THE BODHISATTVVA DOCTRINE IN BUDDHIST SANSKRIT LITERATURE

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To

SANKTA AGDA

In token of friendship and esteem.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS


Abhidharma-koṣa.—L’Abhidharma-kōsa, traduit par L. de la Vallée Poussin (Paris 1924-6).


BEFEO.—“Bulletin de l’école française d’extrême Orient” (Hanoi).

B. Būh.—Bodhisattva-bhūmi (Sanskrit Manuscript Add. 1702, Cambridge University Library).


R. G. Bhandarkar (“Sects”).—“Vaiṣṇavism, Śaivism and Minor Religious Systems” (Strassburg 1913).

H. Béch.—“Buddhismus.”—“Der Buddhismus” (Berlin 1916, 1919). 2 Bde.

S. Beal (“Abstract”).—“Abstract of Four Lectures on Buddhist Literature in China” (London 1882).

S. Beal (“Catena”).—“A Catena of Buddhist Scriptures from the Chinese” (London 1871).

E. Burnouf (“Int.”).—“Introduction a l’histoire du Bouddhisme indien” (Paris 1876).

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L. D. Barnett ("Antiquities").—"Antiquities of India" (London 1913).
L. D. Barnett ("Path").—"The Path of Light" (London 1909).
A. Barth ("Religions").—"The Religions of India" (London 1906).

Çikṣā.—Çāntideva’s Çikṣā-saṃuccaya, edited by C. Bendall (St. Petersburg 1897-1902).
J. E. Carpenter ("Theism").—"Theism in Medieval India" (London 1921).
J. E. Carpenter ("Buddhism").—"Buddhism and Christianity" (London 1923).
R. S. Coplestone ("Buddhism").—"Buddhism, Primitive and Present" (London 1908).

Dīpavāma, edited by H. Oldenberg (London 1879).
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C. A. F. Rhys Davids ("Psychology").—"Buddhist Psychology" (London 1924).

C. A. F. Rhys Davids ("Gotama").—"Gotama the Man" (London 1928). "Sakya, or Buddhist Origins" (1931).


S. N. Das Gupta ("Mysticism").—"Hindu Mysticism" (Chicago 1927).

P. Dürler ("Anfänge").—"Die Anfänge der Heiligenverehrung" (München 1913).

S. N. Das Gupta ("Yoga").—"Yoga as Philosophy and Religion" (New York 1924).

S. N. Das Gupta ("History").—"A History of Indian Philosophy" (Cambridge 1922).

G. A. van den B. van Esinga.—"Indische Einflüsse auf evangelische Erzählungen" (Göttingen 1904).

E. J. Eitel.—"Handbook of Chinese Buddhism" (Hongkong 1888).


C. Elliot.—"Hinduism and Buddhism" (London 1921). 3 vols.

J. A. Eklund ("Nirvāṇa").—"Nirvāṇa: en religionshistorisk undersökning" (Upsala 1899).


ERE ("Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics"), edited by J. Hastings (1908–26).


A. Grünwedel ("Art").—"Buddhist Art in India" (London 1901).

A. Grünwedel ("Mythologie").—"Mythologie des Buddhismus" (Leipzig 1900).

M. and W. Griger (Dhamma).—Pāli Dhamma (München 1921).
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H. S. GOUR ("Spirit")—"The Spirit of Buddhism" (London 1929).
R. GARBE ("Sāṅkhya")—"Sāṅkhya und Yoga" (Strassburg 1896).
R. GARBE ("Christenthum")—"Indien und das Christenthum" (Tübingen 1914).
A. GAWRONSKI ("Studies")—"Studies about the Sanskrit Buddhist Literature" (Crakowie 1919).

LADY HERRINGHAM ("Ajanta").—"Ajanta Frescoes" (Oxford 1915).
H. HACKMANN ("Buddhism")—"Buddhism as a Religion" (London 1910).
E. W. HOPKINS ("India").—"India, Old and New" (New York, 1901).
F. HEILER ("Versenkung").—"Die buddhistische Versenkung" (München 1922).
B. HODGSON ("Lit").—"Essay on the Literature of Nepal" (London 1874).

"Ind. Ant."—"Indian Antiquity" (Bombay).
"IHQ."—"Indian Historical Quarterly" (Calcutta).

J. JAINI ("Outlines").—"Outlines of Jainism" (Cambridge 1916).
JRAS.—"Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society" (London).
JA.—"Journal Asiatique" (Paris).
JBTS.—"Journal of the Buddhist Text Society" (Calcutta).
JBAS.—"Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal" (Calcutta).
JPAT.—"Journal of the Pāli Text Society" (London).

Kar. Pu.—Karunā-puṇḍarikā, edited by S. C. Das and S. C. Čāstri (Calcutta 1898). (Buddhist Text Society.)
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A. B. Keith ("Philosophy").—"Buddhist Philosophy in India and Ceylon" (Oxford 1923).
C. F. Koeppen ("Buddha").—"Die Religion des Buddha und ihre Entstehung" (Berlin 1906).
W. Kirfel ("Kosmographie").—"Die Kosmographie der Inder" (Bonn and Leipzig 1920).
R. Kimura ("Study").—"A Historical Study of the terms Hinayāna and Mahāyāna" (Calcutta 1927).
A. B. Keith ("Lit.").—"A History of Sanskrit Literature" (Oxford 1928).

Lka.—Lamkāvatāra-sūtra, edited by B. Nanjio (Kyoto 1923).

"Lesebuch."—"Religionsgeschichtliches Lesebuch," herausgegeben von A. Bertholet (Tübingen 1908).
A. Lillie ("Buddhism").—"Buddhism in Christendom" (London 1887).
F. Lorinser (Gitā).—Bhagavad-gitā, übers. von F. Lorinser (Breslau 1867).

M. Vy.—Mahā-vyuttapatti, edited by Sakaki (Kyoto 1928).
Milinda.—Milinda-pañha, edited by V. Trenckner (London 1928).
Mdh.—Māja-madhyanaka-kārikā (Mādhyamika-sūtra) de Nāgārjuna, publié par L. de la Vallée Poussin (St. Petersburg 1903).
M. S. Al. and M. S. Al. tr.—Mahāyāna-sūträlaṅkāra, édité et traduit par S. Lévi (Paris 1907, 1911).
J. W. McCrindle ("India").—"Ancient India" (London 1877).
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J. Mafuda ("Idealismus").—"Der individualistische Idealismus der Yogācāra-schule" (Heidelberg 1926).

