# 書評

# Reviews

*The Resurrected Skeleton: From Zhuangzi to Lu Xun*. By Wilt L. Idema, New York: Columbia University Press, 2014. Pp.v+333.

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伊維德 (Wilt L. Idema) 教授長期致力於將中國俗文學納入到古典文學研究的範疇內。在宇文所安 (Stephen Owen) 和孫康宜 (Kang-i Sun Chang) 二〇一〇年所編的《劍橋中國文學史》(Cambridge History of Chinese Literature) 中,伊維德教授集中討論了各個時代說唱文學的歷史演變,如金代的諸宮調、明清的寶卷、道情、詞話;還介紹了北方的鼓詞、子弟書、大鼓、快書;江南一帶的彈詞、清曲、山歌,以及使用方言的地方表演文學,如廣東的木魚書、客家的竹板歌、湖南的江永女書¹。很多受歡迎的民間故事都在不同的歷史時期、說唱傳統中有各種各樣的版本。近十年來,伊維德教授系統地介紹、翻譯了這樣一批家喻戶曉的故事,如董永遇仙女、木蘭從軍、梁山伯與祝英台、孟姜女哭長城、觀音的前身妙善公主、包公判案,以及有關客家民謠和甘肅地區寶卷的譯著。哥倫比亞大學於二〇一四年出版的 The Resurrected Skeleton: From Zhuangzi to Lu Xun(《髑髏還魂——從莊周到魯迅》,下文簡稱《髑髏還魂》)一書中,伊維德教授介紹了「莊子遇髑髏」這個主題兩千年來跨越一系列文體的演變:從先秦諸子的《莊

<sup>1</sup> 參見 Wilt L. Idema, "Prosimetric and Verse Narrative," *The Cambridge History of Chinese Literature*, edited by Kang-i Sun Chang and Stephen Owen (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2010), vol. 2, pp. 343-412。另見該書的中譯本,伊維德:〈說唱文學〉,孫康宜、宇文所安編,劉倩等譯:《劍橋中國文學史·下卷 (1375-1949)》(北京:三聯書店,2013 年)。

子》到漢魏文人的詩賦;從元雜劇到明代的道情、南雜劇;清代的子弟書、寶卷;直到現代文學之父魯迅(1881-1936)的話劇。一方面《髑髏還魂》又塡補了一個中國古代表演文學英譯的空白,而另一方面,該書也因其跨越雅、俗之界,博采衆體而有別於伊維德教授其它的俗文學翻譯。莊周(約公元前三世紀在世) 遇髑髏的故事出自《莊子·至樂篇》:

莊子之楚,見空髑髏,髐然有形,撽以馬捶,因而問之曰:「夫子貪生失理,而爲此乎?將子有亡國之事,斧鉞之誅,而爲此乎?將子有不善之行,愧遺父母妻子之醜,而爲此乎?將子有凍餒之患,而爲此乎?將子之春秋故及此乎?」於是語卒,援髑髏,枕而臥。夜半,髑髏見夢曰:「子之談者似辯士。視子所言,皆生人之累也,死則無此矣。子欲聞死之說乎?」莊子曰:「然。」髑髏曰:「死,無君於上,無臣於下,亦無四時之事,從然以天地爲春秋,雖南面王樂,不能過也。」莊子不信,曰:「吾使司命復生子形,爲子骨肉肌膚,反子父母妻子、閭里知識,子欲之

乎?」髑髏深矉蹙頻曰:「吾安能棄南面王樂而復爲人間之勞乎?」<sup>2</sup> 此篇故事前有莊子妻死,其「鼓盆而歌」事,後有列子遇百歲髑髏事<sup>3</sup>,都探討生死「相與爲春秋冬夏四時行」的道理。漢魏文人如張衡 (79-139) 撰有〈髑髏賦〉、曹植 (192-232) 有〈髑髏說〉、呂安(卒年 263)亦有〈髑髏賦〉。然而這些詩人卻無一例外地,選擇將骷髏重新埋葬,似乎對《莊子》中髑髏有關「南面王樂」的論述心存疑慮。此後這一命題似乎就退出了文學創作,直到全眞教創始人王重陽 (1112-1170) 畫〈骷髏圖〉,並留下一系列詩作:〈自畫骷髏〉、〈畫骷髏警馬珏〉、〈嘆骷髏〉等。其弟子譚處端 (1123-1185) 有〈骷髏歌〉,馬珏(1123-1183) 也有骷髏題材的〈滿庭芳〉詞勸世。

伊維德教授將這些全眞詞作爲莊子嘆髑髏故事的一個重要分支,放置於宋金宗教、視覺文化語境下考察。唐代佛教密宗中雖有「髑髏法」,然而在中原並沒有普遍流傳<sup>4</sup>,因此全眞教的嘆髑髏詞植根於金、元時期骷髏主題的普遍性。比

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> [清] 郭慶藩著,王孝魚點校:〈至樂〉,《莊子集釋》(北京:中華書局,1961年), 頁617-619。

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> 列子見百歲髑髏故事亦見於《列子·天瑞篇》。參見 Wilt L. Idema, *The Resurrected Skeleton: From Zhuangzi to Lu Xun* (New York: Columbia University Press, 2014), p. 42,注6。

<sup>4</sup> 康保成曾撰文討論明末清初《南曲九宮正始》中提到的《骷髏格》與佛教、道教法事及宣卷中所唱「嘆骷髏」的關係。參見康保成:〈《髑髏格》的眞僞與淵源新探〉,《文學遺產》,2003 年第 2 期,頁 102-103。Idema, The Resurrected Skeleton: From Zhuangzi

方說北宋都城東京的勾欄演出,就有如鍾馗滅鬼的相似題材。此外宋代文人也常爲骷髏圖題辭,如蘇軾 (1037-1101)的〈髑髏贊〉以及黃庭堅 (1045-1105)的〈髑髏頌〉。其中最出名的當爲李嵩(約 1190-1230)的〈髑髏幻戲圖〉(伊維德的《髑髏還魂》以此畫爲封面),畫上題有黃公望 (1269-1354)「題李嵩髑髏納扇圖」的〈醉中天〉小令5。由此看來,全真道士以骷髏勸世實在是利用了宋、金、元時期現行的文化元素。

金元院本、雜劇中有史樟(字敬先,1240-1288)所撰《老莊周一枕蝴蝶夢》,搬演《莊子·齊物論》中莊周夢蝶故事。有可能涉及莊子遇髑髏情節的,唯有元代劇作家李壽卿(生卒年不詳)的雜劇《鼓盆歌莊子嘆髑髏》,然而現存的第一折曲詞中並沒有提到這個故事。晚明張祿(十六世紀)的戲曲雜書《詞林摘艷》丙集中有呂景儒(生卒年不詳)的北般涉調【要孩兒】散套,講述莊子遇髑髏故事。這個套數在後來的演變中,更增加了莊子令髑髏還魂的情節——復活後的髑髏恩將仇報,將莊周告到衙門,要其償還包裹、雨傘,迫使莊周將這忘恩負義之徒變回枯骨。刊刻於明萬曆三十九年(1611)的戲曲選集《摘錦奇音》中,就有選自明傳奇《皮囊記》的散出十八首曲子,講述莊周遇髑髏、髑髏還魂、變回原貌、縣官棄職修行的故事。明末清初(十七世紀)的道教道情故事顯然也處理同一題材,如馮夢龍(1574-1646)話本小說《醒世恆言》中的〈李道人獨步雲門〉提到「莊子嘆髑髏一段話文」,不過並沒有提供相關的文本:丁耀亢(1599-1669)的白話小說《續金瓶梅》第四十八回〈蓮淨度梅玉出家,瘸子聽骷髏入道〉中,則有一段頗爲完整的莊子嘩髑髏道情表演。

然而明清的創作者更鍾情的是莊子試妻的故事。馮夢龍《警世通言》中的〈莊子休鼓盆成大道〉講述莊子的妻子痛斥扇墳寡婦薄情寡義,自己卻沒能通過丈夫的考驗:她在誤認莊子已死後,立刻移情於一美少年,並不惜斧劈丈夫遺體,取腦以爲心上人「治病」。最後在得知美少年乃自己的丈夫幻術所變後,羞愧自殺。十八、十九世紀,子弟書在北京、瀋陽大受滿族士夫的歡迎,其中就有四種都改編自這篇話本。另外,清中葉(十八世紀)在婦女內閩中流傳甚廣的寶卷,也多取材莊周髑髏環魂一節。一直到二十世紀,京劇、寶卷,甚至相聲——

to Lu Xun, p. 44,注 27 亦徵引。伊維德還於同頁注二十六中指出敦煌莫高窟中有全身骷髏的畫像,且敦煌寫本中也有以死屍爲觀想的詩歌。參見鄭阿財:〈敦煌寫本九想觀詩歌新探〉,《鄭阿財敦煌佛教文獻與文學研究》(上海:上海古籍出版社,2011年),頁 276-304。

