article "T'ien-t'ai Pure Land Societies and the Creation of the Pure Land Patriarchate."

• 422 • 聖嚴研究

Between Zen and the Pure Land • 423 •

redefine Chinese Pure Land history." Pan has made a serious attempt to clarify the historical record regarding Yanshou's Pure Land affiliation, one that is worthy of comment and review. I begin with a review of Pan's argument.

As the title of Pan's work suggests, his main concern is not Yongming Yanshou, but the Northern Song literatus and painter, Li Gonglin 李公麟. One of Pan's aims is to situate Li Gonglin's famous painting, the White Lotus Society Picture, in a Pure Land context. Since the subject matter of the White Lotus Society Picture is based on the Avatamsaka sūtra and one of the (three) main images is Manjuśri, rather than Amitābha, traditional interpretation has regarded the painting in terms of Huayan rather than Pure Land soteriology. Pan argues that a later, narrow understanding of Pure Land solely in terms of Amitābha worship aiming at rebirth in Sukhavāti has obscured the bodhisattva Pure Land practice the permeated Pure Land thought in the Northern Song Buddhist culture. The question for Pan is "not whether Li Gonglin's White Lotus Society Picture is a Pure Land painting, but what kind of Pure Land ideology it represents." Pan is fond of the concepts "bodhisattva Pure Land cultivation," and "bodhisattva Pure Land teaching," which he openly attributes to Yanshou. Pan claims that:

- 6 Painting Faith, 262.
- Painting Faith, 230-231. In actual fact, as Pan notes, the three scenes depicted in the White Lotus Society Picture derive from "Gandhavyūha" section of the Avatāmsaka sutra, detailing the spiritual journey of Sudhana as an exemplary practitioner on the bodhisattva path.
- ② Painting Faith, 267. Although I have reservations about Pan's interpretation, since it is largely based on how the painting was regarded by other literati (see 264-266), not on comments made by Li Gonglin himself, who had an avid interest in the *Avatāmsaka* from early in his life, I leave assessment of Pan's interpretation to those more qualified than myself.

Yongming Yanshou's impact on Song Tiantai Pure Land was far-reaching. He synthesized pre-Song Pure Land ideology and combined it with the One Vehicle nonhindrance teaching to defend the validity of myriad Bodhisattva practices. Most importantly, he advocated "Sudden Enlightenment followed by Gradual Cultivation" as part of bodhisattva Pure Land teaching. 9

I concede that Pan has a point: scholars in the past, like myself, were unwittingly dependent on sectarian-based Japanese Buddhist interpretive categories, and these led to an overly narrow understanding of Pure Land Buddhism in China. Pan's work is successful in pointing out the need to understand with greater clarity the role of Pure Land thought in Chinese Buddhism. Yet, I have serious reservations regarding Pan's assumption that Yanshou was, in essence, a Pure Land master, or advocated Pure Land practice as the central theme of his Buddhist practice. The most obvious question to ask here (but not considered by Pan) is: how did Yanshou identify himself in his writings? Throughout his works, even in the *Wanshan tonggui ji*, which Pan, and others insist is a Pure Land work, Yanshou identifies himself as a "Chan master" (*chanshi* 禪師). Nowhere does he identify with a Pure Land, or any other affiliation.

On the whole, I stand by the assessment of Yanshou in my previous work and the interpretation proffered above: Yanshou considered himself a Chan master, but who understood Chan in terms of a commitment to bodhisattva practice. Yanshou did indeed

⁹ Painting Faith, 269.

[•] My work on Yanshou that Pan refers to, *The Meaning of Myriad Good Deeds:* A Study of Yung-ming Yen-shou and the Wan-shan t'ung-kuei chi, published in 1993, was a revised version of my doctoral dissertation, completed in 1987, before the limitations of Japanese Buddhist scholarship were made evident.

• 424 • 聖嚴研究

Between Zen and the Pure Land • 425 •

advocate Pure Land cultivation as part of bodhisattva practice, but it would be misleading, as Pan does, to put it the other way around, as advocating bodhisattva practice as part of Pure Land cultivation, or to conflate the two as the same. To do so reduces bodhisattva practice to Pure Land cultivation, an interpretation that may have its merits in the eyes of later practitioners, but one that Yanshou is not party to. Yanshou understood the cultivation of myriad good deeds (wanshan) not in terms of Pure Land cultivation, as Pan suggests, but in terms of bodhisattva practice, as Yanshou himself states. Pan calls for a strictly Pure Land understanding for the term wanshan, and gives convincing evidence for his assertion. Yet, a search of the term wanshan on CBETA reveals that it is used in a wide variety of contexts, many with no apparent bearing to the Pure Land. Unless one conflates the entire Mahayana tradition of bodhisattva cultivation into an homage to Pure Land cultivation, a tendency seen in later Chinese Buddhism that Pan seems to concur with, there seems little reason to read wanshan in this restricted way. Moreover, Feixi 飛錫, the Tang dynasty Pure Land monk that Pan attributes provided the model and terminology for Yanshou's Wanshan tonggui ji, is cited only once in that text, in juan one where Pure Land is discussed. He is also included, in passing, in the Zongjing lu, but here he is mentioned among representatives

- Painting Faith, 269.
- B See: http://www.cbeta.org/result/search.htm, consulted on April 22, 2009.
- For the reference to Feixi in the *Wanshan tonggui ji*, see T48-2017, 962a29.

of Chan factions, though no factional attribution is provided. It is clear that Yanshou's frame of reference was Chan (as defined by him), not Pure Land, and that this extended even to the likes of Feixi. Feixi is thus a slender thread to pin one's interpretations on.

It is much more likely, as I asserted in my earlier work, that Yanshou was indebted to Zhiyi's 智顗 formulation wanshan tonggui in his commentary Fahua xuanyi 法華玄義 (The Profound Meaning of the Lotus Sutra), to indicate the teaching of the Lotus sutra. For Yanshou and Zhiyi, the term tonggui does not indicate a return to the Pure Land, as Pan suggests, but indicates that the myriad good deeds all propel one toward bodhi. Yanshou's comments in his "Preface to the Teaching on Induction into the Bodhisattva Precepts," indicate that practices aiming at rebirth in the Pure Land were included, but did not figure highly in the regimen of bodhisattva practices that he advocated (considered below). Given the prominence with which Zhiyi, the Lotus sutra, and Tiantai teaching appear throughout Yanshou's works, particularly the Wanshan tonggui ji, it seems much more likely that these were Yanshou's major frames of reference.

Typical of the low regard Yanshou accorded Pure Land practice is Yanshou's response to a question in the *Zongjing lu* 宗鏡錄 (Records Mirroring the Implicit Truth):®

[♠] Following Pan's logic, the "Gandhavyūha" section of the Avatāmsaka sutra might well be regarded as a Pure Land text, an assertion that Pan comes close to suggesting (see 230-231). On this count, nearly all of Mahayana Buddhism might qualify as teaching Pure Land cultivation. As suggested before, while there is need to clarify the generally underestimated role of Pure Land cultivation in Mahayana, this should not serve as an excuse to conflate the two. I much prefer "bodhisattva cultivation" as a general term to refer to Mahayana Buddhist practice.

[●] T48, 944b25-28. Listed as 草堂和尚=草堂飛錫, see Welter, Yongming Yanshou's Conception of Chan in the Zongjing lu, 300fn48.

The Meaning of Myriad Good Deeds, 131. In fascicle 9 of the Fahua xuanyi, Zhiyi claims that just as the Lotus sutra unites the three vehicles into one, "the myriad good deeds (wanshan) all propel one toward bodhi. This refers to the teaching of tonggui" (T33-1716, 801b3). Slightly further on, Zhiyi confirms the association of the phrase wanshan tonggui with the Lotus (801b19 and 803b22).

¹bid.

[®] ZJL 17 (T48-2016, 506a10-16).

• 426 • 聖嚴研究
Between Zen and the Pure Land • 427 •

Question: "As your previous analysis of principle (li 理) and phenomena (shi 事) makes clear, there is no mind external to the Buddha and there is no Buddha external to the mind. Why, then, is the method of nianfo 念佛 included among the teachings?"

Answer: "It is only for those who lack faith that their own mind is the Buddha (zixin shi fo 自心是佛) and turn outward to rush around and seek [the Buddha]. For those with mediocre or inferior abilities, we provisionally make them contemplate the Buddha's physical body to anchor wayward thoughts, using what is external to reveal what is internal. By and by, they awaken to their own minds. For those of superior ability, we make them contemplate the true from of the [Buddha's] body. Contemplating the Buddha is thus like this. As it says in the Fozang jing 佛藏經 (Buddha Storehouse Scripture): "To see the true form of the various dharmas is called seeing the Buddha...""

Yanshou himself makes clear the status of *nian fo* techniques in his teaching. They have a place, but it is a decidedly inferior one, however useful and necessary they may be. These are not the words of an advocate of bodhisattva Pure Land cultivation as the primary practice. These are the word of an advocate of bodhisattva Chan (or Chan bodhisattva) cultivation as the primary practice.