P. Mason-Ourrel ("Esquisse").—"Esquisse d'une histoire de la philosophie indienne" (Paris 1923).

A. A. Macdonell ("Lit.").—"A History of Sanskrit Literature" (London 1900).

A. E. Medlicott ("Thomas").—"India and the Apostle Thomas" (London 1905).

W. M. McGovern ("Introduction").—"An Introduction to Mahāyāna Buddhism" (London 1922).


Manu-imriti, edited by J. Jolly (London 1887).


Ngd.—Harṣa's Nāgānanda, edited by G. B. Brahma and D. M. Paranjape (Poona 1893).

Netti-pakaraṇa, edited by E. Hardy (London 1902).


G. K. Nariman ("Lit.").—"Literary History of Sanskrit Buddhism" (Bombay 1920).

H. Oldenberg ("Buddha").—"Buddha: sein Leben, seine Lehre, seine Gemeinde" (Berlin 1897).

H. Oldenberg ("Indien").—"Aus dem alten Indien" (Berlin 1910).

P. Oltramare ("Bouddhique").—"La théosophie bouddhique" (Paris 1923).


R. Pichler ("Buddha").—"Leben und Lehre des Buddha" (Berlin 1917).
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L. de la Vallée Poussin ("Études").—"Bouddhisme, Études et Matériaux" (London 1898).

L. de la Vallée Poussin ("Moralité").—"La morale bouddhique" (Paris 1927).


L. de la Vallée Poussin (Nirvāṇa).—"The Way to Nirvāṇa" (Cambridge 1917).

RPP.—Rājapāḍā-pariśrāṣṭhā, publié par L. Finot (Bibliotheca Buddhica). (St. Pétersbourg 1901).

Rāmāyaṇa.—The Rāmāyaṇa, edited by T. R. Krishnamurthy (Bombay 1905).


H. Raychaubhuri ("Materials").—"Materials for the early History of the Vaishnava sect" (Calcutta 1920).

H. G. Rawlinson ("Intercourse").—"Intercourse between India and the Western World" (Cambridge 1916).


Sam. Rā.—Samādhi-rāja-sūtra. (Sanskrit Manuscript No. 4, Hodgson Collection, Royal Asiatic Society, London).

Su. Pr.—Suevarṇa-prabhāśa. (Manuscript No. 8, Hodgson Collection, Royal Asiatic Society, London).


SBE.—"Sacred Books of the East" (Oxford 1879-1910).


E. Senart ("Origines").—"Origines Bouddhiques" (Paris 1907).
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V. A. Smith ("Asoka").—"Asoka" (Oxford 1901).


K. J. Saunders ("Epochs").—"Epochs in Buddhist History" (Chicago 1924).

T. H. Stcherbatsky ("Conception").—"The Central Conception of Buddhism" (London 1923).

T. H. Stcherbatsky (Nirvāṇa).—"The Conception of Buddhist Nirvāṇa" (Leningrad 1927).

R. Seydel ("Legend").—"Die Buddha-Legende und das Leben Jesu" (Weimar 1897).

Silācāra (Majjh. tr.).—The Majjhima-Nikāya (München-Neubiberg 1924).

V. A. Smith ("Art").—"A History of Fine Art in India and Ceylon" (Oxford 1911).

T'oung-Pao (Leyden).


"Psalms of the Brethren" (London 1913).

Triglotte.—Buddhistische Triglotte, edited by A. Schiefner (St. Petersburg 1859).

S. Tachibana ("Ethics").—"The Ethics of Buddhism" (London 1926).

E. J. Thomas ("Buddha").—"The Life of Buddha as Legend and History" (London 1927).

A Tibetan–English Dictionary.—By S. C. Das (Calcutta 1902).


Tārānātha—"Geschichte des Buddhismus in Indien," übers. von A. Schiefner (St. Petersburg 1869).

The Upanisads.—Ānandaśrama Series, Poona.

Uttarādhyayana-sūtra, edited by J. Charpentier (Uppsala 1922).


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The Vibhanga, edited by C. A. F. Rhys Davids (London 1904).

U. Wochhara (Bo. Bhū),—Asanga's Bodhisattva-bhūmi (Leipzig 1908).
I. A. Waddell ("Buddhism"). — "The Buddhism of Tibet" (London 1895).

M. Walleser (Pr. Pā. ix).—"Prajñā-paramitā: die Vollkommenheit der Erkenntnis" (Göttingen 1914).

E. Windisch ("Geburt."). — "Buddha's Geburt" (Leipzig 1909).
E. Windisch ("Māra"). — "Mara und Buddha" (Leipzig 1895).

S. Yamakami ("Systems"). — "Systems of Buddhistic Thought" (Calcutta 1912).

Z.II.—"Zeitschrift für Indologie und Iranistik" (Leipzig).
Z.Bs.—"Zeitschrift für Buddhismus" (Leipzig).
ZDMG.—"Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft."

N.B.—The abbreviations p. and pp. have generally been omitted after the titles of Sanskrit and Pali works.
Chapter I
THE BODHISATTVA DOCTRINE