<sup>5</sup> 李嵩還有其它有關髑髏題材的畫作,可惜只有〈髑髏幻戲圖〉傳世。

例如郭德綱的快板〈太平歌詞〉——都還在搬演這一故事。

伊維德教授的翻譯選自這些不同時期、體裁的代表作,其中大部頭的是三部晚明至清初的作品。第一部是現存唯一的明代道情,萬曆晚期昆陵舜逸山人杜蕙(生卒年不詳)編的《新編增補評林莊子嘆髑髏南北詞曲》兩卷。伊維德教授以日本著名藏書家長澤規矩也 (1902-1980) 的雙紅堂文庫所藏鈔本(現藏日本東京大學東洋文庫)爲底本。然而東京的大東急記念文庫保存有完整的刻本,很可能就是雙紅堂所存鈔本的母本6。第二部是丁耀亢順治十七年 (1660) 刻本《續金瓶梅》第四十八回中的莊子嘆髑髏道情。和杜蕙的道情相比,小說作者顯然刪減、重組了道情表演,並且還推陳出新,賦予髑髏唱曲的機會。第三部則是王應遴(卒年 1644)天啓六年秋見到杜蕙本後,「盡竄原文」<sup>7</sup>,改寫成的單折雜劇《衍莊新調》。該劇後來收入沈泰(大約萬曆晚期在世)於崇禎二年 (1629) 編的《盛明雜劇二集》,改名《逍遙遊》。該劇頗具新意,在結尾處變推崇道教爲三教合一。

除了這三部明代作品以外,伊維德教授還翻譯了清代的子弟書,如清代文人春樹齋的《蝴蝶夢》,前半段是莊子夢遇髑髏,後半段則是莊子妻怒罵扇墳寡婦事。另外一篇清中晚期的《莊子蝶夢髑髏寶卷》中,有仙人柳棨通過扶乩勸世行孝的兩段曲詞。二十世紀的現代文學則以魯迅爲代表,其話劇〈起死〉中,莊子成爲一個無用、酸腐的封建衛道士,而忘恩負義的髑髏則變成老實莊稼漢,其遭遇不啻爲對禮教之虛僞的控訴。在《髑髏還魂》的附錄中,伊維德教授還翻譯了三篇漢魏文人的〈髑髏賦〉、〈髑髏說〉,以及附錄於明代無爲教創立者羅清(1442-1527)的《嘆世無爲卷》中的〈嘆世警浮清音之詞髑髏二十一首〉和清末(1899年)《梁皇寶卷》中無名氏的十首〈髑髏歌〉。

在每一個翻譯前,伊維德教授都詳細介紹了文本的樣態、形式,以及其在中國文學史脈絡中的發展,他還利用排版來凸顯這些文本的文體特徵。以王應遴的雜劇爲例,不僅曲詞與賓白有所區分,而且襯字也通過小一號的字體,與唱詞分別開來。寶卷中的七字格、十字格 (3+3+4) 也通過分行的方式,體現出句讀的停頓。伊維德教授流暢的英文爲西方讀者的閱讀掃清了障礙,而腳註中,他則提供

<sup>6</sup> 參見全婉澄:〈日本藏稀見明刊道情《莊子嘆髑髏》考述〉,《曲藝》2013 年第 5 期, 頁 20-21。

<sup>7</sup> 參見王宣標:〈明王應遴原刻本《衍莊新調》雜劇考〉,《文化遺產》2012 年第 4 期, 頁 35。

了相關的歷史背景和用典的出處。此外,書中還徵引了大量文獻,方便感興趣的讀者按圖索驥,進一步加深對各種表演文學以及髑髏命題的了解。

《髑髏還魂》一書唯一可資商榷處,是沒有提供眉批、序言的翻譯,而這些副文本 (paratext) 恰恰為我們了解文本的流傳、接受情況、文本間的互文性 (intertextuality) 以及可能的閱讀體驗,提供了關鍵的信息。道情《新編增補評林莊子嘆髑髏南北詞曲》的鈔本中有許多眉批,和正文同出一手,一些是音訓,而其它的則是曲詞的提要,能夠有效地為初讀者點題,並為反覆閱讀提供標識性的輔助。此外鈔本中的四幅插圖清楚地將文本分成四個板塊,其中第二幅題爲〈莊子嘆問髑髏〉的插圖以三十六首【耍孩兒·煞曲】爲界,將卷上一分爲二。我們將這些【耍孩兒】與呂景儒的莊子嘆髑髏散套十一首【耍孩兒·煞曲】<sup>8</sup>對勘,就會發現兩者不僅頭尾相同,而且從【二煞】到【十一煞】的曲子(其中莊子嘆問髑髏男女、職業、過失等等)幾乎都可以在杜蕙的道情中找到<sup>9</sup>。由此我們可以了解到呂景儒的散套不僅成爲後來其它【耍孩兒】套數的藍本,而且還被直接抄入不同的文體。另外,道情的卷上以【耍孩兒·煞尾】結束,強化了上半卷可以獨立成章的印象:

【尾聲】髑髏兒。南山竹書不盡你的愚共賢,北海波洗不盡你的是與非。 我今日掘深坑埋你在黃泉内。髑髏,我教你做一個無減無生快活的鬼。 (頁 107)

道情的下半卷,莊子在詢問完髑髏後,再次遭遇髑髏。和上半卷莊子遇髑髏的【嘆詞】以及所唱的【西江月】不同<sup>10</sup>,莊子在這裏改唱【沽美酒】,又一次描寫初遇骷髏的景象:

恰轉過一荒坵,偶見個髑髏被烏鴉前嗛後啄,有黃犬惡狠狠銜骨相鬧。

<sup>8</sup> 呂景儒的般涉調套數參見謝伯陽編:《全明散曲》(濟南:齊魯書社,1993年),第1 册,頁847-849。有關呂景儒的十一首曲,伊維德在《髑髏還魂》頁二十五寫道:「後來的戲曲和論述文中敷演莊子遇髑髏的【耍孩兒】套數都以呂景儒的十一首曲爲藍本,使得這個套數越來越長。」

<sup>9</sup> 呂景儒的【耍孩兒】中只有【八煞】「你也曾仗錢財誘世人」在杜蕙的鈔本中找不到,但 是道情中感嘆髑髏生前仗勢欺人的曲子有好幾首。

<sup>10</sup> 該【西江月】顯然和道教施食科儀中的嘆骷髏有共同之處:「今日荒郊野外,見堆白骨交加,無言無語臥黃沙,日晒風吹雨打。髑髏你在世——堆金積玉,死後不顯榮華。三寸氣斷咬銀牙,仰面在西江月下。」有關對全真施食科儀嘆骷髏文本的研究,參見吳真:〈佛道施食儀式中的「嘆骷髏」文本淵源新探〉發表之論文(廣州:中國戲劇史國際學術研討會暨中國古代戲曲學會年會,2014年)。

呀,一見了淚流,淚流。看你張著個難閉的長吁口,唵乙點淚濕透衣衫袖。(頁107)

由此可見,杜蕙的道情很可能是對不同文本的整理、匯總,而各段以插圖爲界的「嘆髑髏」均可以(或曾經)獨立成章。伊維德教授對附錄在道情結尾的〈重編骷髏集〉的翻譯,更加深了這一印象:

骷髏詞曲久差訛,夏暇重將校正過。增續詩詞成卷集,後賢深便助閑歌。 (頁 149-150)

與杜蕙所編的道情中匿名批注者不同,沈泰的《盛明雜劇》中,詳細著錄了王應 遴《逍遙遊》的出版信息:「古越雲來王應遴編;新安長吉黃嘉惠評;西湖道 常陳節、泰征王光陞閱」<sup>11</sup>。新安黃嘉惠,字長吉,休寧人,是著名的徽州刻書家,刻有《史記》、《蘇黃題跋》、董解元《西廂記諸宮調》等書。沈泰編《盛明雜劇》,黃出力甚多<sup>12</sup>,其眉批也就能幫助我們了解明末書商對當時劇本接受的期待以及讀者心態的認知。此外,眉批中還一再強調劇作中的創新精神,回應了王應潾在雜劇原刻本《衍莊新調》中聲稱其對杜蕙所編道情完全的修改:

丙寅秋,恭謁泗鳳兩陵,道出蒙,即莊生夢蝶處也。散步街衢,得舜逸山 人《髑髏嘆》寓目焉。訝然曰:「莊之爲莊,全在變化神奇,不可端倪, 顧爲是銖銖之穪、寸寸之度耶?」 因就肩輿中腹稿,盡竄原文,獨摛新 調。及抵宿,宿宿,而小劇成。<sup>13</sup>

王應遴甚至還借莊周之口在【要孩兒·四煞】中談到:「髑髏生業男女,世本嘆髑髏的都說盡了。」(頁 33)王如此自覺地對現有文本的顚覆、突破,正是順應了明中葉以後,以《四聲猿》的作者徐渭(1521-1593)爲代表的劇作家進行南雜劇創作的潮流。由於元雜劇(又稱北曲)早已退出表演舞臺,這些劇作家的創作以閱讀爲主,並且揉合了北方和南方的曲學傳統,因此這些劇作也稱作南雜劇。因其長短、體例不一,且在音樂、情節,以及劇場編排上新意迭出,在西方學界也越來越引起關注。更有一批南雜劇被翻譯成英文以俟讀者,如徐渭的《四聲猿》、王驥德(卒年 1623)的《男王后》、丁耀亢的《化人遊》14。伊維德教

<sup>11</sup> 王應選:《逍遙遊》,收入[明]沈泰編:《盛明雜劇二集》(上海:上海古籍出版社, 1995年)《續修四庫全書》第1765冊),頁1a。

<sup>12</sup> 參見羅旭舟:〈《盛明雜劇》的輯刊與流傳〉,《文學遺產》2013年第2期,頁102。

<sup>13</sup> 王宣標:〈明王應遴原刻本《衍莊新調》雜劇考〉,頁35。

<sup>14</sup> 有關徐渭《四聲猿》的英文翻譯,參見 Shiamin Kwa, Strange Eventful Histories: Identity, Performance, and Xu Wei's Four Cries of a Gibbon (Cambridge Mass.: Harvard University Asia

授對王應遴《逍遙遊》的翻譯,爲南雜劇在英語世界的介紹、傳播更增添了一份 貢獻。

《髑髏還魂》譯筆流暢精準,故事引人入勝,可以讓西方讀者輕鬆地了解到 莊子遇骷髏這一重大文學命題在中國古代文學傳統中的發展與演變。該譯著還將 這一母題放置於世界文學的範疇,從比較文學的視角審視。畢竟生與死是人類 共有的課題,而「莊子嘆問髑髏」反映了從哲人、文人到民間信仰不同層次的 關注和想像,同時也能夠和文藝復興時期的歐洲(特別是十六世紀解剖學發展之 時)、伊斯蘭文學中耶穌遇死者等主題,形成富有深意的對話。

《合理性之尋求:荀子思想研究論集》,東方朔著,臺北:臺大出版中心, 二〇——年,四九六頁。

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《合理性之尋求:荀子思想研究論集》可說是近年來處理《荀子》研究文獻 最豐富、議題面向最廣泛、詮釋企圖最宏大的作品。作者東方朔(林宏星)先生 爲《荀子》勾勒了相當完整的理論藍圖,嘗試賦予首尾貫通的脈絡,描繪了廣義 儒家道德文化的一個面向。此外,作者極重視經典詮釋者在理解文本上擁有的權 利,此爲決定本書詮釋格局的關鍵。本文除將評析其理論建構精采之處外,亦將 嘗試提出《荀子》文本可能允許之其他理論方向。

作者參酌各家注釋,商榷了若干關鍵章句解讀上的疑義,收攝兩岸三地當代學者的研究、採擷西方學者對《荀子》的闡釋與理論發展,一方面爲《荀子》學術整理了豐沛的研究資源,一方面以此建立了自己的詮釋架構,釐清傳統上的誤解,將《荀子》融回廣義的儒家,爲《荀子》哲學研究開啓向前推展的路。值得一提的是,作者除了文獻研究、道德哲學之外,也向不同的學術領域尋求資源,例如歷史學、社會學,以及哲學中的某些領域等。

作者自陳這一系列研究的動機起自中西學術上對《荀子》的兩極評價,一方

Center, 2012), pp. 117-239。袁書菲 (Sophie Volpp) 翻譯的王驥德單折雜劇《男王后》,在其 Worldly Stage: Theatricality in Seventeenth-Century China (Cambridge Mass.: Harvard University Asia Center, 2011), 頁 263-314。此外筆者也正在進行丁耀亢十折南雜劇《化人遊》的英文翻譯。

面稱其爲儒學正統的歧出,另一方面稱爲儒家提出老練的解釋與辯護,堪稱重要的世界哲學家(頁 2)。作者謂這一冷一熱的評價引起了他的好奇,由此一步一步地以自己的方式闡釋《荀子》若干關鍵議題,展開全幅的理論藍圖。首先從「人」的角色開始,論天人關係和人在天地間的角色。隨之出現的議題是性惡,這尤其是《荀子》受到極端評價的主要理由,作者釐清往昔詮釋的疑義,進而處理人文陶成的主題。人文陶成需要的條件包含自主的心和體知的作用。接著討論的是辯說的標準與爲何而辯。人文陶成的依據在於「禮」,「禮」基本上是由先王之道發展出、或客觀化的成果,而「意義世界」則總承禮義文明的內涵。

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《荀子》由後人刪訂而成,三十二篇講論讀來,相互關聯,又各自獨立。作者面對古今中外衆多的闡釋,自須有個貫串首尾的觀點,方能組建一個立體的理論架構。所謂立體,是指系統中有核心議題在上層發揮縱向指導功能,各理論元素橫向之間又能相互聯繫搭配。《荀子》原典中衆多元素在意義與功能上均有多種闡釋,其中雖不乏有些已經有高度共識,但仍有若干分歧的可能存在。作者以明確的詮釋主軸,在若干分岔路口,進行了選擇。

作者是有意識地進行「詮釋」工作,也自信地展現了自己身為詮釋者的獨特觀點。他在導言即提出「經典的閱讀就是賦予我們對先賢的『遺囑』以解釋權」(頁 2)。解釋遺囑並非僅是為了對祖產的發言權,而是帶著現實的需求向先人提問:「《荀子》一書竟將帶給我們何種資訊?而此種資訊在多大程度上改變了人生概念的內涵和結構?又在多大程度上改變了社會的政治和組織秩序?」(頁5)這樣的出發點明確地在經典詮釋中體現儒家以社會實踐、道德實踐爲優先的特質。

本書有自己的詮釋關懷,依自己的理論藍圖,從多種學術採擷元素作爲架構。不過,本書選擇用來建立《荀子》思想體系的若干思想元素,或許在內涵上有些不同的可能性,甚至可能朝不同的理論方向發展,因而爲《荀子》思想賦予不同的風貌。在本書的說理脈絡中,這些可以容許不同發展方向的分歧點,首先出現在一個基本問題上,就是作者提出的詮釋學基本立場:

詮釋經典絕非猖狂肆意,隨心所欲,即便海德格爾 (Martin Heidegger),亦的的有言:「解釋領會到它的首要的、不斷的和最終的任務始終是不讓向

來就有的先行具有、先行看見與先行把握以偶發奇想的和流俗之見的方式出現,它的任務始終是從事情本身 (the things themselves) 出來清理先有、先見和先行把握,從而保證課題的科學性。」若此所謂「事情本身」即是經典的話,那麼,在朱子看來,即是詮釋經典「不可先立說,牽古人意來湊」,「須是除了自己所見,看他冊子上古人意思如何。」但另一方面,朱子亦言,「經之有解,所以通經。經既通,自無事於解,借經以通乎理耳。理得,則無俟乎經。」<sup>15</sup>(頁3)

作者隨後並引述黃俊傑的觀點:「中國哲學的經典詮釋的中心課題不在於『如何瞭解文本』,而在如何『受文本感化』……解經是過程、是手段,求道才是終極目的。」(頁4,註10)