Following a traditional trajectory, Pan places Yanshou in a line of Pure Land masters which include the likes of Tanluan 曇鸞, Daochuo 道綽, Shandao 善導, Cimin Huiri 慈愍慧日, and Feixi 飛錫. In fact, Yanshou would be better paired with masters like Zhiyi 智顗, who acknowledged a role for Pure Land cultivation, but were essentially devoted to traditional meditation practices (*chanding* 禪定) and the performance of a vast array of myriad good deeds

(wanshan). Does this suggest that Zhiyi is essentially a Pure Land master, that he advocated his other practices and techniques as part of his bodhisattva Pure Land cultivation? While later Pure Land advocates may make such an assertion, it is clearly far from Zhiyi's own intentions.

4. Conclusion

Yanshou advocated Pure Land cultivation, as he did numerous other bodhisattva practices. Yanshou's "Preface to the Teaching on Induction into the Bodhisattva Precepts" (Shou pusa jiefa bingxu 受菩薩戒法并序), indicates how Yanshou did not give priority to Pure Land cultivation among the various bodhisattva practices, as those who want to view Yanshou essentially as a Pure Land master would suggest. In truth, Yanshou advocated a wide variety of practices, any of which might be selected, ad hoc, as representing Yanshou's "real" Buddhist practice. Had the Chinese Buddhist tradition in the Song took a different direction than it did, it is easy to imagine how Yanshou could have been called on to validate any number of developments. What determined Yanshou's identification with the Pure Land was not so much what he wrote himself, as how later Chinese Buddhists wanted to view him. The biographical/hagiographical record of Yanshou is key to understanding this, yet again, this is something that Pan fails to consider. The devotional streak in Yanshou's Buddhist practice is noted early on, in the biographies compiled by his near contemporaries, Zanning 贊寧 in the Song gaoseng zhuan 宋高僧傳 and Daoyuan 道原 in the Jingde Chuandeng lu 景德 傳燈錄, which both mention his fondness for reciting the Lotus sutra, performance of repentance rituals, and administration of the bodhisattva precepts, and so on. With the appearance of works

◎ T15-653, 785b1-2.

• 428 • 聖嚴研究
Between Zen and the Pure Land • 429 •

advocating Pure Land ideology, the *Longshu jingtu wen* 龍舒淨土文 and *Lebang wenlei* 樂邦文類, Yanshou's identification with the Pure Land is ascertained and his devotional tendencies, part and parcel of bodhisattva practice, are provided a Pure Land twist. ②

A key to understanding this transformation of Yanshou from Chan to Pure Land master lies perhaps in Northern Song literati figures like Yang Jie 楊傑, who was a colleague of Li Gonglin and also played a major role in the revival of interest in Yanshou's Zongjing lu. Yang Jie was a major figure on the Buddhist scene who had a special interest in fostering both invocation and visualization nianfo. According to the Lebang wenlei, Yang Jie carried an image of Amitābha with him at all times, even when travelling. Was Yang Jie's primary practice and the six pāramitās and other practices characteristic of bodhisattva cultivation were auxiliary practices, and practicing in this manner enabled one to achieve the highest grade of the highest level of rebirth in the Pure Land. This is clearly he opposite for Yanshou, who regarded Pure Land cultivation as an auxiliary to assist one in performing the bodhisattva precepts. As mentioned previously, the practice of invoking the Buddha (nianfo), like confession of sins (chanhui 懺悔) and assisting living beings (zhusheng 助生), functions as an aid to help one from violating the precepts. Yet, it is clear that Yang Jie saw *nianfo* as the primary practice, and was inclined to read Yanshou's intentions along these lines as well. In Yang Jie's preface to the reissue of the Zongjing lu in 1091,

he claims: "If people regard the Buddha as a mirror (i.e., take the Buddha as their model), they will know the moral precepts, meditation, and wisdom are the source (zong 宗) of all goodness (shan 善).... All goodness, regardless of the type, is generated by faith (xin 信)."② For Yang Jie, bodhisattva cultivation—the precepts, meditation, and wisdom—are the source of goodness, and goodness is generated by faith. This suggests a reinterpretation of Yanshou's treatise to accord with Yang Jie's priorities.

The revisionist view of Yanshou was the creation of Song Buddhist culture, which recast the bodhisattva path of cultivation in terms of a Pure Land agenda. This Pure Land agenda was not new. Previously it had been subordinated to the bodhisattva path of cultivation. In the new configuration, the bodhisattva path was subordinated as an aspect of the cultivation of the Pure Land. Yanshou's image and writings were enlisted in the service of this cause. Later Buddhists came to read Yanshou with this new Pure Land focused agenda in mind, and found in Yanshou's writings the evidence they needed to support their new beliefs.

② For a full description of the images of Yanshou in these texts, see *Yougming Yanshou's Conception of Chan in the Zongjing lu*, Chapter 1, "Yougming Yanshou and the Complexities of Chan Identity," 11-43.

② On Yang Jie's role in Northern Song Buddhist culture, see Pan, *Painting Faith*, 22-58 *passim*. On his devotion to Pure Land practice, see 55.

³ T47-1969A, 195b-c.

² Painting Faith, 55.

[☼] T48-2016, 415a19-21.

在禪宗和淨土之間 ——找出永明延壽的禪菩薩模型

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▮摘要

永明延壽(九〇四~九七五年)——這位突出的中國僧人在佛教傳統中是如何地被看待?他的著作及事蹟一直到今天仍然鼓舞著東亞佛教界。我以為延壽的思想並未被適切地理解,一方面是因為宗派上的疏隔,另一方面則是信仰上的歸屬。關於「禪」的詮釋,臨濟宗「教外別傳」之說一旦蔚為主流,也就貶抑了延壽「禪教一致」的主張,而被說成「不合時宜」;這種情形在中國及日本的臨濟宗門特別明顯。另外,宋代淨土思想的發展,鼓舞著信仰者重塑延壽為一虔獻於往生淨土的大師。我以為以下的兩項發展隱蔽了延壽的實際目的:一是把他從「真禪」的系表中排除;另一則是曲解他對於佛教修行的觀點,主要是淨土法門的實踐,使之做為一引領者,然而卻以延壽的首要意趣做為代價。

關鍵詞:永明延壽、禪宗、淨土、菩薩行

當代女禪師的培養與弘化——以法鼓山僧團的比丘尼為例

釋常診

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▮摘要

漢傳佛教有著世界上歷史最久並繼續持續的比丘尼僧 團,二十一世紀的當代佛教,臺灣比丘尼呈現佛教歷史前所 未見的獨特性,除了數量上是比丘的三倍之外,也是世界上 目前比丘尼人數最多的地區,無論在慈善、教育、藝術、文 化等方面,均有傑出表現。然而,比丘尼在禪修上的實踐, 卻仍未被觸及。法鼓山為少數對女性禪修師資做有系統地培 養與弘化的道場之一,根據筆者的訪談資料,臺灣兩眾道場 的禪七帶領仍以男眾法師為主,而法鼓山的禪修培養與弘 化, 並無性別的考量, 有著比臺灣其他道場女眾更多弘化機 會。法鼓山尼眾人數從最早一九八○年的三人到二○一三年 的二一六人;僧眾禪修領眾培養方面,從早期聖嚴法師的親 自帶領,到一九九九年成立僧伽大學四年制佛學院,系統性 地教授禪學與禪修,僧伽大學更在二〇〇六年設立六年制的 禪學系,系統性地培養禪修領眾人才。法鼓山做為禪宗在臺 灣佛教復興的現象之一,要如何解釋如同臺灣其他兩眾道場 創辦人均為男性,法鼓山對於女性禪修師資的培養與弘化, 有更開放的空間?其對女性禪修師資培養與弘化的開放態

度,和禪宗傳統在面對現代化、全球化下的機會與挑戰又有 什麼樣的關係?這當中,比丘尼對禪宗法理如何運用與再詮 釋?本文先以深度訪談結合文獻資料,呈現法鼓山三十多年 的比丘尼禪修培養與弘化歷史,再探討法鼓山比丘尼禪修的 培養與弘化,如何受到禪宗法理與創辦人理念的影響?以及 當中與禪宗現代化、全球化和性別議題的交涉。

關鍵詞:佛教女性、禪、臺灣佛教、法鼓山、聖嚴法師

一、前言

傳教裡女性的宗教實踐,因佛教傳入歐美世界的熱烈回響,已在西方世界開啟與各種學說對話的空間。女性主義以女性自覺、自主的呼聲,提倡獨立、自由與平等,以女性的觀點重新詮釋知識、歷史、法律、社會、道德等,將長久以來缺席的女性觀點放入,這項巨大的社會運動,在學院內外乃至於全球,正活力地進行著。其中,宗教女性主義學者特別關注女性的宗教實踐在佛教傳統中的定位,諸如女性宗教地位、教育機會、經典詮釋與文化形象、宗教成就和自主能力等,關懷女性修行者處境的研究議題乃至於改革行動蓬勃而生。梅迺文指出,宗教女性主義研究所關懷的,不只是女性的權益,而是宗教對兩性是否持有不同的態度,這樣不同的態度又如何影響兩性的宗教地位、受教育的機會、宗教中參與的機會和自我發展等,研究取向如對傳統宗教經典做重新解讀、對傳統的宗教歷史做重新認知和對宗教做重新的建構。❶

回顧中文佛教婦女研究文獻,已有學者針對原始佛教、 部派佛教、大乘佛教中的女性觀做整理,有關漢傳佛教的女 性研究,則多以歷史文獻整理為主,但也有一些學者用社會 學、人類學的研究方法,針對當代漢傳佛教中的女性議題進 行研究,特別是臺灣比丘尼的部分。 ②臺灣比丘尼在當代佛