I. The Background

Early Buddhism inculcated the double ideal of arhatva (Pāli: arahattva) and nirvāṇa (Pāli: nibbāna). Gautama Buddha converted his first disciples by preaching the four Noble Truths and the eightfold Way and laying stress on the transitoriness and non-substantiality of all the constituents of human personality. The disciples were called arhats (Pāli: arāhā, arahant), and Buddha himself was described as an arhat. The conception of arhatship was gradually widened and elaborated by the Teacher and his successors. Thus an arhat was also supposed to comprehend the formula of the twelve nidānas (Causes). He was defined as one, who had eradicated the three āsavas (Pāli: āsavā = "Intoxicants", sins and errors) of sense-desire, love of existence, and ignorance, and also the fourth supplementary āsavā of speculative opinion. He practised the seven Factors of Enlightenment (Pāli: sambojjanā): mindfulness, investigation, energy, joy, serenity, concentration and equanimity. He got rid of the five nivarānas ("Hindrances", "coverings"): sensuality, malice (ill-will), sloth-and-torpor, worry-and-excitement, and doubt. He freed himself from the three "Roots of Evil": sense-desire, hatred and delusion. He practised self-restraint and Concentration, and acquired various wonder-working Powers. He fulfilled the triple discipline of virtuous conduct, Concentration and Wisdom. He followed the five ordinary ethical precepts and the ten strict rules for the monks. He had no craving or attachment to the five Aggregates that constitute human personality (form, feeling, perception, volitions and consciousness), or to the six elements of the universe (earth, water, fire, air, space and mentality). He obtained the six abhijñās (Super-knowledges). He put aside all evil dispositions, which remained far from him. He destroyed the ten Fetters (samyojana) of belief in substantial individuality, perverted notions about good works and ceremonies, doubt, sense-desire, hatred, love of life
in the material worlds and the non-material worlds, pride, excitement and ignorance. He observed the tenfold righteous course of action by abstaining from killing, theft, unchastity, falsehood, slander, harsh speech, frivolous talk, covetousness, malice and wrong views. He was pure in his physical acts, his words and his thoughts. He was free from the threefold Craving for pleasure, life and annihilation. He practised the four Meditations, the four ecstatic Attainments and the supreme condition of Trance. He eschewed the extremes of severe austerities and sensual self-indulgence. He had faith in the Buddha, enjoyed good health, and cultivated sincerity, spiritual energy and insight. He was firmly established in the seven bases of arhatship, viz. keen desire for the discipline, for insight into the Doctrine, for the suppression of hankerings, for the need of solitude, for energy, Mindfulness, perspicacity and intuition of the Truth. He cultivated the eight Positions of Mastery and the eight Deliverances. He knew well the four sublime subjective states of love, compassion, sympathetic joy and equanimity. He practised all the thirty-seven principles that were conducive to Enlightenment, viz. the four Fields of Mindfulness, the four Right Efforts, the four Bases of wonder-working Power, the five controlling Principles, the five Powers, the seven Factors of Enlightenment and the eightfold Way. Above all, he was absolutely free from the three or four ārasās, and this freedom made him an arhat.

An arhat, who was thus liberated, knew that he would not be re-born. He had accomplished what was to be done. He had laid down his burden. He had lived the holy life. He attained undefiled and final emancipation of mind and heart. He was alone, secluded, zealous, earnest, master of himself.¹

Such an arhat also went forth as a preacher and taught the doctrine of the Buddha to the people. The Master had exhorted his disciples to wander and preach the truth for the welfare and liberation of the multitude, as he loved his fellow-creatures and had pity on them.²

Such was the ideal of the arhat, as it was understood during the three centuries after Gautama Buddha's death. But it seems that the Buddhist monks began to neglect certain important aspects of it in the second century B.C., and emphasised a few duties to the exclusion of others. They became too self-centred and contemplative, and did not evince the old zeal for missionary
activity among the people. They seem to have cared only for their own liberation from sin and sorrow. They were indifferent to the duty of teaching and helping all human beings. The bodhisattva doctrine was promulgated by some Buddhist leaders as a protest against this lack of true spiritual fervour and altruism among the monks of that period. The coldness and aloofness of the arhats led to a movement in favour of the old gospel of "saving all creatures". The bodhisattva ideal can be understood only against this background of a saintly and serene, but inactive and indolent monastic Order.

This tendency towards spiritual selfishness among the monks is exhibited in the later Pāli literature. The Dhammapada exalts self-control, meditation and absence of hatred, but it also exhibits an attitude of contempt for the common people and remoteness from their interests. Most poets of the Thera-gāthā only strike the note of personal salvation; they seldom speak of the duty of helping others. The author of the Milinda-panha declares that an arhat should aim at the destruction of his own pain and sorrow. The singular ideal of a pratyeka-buddha was also evolved during this period (Pāli: pucceka-buddha). Such a Buddha is "one enlightened by himself, i.e. one who has attained to the supreme and perfect insight, but dies without proclaiming the truth to the world" (cf. Puggala-panñatti, p. 14). It seems almost blasphemous to conceive of a "Buddha" without the attribute of love and altruistic activity. But the invention of this term and its recognition as an epithet of a certain type of "Buddhas" may be interpreted as a sign of the times. Some Buddhists thought that one could be very wise and holy through personal self-culture without fulfilling the equally important duty of teaching and helping suffering humanity. The bodhisattva ideal was taught in order to counteract this tendency to a cloistered, placid, inert monastic life. A bodhisattva is emphatically and primarily one who criticises and condemns the spiritual egoism of such arhats and pratyeka-buddhas. He declares at the outset that he is not an arhat or a pratyeka-buddha, with whom he should always be contrasted. He should also be clearly distinguished from them.

The exponents of the new ideal also protested against the arhat's summum bonum of nīvaraṇa. They declared that mere cessation of dukkha (pain, evil) or the conquest of the dīvas was not enough. They may have pointed out that the word nībāṇa
did not occur in the earliest records of Gautama Buddha’s first sermons, but that anuttara samā-sambodhi (perfect supreme Enlightenment) was mentioned in them. Gautama Buddha acquired such bodhi; hence every one could and should do the same. The arhat’s ideal of nirvāṇa did not include intellectual Perfection and supreme Wisdom. The arhats also believed that a monk, who attained nirvāṇa in his life, could not remain in touch with this world of conditioned phenomena after his death, whatever his state of existence might be. He was not reborn on earth or in the heavens; that much was certain. He ceased to exist, or he existed in an undefinable, inconceivable sphere somewhere or nowhere (asamskṛta); or nothing could be predicated about him. Any rate, he was lost to the world of men and devas as a friend and helper, as there was nothing that bridged the gulf between the samskṛta (conditioned) and the asamskṛta elements (unconditioned). Nirvāṇa was of course regarded as an asamskṛta-dhātu. Thus the arhat, once deceased, was dead and gone, as far as his relations with the world of living beings were concerned, whatever his destiny, positive or negative, might be. The bodhisattva doctrine was promulgated also as a protest against this theory of arhatship, which was regarded as doubly defective. It disregarded the higher duty of acquiring the perfect Wisdom of a Buddha; and it deprived the world of the services of the holy men and women who had attained nirvāṇa and passed away. A bodhisattva was defined as one who strove to gain bodhi and scorned such nirvāṇa, as he wished to help and succour his fellow-creatures in the world of sorrow, sin and impermanence.