以上的說法透露出一個訊息:解讀經典之無法避免、又不可或缺的先有之見,不能讓它們以流俗的、或任意的方式出現,而是要由「事情本身」來清理它們。這「事情本身」指的到底是什麼?上文作者所引海德格的那一段說法,高達美(Hans-Georg Gadamer,或譯伽達默爾)也曾引述並對之有所闡發:「所有正確的解釋都必須避免隨心所欲的偶發奇想和難以察覺的思想習慣的侷限性,並且凝目直接注意『事情本身』(這在語文學家那裏就是充滿意義的文本,而文本本身則又涉及事情)。」「6所謂「事情本身」確實好像可以是經典。東方朔引述海德格「事情本身」之說,旨在提出詮釋經典須如朱子所說「不可先立說」,要以經典本身的意思作爲詮釋的判準。可是他隨後又說另一方面要「借經以通乎理」。此處除了強調經典乃是「事情本身」之外,更重要的似乎是掌握「經之理」,這才是讀經的最終目的,此處顯然分出了詮釋的判準和目的兩個層次。

高達美說「事情本身」在語文學家那裏就是充滿意義的文本,而文本本身又涉及事情;這裏也提出了兩個層次。儘管作者因為「海氏與伽氏的相關觀念涉及到所謂『存有論轉向』問題,與朱子不同」(頁3,註7),而將兩位最終的理論旨趣暫時擱下。但我們僅就經典詮釋的層次來說,也可以從高達美接著提出的看法獲得深刻的啓發:「誰想理解某個文本,誰總是在完成一種籌劃。……作出這樣一種預先的籌劃——這當然不斷地根據繼續進入意義而出現的東西被修

<sup>15</sup> 此處海德格爾 (或譯海德格) 的引文出自海德格爾著,陳映嘉、王慶節譯:《存在與時間》 (北京:三聯書店,1987年),頁 187-188。字下黑點爲本文作者所加。

<sup>16</sup> 漢斯—格奧爾格·加達默爾著,洪漢鼎譯:《真理與方法:詮釋學的基本特徵》(臺北: 時報文化出版公司,1993年),頁354。

#### 改——就是對這裏存在的東西的理解。」17

對文本的理解總是在對文本意義的「籌劃」(projecting)當中發生,文本的意義也就在它與「籌劃」不斷地往復中愈見豐富。因此我們或許可以說,經典的意義未必是靜待詮釋者漸次滌盡「前見」而現出原貌,而每一次不同的「籌劃」都給文本賦予更豐富或是不同的意義。東方朔說得好:「經典不說話,除非我們發問。」(頁 8)不同的讀者帶著不同的問題出發,作出不同的「籌劃」,經典則會相應地給出不同的答覆。因此,我們似乎除了承認「前見」之存在與不可避免之外,或許也可承認文本能夠因此而有不同的意義。對於年代久遠、成書歷程曲折的典籍,不同的「籌劃」更可能構成不同的理論藍圖。在經典詮釋的循環作用當中,詮釋者的觀點與其「籌劃」所得的意義,兩端持續著往復的互動。但是在本書的觀點中,經典詮釋的意義似乎比較偏重典籍在我們的扣問之下,單向地流出意義。

## 二、對「人之所以為人」採取描述性的論述

作者對於《荀子》論「人」的看法承接著與其經典詮釋觀點相容的基調,講究先在條件的重要性。他再度引述高達美的觀點:「每一個使自己由自然存在上升到精神性事物的個別個體,在他民族的語言、習俗和制度裏都發現一個前定的實體,而這個實體如他所掌握的語言一樣,他已使其成爲他自己的東西了。」(頁 42)在這個觀點之下,作者在分析先秦儒家「人之所以爲人」議題的「性觀」與「人觀」兩種進路當中,爲《荀子》選擇了適合其「籌劃」藍圖的一種:

一種是類似於哲學本質論意義上的「性觀」(the conception of human nature),一種是類似於哲學人類學或社會學意義上的「人觀」(the conception of person)。大體地說,本文所謂「性觀」乃是其對人的觀察重在從人的本性上簡別出人之所以爲人的「本質」(essence);而所謂「人觀」即表現爲其對人之所以爲人的觀察重在從人的特定的歷史文化和社群結構中所承擔的諸多不同身分構成特徵的一般性說明。前者可以孟子爲代表,而後者則可以荀子爲代表。(頁21)

這個「類似於哲學人類學或社會學意義上的『人觀』」引導了全書繼續的鋪陳,也相當程度地決定了其論述的性質。作者以所謂「人觀」爲《荀子》的道德思想

<sup>17</sup> 同前註。

所準備的理論,有可能傾向一種「描述倫理學」,這種理論在性質和目的上有別於「規範倫理學」或「後設倫理學」。如此選擇所引致的差別,可能在於其論述將側重《荀子》裏的「人」如何受到既有之道德文化傳統的影響;至於對此傳統之道德主張的證成,也許至多處於此理論藍圖的邊緣,甚或不在關切的範圍裏。作者如此選擇,乃是爲了闡明《荀子》之「人」的概念的特殊性,但也承認有可能無形中遮蔽了個別儒者在思想性格上的差異(頁 22)。

儘管如此,作者指出其論述並非止於純然描述《荀子》道德規範在特定社群中的運作:「本文所討論的人的概念或『人觀』並非取經驗性之論述,而是取哲學式的反思,以究明人類主體在多種可能的身分形式中的本性,在此期間我們將分析荀子涉及人之概念的不同側面的相關術語如性、心、情、欲等,以構成我們進一步討論的基礎。」(頁 22,註 1)作者也確實對這些概念進行了剖析,說明其在《荀子》道德思想中的功能,因此不宜將其論述性質完全視爲社會學家、人類學家從事的描述倫理學。但是如果對這些概念的剖析過度側重於說明其在既有規範之社會性運作當中的作用,則雖然仍屬此文本之道德哲學面向的闡釋,可是對此文獻所承載之道德理論的證成,相對之下就淡了許多,甚至可能居於詮釋藍圖的外緣。

例如,作者也說「『性觀』本身也可有其獨特的『人觀』,比如孟子就可以有其以性善論爲基礎的人觀」(頁 21,註 1)。那麼,我們是否也可以在《荀子》特重歷史性、社會性脈絡的「人觀」基礎上,爲其開發一套獨特的「性觀」?當然,在《荀子》的討論中使用「性觀」一詞,容易造成混淆、引起爭議;此處的「性觀」處理的絕非〈性惡〉所言之「性」,而是順著東方朔的區分,指的是由「人之所以爲人」的本質來探討「人」的內涵。《荀子》謂:「人之所以爲人者何已也?曰:以其有辨也。」(〈非相篇〉)這裏的「辨」作者認爲它是種天生能力,因此並非後天地來自傳統道德文化。作者採路德斌之說:「我們絕不可把『僞』僅僅理解成爲一個單純的工具性的行爲或過程,實質上,『僞』同時也是一種能力,一種根植於人自身且以『義』、『辨』爲基礎並趨向於『善』的能力。」<sup>18</sup>至於人之「有義」也可能構成「人之所以爲人」之特質,東方朔的看法是:

此義之「有」是「生而有」(have innately) 還是「後而有」(possess or own)?

<sup>18</sup> 路德斌:〈荀子人性論之形上義蘊——荀、孟人性論關係之我見〉,《中國哲學史》2003 年第4期,頁36。

而對人而言,此義是未加入內容的能力 (a bare capacity or unfilled capacity),還是其本身就其豐滿意義而言,是一套聖王創造並流傳下來的規範?諸如此類的問題雖非本文所要處理之重點,然而,它卻是首子文本留下的待解釋的疑難。 (頁 37-38)

對於相關的議題,書中引述了衆多西方學者對儒家價值的興趣。近數十年來西方漢學家、哲學家,或者因爲亞洲的政治體制深受儒家影響,或者出自對西方道德哲學之限度的反思,隨著德性倫理和社群主義之再興,轉而向先秦儒家對人的看法發掘資源、尋求不同的觀點。或許可說,西方學者同時也爲先秦儒家賦予了他們所「籌劃」的觀點。作者引述 Fingarette、Rosemont、Munro 和 de Bary 等多位在西方對中國思想研究極具影響力的學者,指出儒家有關人或自我的概念是透過人在特定社會中扮演的角色而建構的,它與西方式的自主(自律)概念和權利概念並不相容,據之主張早期儒家根本沒有將人看作是自由自主之個體的自我概念,儒家的人就是處在關係中的角色的總體,根本沒有離群索居的我,或者根本反對「儒家個人主義」(頁 24-25)。

不過,「儒家」終究是個籠統的總稱,一如「西方」是個更籠統的總稱。如此的描述性「人觀」自然有相當的典籍依據,否則這些詮釋「籌劃」難以立足。可是,如前所述,作者如此選擇雖是爲了說明《荀子》「人」概念的特殊性,但也承認可能無形中遮蔽了個別儒者在思想性格上的差異。在「儒家」這個總稱之下,對個別差異可以容許到什麼程度?或者,個別儒者的思想性格差異大到什麼程度就會撼動此總稱的內涵、或者令此個體不再隸屬於這個總稱?也就是說,在這個總稱之下,《荀子》思想有沒有一些個別特性被遮蔽了?