[●] 梅迺文〈從女性主義角度看人間淨土〉,《人間淨土與現代社會── 第三屆中華國際佛學會議論文集》,臺北:法鼓文化,1998年,頁151-180。

❷ 李玉珍〈佛教的女性,女性的佛教──近二十年來中英文的佛教婦女研

教,呈現佛教歷史前所未見的獨特性,除了數量上是比丘的 三倍之外,也是世界上目前比丘尼人數最多的地區,無論在 慈善、教育、藝術、文化等方面,臺灣比丘尼傑出的表現, 不但為漢傳佛教復興帶來甚多的貢獻,也影響臺灣公民社會 乃至世界其他地區的佛教發展。陳美華認為,比丘尼做為女 性史研究的價值,可以從臺灣漢人父系/權社會、佛教傳統 與女權運動和女性主義新潮流這三個脈絡來看。在這三個脈 絡下,比丘尼在戰後(一九四九年~)不同時段裡,對比於 社會對女性的強勢知識與價值體系,其所呈現的另類知識、 價值觀與實踐,就更顯出建構不同知識、價值觀的理論與實 踐的可能性。❸當代臺灣比丘尼在慈善、教育、藝術、文化等 不同領域的貢獻,已有學者進行探討,但比丘尼在禪修上的 實踐,卻仍未被觸及。

由於目前漢傳佛教領域中女性與禪修之相關研究局限於歷史文獻整理,乃至當代漢傳佛教缺乏女性與禪修的探討,本文則關懷女性與宗教的一重要面向——當代漢傳佛教女性禪修師資的培養與弘化。佛教在歐美的發展,女性佛教徒對女性禪修老師帶領修行的需求呼聲愈高,女禪師的師資培養已成為一重要課題。④反觀臺灣,目前女性禪修老師並不多,

能對女性禪修師資有系統培養的道場更少。法鼓山為少數對女性禪修師資做有系統地培養與弘化的道場之一,本文將以法鼓山比丘尼僧團為例,以文獻回顧結合參與觀察與深入訪談(deep interview)資料,探討當代女性禪修師資的培養與弘化。近年來法鼓山研究成為國內外學界共同關懷的議題,大多朝向法鼓山心靈環保的弘法運動與中國禪法的推展,但是實際上如何以禪法訓練僧才、落實修行層面?卻仍然有待研究,本文也正填補此一空缺,是理解當代漢傳佛教發展的重要新議題。每

法鼓山為聖嚴法師所創,其傳承禪宗臨濟與曹洞兩個法脈,聖嚴法師並在二〇〇五年宣布「中華禪法鼓宗」的成立。除了禪宗法脈的傳承,聖嚴法師同時將法鼓山定位為人間佛教運作模式的禪修道場。法鼓山除了以禪修為僧眾個人修行主要法門外,禪修推廣上在國內外也已有三十多年的歷史,呈現系統性教學並向世界發展。法鼓山比丘尼法師,無論在受教育與領眾上,均與男眾法師有著相等的機會。法鼓山做為兩眾道場,禪修的兩性平等觀,不同於臺灣其他兩眾道場如佛光山與中台山等,其禪七帶領仍以男眾為主。法鼓山做為禪宗在臺灣佛教復興的現象之一,要如何解釋如同臺灣其他兩眾道場創辦人均為男性,法鼓山對於女性禪修師資的培養與弘化,有更開放的空間?其對女性禪修師資培養與弘化較開放的態度,和禪

究〉,江燦騰、張珣合編《臺灣本土宗教研究的新視野和新思維》,臺 北:南天出版社,2003年,頁489-524。

[●] 陳美華〈另類典範:當代臺灣比丘尼的社會實踐〉,《臺大佛學研究中心學報》第7期,臺北:臺灣大學文學院佛學研究中心,2002年,頁295-340。

[●] Sandy Boucher著,葉文可譯《法輪常轉:女性靈修之路》(Turning the

Wheel: American Women Creating the New Buddhism),臺北:立緒出版 計,1997年。

⑤ 感謝居名審查者提出本文對當代漢傳佛教及法鼓山研究的貢獻之處。

宗傳統在面對現代化、全球化下的機會與挑戰又有什麼樣的關係?這當中,比丘尼對禪宗法理又是如何運用與再詮釋?本文 先以深度訪談結合文獻資料,呈現法鼓山三十多年的比丘尼禪 修培養與弘化歷史,再探討法鼓山比丘尼禪修的培養與弘化, 如何受到禪宗法理與創辦人理念的影響?和當中與禪宗現代 化、全球化和性別議題的交涉。

 史和禪修發展,一方面做為當代比丘尼史的建構,另一方面 也對當代以禪法修行為主的比丘尼僧團進行探討。

二、法鼓山比丘尼禪修發展史

自一九七五年聖嚴法師從日本完成博士學位赴美弘化, 一九七七年奉東初老人遺命回臺灣接掌中華佛教文化館和 農禪寺開始,至今法鼓山教團已有三十多年的歷史。從最初 淳樸的農禪寺院生活,發展到現在以「心靈環保」為核心的 大學院、大普化、大關懷三大教育事業體系,法鼓山做為臺 灣的四大佛教道場之一,僧俗四眾當中向來是以僧團扮演堂 握方向與精神理念中心的角色,以及推動法鼓山佛教事業體 的核心。因此,欲探討法鼓山比丘尼的禪法的培養、修行與 弘化,和僧團僧眾教育培養機制、組織發展及其歷史演化密 不可分。自一九八〇年聖嚴法師剃度四位出家弟子(男眾 一人,女眾三人),僧眾人數至二〇一三年為止,男眾為 五十五人,女眾為二一六人,共二七一人,僧眾男女比例約 教育發展歷程,分為萌芽期(一九七九~一九八八年)、建 構期(一九八九~二○○○年)、與成熟期(二○○一~二 ○○九年)。
○九年)。
③根據筆者調查,此三期男女僧眾比例均約一比 四。這三個時期,無論在僧眾培育、僧團組織、制度建立、

 [●] 此數據出處為釋昭慧著的《千載沉吟——新世紀的佛教女性思維》,
 臺北:法界出版社,2002年,頁93。另外出處為Elise Anne DeVido於二○○八年對中國佛教會代表的訪談資料,見:Elise Anne DeVido, *Taiwan Buddhist Nuns*, State University of New York Press, Albany, 2010, 120fn4。

❷ 資料來源:法鼓山三學院,2013年5月28日。

[●] 釋果光、釋常悟〈悲願傳承──法鼓山尼僧教育之回顧與展望〉,香光尼眾佛學院主編《比丘尼的天空:2009佛教僧伽教育國際研討會論文集》,臺北:伽耶山基金會,2010年,頁110-137。

弘化事業等,都有其顯著的發展。以下即以釋果光、釋常悟的僧眾教育發展的歷史分期為基礎,探討比丘尼在教團的歷 史演變中禪法修行與弘化的內涵與演化。

(一)萌芽期(一九七九~一九八八年):聖嚴法師親 自指導

自一九七五年聖嚴法師赴美弘法,因美國的中西方人 士對禪修極感興趣並想學習的因緣,使得聖嚴法師將本是 個人修行的禪法,成為接引的主要方式,而以禪師聞名。 一九七一年聖嚴法師返臺繼承中華佛教文化館和農禪寺後, 由於譯經院的因緣,同樣以禪法教授四眾弟子,一九八〇年 剃度弟子並開始建立僧團,以農禪並重方式訓練出家弟子, 進入法鼓山僧眾教育發展——聖嚴法師親自帶領禪修的禪法 培育萌芽期。

1. 解行並重的學佛/佛學要求

一九七一年聖嚴法師回臺繼承文化館和農禪寺,並受美國佛教會所託,擔任駐臺譯經院院長。當時譯經院選定的翻譯經典為《楞嚴經》、《楞伽經》及《圓覺經》,這三部經均富哲理又重修證經驗,因此聖嚴法師要求譯員在禪修方面下工夫,才能對經典文字的描述有所體會,不至於因翻譯而偏離佛法的本意。逐漸地,在眾人請求下,聖嚴法師於一九七八年十一月底及十二月初,為十多位文化館、譯經院人員連續舉行兩期禪七,不僅參與的學員收穫豐富,聖嚴法師在臺灣的禪修課程也因此拓展開來。

根據果廣法師(一九九〇年受戒)的回憶與敘說:

我参加的第一個禪七是一九七九年師父在臺灣舉辦的第三期禪七,地點在文化館。参加那一期禪七的學員,都是二十幾歲的年輕人,男女約各一半。當時沒有禪七的先修班,例如禪訓班、禪一、禪三等,因此師父是在禪七中從數息漸次帶到話頭。印象中師父沒有特別要照顧男眾或女眾,感覺上都一樣,沒什麼兩樣。

當時的臺灣,修行不外乎是持戒、持齋、念佛、持咒、讀誦經典及禮懺拜佛等,以求功德、求感應或求生西方淨土,還沒有禪修的修行活動。此後,「禪」在臺灣,不再是難解的謎語,而是確實可實踐的。農禪寺成立禪坐、念佛、拜懺等共修,並開辦禪訓班和禪七等弘化活動,在臺灣光復後的佛教發展歷程中,不同於其他寺院以佛學營、念佛等接引青年學子,農禪寺則以禪修為其特色,接引青年學子學禪乃至發心出家。果祥法師、果鏡法師、果徹法師等早期出家弟子,即是在大專時期,參與聖嚴法師主辦的禪七學禪乃至發心出家。