II. “Bodhisattva”

The Sanskrit word bodhisattva has been explained in different ways. Bodhi means “Enlightenment”. But several interpretations of the word sattva have been offered by ancient and modern scholars.

(1) Sattva may mean “Wesen, Charakter”; “essence, nature, true essence” (Skt. Dicy. Pbg. & Skt. Dicy. M.W.). The Pāli word satta may also mean “substance” (Pāli Dicy. s.v.). The great modern lexicographers seem to interpret sattva in this sense. Thus, according to Böhtlingk and Roth, bodhisattva means: “(adj.) dessen Wesen Erkenntniss ist; (mas.) der im Besitz des Wesens der Bodhi Seiende.” Monier
Williams translates: "one who has bodhi or perfect wisdom as his essence" (p. 688b). E. Burnouf seems to interpret the word in the same way as Böhtlingk and Roth: "celui qui possède l'essence de la bodhi." P. Oltramare follows Monier-Williams and translates: "un être dont l'essence consiste dans l'éveil" ("Bouddhique", p. 250). C. F. Koeppe: "Derjenige, dessen Wesenheit die höchste Weisheit (bodhi) geworden" ("Buddha", ii, 18).

C. Eliot: "One whose essence is knowledge" (Eliot, ii, 7).
H. Hackmann: "He whose essence is becoming Enlightenment" ("Buddhism", p. 52). It may be added that the modern Hindi word "sat," which is derived from Skt. "sattva," means "essence, extract".

(2) "Sattva" (masculine) may mean "any living or sentient being" (Skt. Dicy. M.W.), "ein lebendes Wesen" (Skt. Dicy. Pbg.). The Pali word satta may mean "a living being, creature, a sentient and rational being, person" (Pali Dicy. s.v.). Most modern scholars adopt this interpretation.
L. de la Vallée Poussin: "On peut le traduire 'creature' ou 'être vivant'" ("Opinions", p. 169, line 8).
M. Walleser: "Weisheitswesen" (Pr. Pad. tr., p. 5).
T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: "a bodhi-being, i.e. a being destined to attain fullest Enlightenment" (Pali Dicy. s.v.).
S. Lefmann: "Bodhisattva bedeutet einen, dessen Wesen Erweckung oder Erleuchtung ist" (Lal. V. tr., p. 50).
M. Anesaki: "A being seeking for bodhi" (ERE., v, 450).
Csoma de Korös: "Purified, mighty soul" (Csoma, p. 6).

The author of the Samādhī-rāja-sūtra interprets sattva as
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"being, creature", but thinks that the word bodhisattva means "one who admonishes or exhorts all beings" (bodhīta sattvān... Sam. Rā. fol. 25a, 4). P. Ghosa seems to interpret sattva as "living being", but analyses the whole word in a peculiar way: "bodhiḥ sa cāsaṃ maha-krp-ācayena sattva-ālambanat sattvaḥ ceti bodhisattvaḥ." This would mean that the person is both bodhi and sattva!

(3) "Sattva" may mean "spirit, mind, sense, consciousness"; "Geist" (Skt. Dicy. M.W. and Pbg.). The Pāli word satta may also mean "soul" (Pāli Dicy. s.v.). According to L. de la Vallée Poussin, the Indian lexicographers also explain sattva as a synonym for cittā (thought) or vyavāśaya (decision, determination).10 Prajñākaramati, commenting on the B.C. Avās, says: "tatra (bodhau) sattvām abhiprāyo/yeti bodhisattvāḥ."11 P. Ghosa cites an old commentator, who also interprets sattva as meaning abhiprāya (intention, purpose): "bodhau sattvām abhiprāyo yeśam te bodhisattvāḥ" (Pr. Pā. Gāta-y. p. 2, note 2). Thus the word would mean: "one whose mind, intentions, thoughts or wishes are fixed on bodhi". P. Oltramare rejects this interpretation as far-fetched and inaccurate;12 but L. de la Vallée Poussin seems to be inclined to accept it, while he at the same time admits that the original meaning of the word may have been derived from the idea of "essence, own nature".13

(4) Sattva may mean "embryo" (Skt. Dicy. M.W.). H. S. Gour translates: "In whom knowledge is latent and undeveloped" ("Buddhism," p. XI).

(5) Sattva may have the same meaning as it has in the Yoga-sūtras, where it is opposed to puruṣa and means "mind, intelligence". This interpretation is offered by E. Senart, who believes that Buddhism was profoundly influenced by the Yoga system. He says: "Sattva ne désigne pas seulement le premier des trois guṇas, soit seul, soit complété par buddhi ou cittā; il désigne l'esprit, mais en tant que l'esprit résume et exprime la prakṛti et les guṇas qui la constituent... l'esprit actif, conscient, qui relèvent de la prakṛti. Expliqué par cette conception de sattva et comme bahuvrīhi, bodhisattva désignerait le futur Buddha, provisoirement retenu dans les liens de l'existence, comme 'possédant le sattva de la bodhi', c'est-à-dire une illumination encore liée aux conditions inférieures des guṇas, partant imparfaite."14

It is true that sattva occurs frequently in the Yoga-sūtras, and G. Jha translates it as "thinking principle or mind": (Yo.
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Sū. II, 41, p. 109, "Sattva-suddhi-saumanary-aikāgya-endriya-
jay-ātma-darṣana-yogatvāni ca"). E. Senart points out that
sattva is declared to be distinct from purusa in the Yoga-Sūtras
He thus prefers the interpretation cited above, but I must confess
that I do not really understand what he means by “le sattva de la
bodhi”.