作者引述信廣來教授的文章來說明儒家論「人」的基本特色,該文以《論語》、《孟子》、《荀子》,以及《大學》、《中庸》作爲其所論之「儒家」的範圍,指出了若干共通的特質<sup>19</sup>。但是,即便我們對信廣來舉出的那些共通特質均無異議,也不能忽略東方朔的反思:

信文一方面認爲儒家的心具有反省、評價和形塑整體人生的能力,具有不 受外力控制的獨立性,另一方面又似乎認爲心的這種活動只能在既定的社 會秩序而非在真空中進行,那麼,在這種關係中,我們究竟如何來理解心

Kwong-loi Shun, "Conception of the Person in Early Confucian Thought," Confucian Ethics: A Comparative Study of Self, Autonomy, and Community (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004), p. 184.

的獨立性和主宰性?究竟是心的不受外力控制的特性和反省、評價能力主宰著人在社會生活中的活動,還是心的這種特性和能力只有在隸屬於人類社會的基本規章和社會秩序之下發生作用?如果是前者,則心的作用的限度畢竟何在?如果是後者,我們又如何看出心的主宰特色? (頁32)

然而,儘管作者提出了這些關鍵問題,本書對儒家之「人」概念的處理,似乎還是偏向描述性的闡釋,對《荀子》道德思想整體的闡釋方式,似乎也以描述教化作用爲主調。於是,作者選擇以重構的方式闡述《荀子》如何主張道德之先在條件在「人」身上的作用,而將文獻章句裏一些隱含未顯的理論問題,放在了本書詮釋藍圖外緣。

例如,對於道德傳統所責成之社會角色,和各角色所需遵循的規範,除了檢 視其在某種意義上是否符合傳統之外,對這些規範在道德哲學上將如何證成,以 及此證成與人之天賦能力間的關係等問題,或許就還有相當大的討論空間。因爲 「這些問題顯然是隱含在議題中而必須面對或有待詮解的。本文並不準備正面論 述這些問題,以下我所做的只是結合荀子的思想討論其對人的概念的理解」(頁 32)。

## 三、意義世界與先王之道

本書爲《荀子》建立了相當完整的思想體系,也將《荀子》嵌入了更大的理論藍圖。作者據以統攝其詮釋藍圖內部之關鍵元素,並建立理論體系的,是他爲《荀子》佈置的「意義世界」,而將《荀子》與更大的理論藍圖綴接起來的,也是「意義世界」。作者在論「天」的章節指明一套「意義世界」是哲學的任務之一,而「意義世界」的建立在很大程度上有賴於理論性思想體系之出現,並引勞思光之說,指出原始信仰到文化自覺的階段,是通過某種自覺的選擇之後,或被容納、或被淘汰(頁 76)。在本書中這種自覺選擇之下的「意義世界」,其主要內容是什麼呢?作者在提出《荀子》人觀的脈絡明確道出:「對於荀子而言,在其如此界定的脈絡中,其所說的『人』始終是位於歷史文化社會中的人,或者說,先王之道的意義世界構成了人本身的存在方式。」(頁 42)

在申論《荀子》思想中「默」之體知面向的章節裏,作者也提出:「默須有當,則此『當』者可不能言或不必言。默之當在相互關係中,即已轉成共通感或某種意義上的『健全感覺』(bon sens),成爲人們的『不知』、『不察』的歷史

文化的存在形式或曰『意義世界』,此共通感(在荀子即是先王之道、禮義之統以及《詩》、《書》、《禮》、《樂》等)雖不藉於語言,卻又在『語言』之中。」(頁 231)在闡釋荀子思想之歷史意識的脈絡,作者更指出:「此『無變』的先王之道對當下的我們來說,的確具有存有論上的隸屬關係,人當下的一切製作和創造,乃存有論地根植於先王之道的意義世界之中,且人先在此意義世界之中,然後才嘗試去探究和理解此意義世界。准此,我們實未嘗不可以說,先王之道不屬於我們,而是我們自己歸屬於先王之道。」(頁 356)綜觀以上所述,我們可以見到作者認爲先王之道是「意義世界」的核心內容。但是,處於歷史下游之衆多具體的「人」和這「意義世界」的關係則值得深入思量。「意義世界」是經過某種自覺選擇的結果,但它又不變,且「人」在所謂存有論的層面上隸屬於它。這就是需要深入思量之處。

我們且先從作者對「先王之道」的闡釋,來嘗試理解處於歷史下游之「人」與「意義世界」之間的關係。本書罕見地深入處理了一般較少直接面對的「法後王」議題,其基本主張是「後王與先王之間具有一脈相承的關係」(頁 367);至於此關係的內容,作者則採取梁啓雄和李中生之說,認爲「荀子對先王所法者是道,是原則;對後王所法者是法,是法術、政教。原則是不變的,法術政教卻是因時因地隨時變革的」(頁 352)。在這個詮釋之下,「道」是相對抽象的原則,或如李中生所言:「這個社會領域內的『君子之道』,也就是禮義,即禮的內在精神和原則。……『法』也就是『道』(禮義)的外在表現形式,是以『道』(禮義)爲指導原則而制定的各種法則。」<sup>20</sup>至於「禮」、「法」則可相對地理解爲具體的規範。

但是這個區分未必成立。先王所留下的並非僅是抽象原則,也包含具體規範。如何斷言荀子只取法了先王的抽象法則?以下試舉數例,說明先王所流傳者也有具體規範,並也可能爲荀子所保留。在〈禮論〉有「先王恐其不文也,是以繇其期,足之日也。故天子七月,諸侯五月,大夫三月,皆使其須足以容事,事足以容成,成足以容文,文足以容備,曲容備物之謂道矣」。論祭禮處云:「故先王案爲之立文,尊尊親親之義至矣。」〈榮辱〉:「故先王案爲之制禮義以分之,使有貴賤之等,長幼之差,知愚、能不能之分,皆使人載其事而各得其宜,然後使穀祿多少厚薄之稱,是夫群居和一之道也。」〈大略〉:「禮者,其表也,先王以禮表天下之亂。」而在〈禮論〉言「先王惡其亂也,故制禮義以分

<sup>20</sup> 李中生:《荀子校詁叢稿》 (廣州:廣州高等教育出版社,2001年),頁65-66。

之,以養人之欲,給人之求。使欲必不窮於物,物必不屈於欲。兩者相持而長, 是禮之所起」。這些引文中的「文」、「禮義」和「禮」的意義並不容易區分, 更不容易按李中生之說,明確表達爲原則和規範。所以,若說來自先王者均爲抽 象原則,那麼應該是經過後人選擇或抽繹而成。

先王所傳者,兼有道與法,亦即兼有抽象原則和具體規範。依本書,荀子法 先王之道,法後王之法。法先王之道,是因其「不變」;法後王之法,乃因其能 因時制宜。在此我們可以問,原則真的不變嗎?或許這種「不變」,是因爲荀子 的認定和選擇。我們可以依作者之意,認爲除了原始的信仰和觀念之外,先王所 傳之道也「是經過某種自覺的選擇之後、或被淘汰、或被容納」(頁 76),經 此而由荀子認定爲「意義世界」;而荀子所採納的法,則是近期之王依「意義世 界」之原則所訂之具體規範。這個說法描繪了歷史上荀子對理想規範的期許和作 爲。

但是,作者的企圖當然不在展示歷史中最後一次發生演化的文明化石,他是藉此提出了一種「演化式的歷史觀」(頁 364)。「面對變化著的世界,我們不能固守一套不變的行爲和法則,唯一的選擇就是以變應變,亦即以變化的行爲改變變化了的世界」(頁 365),「也就是在此一『應』字中,人重新確認了其自身在世界中的尊嚴和位置」,「人必須因應身邊隨時發生的新狀況、新事態、新問題,而有所作爲新問題,而有所作爲、有所改革、有所創造」(頁 365)。

然而在鼓勵創造之餘,作者仍提出「後王」與「先王」之間具有一脈相承的關係(頁 367)。依作者之意,在歷史進程中可以變、需要變的是具體規範,是法;不變的是抽象原則,是道。此處的論述已經遠遠脫離了對古代變法史實的陳述,而轉化爲提出一種看待歷史的觀點。並且,「人們思考的重心已不再是傾其全力在歷史的座標中確定何者爲先王,何者爲後王,而是著力在作爲普遍原則與具體規定之間的辯證」(頁 352)。然而在這種演化式的歷史觀之下,先與後之間一脈相承的紐帶是否仍繫於那以不變之「先王之道」爲內容的「意義世界」?此紐帶之維繫是否有鬆弛之慮?