2. 重修證的僧眾教育

從一九七九年到一九八八年,僧團購置金山法鼓山土地 之前的萌芽階段,是過著農禪家風的清修生活。僧團初創時 期,依循禪宗「一日不作,一日不食」的古代叢林制度,寺 院生活是淳樸寧靜的。**③**一九七九年,聖嚴法師首次為四位

^{●〈}僧團〉,《1989~2001法鼓山年鑑──總論》,臺北:法鼓山佛教基金會,2005年,頁96-127。

弟子剃度出家,尼眾人數由開始的三人到一九八八年增為二十二人;**①**此外,當時也推動一些法會、禪修,指導信眾共修,但少有對外活動。聖嚴法師對僧眾教育十分重視,「佛教發展根本之道,乃在出家眾的教育問題」,**①**認為修證的方法和體驗是僧眾教育中最重要的一環。為了培訓弘揚佛法及住持三寶的青年僧眾人才,農禪寺於一九七九年八月成立了「三學研修院」,成員原為譯經院的成員與曾參加禪七的學員,共有十人,嗣後陸續遞增,成員之中包含了僧俗四眾;之後譯經院結束,成員中有人發心出家,「三學研修院」漸而發展為法鼓山「僧團」。對聖嚴法師而言,禪修是培養宗教師的必學方法。

根據果勤法師 (一九八三年受戒)的敘述:

早期來農禪寺出家多是因禪修,生活是農禪家風,除了出坡沒太多事,早上是自修,下午就是集體出坡和個人出坡。早晚各一小時打坐,環境很好,打坐時很有凝聚力,師父就坐在中間,早晚坐有時會巡香。我來的時候禪七裡已有五十多人,更早的時候只有二十至三十人。自從有了法鼓山這塊地,要蓋法鼓山,出家的人就不一定是禪修接引來的,團體也因為要買地而開始忙起來。

3. 臺灣首座教禪道場

除了僧眾禪法的修行之外,僧團對外弘化部分, 一九七九年八月「般若禪坐會」在禪七參加學員的要求下成 立,於農禪寺每週日下午舉行禪坐共修,每年則固定舉行兩 次禪七。此外,為推廣禪修,於一九八三年四月開辦禪訓師 資班,培養出家眾成為師資,緊接著在六月舉行了第一期初 級禪訓班。•[]禪訓班於是成為當時禪修普及化的重要管道。依 據果鏡法師(一九八三年受戒)詳述:

那時候農禪寺還沒有分院,大臺北以外的外縣市共修處 形成都是和禪訓班有關係。那時我從南到北跑了兩年,從 羅東到屏東,由教禪訓班開始,每個地方都去了幾次,慢 慢成立共修點。農禪寺的部分,禪訓班發展到最多時期, 一個月可以到十幾二十班。先是安排出家眾去教,有時因 人手不夠,也會讓行者去教,之後又因人手不足,還會訓 練在家眾當師資。但後來參加的人又覺得還是法師教好, 又改回出家眾。農禪寺的禪七,最早是針對信眾,沒有對 外宣傳,貼傳單、海報等,後來才開始有對外宣傳,一年 兩次禪七,要經過面試,基本上是以年輕、有打坐基礎、 上過禪訓班的人為主,但主要是篩選一些有精神狀況不適 合打七的人。那時候臺灣只有我們道場在上禪訓班,之後 陸續才有中台山、現代禪等在推禪修。

⑩ 同註❸, 頁116。

^{●〈}蓽路藍縷──前法鼓山時期〉,《1989~2001法鼓山年鑑──記事報導》,臺北:法鼓山佛教基金會,2005年,頁14。

❷ 同註❶,頁8-21。

(二)建構期(一九八九~二〇〇〇年):學徒式的禪 修人才培養

農禪寺做為臺灣首座推廣禪修的道場,最初的十年,對內僧眾過著清修的農禪生活,對外禪修弘化有每星期的禪坐共修和禪訓班,和一年兩次的禪七。由於僧俗四眾人數增加,農禪寺場所已不敷使用,一九八九年尋得金山之地,命名為法鼓山,而進入了僧團對內建立組織制度、對外成立護法會和各項弘化事業,以「心靈環保」為核心的三大教育的教團建構期(一九八九~二〇〇〇年),至二〇〇〇年,尼眾人數增加為八十八人。❸這期間全省護法信眾增加,僧團逐步設立臺中、臺南、安和(臺北)三個分院,並接收信行(臺東)、齋明(桃園)、紫雲(高雄)三個道場。

1. 禪七各項執事訓練

在還沒成立分院以前,大臺北以外的外縣市共修處形成,是以開辦禪訓班的共修來帶動,先是信眾提供居家場所做為授課場地,逐漸發展為共修處,再擴大演化為分院的形式。隨著信眾人數增加,禪七從一年的兩次增加為一年四次。另外,因聖嚴法師知名度的提昇,不同社會單位如學校、政府機關等邀請演講,和其他法務推動與弘化時間倍增,聖嚴法師於是開始培養僧眾為「總護」、「小參」和「監香」,分擔禪七的職務。學於是禪七的職務形式轉變為由

聖嚴法師主持開示和帶領經行,其他部分則由受訓過的弟子 分擔。

此方面,果高法師(一九九二年受戒)有以下陳述:

大約在民國八十二到八十三年(一九九三~一九九四年),為培養小參人才,開始指示一些法師見習師父小參,男眾如果暉法師,女眾如果鏡法師、果徹法師、果廣法師等,並試著由他們負責小參,這些小參法師再將禪眾的身心狀況,向師父報告,再由師父教導該如何處理禪眾問題。記得那時候僧眾剛開始對此還有點反彈,因為之前都是由師父親自小參,一時間換成是師兄弟,會有點不太習慣與接受。師父則是以權宜言語善巧方便的方式說服僧眾要接受此模式,而說因為他們的禪修狀況又是如何如何,再者師父年歲也漸老,體力有限,僧團總是要多培養儲備人才,希望我們能夠接受他的安排。至於總護人選的部分,則是交由僧團綱領執事會議決議後,再將名單開出來給師父過目,師父會依名單及僧眾的禪修狀況給予其他的建議。

聖嚴法師一方面為培養禪修弘化人才努力,另一方面也 依循佛陀帶領僧團的精神——「我不領眾,我在僧中」,實 踐佛法教義中「無我」所呈現出自他相依相存、領袖與組織

❸ 同註❸, 頁117。

^{●「}總護」為禪七期間,負責帶領每日精進共修生活作息之主要執事,和 禪七中各項執事之協調者。「小參」是指協助禪眾解決禪修問題之執

事,禪眾在禪七中有修行上的問題,可要求小參。「監香」是指負責執 行禪堂規矩、時間掌控、照顧禪眾修行身心和禪堂修行環境如空氣調節 之執事。

共同體的微妙倫理。聖嚴法師最初以學徒式的方式培養禪修帶領人才,從小參、總護到監香,聖嚴法師均細心地指導與叮嚀,而新進的法師也以學徒式的方式,跟著有經驗的戒長法師學習,僧眾禪修帶領的培養,因此是學習與實習同時,和從多次的操作中累積經歷。

果悅法師(一九九四年受戒)以其親身經驗說明如下:

我們那時候行者或沙彌尼階段,一有禪訓班就要跟,不是當助教才跟,兩年下來,看戒長法師上禪訓班也有個二十次以上了,受完大戒一回來就要教禪訓班。因為男眾人少,沙彌就可以當禪訓班老師,女眾要是比丘尼,最高時間農禪寺一個時段可以四個空間同時上課。禪七的部分,每次禪七前,師父都會開會,要內護抬人、打香板給他看,確定我們會不會。師父對當監香的,也會叮嚀禪堂有狀況就要馬上起坐,做得好是可以馬上起坐,不需要按摩的。

2. 系統化的教學培訓

僧眾學習禪修帶領的過程,是以一種從「做中學」的發心與謙虛態度,從歷練中培養領眾的能力,領眾與培養經驗逐漸累積,從做中學而逐漸形成系統化完整的培養教育。有一位戒長女眾法師回憶剛開始培訓總護的狀況:

那時候有幾個法師開始當總護,我們那時候沒有什麼 總護手冊,是一種從做中學的過程。因為是初學,有些總 護話很多,一炷香三十分鐘可以講到快二十分鐘,實在有 點擾眾,動作也不夠輕。幾次下來,禪眾也會反應,所以 就漸漸開始訂規則,比如師父會說,當總護就是少言、少 語、少動作等。

另外,聖嚴法師也嚴格要求每位僧眾,在修行上下工夫,農禪寺的禪七,除非執事走不開,均應進禪堂共修。因此,聖嚴法師對僧眾禪修的培養與弘化,修行上除了每天各一小時地早晚坐,另外還有每年四次的禪七,每三個月來回臺灣與美國,回來和離開農禪寺時各打一次。四次七之中有兩次是聖嚴法師帶,另兩次則是由僧團法師帶。禪修帶領的培養上,從禪訓班,到禪坐共修、禪一、禪三、禪七次第性的訓練。一位女眾法師分享:

僧眾在培訓與領眾,男女眾機會是均等的,有教禪訓班才能帶禪坐共修,然後帶禪一、禪三、禪七,最多的時候,我有時一個月會教三次禪訓班。早期果廣法師帶許多,果稠法師、果理法師、果懋法師等都有帶。那時候師父有兩次親自教禪訓班,後來就成為我們現在的禪訓班的師資培訓教材。我們那時的執事是果廣法師排的,每個人都要教禪訓班,或是擔任錄取禪七面試等。

3. 禪即生活

男女兩眾均等的禪修培養與弘化,一直是聖嚴法師對僧

眾教育的態度,並無性別的考慮。聖嚴法師以傳統叢林寺院訓練僧眾的模式,認為出家人就是要學會「三刀」:剪刀(裁剪衣衫)、菜刀(炊事事宜)、剃頭刀(自己處理鬚髮),出家人個人生活上的食衣住行都應學會,不依賴他人,對出家弟子的要求一致。因此可以說,對聖嚴法師而言,禪與生活是一致的,禪修即是生活中的修行。果悅法師對此方面仍保留深刻的印象:

我覺得師父禪修的教法就是當下,不限於禪堂,而是 行、住、坐、臥中。比如有一次,師父把我攔下來,要我 看著前面的兩個柱子形成的一條線,走路給他看,說: 「對著這兩個柱子的方向走,走路就不會歪來歪去」。又 有一次,師父要我拿鞋,我把鞋放下去時沒有放好,師父 看到沒放整齊,就不穿。像這樣,師父禪修的教法是在 行、住、坐、臥中的,禪與生活是一體的。

果毅法師也有頗多的體會(一九九七年受戒):

我一進僧團就在出版社領執,非常忙碌,很多時候都無法隨大眾一樣進禪堂打七,心裡時常覺得委屈。直到有一次禪七,我仍在離農禪寺禪堂外不遠的出版社辦公室工作,那地點甚至還在禪七的結界範圍之內,其實我的環境和禪眾幾乎是相同的,禪堂要求禁語,我們工作在禪七時也被要求輕聲細語。我突然領悟到,為什麼我要被這幾步路之隔而起分別與煩惱?應該練習將所有的地方都當成

禪堂來用功。因為執事的關係,我走過的路和大家不太一樣,這讓我更體會到,禪即是生活。

僧眾教育的建構時期,禪修的培訓和帶領方式也從實務的歷練、經驗的累積中漸形完整。隨著僧團組織擴大和建立,二〇〇一年「法鼓山寺院組織章程」擬定,成立「禪修推廣中心」(二〇〇五年起改稱「傳燈院」),使法鼓山的禪修弘化更朝向系統化、普及化推動,也成立研發單位,積極開發適合現代人的各式禪修活動。系列禪修課程主要包括:

- (1)基礎禪修課程(每堂二小時);
- (2) 戶外一日禪;
- (3) 初級禪訓班(每次為期四週共八小時);
- (4)精進禪一、禪二、禪三;
- (5) 初階、中階、高階、默照禪七、話頭禪七等;
- (6)平時每週在法鼓山體系內的各地分院、共修處,也都會安排兩小時的共修時段。

為因應廣大的教學需求量,僧團也需要更系統地培養帶禪修的人才,指導學員練習禪修,也需要培養居士成為講師,從遴選、講習、見習、實習等一連串嚴謹的培訓過程,都由僧團法師全程輔導,至二〇〇一年為止,共培訓了兩百多位講師。 6 僧團部分,也開始每年舉辦總護、小參培訓,培養全體僧眾領眾禪修弘化能力。海外禪修弘化與培訓部

^{● 〈}蓽路藍縷──前法鼓山時期〉,《1989~2001法鼓山年鑑──總論》,臺北:法鼓山佛教基金會,2005年,頁124。

分,一九九三至一九九四年果舫法師、果舟法師前往泰國法身寺參學,一九九八年果理法師前往新加坡帶領禪訓班,二○○○年果廣法師、果舫法師前往加拿大溫哥華、多倫多和美國加州帶領禪一、禪二,二○○○年法鼓山首次舉辦的「默照四十九」,也請臺灣的果廣法師、果舫法師和果光法師前往美國象岡道場支援。**⑥**

(三)成熟期(二〇〇一年~):制度化的學院教育與 弘化分工——學院式的解行並重教育

二〇〇一年,法鼓山僧伽大學成立。至此,法鼓山的僧眾教育於是分為僧伽大學的基礎教育,和僧團人才發展終身教育兩部分,僧眾教育於是進入更系統化和組織化的宗教師培養的成熟期(二〇〇一年~),有制度地培養戒定慧三學兼備的佛教人才。僧眾的養成,先是進入僧伽大學佛學院,完成兩年或四年的佛學院解行並重的基礎教育,當中除了戒律、教理、作務、行儀等佛教宗教師的基礎訓練,禪學與禪修課程是法鼓山僧眾養成教育的特色。自二〇〇五年法鼓山開山正式啟用,舉辦在禪堂的禪七及其他禪修推廣活動項目倍增。二〇〇六年,僧伽大學更增設六年制的禪學系,在僧眾養成基礎教育中提供更密集深入的禪修培育,儲備禪修推廣人才。

「僧團人才發展終身教育」則是僧伽大學畢業後領執的

筆者整理法鼓山僧眾禪修培養教育,請參見附表一。**●**附表二則為「二○○○年起禪修培訓項目與性別比例表」。**●**

三、禪宗法理、創辦人理念與性別議題

釋恆清指出,印度佛教傳到中國所發展出的八個宗派, 以禪宗持有最積極肯定的女性觀,許多禪師超越男女相, 顛覆中國傳統文化男尊女卑和佛教古老傳統「八敬法」,在 人性的本質、精神和宗教的成就上給予女性同樣的肯定。 因禪宗教理是奠基於般若空觀和本具的佛性論,否定了分別 相的本質存在,而是以「見性成佛」、「明心見性」的成佛 心性超越一切世間分別來教化眾生。禪宗持有最肯定的女性 觀,除了從它的教義與思想反映出來之外,也從歷史事蹟中 無分別相的男女平等觀、禪宗文獻資料如語錄、傳燈錄等, 記載了不少比丘尼禪師的傳記與法語,比丘尼在禪宗傳法印

進階教育,當中的禪修培訓包括初級禪訓班師資培訓、禪修 監香、總護及小參培訓、生活禪師資培訓、英文禪修師資培 訓等,步驟從培訓→見習→助教→師資,從學習到應用地逐 步訓練。學習目標是希望每位僧眾均能成為禪訓班師資、禪 坐共修帶領、禪一到禪七的監香、禪七總護、小參和國際禪 坐共修帶領等。

[☞] 同註❸, 頁124、133。

[♪] 資料來源:法鼓山三學院。二○○○年前禪修培訓資料不全,故不記錄。

❷ 釋恆清《菩提道上的善女人》,臺北:東大圖書,1995年,頁132-162。

[●] 同註●, 頁478、628-634。

心有著正統的法嗣地位。另外,禪籍中有不少出家和在家的 善女人與禪師針鋒相對的議論禪境,證悟境界絲毫不遜比丘 禪師;乃至於有更甚者,指點比丘而使其受到啟迪乃至於開 悟,如唐朝的末山了然禪師、實際禪師、明朝的祇園行剛禪 師,和諸多公案中所出現的「婆子」禪師等。��禪宗文獻裡 有關性別議題的男女相及其超越,唐朝的末山了然禪師與志 閑禪師的對話是一個典範的例子,依據《指月錄》卷十三記 載:

因灌溪閑和尚到,曰:「若相當即住,不然即推倒禪 牀。」便入堂內。師遣侍者問:「上座遊山來?為佛法 來?」溪曰:「為佛法來。」師乃陞座,溪上參。師問: 「上座今日離何處?」曰:「路口。」師曰:「何不盖 却?」溪無對,始禮拜。問:「如何是末山?」師曰:「不露頂。」曰:「如何是末山主?」師曰:「非男女相。」溪乃喝曰:「何不變去?」師曰:「不是神不是鬼,變個甚麼?」溪於是伏膺,作園頭三年。……溪住後上堂曰:「我在臨濟處得半杓,末山處得半杓,共成一杓喫了,直至如今飽不饑。」

廖肇亨說明這段公案如下:唐朝灌溪志閑為臨濟義玄的 高徒,當時四處參學。一日到了末山尼的寺院,在遇到末 山尼前,他說,如果是大善知識,才有資格住此山,否則就 將這住持推下去。灌溪志閑入堂後,末山尼得知光天化日下 竟有人來踢館,先派侍者帶話給灌溪志閑:「上座為遊山還 是為佛法而來?」灌溪志閑回答為佛法而來。既然是為了佛 法,就應按照禪林規矩來。於是末口尼升座,讓灌溪志閑上 參,灌溪志閑這時只有問禮但並不拜下。末山尼問灌溪志 閑:「上座今日從哪裡來?」此句暗含對方搞不清楚狀況。 灌溪志閑答:「從路口來。」這樣的回答的確還未能做自己 的主人。末山尼即說:「為什麼不蓋住路口?」意指為何不 走出自己的道路呢?灌溪志閑無言以對,終於甘願拜下頂 禮。灌溪志閑接著問:「什麼是末山?」即問末山的境界是 什麼?末山尼說:「不露頂。」此表示境界高深,非你能知 道。灌溪志閑又問:「末山的主人是誰?」此指閣下到底有 何本領可以住持此山?末山尼问答:「非男女相。」此表示