H. Kern is of opinion that the first word bodhi may be
related to the buddhi of the Yoga system, especially as the
word buddhisattva is found in the literature of Yoga. A
bodhisattva would thus be a personification of potential
intelligence. 16

(6) Sattva may be a wrongly Sanskritized form of the Pāli
word satta, which may correspond to Skt. sakta. Thus
Pāli bodhisatta, from which the Sanskrit word is derived,
would mean bodhi-sakta, “one who is devoted or attached to
bodhi”. Sakta (from the root saṅj) means “clung, stuck or
attached to, joined or connected with, addicted or devoted to,
fond of, intent on” (Skt. Dicy. M.W.). According to the Pāli
Dictionary, the Pāli word satta may correspond to several
Sanskrit words: sattva, sapta, sakta, and saapat. It
has been suggested that the Pāli word satta is also related to
Skt. sāka, and not to Skt. sūtra, as the latter word is a very
inappropriate designation for the lengthy and prolix Buddhist
discourses. The Buddhists attached great importance to
subhāṣita (good sayings), and the Pāli word suttī does
correspond to Skt. sūkti (Pāli Dicy. s.v.). However that may
be, it may be plausibly argued that Skt. bodhi-sakta is a possible
equivalent of Pāli bodhisatta. The opinion of the Buddhist
writers, who adopted the rendering sattva, need not be con-
sidered absolutely decisive in this question, as they have certainly
given us other wrongly Sanskritized forms, e.g. smṛty-upasthāna
(for Pāli sati-patthāna), samyak-prabhāna (for Pāli sammappadhāna),
etc. Bodhisattva may also belong to this class of wrongly
Sanskritized terms. P. Oltramare rejects this interpretation, as the
verb saṅj is not used to denote attachment to moral and
spiritual ideals, and the later writers could not make such “a
strange mistake” in translating Pāli into Sanskrit. 18

(7) “Sattva” may mean “strength, energy, vigour, power,
courage” (Skt. Dicy. M.W. p. 1052). The word bodhisattva
would then mean, “one whose energy and power is directed,
towards bodhi." Sattva in this sense occurs frequently in Kṣemendra's Avadāna-kalpa-lotā: "sattva-abhidhiḥ" (II, p. 713, verse 42); "sattva-vijñataṃ bhagavatār caritam niṣāṇya" (II, p. 85, verse 74); "kumāraḥ sattva-sāgarah" (II, p. 723, verse 21); sattva-mādhir (II, p. 945, verse 21); "bodhisattvaṃ sattva-vibhāṣītah" (II, p. 113, verse 8). The word also seems to have the same signification in the B. Ct. (IX, 30—"bodhisattvaṃ paripūrna-sattvaḥ"). E. B. Cowell translates, "whose perfection was absolute"; but this rendering does not explain the precise meaning of sattva.

The Tibetan lexicographers translate bodhisattva as byan-chub sems-dpal". In this compound, byan-chub means bodhi, sems means "mind" or "heart", and dpal signifies "hero, strong man" (= Skt. śūra, vīra). (Tib. Dicy. Jäschke, 374b and 325b; Tib. Dicy. Das, 883b, 787b and 1276b). This interpretation seems to combine two meanings of sattva, viz. "mind" and "courage" (Nos. 3 and 7 above). But it does not make the etymology of the compound word bodhisattva in any way clearer or more intelligible. It may be inferred that the Tibetan translators associated the ideas of "mind" and "courage" with the word sattva. According to E. J. Eitel, the Chinese interpret bodhisattva as "he whose essence has become bodhi" (p. 34a).

The principal Buddhist writers have not taken the trouble of discussing the exact meaning of sattva, though they mention many epithets in praise of a bodhisattva. Very little guidance is to be obtained from that quarter.

I may suggest that sattva cannot be accurately rendered by "essence", or "mind", or "intention", or "courage", or "embryo" or "the sattva of the Yoga-sūtras" (Nos. 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, above). If we interpret sattva as "essence", the word seems to be too lofty a title for a mere aspirant for wisdom. It would be a more suitable appellation for a perfect Buddha, who has realized the supreme bodhi. Sattva, interpreted as "intention", or "mind", or "embryo", does not yield a simple and natural sense: these renderings appear to be too scholastic and far-fetched. We need not wander into the distant fairyland of the Yoga system in order to explain an old Pāli word. H. Kern attempted to identify bodhi with the buddhi of the Sāṅkhya-Yoga; but buddhi, in Buddhist metaphysics, belongs to the lower phenomenal plane of existence, while bodhi is the supreme Wisdom. The B.C. Ava.
says: "buddhih samvitr ucyate" (IX, 2—buddhi is called samvitre, i.e. "obstruction, covering"). The word buddhi-sattva occurs in Vyāsa's commentary on Yo. Sū. I, 47 (p. 51): "āsuddhyāvaraṇa-mālāpṛetasya prakāś-ātmano buddhi-sattvasya." J. H. Woods translates the word as "the sattva of the thinking substance", but this does not seem to refer to a person like a bodhisattva. It is not found in the text of the sūtras. The Yoga-sūtras were composed between A.D. 300 and 500, and Vyāsa's commentary was written in the period A.D. 650-850. The word bodhisatta, however, is as old as the Pāli Nikāyas, which date from the fifth and fourth centuries B.C. (e.g. "mayham-pī kho anabhisaṃbuddhassa bodhisattassā eva", Majjh. I, 17, 6; "Vipassissā bhikkhave bodhisattassā sato," Samyutta II, 5, 8). It is not necessary to adopt the unsound method of appealing to comparatively modern treatises in order to explain a very ancient Pāli term.

One is tempted to believe that Pāli satta may really be rendered by Skt. sakta, as this interpretation seems to define the chief quality of an aspirant for bodhi. But the safest way is always to go back to the Pāli without attaching much importance to the later lexicographers and philosophers. Now bodhisatta in the Pāli texts seems to mean "a bodhi-being". But satta here does not denote a mere ordinary creature. It is almost certainly related to the Vedic word satva, which means "Krieger", "a strong or valiant man, hero, warrior." In this way, we can also understand the final ṅph in the Tibetan equivalent. Satta in Pāli bodhisatta should be interpreted as "heroic being, spiritual warrior". The word suggests the two ideas of existence and struggle, and not merely the notion of simple existence.

The word bodhisattva is often coupled with mahā-sattva (great Being).