此種隸屬關係之維繫,或者可以藉作者重視的自覺選擇來說明。自覺的選擇或許可以說明隸屬關係,但正因爲是自覺的選擇,所以此隸屬關係未必絕對。這種自覺選擇並非「以從俗爲善,以貨財爲寶,以養生爲己至道」(〈儒效〉)的「民」所能領會,因爲這個「意義世界」對他尚未發生意義:對「道」要先有所認識與抉擇方能「伏術爲學,專心一志」(〈性惡〉)。〈勸學〉亦云:「學惡

乎始?惡乎終?曰:其數則始乎誦經,終乎讀禮;其義則始乎爲士,終乎爲聖 人。」「意義世界」與「人」產生隸屬關係的關鍵,就在自覺的選擇與決志,並 且,「意義世界」的內容,也可能因詮釋者的自覺選擇或「籌劃」而有所更新, 後人認定的「先王之道」也可能因此更新。在此理解下,「意義世界」和「人」 之間也可能有某種雙向作用。值得提出的是,關於「人」與其身處之「意義世 界」的雙向作用,作者也有所洞見:

在荀子那裏,人之所以爲人之特質在於人之有義、有辨、能群。但此 「義」、「辨」、「群」三概念之間卻有著轉轉周羅的關係。首先,此 「義」和「辨」就其作爲人生而有的能力而言,乃是能使人生義、生辨 的先天基礎,而且此義、此辨亦指有在社會組織(「群」)中生義、生辨 才使此義、辨表現出人之所以爲人的特質。人隸屬於社會群體,而此社會 群體卻不是一個抽象的概念,而是以「分道」、「辨道」作基礎的,而此 「分」和「辨」又以「義」作原則。(頁 297)

「群」乃是社會組織,是人所身處的先有條件,也是既有之「抽象原則」和「具體規範」的產物,是「意義世界」的具體呈現。「人」身處既與的「群」當中,憑藉天生能力而得以展現人之所以爲人的特質,這是作者觀察到的雙向關係。然而,人之天生能力與「群」之間,是否可能有另一種「轉轉周羅」的關係?亦即,人藉其天生能力所採取的自覺選擇,除了針對原始信仰進行容納與淘汰之外,對於既有的社會組織規範、甚或原則,是否也可能進行容納、淘汰、甚至創新?在這第二種的雙向關係當中,或許正是「人」之自覺思考與選擇對「群」的反饋,「群」和其所具體呈現的「意義世界」也就在此種反饋作用中與時並進。

作者以「指明一個意義世界」作爲其哲學工作的核心,這也是他對《荀子》 詮釋藍圖的核心,並且以「意義世界」將《荀子》聯結上更寬廣深邃的理論視 野。詮釋者因著各自的藍圖,會不可避免、或必須提出一些原始典籍實際上並未 明載、卻在理論上至某一程度可以相容的主張。此類主張的內容端視詮釋者「籌 劃」之所趨,也就是詮釋者的選擇。這整部著作取材豐富,論題深刻,企圖宏 大,其論述從對《荀子》之兩極評價的好奇出發,引領讀者觀察歷來詮釋的論爭 與可能的發展。精讀此書於細緻處所展現的宏觀,雖有值得斟酌之處,但除了能 跟隨作者領略其詮釋藍圖之外,還能引起更多的好奇與更深的思考。如果說能夠 引起更多詮釋的詮釋就是成功的詮釋,那麼東方朔這部《荀子》思想論集無疑是 成功的作品。 *Chinese Metaphysics and Its Problems.* Edited by Chenyang Li and Franklin Perkins. Cambridge University Press, 2015. Pp. 242.

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This book highlights the metaphysical dimension of Chinese philosophy and provides a connected study of Chinese metaphysics. The editors, in their helpful Introduction, respond to the long debated question "Do the Chinese really have metaphysics?" in a twofold manner (p. 1). By first examining the Aristotelian tradition of Western metaphysics, which systematically inquires about the nature of reality and the cause of variations in reality, they identify the metaphysical character of Chinese philosophical categories, for example dao 道 as the ultimate reality, the polarity of yinyang 陰陽 as the fundamental operating principle of the world or qi 氣 as the constitutive substance of thing, and affirm that Chinese thought has metaphysics. They also proceed by answering this question negatively, if we locate Chinese thought within the rigid frame of metaphysical opposition between the transcendental realm of the super-sensible and immanent realm of the sensible appearance. Chinese thought doesn't conform to what Heidegger called the ontotheological constitution of metaphysics. Chinese thought differs both from Greek philosophy that privileges an eternal and unchanging substance as the ontological ground of what is and from "the Christianization of Western philosophy" in which "a perfect and eternal God took the place of this ultimate reality" (p. 3).

Chinese thought presents itself as metaphysics without metaphysics. Its metaphysics is metaphysics without being ontotheological. Chinese metaphysics, as Roger T. Ames analyzes it in Chapter Five, is an "ametaphysical metaphysics" (p. 85). The ametaphysical character of Chinese metaphysics provides a different approach to the relation between transcendence and immanence. Instead of basing itself on the distinction between transcendence and immanence, Chinese metaphysics delineates their mutual interconnectedness. The editors trace the metaphysical thinking of the Chinese back to the Yijing and differentiate two forms of existence: one is "what is without (specific) forms (xingershangzhe 形而上者); the other is "what is with (specific) forms (xingershangxiazhe 形而下者)" (p. 2). They emphasize that the Dao, as what is without (specific) forms, is not fixed. Its nature is change. "The 'constant dao' is the constantly changing dao" (p. 4). Furthermore, the change that occurred at the transcendent realm also affects the immanent realm. It is elevated into the structural principle of the immanent realm. The formlessness of what is without (specific) forms is not thought of as the degradation of what is with (specific) forms. Rather, it is the manifestation of the changing character of the latter. Chinese metaphysics proposes a different metaphysical thinking that affirms immanence, change, relation and process which are suppressed and relegated to a subordinate status in the Western metaphysics

of substance.

The book begins with an essay by Robin R. Wang on the traditional Chinese thought yinyang 陰陽. Wang first explicates the relation between xingershangzhe形而上者 and xingershangxia形而下者. The two are not two independent entities. They constitute the wholeness of xing. Xing is the middle term that functions as mediator between the world of metaphysics and the world of physics. The total field of xing, Yi 易 and qiankun 乾坤 are woven into a coherent whole, with yinyang as a generative force. Chinese metaphysical thinking is yinyang thinking that conceives reality as a "single self-generating, self-differentiating, and self-organizing whole". (p. 21). She then describes the six forms of yinyang relations: (1) Maodun 矛盾 (contradiction and opposition); (2) Xiangyi 相依 (interdependence); (3) Huhan 互含 (mutual inclusion); (4) Jiaogan 交感 (interaction or resonance); (5) Hubu 互補 (complementary or mutual support); and (6) Zhuanhua 轉化 (change and transformation) (pp. 22-26). Wang also discusses the movement of huanliu 環流 (circular flow) and elucidates the complex process of generation in life and nature.