[●] 有關明末清初女禪師的相關研究,可參見蘇美文〈明末清初「女性禪師語錄」的出版與入藏——兼論《嘉興藏》的入藏問題〉,《臺灣宗教研究》,第4卷第1期,2005年6月,頁113-174;〈女性禪師的道影——從「寫真與名言」採析祇園禪師之形象〉,《臺大佛學研究中心學報》第10期,臺北:臺灣大學文學院佛學研究中心,2005年7月,頁235-286;〈伏獅女禪:祇園之禪教化與性別智〉,《臺大佛學研究中心學報》第15期,臺北:臺灣大學文學院佛學研究中心,2008年6月,頁139-204;〈女禪合響:寶持與祖揆之行傳考述〉,《新世紀宗教研究》第7卷第1期,臺北:宗博出版社,2008年9月,頁36-89;〈夢寒霜月冷師門:義公禪師之修悟教化與繼席伏獅〉,《臺北大學中文學報》第6期,臺北:臺北大學中國語文學系,2009年3月,頁37-84。有關禪宗燈錄記載在家女性,所謂「禪婆」與禪師的機鋒對話研究,可參考黃敬家〈智慧的女性形象——禪門燈錄中禪婆與禪師的對話〉,《臺大佛學研究中心學報》第9期,臺北:臺灣大學文學院佛學研究中心,2004年7月,頁127-154。

② CBETA, X83, no. 1578, p. 543, b10-16 °

已超越男女相,不是用色相來求。灌溪志閑於是大聲喝道:「不是男也不是女,那為何不變化去?」末山尼面對這突然的大喝嚇,氣定神閒地回答:「不是神不是鬼,變個什麼?」暗含足下已經墮三惡道,還麼囂張。神態安然而話鋒凌厲的末山尼於是讓灌溪志閑折服。灌溪志閑因此留在末山尼座下做了三年的園頭種菜。之後灌溪志閑明白表示:「在臨濟處那得半杓,末山這得半杓,共成一杓,飲飽至今從未餓過。」表示對灌溪志閑來說,末山了然與臨濟義玄完全等量齊觀。❷

釋恆清認為,此公案呈現三個特點:第一,一位男性禪僧在求法的過程,願意打破所學的佛教戒律,和有得的尼僧頂禮學習;第二,當他得道時,公開他的成就由尼僧所教;第三,此公案呈現出禪宗肯定女性修道的超越性。❸

筆者在此提出以下的探討重點:

- 1. 禪宗傳統中較具開放的性別觀,在現代呈現何等面貌?
- 2. 從佛教傳統僧尼二眾倫理到當代兩性平等與女性自 覺,從古代叢林道場到現代佛教現代化組織經營管理,在傳 統與現代之間,禪宗與性別的交涉又有何關係?

3. 尤其是臺灣佛教比丘尼的特殊現象,其中法鼓山比丘 尼的禪修的培養與弘化又有何特殊性?這樣的特殊性又如何 解釋?

戴愛蓮指出,臺灣比丘尼僧團從未形成單一整齊的團體,因此,他們彼此之間的性別認同和兩性平權觀念有著很大的不同。一方面臺灣佛教是一種「去中心化」的領導架構,相對於中國大陸有著統一領導中心的「中國佛教協會」,臺灣則是隨著民主化和經濟成長,各道場憑自己的募款能力和號召力經營,也因此發展出迥然不同的道風。@除了去中心化的臺灣佛教多元發展特色,另一方面,佛教的宗教性別觀也與社會性別概念呈現平行、對立或完全不同的複雜關係。李玉珍指出,佛教強調勿執著色相,但同時也並存經典中複雜的性別觀(從負面的醜化女性如女眾八十四醜態,到正面肯定女性如龍女成佛等),加上佛門強調出家乃「大丈夫事」,使得比丘尼性別意識更趨複雜。每此部分即就禪宗法理、道場創辦人理念與性別議題交涉關係討論如下。

(一) 創辦人的理念

莎莉·金(Sallie King)指出,臺灣「人間佛教」如慈濟、佛光山和法鼓山致力於佛教改革與現代化,將清末民初佛教消極追求來生或神鬼護佑的出世性格,轉化成積極入

[●] 廖肇亨〈棒風喝月走煙雲──明末女禪旗手祇園行剛〉,《人生》雜誌第359期,2013年7月,頁108-112。

❸ Heng-Ching Shih, "Chinese Bhiksunis in the Ch'an Tradition",《臺大哲學論評》第15期,臺北:臺灣大學哲學系,1992年1月,頁181-207。

Elise Anne DeVido, Taiwan Buddhist Nuns, State University of New York Press, Albany, 2010, 7.

⁴⁹ 同註2 , 頁507。

世,強調理性、倫理、自我轉變,在此生可透過實踐得到個 人和世界的幸福。其中,聖嚴法師是唯一有國外留學經驗和 最多西方弘化經歷的佛教大師。發在臺灣「人間佛教」道場 呈現出的不同道風上,理查·麥德遜(Richard Madsen)比 較慈濟、佛光山和法鼓山,認為法鼓山因為以禪修為主要法 門,禪修本身具有的普世特性,不同文化背景的人均能修行 受益,所以和其他道場比較,較少中國儒家文化色彩,而能 超越道場所在地文化環境的局限。麥德遜認為,當從事禪法 的修持時,修行者是練習放下妄念,放下自我,也就是放下 人我分別的平等觀照實踐。也因此,修禪者會逐漸對生命中 那些約定成俗的傳統文化背景和社會機制,如家庭、族群, 甚至 國族等執取放下,將自我重新與世界整合,向超越自我 的普世原則邁進。●麥德遜的論點頗具說服力,事實顯示禪修 在當代受到西方和其他不同文化背景人士的歡迎,也證明其 普世特質,但他沒有解釋為什麼同樣是推廣禪修的中台山和 佛光山,其道風仍有著濃厚的中國傳統文化色彩?

筆者認為法鼓山的禪風呈現超越中國傳統文化的普世性 格,主要是和聖嚴法師的個人生命歷程有關。聖嚴法師自 一九七五年赴美弘法,因美國的中西方人士對禪修極感興趣 並想學習的因緣,使得聖嚴法師將本是個人修行的禪法,成為接引的主要方式,而以禪師聞名。在當代臺灣佛教四大道場創辦人當中,聖嚴法師是唯一出國留學者,其三十年的弘化生涯,一半時間在美國,一半時間在臺灣,因其國際化的求學與弘化背景,他的思想與弘化風格,也呈現有別於中國傳統的現代化取向,特別是在禪法世界弘化的豐富經驗,對世界佛教的發展與動向洞悉明察,其禪風雖以漢傳禪佛教為基礎,卻適應西方和其他不同族群。聖嚴法師提出的說法是:法鼓山的禪法,繼承了臨濟、曹洞兩大法脈合流,整合印度及漢傳諸宗的同異點,並吸收韓國、日本、越南的禪法的實用面,乃至南傳內觀法門、藏傳的次第修法,重新整理漢傳佛教的傳統再出發,承襲傳統禪法之外再創新。因此,建立「法鼓宗」的目的,除了使禪佛教與相關義理之學互通,更為了使禪佛教與世界佛教會通,接納並發揮世界各系佛教之所長,成為未來世界整體佛教中的一大主流。❷

綜上所述,聖嚴法師深受漢傳禪佛教影響,除了具有禪 宗開放超越的性格,更重要的原因是他本身也有長年的禪 法弘化的國際經歷,使得他所帶領的僧眾教育方面,顯現出 平等的兩性觀,男女二眾具有同等的僧教育機會、責任與義 務。

^{❷ Sallie B. King, "Engaged Buddhism and Humanistic Buddhism: A Comparison of Principles and Practices,"《人間佛教及參與佛教的模式與展望》,高雄:佛光山文教基金會,2009年,頁422-445。}

Richard Madsen, Democracy's Dharma: Religious Renaissance and Political Development in Taiwan, Berkeley: University of California Press, 2007, 89.

^{●《}承先啟後的中華禪法鼓宗》,臺北:法鼓山文化中心,2006年10月, 頁53-54。

(二)解脫、領眾上的性別平等觀

法鼓山為禪修道場,僧眾教育受到禪宗破除「分別相」的教法,相較於臺灣佛教其他道場,性別觀也更為平等與開放。法鼓山禪七的領眾,主要並非以性別為考量,而是以領眾的能力與禪修體驗為主。僧眾的性別觀,也在禪修的氛圍下,顯得較開放與灑脫。就臺灣佛教整體而言,仍受到佛教經典中提到的女性負面特質影響,如部分大小乘經典中所呈現「修行上的女性厭惡主義」,強調女性身心的「污穢」、「過患」,凸顯「女垢」,藉以對女色產生厭惡,以利男性清淨梵行之修行,佛教教界中對女性特質以「女態」等負面形容來本質化女性,認為女性先天就在修行上較男眾有更多的障礙,修證上也不如男眾,但法鼓山比丘尼卻大多認為,在修行上男女眾沒有差別。

筆者的訪談呈現法鼓山比丘尼的經驗與說法,例如果舫 法師(一九八六年受戒)說:

在修行的觀念上來說應該是男女平等,但在實際的應 用上有些方法對女眾來說是比較不方便,如在塚間修不淨 觀。

常悅法師(二〇〇七年受戒)說:

佛法修行我沒有特別去想男女眾的差異,基本上我是認 為沒有差異的。如果真的有差異,那我想知道那是什麼? 要怎麼修,突破這些障礙。

對於佛教中強調的「大丈夫相」,蘇美文引用提婆《大丈夫論》第二卷,說明「大丈夫」在佛教中並無性別意涵:

唯能作福無智無悲,名為丈夫;有福有智,名善丈夫; 若修福、修悲、修智,名大丈夫。❷

蘇美文指出提婆的《大丈夫論》中,丈夫是指能作福,卻無智、無悲。能修福、修慧、修智的才是大丈夫。蘇美文認為,「丈夫」、「大丈夫」都沒有性別的意涵,但落在社會性別文化、使用字詞的傾向,都隱隱約約黏上男性印象,而有朝向這樣的男性形象為優的意識型態。如不同於蘇美文對提婆《大丈夫論》中「大丈夫」的詮釋,李玉珍分析佛教譬喻文學中,認為「大丈夫身」指的是男性聖人的身體,又分析律部中,「丈夫」指的是男性化的身體,並非是沒有影射性別意涵。如另外,戴愛蓮的研究中指出,臺灣佛教界傾向性別本質化,強調男女眾先天上的差異,大丈夫相則被歸為

②《大正藏》冊30,臺北:白馬精舍,頁265中。

[●]蘇美文〈女性禪師的道影──從「寫真與名言」探析祇園禪師之形象〉,《臺大佛學研究中心學報》第10期,臺北:臺灣大學文學院佛學研究中心,2005年7月,頁259。

[●] 李玉珍〈佛教譬喻文學中的男女美色與情慾──追求美麗的宗教意涵〉 之「佛教分解的身體觀」,《新史學》第10卷第4期,1999年,頁31-65, 尤其是頁56、59。

男眾的特質,女眾在佛法修行尚需去掉女性的負面特質如愛嫉妒、比較等才能達到理想。❸但法鼓山比丘尼卻對性別本質主義有著不同的看法,不以性別本質論來看待佛教修行成就的大丈夫相,而是回到「大丈夫相」所指具備某些特質的意義,並不限於男性,具有顛覆性別角色和本質主義的意涵。一位女眾法師說:

如果女眾有女態,男眾也有男態啊!修行是要去掉這些相,忸怩或是粗暴都不好。

果會法師(一九九七年受戒)說:

個人覺得不是說女眾天生就怎樣, 男眾天生就怎樣, 女 眾也會有男眾特質, 男眾也會有女眾特質。在修行或禪修 上,我不會特別去想到男女眾有什麼差別。

常崇法師(二〇〇九年受戒)說:

若一個女眾很女性化或是太男性化會讓人覺得很怪,男 眾也一樣,如果男眾動作女性化或是一些像健美先生的體 格動作,看起來會怪怪的。

筆者的訪談結果,發現法鼓山尼眾的性別觀有著趨近「非二元性」或「中性」的特質。大多數的女眾法師被問到是否有與性別相關的修行與弘化經驗時,多數人認為男女眾在修行與領眾上沒有差別,或是回答:「沒有特別去想性別的事。」甚至一位女眾法師在訪談時,很認真的詢問筆者:「請問女眾與男眾有什麼地方不一樣嗎?」

法鼓山做為當代禪宗道場,其性別觀的開放與流動性,一方面顛覆中國傳統重男輕女,與佛教傳統男性優越的價值觀,一方面也相應於佛教中所強調的中性的大丈夫相,與禪宗超越性別的「無分別相」。雖然大多數法鼓山尼眾的性別觀有著趨近非二元性或中性的特質,但也有少數的法鼓山尼眾法師認為男女眾在體質方面有先天的差別,譬如體力和生理期所帶來的不便,使得女性修行上比男性有較多的考量。但對於女性「因生理上的因素而在修行比男性多障礙」這樣的看法,也有法師持不同意見,認為禪修基本上就是「開發潛能」。常印法師(二〇〇九年受戒)說:

師父說禪修能開發潛能,我們不應該去局限女性各方面無限的潛能。舉例來說,女眾的體力真的比較差嗎? 像我認識的(法鼓山的)某某法師,個子小(小的),力氣卻很大,有些需要兩個人搬的東西,他一個人就可以輕鬆完成。我們道場呈現出來的道風是比較傾向兩性平等的關係,沒有給人一種男女眾有高低地位凸顯的感覺,而是一種

❷ Elise Anne DeVido 戴愛蓮〈臺灣的性別本質主義與當地佛教的發展〉("Taiwan's Gender Essentialism and the Development of Taiwan's Buddhism"),玄奘大學等編輯《宗教文化與性別倫理》,臺北:法界出版社,2008年,頁313-352。

互相尊重的關係,可能是因為我們是禪修道場。出家修行 是修大丈夫相,大丈夫是一種精神,像是獨立、不依賴等 等,而非生理的特質,大丈夫不是要你陽剛,而是運用禪 修內斂的精神,內斂回來觀照自己的身語意,開發出潛能。

(三)以「般若空觀」解構性別本質化

戴愛蓮認為,臺灣佛教大師如星雲法師、聖嚴法師等,雖然大力支持佛教女性教育與比丘尼戒的傳承與恢復等議題,但在性別議題上,仍訴諸本質主義的說法,強調女性為人妻子、母親的天性,較男性更願意為家庭犧牲,支持丈夫的事業,照顧小孩等這樣的天性,抑制女性修行發展的潛力。每相反地,臺灣佛教性別本質化的另一面,則是正面強調女眾例如柔韌、母性等特質,較容易和佛教所強調的慈悲相應,而因此有女眾更適合佛教修行的性別本質化結論。盧蕙馨指出,慈濟證嚴法師認為有愛心、憐憫、慈悲的心腸是女性的特質,女性應該發揮這些特質,不只照顧私領域的家庭,而是照顧所有眾生,將女性的能量發揮在公領域慈善事業上。每慈濟的道風上,發揮傳統女性付出與照顧的角色,轉化為佛教慈悲關懷的利他實踐,從中有著將「世俗家庭」神聖化至「宗教家庭」的轉化,慈濟的道場組織與信眾互動中所呈現出的「家庭宗教化」和「宗教家庭化」特色,這之中

女性扮演著重要關鍵。❸但女性選擇出家修行,擺脫為人妻、 為人母的傳統女性角色,這意味著性別本質論述仍存在嗎?

聖嚴法師在帶領出家弟子的要求上,仍存在性別本質主 義的思想嗎?常印法師認為:

其實師父在帶弟子時是沒有性別預設的,我在聽師父過去早期的早齋開示,師父問現場的一些法師說:某某師,你對自己有沒有自信?某某師,你呢?這幾位是女眾法師,師父知道重男輕女的社會化過程中,女眾較會對自己的信心不夠,但師父說某某師要對自己有信心。修行是要對自己有信心的,禪修就是可以將每個人的潛能開發出來。

聖嚴法師認為禪的修行第一要有大信心,第二要有大願心,第三要有大憤心,和第四要有大疑情。❸信心是第一個,要相信本來就是平等、不二的統一,然後再依法修行。因此禪修是要突破各種二元對立,包括性別二元的本質主義。

從十九世紀自由主義女性主義(liberal feminism)開

❸ 同註❷, 頁339。

[●] 盧蕙馨〈現代佛教女性的身體語言與性別重建:以慈濟功德會為例〉, 《中央研究院民族學研究所集刊》第88期,2000年,頁275-311。

❸ 盧蕙馨〈「家庭宗教化」與「宗教家庭化」──佛教女性的信仰實踐〉,《中國家庭及其倫理研討會論文集》,臺北:漢學研究中心,1999年,頁295-319。

[●] 聖嚴法師《信心銘講錄》:「禪的修行第一要有大信心,第二要有大願心,第三要有大憤心,第四要有大疑情。所以先有信心是對的,相信本來就是統一的,也就是相信『一種』,然後再依法修行。……〈信心銘〉教人修行的方法,平等、不二就是修行用功的起點。」(臺北:法鼓文化,2005年,頁32。)

始,女性主義即強調女性與男性一樣具有理性、爭取法 律、教育的平等權。到七〇年代開始強調性別差異(gender difference),一方面訴諸將女性被視為「先天」的負面女性 特質正面化的本質主義(essentialism),另一方面提出反本 質主義 (anti-essentialism) 的性別差異社會建構論 (social constructionism)。 **3**自九〇年代後,從女性主義、酷兒研 究(queer studies)和文化研究等,對身體(body)的研究 均有著反本質主義的傾向。他們拒絕生理決定論(biological determinism),認為身體是社會建構的產物,將身體與文 化對立,視身體為不動的自然物質,而文化是動態變化的 (body/nature/fixed:mind/culture/dynamic)。賽菊蔻(Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick)、茱蒂絲·巴特勒(Judith Butler)和伊 莉莎白·葛羅斯(Elizabeth Grosz)對性別的研究,則進一步 挑戰被視為「固定不變」(fixed)的生理性別,他們視身體 本身並非固定不變,身體本身是動態(dynamic)形塑的,不 是固定不變的物質而是動態的(mattering),更徹底地解構性 別本質主義。 33