III. The Bodhisattva as Distinct from and Opposed to the Arhats (Grāvakas) and the Pratyeka-Buddhas

The exponents and champions of the bodhisattva ideal carry on a vigorous controversy with the adherents of the two other ideals of the grāvaka and the pratyeka-buddha. A bodhisattva is regarded as superior to a grāvaka and a pratyeka-buddha, and the new ideal is set up as the summum bonum of the religious life. It appears that the
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reformers or innovators objected to the old gospel on two chief grounds:—

(1) A bodhisattva aims at the acquisition of bodhi and buddhajñāna (Buddha-knowledge), while a prāvaka and a pratyekabuddha are content with the nirvāṇa that is attained by the destruction of the āsravas. The two latter stages are also marked by the development of certain kinds of bodhi, but they are inferior to the supreme Enlightenment of a Buddha. Thus three types of bodhi are recognised: prāvaka-bodhi, pratyekabodhi and anuttarā samyak-sambodhi (the supreme and perfect bodhi). The last is declared to be the highest. This classification must have been devised at a comparatively early period, as it is found in the Ava. Ça. and the Divy. It is mentioned in almost all the later treatises.

"Prāvakabodhim pratyekabodhim ... maha-bodhim (M.S. Al. 169, 15). "He wishes to 'reveal or predict' the three kinds of bodhi" (Av. Ça. I, 5, 17 ff.). "Some produced in themselves the thought of, or the aspiration for, the bodhi of the prāvakas, etc." (Divy. 209, 50). "They fulfil the Way of the prāvakas ... the Way of the pratyekabuddhas ... and then for the purification of the stage of bodhisattvas" (Da. Bhū. 25.23–26.3–26.7). "He acts as a father towards all prāvakas, pratyekabuddhas, and those who have started on the Way of the bodhisattvas" (Sad. Pu. 416, 14).

"By giving such a gift, the position of an arhat is obtained; by giving such a gift, pratyekabodhi is obtained; by giving such a gift, the supreme and perfect bodhi is obtained" (Pr. Pā. Çata. 91, 19–21). Arhatvā, pratyekabodhi and Omniscience are also mentioned as successive stages in the Pr. Pā. Çata. (p. 1373, lines 1–6). Prāvaka-bhūmi and pratyekabhūmi are contrasted with Omniscience (sino-akāra-jñāna. Pr. Pā. Çata., p. 964, 19–20).

In the earlier books like the Sad. Pu., we find that the word "arhat" is more common than prāvaka, but the latter gradually gained ground at the expense of the former. Prāvaka is employed exclusively in connection with bodhi. We read of prāvaka-bodhi, not of arhat-bodhi. The Sad. Pu. often describes Buddha's followers as arhats, while it also speaks of prāvakas in the same sense. In the later literature, we read only of prāvaka-bodhi and prāvaka-yāya, and the term arhat seems to have disappeared altogether. Thus the eminent disciples of Buddha are called prāvakas in the M.Vy. (xlvii, p. 79). Perhaps the word prāvaka had a derogatory connotation, like
hina-yāna, as the author of the Da. Bhū. speaks disparagingly of the grāvaka and explains that they are so called on account of their practice of simply hearing the preachers and following their word (Da. Bhū. 25, 23). But the author of the Sad. Pu. thinks that a grāvaka is "a preacher" (one who makes others hear). Grāvaka-bodhi is employed as a synonym of nirvāṇa as the ideal of the arhats.

Corresponding to these three kinds of bodhi, there are three yānas or "Ways", which lead an aspirant to the goal. The third yāna was at first called the bodhisattvayāna, but it was subsequently re-named mahā-yāna. The other two yānas were spoken of as the hina-yāna.\textsuperscript{82} In the later treatises, the term bodhisattvayāna is very rare, as mahā-yāna has taken its place. This is sometimes called the Tathāgata-yāna.


Now a bodhisattva strives to become a Buddha by attaining perfect bodhi, while an arhat is content with mere nirvāṇa, the cessation of the āsāyas. The pratyeka-buddhas are not mentioned very frequently in the principal treatises, probably because they are so rare. The discussion centres on the comparative merits of the two chief Ways, the Way of the grāvakas and the Way of the bodhisattvas. The Sanskrit writers frequently compare and contrast the two ideals of nirvāṇa and anuttarā-samyak-sambodhi (supreme and perfect Enlightenment). "To the grāvakas, he preached the doctrine which is associated with the four Noble Truths and leads to the (formula) of Dependent Origination. It aims at transcending birth, old age, disease, death, sorrow, lamentation, pain, distress of mind and weariness; and it ends in nirvāṇa. But, to the great Beings, the bodhisattvas, he preached the doctrine, which is associated with the six Perfections and which ends in the Knowledge of the Omniscient One after the attainment of the supreme and perfect bodhi" (Sad. Pu. 17, 13 ff.—376, 5 ff.). "Each of
these, the Sūtra (Discourses), the Vinaya (the Rules of Discipline), and the Abhidharma (Theory of the Doctrine: Philosophy and Psychology) have briefly a fourfold meaning. By knowing them, the bodhisattva acquires Omniscience. But the śrāvaka attains to the destruction of the āsravas by knowing the sense of even one verse" (M.S. Al. 54, 11 ff.). In the Sadd. Pu., the disciples say to Gautama Buddha:—

"Lord, we were afflicted by three painful states. By which three? The painful sensation caused by bodily pain; the pain, which has its origin in the samskrāras (volitions), and the pain caused by change. Being in this transient world, we were intent upon the lesser things. Hence we have been taught by the Lord to reflect on the numerous lower dharmas (rules or doctrines), which are like a receptacle of filth. Having applied ourselves to them, we have striven and struggled, O Lord, but we have begged and sought for only nirvāṇa, as if it were our wage. We have been content, O Lord, with that nirvāṇa, which was obtained. We thought that we, having striven and struggled in diligently following those rules, have obtained much from the Tathāgata. The Lord knows that we are intent on the lesser things, and therefore he neglects us and does not associate with us. He does not say to us: 'This treasure of Knowledge, which is the Tathāgata's, verily this, even this same, shall be yours.' The Lord, by his wisdom in the choice of means (for our salvation), appoints us heirs to that treasure of Knowledge, which is the Tathāgata's. But we ourselves have no desire for it. We know that even this is much for us, that we get nirvāṇa from the Lord as our wages (i.e. as a labourer gets his remuneration) "........ "If the Lord perceives the strength of our faith and utters the word bodhisattva with reference to us, then the Lord makes us do two things: we are said to be persons of little faith in the presence of the bodhisattvas, and these latter are roused to (the pursuit) of the noble Enlightenment of the Buddha. The Lord, now knowing the strength of our faith, declared this to us. In this manner, O Lord, we say: 'We have suddenly obtained this pearl of Omniscience as if we were the sons of the Tathāgata, though it was not desired or solicited by us, neither was it sought and striven after, nor was it thought of or asked for by us'" (Sad. Pu., pp. 108-10). Even the highest form of nirvāṇa is clearly distinguished from bodhi in such a passage as the following:—
"The great Being, the bodhisattva, while girding on his armour, does not discriminate among the creatures, (saying): 'So many creatures shall I help to obtain complete nirvāṇa, in which no material substratum remains; and so many creatures shall I not help in this way. So many creatures shall I establish in bodhi; and so many (others) shall I not so establish. But the bodhisattva, the great Being, verily dons his armour for the sake of all creatures' (Pr. Pā. Cūta, p. 1299, lines 13–17).