JeeLoo Liu elucidates the conception of  $qi \neq 1$ , another fundamental concept of Chinese metaphysics, in an essay on qi-naturalism. Liu's analysis of qi-naturalism proceeds in two manners: on the one hand, she demystifies qi-cosmology by rendering manifest its naturalistic dimension; on the other hand, she distinguishes Chinese qinaturalism from contemporary scientific naturalism. She delineates the history of qicosmology, beginning with Yijing, and continuing through the classical Daoism of Laozi and Zhuangzi, the *Huainanzi*, Neo-Confucianism of Zhang Zai and Wang Fuzhi, up to the twentieth-century New Confucian Xiong Shili's reconciliation between the notion of qi and contemporary physics. Qi is the ultimate constituent of all things in the world, both of animate and inanimate things. Chinese qi-naturalism doesn't posit anything over and above the realm of nature. The universe consists in the totality of qi in which the emergence and the end of existent things are explicated in terms of the integration and disintegration of qi. Mental phenomena and spiritual forms are also conceived as manifestations of qi. This qi-naturalism establishes a "holistic qi-integration image of the world' (p. 39). Chinese qi-naturalism is a humanistic naturalism that emphasizes the humanistic approach toward the world-as-it-is without relying on any pregiven scientific hypothesis.

Franklin Perkins in Chapter Three addresses the problem of individuation and its significance for early Chinese metaphysical thinking. Perkins focuses on the discourse of wu orall m (thing) and uses it to thematize the logic of individuation at work in Chinese thought and to determine the proper mode of Chinese metaphysics. The problem of individuation explores the constituent element of the thing. The distinctive character of the Chinese discourse of wu is that, as the individuated and distinct entity, wu is not a set of appearances supported by substance that is thrown under or stands under these appearances. wu is derived from a reality that is itself not individuated. The individuated wu is grounded in the primordial unindividuated. The discourse of wu shows how Chinese metaphysics prioritizes change over fixation and stability.

In contrast to Western "substance metaphysics," Chinese metaphysics is "process metaphysics" that treats change, interconnection and interaction as ontologically primary (p. 55). Perkins finally relates individuation to the ethical issue of self-cultivation.

Chris Fraser in Chapter Four elucidates the Mohist conception of reality that is derived from the doctrines concerning  $san fan \equiv \pm$  (Three Models),  $tian \mp$  (heaven), and  $ming \oplus \text{ (fate)}$ . For the Mohist, the reality of the natural world manifests fixed patterns and is knowable through sense perception and inference. The dao is immanent in nature and grounded in reliable knowledge of the world. As the dao of reality, the dao is the normative dao that is embodied by tian and proposes the moralized conception of nature. We are members of "the community of nature" in which we follow the regular dao constantly and universally, and act jointly to further the benefit of the whole world (p. 78). Fraser also discusses how the Mohist conception of reality leads to the rejection of fatalism through the denial of the existence of ming and shows confidence in human efficacy.

In Chapter Five, Roger T. Ames discusses early Confucian metaphysics by proposing a metaphysical reading of the *Zhongyong* 中庸. Ames elucidates the relational thinking in the early Confucian metaphysics and distinguishes it from the substance of the ontology of early Greece. This relational thinking emphasizes the vital role of relationality in which phenomena are treated as conterminous events that are internally related rather than as the external relation between the discreet and self-subsistent things. In correspondence to this thinking of vital relationality, Ames explores the creative mode of knowing called *ars contextualis* (the art of contextualizing) that refers *wanwu* 萬物 (myriad things) to the dynamic cosmos in which human beings actively participate in the coordinating of all things in order to release their creative possibilities. Ames also discusses Confucian role ethics not only define the consummatory life to be achieved within family lineage and community, but also constitute a precondition for a flourishing world.

Jiyuan Yu in Chapter Six presents a thorough comparison between Heraclitus and Laozi. Yu challenges the clear-cut distinctions between Chinese and Western metaphysics. On the one hand, Yu shows how Heraclitus and Laozi each discovered a new way of perceiving and thinking about reality that is contrary to the ordinary understanding of their own traditions. On the other hand, Yu argues that the picture of Heraclitus' *logos* and Laozi's *dao* are surprisingly similar in that they both outline a unified configuration of the diverse phenomenon. The world is characterized by a dynamic oneness that is constituted by tensions of the opposites and their transformations. The common point of two thinkers "is not that they both talk about change, but rather that the unity of opposites (Heraclitus) or the balance of opposites (Laozi) persists through changes" (p. 119). By explicating the view that Laozi inquires into reality behind appearances and is concerned with the ultimate reality of constant *dao* as well as with the way to live well, Yu redresses the misconception that Chinese philosophers don't pursue Being or reality behind the veil of appearances and the

misunderstanding that Chinese thinkers only want to know how to live and how to organize community rather than the truth about reality.

Michael Puett in Chapter Seven explores the metaphysical assumptions implicated within the ritual tradition of classical China. In his reading of the early Chinese ritual texts, mainly the "Liyan" chapter of the *Liji* (*Book of Rites*), Puett argues that the texts concerning ritual are rooted within a complex set of metaphysical claims. The "ritual-based vision of reality" guides humans and provides them with access to the higher form of unity (p. 120). In contradistinction to the Western scholar that conceives Chinese cosmology either as a negative requirement that restricts humanity to following the larger pattern of the world or as a romanticized picture that portrays a harmonious relation of humans with the larger world without dominating it, Puett emphasizes that the sought-for harmony doesn't preexist the ritual practice but is produced by it. The world we live in is the world of fragmentation and discontinuity. The goal of humans is to construct harmony through domesticating the natural forces both from within and without. The metaphysical function of ritual consists in creating a unified and harmonious world that is beneficial for human flourishing.

Hans-Rudolf Kantor in Chapter Eight discusses the concepts of reality and the complex relation between truth and falsehood in Chinese Mahāyāna Buddhism. Kantor explicates the constructivist views of reality that overlap the ontological issues with the epistemological issues in the tradition of the Chinese Madhyamaka, Yogācāra, Tathāgatagarbha, Tiantai and Huayan texts. He addresses the ontological and epistemological implications of inseparability of truth and falsehood that emphasize their mutual constitution and interreferentiality. On the ontological level, the inseparability of truth and falsehood indicates that there is no ultimate reality conceived as a transcendent realm independent from the illusive world. Falsehood is the significant feature of reality that constitutes our existence in the world. On the epistemological level, insight into truth and wisdom involves the experience of falsehood that harbors a potential to instruct us. Falsehood functions as an "inverse instructiveness" that helps us to truly understand falsehood and discern the nature of truth and reality (p. 132). Coincidence of the epistemological sense of inseparability with the ontological sense of inseparability shows that our existence within the present world is dependent upon the epistemic stance in relation to it.

In Chapter Nine Vincent Shen compares Huayan Buddhism's concept of event with Whitehead's ontological principle. Huayan Buddhism's concept of event is related to the doctrine of Ten Mysterious Gates (shixuanmeng 十玄門) that expresses the ideas that all things in the world are involved in a network of dynamic relation, or the realm of dharmas 法界 is such that all shi (actualities, events, phenomenon) penetrate each other. In its historical development, Huayan no longer affirms positively Many Others as events but tends to reduce Many Others into the concept of One Mind. All events are seen as manifestations of One Mind. In contrast to Huayan's tendency to forget the generosity to Many Others, Whitehead's ontology emphasizes that every actual entity tends toward others by its internal dynamic energy, and that every actual entity

receives objectifications from others, and also objectifies upon others. The importance of Whitehead's ontology is that it proposes a "vision of cosmic strangification" in which the whole universe presents itself as an ever-enlarging, ever-enriching and ever-intensifying creative process (p. 168). By explicating the dimension of spiritual freedom implied in the concept of emptiness in Chinese Mahāyāna Buddhism, Shen also discusses the human self-cultivation that is neglected in Whitehead's cosmological discourse.

Brook Ziporyn in Chapter Ten elucidates Neo-Confucian thinker Zhang Zai's new metaphysics of polar relation on the basis of "harmony as substance". Harmony is not understood as harmony "of" something but as substance. Harmony is all there is. Ziporyn describes Zhang's new metaphysics as "monism of harmony" that takes harmony as the sole ultimate substance upon which all things depend (p. 172). Based on the fact that Zhang's monism prioritizes the inherent Harmony of the intrinsic doubleness, Ziporyn is capable of reconfiguring the relationship between qi, the Great Void (taixu 太虚) and the Great Harmony (taihe 太和). Oi and voidness stand for the polar structure of harmonizing extremes. Oi is the concretion of voidness and voidness is the dispersed formlessness of qi. Qi and voidness together manifest the dynamic process of the self-diversification of monistic unity. And Harmony is the ruling category in this dynamic process. Ziporyn argues that "what all things really are is qi, but what qi really is is also the Great Void, and thus what both qi and the Great Void really really are is the Great Harmony" (pp. 175-176). Ziporyn also discusses Zhang's "Western Inscription" (Ximing 西銘), which outlines the alteration and Harmony between condensed and dispersed material force and legitimizes the alteration of life and death and the cardinal importance of human relationships.