禪宗非男非女的宗教性別觀,則是以佛教般若空觀的角

度解構性別,對當代性別研究,應可開展出更新的對話空間。

四、結語

在禪宗文獻記載下來的女性禪師雖然不多,其證悟與教 化事蹟,卻足以證明佛教主張「眾生平等」,以及禪宗的空 義、「無男女相」、「本具佛性」等理念,已具體實踐於漢 傳佛教歷史中。當代漢傳佛教在臺灣的復興,女性成為「人 間佛教」推動的主力,女性與禪法修證和弘化的關係,成為 一有趣的課題。法鼓山做為臺灣弘揚漢傳禪佛教的主要道場 之一,比丘尼三十年來的學禪與弘化,從最初萌芽期創辦人 聖嚴法師親自指導,建構期以學徒式的方式培養禪修人才, 到成熟期制度化的學院教育與弘化分工,法鼓山比丘尼受創 辦人聖嚴法師國際觀的弘禪理念影響,擁有著相較於臺灣乃 至中國其他弘禪道場更豐厚的禪法教學、培養環境和弘化的 機會。

聖嚴法師分析,二十一世紀的佛教一大趨勢,即是成為世界的佛教,這世界佛教既非藏傳,也非南傳、漢傳,而是各傳統有著融合的趨勢,這樣的一股趨勢正由西方社會帶動。❸見晉法師認為,聖嚴法師提倡漢傳禪佛教與中華禪法鼓宗這樣相當先進和開創的思想,它的內涵與落實還需要在教理、行持與制度上具體落實,才能夠真正成為現代的佛教宗

[●] 顧燕翎主編《女性主義理論與流派》,臺北:女書文化,1996年,頁 130。

Dudith Butler, Bodies that matter: on the Discursive Limits of "Sex", New York: Routledge, 1993. Elizabeth Grosz, Volatile Bodies: toward a Corporeal Feminism, Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1994. Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick, Touching Feeling: Affect, Pedagogy, Performativity, Durham and London: Duke University Press, 2003.

❸ 〈漢傳佛教的未來──開合涵融的世界性佛教〉,聖嚴法師訪談紀錄, 釋諦融整理,1999年1月9日,法鼓山文化中心。

派。⑩法鼓宗在佛教全球化的趨勢下,面臨全球倫理的各項社會正義(social justice)課題,如兩性平等、環保、經濟發展和平等,必須在其所提倡的教育、禪修與現代化僧團制度有其適當的回應,才能在全球化趨於世界佛教的發展中,不被世界洪流所淘汰,完成弘揚漢傳禪佛教、推動世界淨化的志願。

在全球化的視野下,漢傳佛教保存比丘尼傳承,使得女性宗教師在漢傳佛教,相對於藏傳和南傳佛教,有更高的宗教地位。隨著西方女性佛教徒要求女性老師指導修行的呼聲愈高,漢傳佛教比丘尼一方面可滿足世界佛教注重兩性宗教地位平等的呼聲,另一方面其內部系統性的禪修培養和「人間佛教」豐富的弘化經驗,均對世界佛教女性禪法的修行與教育,有著豐厚的貢獻潛力。從禪宗「無相」的修行與實踐,到組織管理運作的現實考驗,法鼓山僧眾如何在禪宗無分別、中國父系文化、佛教傳統男尊女卑概念、以及現代社會兩性平等觀念,乃至於臺灣比丘尼所呈現的臺灣奇蹟——一股巨大的弘法能量之間,找到一平衡點和智慧?並為漢傳佛教復興、現代化和世界和平做出貢獻,值得更多的深思與探討。

附表一: 法鼓山僧眾禪修培養教育表

教育階段	學習內容	學習目標
基礎教育(僧伽學,學佛學,不)等。	禪學:禪定學概論、大乘禪法、禪宗法脈、禪林寶訓、禪宗經論導讀、聖嚴法師《禪門修證指要》與《禪門驪珠集》研讀等禪修:禪修(一)到(四),如數習、默照、話頭、念佛、止觀方法教授禪學系:另加宗教師禪修培訓項目	初級禪訓班師資 禪學系:另加禪七 總護、小參和國際 禪坐共修帶領師資
進階教育 (宗教師 教育)	初級禪訓班師資培訓,禪修監香、 總護及小參培訓、生活禪師資培訓、 英文禪修師資培訓等 (步驟:培訓→見習→助教→師資)	初級與中級禪訓班 師資、禪坐共修帶 領、禪一、禪七的 監香、禪七總護、 小參和國際禪坐共 修帶領

附表二:法鼓山二○○○年起禪修培訓項目與性別比例表

日期	地點	項目	培訓人數❹
2000年12月	農禪寺法堂	初級禪訓班師資培訓❷	男 4 (2T) 女 16 (3T)
2001年6月	土城教育訓練 中心	初級禪訓班師資培訓	男 6 (3T) 女 15 (3T)
2001年11月	農禪寺	(禪一)監香法師培訓 ❸	男 4 (2T) 女 13 (3T)

♠ T:師資,師資不包括在培訓人數內。

● 培訓宗旨:為推廣本寺禪風,提昇禪訓班師資水準,統一教材內容,維持教學品質及培訓禪訓班師資人才,期能培育出具內修外弘的僧才。

母培訓宗旨:為推廣本寺禪風,提昇禪修水準,統一教材內容,維持禪堂

[●] 見晉法師之語見於釋果光、釋常悟〈悲願傳承──法鼓山尼僧教育之回顧與展望〉一文之後,題為「回應人:見晉法師·香光書香出版社編輯」,收在香光尼眾佛學院主編《比丘尼的天空:2009佛教僧伽教育國際研討會論文集》,臺北:伽耶山基金會,2010年,頁139。

日期	地點	項目	培訓人數
2003年11月	農禪寺	初級禪訓班師資培訓	男 1 (1T) 女 8 (3T)
2003年12月	農禪寺	監香法師培訓	男 1 (1T) 女 8 (3T)
2005年5月	法鼓山臨時寮 大殿	「法鼓山生活禪系列」 法師師資培訓(第一 梯)❹	男 9(2T) 女 24
2005年7月	土城教育訓練中心	「法鼓山生活禪系列」 法師師資培訓(第二 梯)	男 2 (3T) 女 16
2005年5月	法鼓山禪堂	法鼓山大禪堂監香培訓	男 2 (5T) 女 31 (4T)
2005年12月	法鼓山禪堂	法鼓山僧團總護、小參 初階培訓 ⑤	男 2 (3T) 女 4
2006年2月	法鼓山禪堂	法鼓山僧團總護、小參 進階培訓	男 3 (3T) 女 4
2006年4月	法鼓山禪堂	「法鼓山生活禪系列」 法師師資培訓(第三 梯)	男 4(3T) 女 7

品質及培訓監香法師,期能培育出具內修外弘的僧才。

- 培訓宗旨:為培養法鼓山未來大普化教育──各類生活禪──法師師資, 以期能將法鼓山的禪法推廣至社會各個角落,希望僧團法師們都能成為 各類生活禪的推動者。
- ❸ 培訓宗旨:1.為培養法鼓山帶領禪修之總護及小參人員,並使總護及小參之作業流程標準,以期提昇禪修品質,養成帶領、指導禪修之人才。2. 希望所培養之總護及小參皆能於未來法鼓山禪修擔任總護或小參。3.參加培訓之法師依三學院安排,於各禪期中參與見習或實習。

日期	地點	項目	培訓人數
2006年10月	法鼓山禪堂	「法鼓山生活禪系列」 法師師資培訓(第四 梯)	男 0 (3T) 女 11
2007年11月	法鼓山禪堂	國際禪修師資培訓❻	男 5 (2T) 女13
2009年2月	法鼓山園區國 際宴會廳	國際禪修師資培訓	男 4 (2T) 女 14 (4T)

毎 培訓目的: 1. 為法鼓山國際禪修師資儲備人才。2. 為IMG, Taiwan培訓師資。

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The Making of a Modern Female Chan Teacher:

Buddhist Nuns in Dharma Drum Mountain

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Abstract

Chinese Buddhism has the world's oldest and continuous bhikshuni sangha tradition. In contemporary society, Taiwan is home to both greatest number of female monastics (about 15,000), largest proportion of nuns and monks (3:1), and the most diverse bhikshuni communities in the world, a situation unprecedented in world Buddhist history. The outstanding accomplishment of Taiwan bhikshunis in fields such as charity, education, art, culture, as well as Buddhist social movements attracts scholars to do researches on Taiwan Buddhist nuns since the past two decades. About the issues of women in Chan Buddhism, though not totally neglected, studies are limited to pre-modern literary and historical analysis and lack of empirical finding. What is the real practice of Buddhist women, their subjective perception of Chan, and their substantive pedagogy demands us to do further inquiry. This article explores a historically significant but under-studied phenomenon of women religious practice in contemporary Chinese Buddhism. My research focuses on the bhikshuni sangha of Dharma Drum Mountain (DDM)—women who live in a Chan Buddhist monastery in contemporary Taiwan-and its making of modern female Chan teachers. This research draws from my ethnography of the DDM bhikshuni sangha, personal interviews, DDM's historical archives, and literatures review. Through the exploration of this work, I will show that along with the open space on women in Taiwan

Buddhism, DDM founder, Shengyen's international Chan vision and modernism, as well as the Mahayana doctrine of egalitarianism and Chan sudden enlightenment, it creates a institutional and systematic Chan cultivation, pedagogy and propagation for women, a chance unprecedented for Chan women in the past.

Key words: buddhist women, Chan, Taiwan buddhism, Dharma Drum Mountain, Master Shengyen

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