In an interesting passage, the author or authors of the Pr. Pā. Cūta, enumerate several doctrines and practices, which lead to the grāvaka-bhūmi (the Stage of a grāvaka). They add that he, who tries to persuade a man to remain content with that lower state, is "a bad friend" (pāpa-mitra) and really does the work of the "Evil One" (māra-karmāṇī). The goal should be the attainment of the anuttara-samāyak-sambodhi (Pr. Pā. Cūta, pp. 1190–1). The bodhisattva, again, may lead other beings to nirvāṇa, but he himself must strive for the perfect bodhi (Pr. Pā. Cūta, p. 1264, lines 18–20). Gautama Buddha himself is represented in the Sad. Pu. as first teaching only the way to nirvāṇa, which enables a person to transcend birth, old age, disease, death and sorrow; but he further incites the bodhisattvas to the pursuit of the "supreme and perfect bodhi" (Sad. Pu. 71, 1–9).

In fact, the entire sixth chapter of the Sad. Pu. elaborates the novel and startling idea that the most eminent of Gautama Buddha’s disciples, who are described as liberated arhats in the old scriptures, should continue their spiritual development till they attain to the rank of Buddhahood. The condition of nirvāṇa, which they had acquired, belonged to a lower stage. None of the great arhats of the earliest period of Buddhist history are spared. Kācyapa, Mahākātyāyana and Maudgalyāyana are mentioned, and their future Buddhahood is predicted (Sad. Pu., pp. 144, 150, 153). In the 8th and 9th chapters, the same prediction is made with regard to Kauṇḍinya, Ānanda, Rāhula and 2,500 arhats (pp. 207.7–209–216.3–219.12–221.4 ff.). The inadequacy of the old ideal of nirvāṇa is vividly set forth in the words, which are put into the mouths of the 500 arhats. They say to Gautama Buddha:

"We confess our transgressions, Lord. We have always and at all times thought thus (literally 'conceived the idea'): 'This is our final nirvāṇa; we are finally released.' We have been foolish and unwise; we have not known the right way. And why? Because we have been content (literally 'gone to contentment')
with this sort of inferior (or insignificant) knowledge, whereas we should have acquired perfect Enlightenment through the Knowledge of the Tathāgata" (Sad. Pu. 210, 1-4).

At this point a parable is introduced. A man visits a friend’s house and falls asleep or lies drunk there. That friend puts a priceless gem in his garment and ties a knot. The man does not know about it. He wanders to a far country and falls on evil days. He obtains food and raiment with the greatest difficulty. Then he happens to meet that old friend, who tells him of the precious gift that has always been with him, though unbeknown to him. The 500 arhats then proceed:

"Even thus, O Lord, you produced in us the thoughts of Omniscience, while you formerly lived the life (or followed the spiritual career) of a bodhisattva. But we do not know or understand them. We imagined that we had been liberated through (reaching) the stage of the arhat. We can hardly be said to live, inasmuch as we are satisfied with such trifling (or insignificant, inferior) knowledge. But our aspiration for the Knowledge of the Omniscient One has never wholly perished. And the Tathāgata, O Lord, teaches us: ‘O Monks, do not think that this is nirvāṇa. In your consciousness, there are roots of Merit, which I have formerly ripened (or matured). This is now my wisdom in the choice of means (for conversion). I utter my words in preaching the religion and thereby you think that this now is nirvāṇa.’ Having been taught thus, we have to-day received the prediction about our supreme and perfect Enlightenment" (Sad. Pu. 211, 8 ff.).

The author of the Sad. Pu. expresses the definite opinion that all arhats, who have destroyed the āsravas, must go further and seek the supreme sambodhi (Sad. Pu. 43.11 ff.-137.5 ff.-142.3 ff.). The Bo. Bhū. explicitly declares that a bodhisattva should not take delight in the idea of nirvāṇa; he should be averse to nirvāṇa (nirvāṇa-vimukhena vihartavyam. Bo. Bhū. fol. 69a, 1, 2).

The ideal of arhatship is thus declared to be very inferior to that of Buddhahood, which is the goal of a bodhisattva. It may be added that the Sanskrit Buddhist writers have also described an arhat with reference to the formula of the ten Fetters (samma-yāvanī), which is elaborated in the Pāli writings. The four states of gṛṇa-āpanna (one who has entered the stream), sakkat-āgamin (the once-returner), ānāgamin (one who does not return to earth)
and the arhat are recognized by some Mahāyānist authors as the preliminary stages of a bodhisattva's career. They are mentioned in the Lankāvatāra, the Avadāna-kalpalata, the Daśa-bhūmikasūtra, the Prajñā-pāramitā and the Kāranda-sūtra. The Pr. Pā. Cāta indeed incorporates the entire scheme in its own metaphysics, but adds that all the Fetters can be destroyed only by prajñā-pāramitā (the Perfection of Wisdom). It thus seems to teach that even the old ideal of the arhat is unattainable without the practices enjoined by the new school. It mentions all the Fetters in this order: sat-kāya-dṛṣṭi (belief in substantial Individuality), vicikītṛa (doubt), śīla-urata-parāmarṣa (the perverted belief in good works and ceremonies), kāma-rāga (love of sense-pleasure), vyāpāda (malice, ill-will), rūpa-rāga (love of existence in the material worlds), ārūpa-rāga (love of existence in the non-material worlds), avidyā (ignorance), māna (pride) and auddhatya (self-righteousness, exaltation, excitement). It defines an arhat as one who has destroyed all these Fetters. At the same time, it declares that the acquisition of the prajñā-pāramitā or bodhi is necessary for the eradication of these Fetters (page 478, line 12). Thus even arhatship is regarded as almost impossible of attainment without the bodhi of a bodhisattva.