John Berthrong in his chapter elaborates the major domains of philosophical cosmology in Zhu Xi's daoxue (learning of the way 道學). Berthrong addresses a systematic study of Zhu's architectonic axiological cosmology and thematizes the moral and kalogenic (beauty-creating) dimension implied in this architectonic structure of cosmology. Berthrong distinguishes "four paradigmatic domains" (p. 196). The first domain is ti 體, which focuses on the coherent principles that format the events of cosmos, and the fundamental patterned matrix of dao. The second domain is yong 用, which explains the dynamic functions and processes and delineates the field of qi as the power of cosmological auto-telic generativity (shengshengbuxi 生生不息). The third domain is he 和 and wen 文, which investigate the cosmic, social, and personal balance needed to realize the civilizing cultural achievements. The fourth domain is de 德, which renders manifest the kalogenic axiological values and virtues. Berthrong clearly presents the lexicographical structure and vocabulary of Zhu's mature metaphysics.

John Makeham in the last chapter analyzes twentieth-century Chinese philosopher Xiong Shili's metaphysics by explicating the relation between the ontological and the phenomenal in *New Treatise on the Uniqueness of Consciousness*. Makeham characterizes Xiong's metaphysics as an ontological monism that is opposed

to ontological dualism and pluralism. Xiong sought to identify the ontological and the phenomenal in this ontological monism. Phenomena are not ontologically different from the Fundamental Reality. The difference between ontological and the phenomenal is the difference between the phenomenological experience of the ultimate truth and conventional truth. Makeham argues that Xiong was able to avoid the trap of Buddhist notions of eternalism (changjian 常見) and nihilism (duanjian 斷見) in this combination of ontological monism with phenomenological dualism. Essentialism that upholds the enduring existence is avoided due to the fact that Fundamental Reality is not independent of the psycho-physical and, like phenomenal reality, is ultimately a mental construct. The nihilistic view that all things lack intrinsic reality is averted on the basis that the arising and ceasing of the phenomenal world is ontologically accommodated and sustained by the Reality that does not arise and cease.

The book's theoretical approach to the ametaphysical character of Chinese metaphysics and its delineation of Chinese metaphysics as metaphysics without metaphysics are similar to the task of deconstruction of metaphysics. Both aim to disassemble the ontotheological constitution of metaphysics without leaving the terrain of metaphysics. As Derrida remarks, "movements of deconstruction do not destroy structures from the outside. They are not possible and effective, nor can they take accurate aim, except by inhabiting those structures." Deconstruction of metaphysics neither dismantles metaphysics from outside nor is a call to move beyond metaphysics. It requires not only grasping metaphysics as a thing to be deconstructed, but also treating metaphysics as containing the source of deconstruction. If metaphysics is deconstructable, it must be deconstructable already. Jean-Luc Nancy writes: "In truth, metaphysics deconstructs itself constitutively, and, in deconstructing itself, it disencloses [déclôt] itself in itself the presence and certainty of the world founded on reason." The ametaphysical character of Chinese metaphysics indicates nothing else than the deconstructability of metaphysics and its constitutive self-deconstruction.

This self-deconstruction also affects the understanding of the status of the transcendent. The transcendent is not the homogeneous realm of an ontotheological closure. Rather, it is the site of disenclosure in which the closure is breached and opened up from within. Seen from the perspective of genealogical deconstruction, metaphysics is not originated from the full substantiality of the transcendent but, on the contrary, originated in the latter's substanceless void. The Western metaphysics of substance has forgotten or concealed the fact that metaphysics constitutively deconstructs itself and is founded upon the pure void. This forgetfulness or concealment leads Western metaphysics to the presupposition of the underlying substance that grounds beings as a whole. The independent existence of the

Jacques Derrida, *Of Grammatology*, trans. Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1976), p. 24.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> Jean-Luc Nancy, *Dis-enclosure: The Deconstruction of Christianity*, trans. Bettina Bergo, Gabriel Malenfant, and Michael B. Smith (New York: Fordham University Press, 2008), p. 7.

transcendental is a derivative construction in which the void or emptiness at the realm of the transcendent is filled in by the unchangeable and stable substance.

As metaphysics without metaphysics, Chinese metaphysics thinks metaphysics in deconstruction. What follows from this is the collapse of the distinction between transcendence and immanence. Nevertheless, the transcendent is not simply abandoned. Chinese metaphysics is not metaphysics of immanence without transcendence. Transcendence is transposed into the realm of immanence. By distinguishing what is without (specific) forms from the fixed mode of substance and by emphasizing the constant changeability of the constant *dao*, the book shows how Chinese metaphysics thinks about the interconnectedness of transcendence and immanence and highlights the "transcendence-in-immanence nature" of Chinese metaphysical thinking. Transcendence is located within the material reality and affects the immanent infrastructure of things. It is "immanent transcendence" which "reveals at once the sense of openness, resiliency, depth, and accommodation of the momentary contents involving the larger realm of existence" Immanent reality is a living process that continuously regenerates itself and is full of vitality, novelty and creativity.

However, the logic of immanent transcendence has not unfolded the full consequence of metaphysics in deconstruction. There are two limitations here. First, the ontological void of the transcendence is not uncovered as such. Transcendence is transposed in a structural overlapping in which what is without (specific) forms reveals itself as the manifestation of what is with (specific) forms and sustains it from within. The two realms are seen as "two conceptions of the same existence"(p. 5). Second, the forces of disruption resulting from the ontological void of the transcendence are not fully unleashed in immanence. The fact that immanence, presented itself as a creative process, constantly extends beyond itself is grounded on a positive ontological force. Immanent transcendence constitutes another mode of ontological closure in which immanence is no longer bordered on a higher transcendence and redirecting the movement of transcendence as toward its own expansion.

A radical unfolding of metaphysics in deconstruction involves double abolishment: the abolishment of the transcendent realm and the abolishment of the immanent realm. Nietzsche writes: "The true world—we have abolished. What world has remained? The apparent one perhaps? But no! With the true world we have also abolished the apparent one." The abolishment of the transcendent doesn't leave immanence intact but demands a further abolishment of immanence. Immanence is

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> Ming Dong Gu, Sinologism: An Alternative to Orientalism and Postcolonialism (London; New York: Routledge, 2013), p. 208.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Kenneth K. Inada, "Immanent Transcendence: The Possibility of an East-West Philosophical Dialogue", *Journal of Chinese Philosophy*, 35. 3 (2008): 507.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Fredrich Nietzsche, *Twilight of the Idols or, How One Philosophizes with a Hammer* in *The Portable Nietzsche*, trans. Walter Kaumann (New York: Viking Press, 1954), p. 486.

also deprived of its consistency. What is overlooked in immanent transcendence is that immanence is inherently inconsistent and is structured around a central void that destabilizes immanence and hollows it out. "The tension between immanence and transcendence is thus also secondary with regard to the gap within immanence itself: 'transcendence' is a kind of perspective illusion, the way we (mis)perceive the gap/discord that inheres to immanence itself."

The ontological void of the transcendent takes place as the spacing of immanence. It exposes the non-coincidence of immanence with regard to itself. The fact that Chinese metaphysics is metaphysics without metaphysics is not a simple assertion of the affirmation of immanence, change, relation and process. It is not enough to see Chinese metaphysics as a complement to the current interests of the Chinese philosophy that, by emphasizing the ethical and political dimension, focus on "connections between virtue ethics and Confucianism", "applications of Daoism in environment ethics", and "debates on the implications of Confucian political thought for democracy" (p. 1). By indicating the similarity of the ametaphysical character of Chinese metaphysics and contemporary deconstruction of metaphysics, what remains to be thought through is the inherent discord of immanence, destabilization, abyssal freedom and contingency.

The book is well produced and informative, providing ample space for the discussion of the problematical question of Chinese metaphysics. The essays are engaging and thought-provoking. Anyone interested in Chinese philosophy and comparative philosophy can greatly benefit from it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> Slavoj Žižek, *The Parallax View* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 2006), p. 36.