In this connection, it is interesting to compare the stereotyped formulae, which are found in the Āva. Cā., the Divy. and other Sanskrit treatises. An arhat and a bodhisattva are described in two different sets of words, which indicate that the new ideal was radically divergent from the old. In the Āva. Cā., the following passage recurs frequently:

"He exerted himself and strove and struggled, and thus he realized that this circle (or wheel) of Life (or the Universe), with its five constituents, is in constant flux. He rejected all the conditions of existence which are caused by the samikāras (material compounds), as their nature is such that they decay and fall away, they change and are destroyed. He abandoned all the klesas (sins, passions) and realized the state of an arhat. When he became an arhat, he lost all attachment to the three worlds; gold and a clop of earth were the same to him; the sky and the palm of his hand were the same to his mind; he was like fragrant sandalwood; he had torn the egg-shell (of ignorance) by his Knowledge (i.e. as a bird is hatched); he obtained Knowledge, the abhijñās (Super-knowledges) and the pratiṣamānās (analytical Powers); he became averse to gain, avarice and honour in the
world (or to existence, gain, etc.); he became worthy of being respected, honoured and saluted by the devas, including Indra and his younger brother, as Viṣṇu or Kṛṣṇa” (Ava. Ča. II, 348, 1–6 and passim).

In the Divy-āvadāna, we find the old Pāli formula of arhatship: “My rebirth is destroyed; the excellent (spiritual) life has been lived; what had to be done (‘duty’) has been done; I shall not know a birth (or existence) after this life” (Divy, 37, 14–16).

The epithets which are applied to the arhats in the Sad. Pu. and the Pr. Pa. Cāta. are also very characteristic. The arhats are declared to be free from the āsāsas and the klesas (passions); they are self-restrained; they are perfectly free in their hearts and minds (or in their thought and wisdom); they are of good birth and comparable to great elephants in nobility, strength and endurance; they have done their duty, accomplished all that was to be done, laid down their burden, and achieved their aim (or their highest Good); they have destroyed the fetters of existence; their minds are perfectly liberated through right knowledge; they have attained to the highest perfection in all forms of mind-control and are conversant with the abhijñās (Super-knowledges. Sad. Pu., 6–9).

If we compare these epithets with those which are applied to the bodhisattvas in the same books, we shall understand the second point of difference between the ideals of the bodhisattvas and the arhat.

The arhats are represented as very austere, saintly, self-restrained, meditative ascetics, but also as rather frigid and self-centred. The bodhisattvas are described as more compassionate and active. They will “roll the wheel of the Doctrine that will never turn back.” They serve and worship hundreds of Buddhas. Their bodies and minds are suffused and penetrated with friendliness for all creatures (maitri). They are fit for imparting the Buddha’s Knowledge to others. They have attained the full perfection of Wisdom. They help many living beings to secure liberation and happiness (santārakāth. Sad. Pu. 2, 11 ff.).

It is to be noted that the words “friendliness” (maitri) and “saviour, liberator” (santāraka) do not occur in the passage that describes the arhats.

(2) The Mahāyānists accuse the arhat of selfishness and egotism, because he strives and struggles only for his own liberation from sorrow instead of working for the liberation and happiness of
all beings. A bodhisattva, who follows the ideal of the Mahāyāna, aims at the highest Good for himself and also for others. An arhat is rightly or wrongly represented by the Mahāyānist authors as a self-complacent, self-regarding and unsocial recluse, who is intent only on solving his own personal problem and does not think of others. A bodhisattva, on the contrary, thinks both of himself and others. The Sad. Pa. condemns the arhats and the pratyeka-buddhas, because they exert themselves only for their complete nirvāṇa (ātma-parinirvāṇa-hetuḥ), but the bodhisattvas aspire to the attainment of bodhi for the welfare and happiness of many beings, both men and devas. They wish to help all creatures to obtain Liberation (sarva-sattva-parinirvāṇa-hetuḥ), because they love and pity the whole world. Their wisdom serves to liberate all beings; but such is not the case with the wisdom of the graṇvākas and the pratyeka-buddhas, who never say to themselves: "Having acquired supreme and perfect Enlightenment, we shall help all beings to attain the complete and final nirvāṇa, devoid of any material substratum." The thoughts of these two classes of saints are narrow and mean, as they promote only their own personal interests; but the thoughts of the bodhisattvas are noble and generous, as they deal with the interests of others. Great Merit is obtained by the bodhisattvas, who devote themselves to the good of others (par-ārtha); but the graṇvākas think only of their own good (sv-ārtha). A bodhisattva may be compared to a charitable man who gives food to other people; but a graṇvāka is like a person who consumes it himself. The Mahāyānists thus attribute altruistic motives to the bodhisattvas, who are therefore declared to be infinitely superior to the graṇvākas in many passages of Buddhist Sanskrit literature.

Here we find two remarkable ideas: (a) A bodhisattva helps all beings not only to attain the spiritual goal of nirvāṇa, but also to obtain the more material advantages of happiness and welfare in the world (sukha). The austere unworldliness of the old ideal is abandoned in favour of a more humane aim.

(b) A bodhisattva wishes to help all beings to attain nirvāṇa. He must therefore refuse to enter nirvāṇa himself, as he cannot apparently render any services to the living beings of the worlds after his own nirvāṇa. He thus finds himself in the rather illogical position of pointing the way to nirvāṇa for other beings, while he himself stays in this world of suffering in order to do good to all creatures. This is his great sacrifice for others. He has
taken the great Vow: "I shall not enter into final nirvāna before all beings have been liberated." He has girt on his spiritual armour and wishes to continue his work as a bodhisattva in all worlds and universes. He does not realise the highest Liberation for himself, as he cannot abandon other beings to their fate. He has said: "I must lead all beings to Liberation. I will stay here till the end, even for the sake of one living soul."

The Mahāyāna thus preached the ideal of compassionate Buddhahood for all as opposed to cold arhatship. The Sad. Pu. clearly teaches this new gospel: "All shall become Buddhas." Çāntideva declares that even worms and insects have finally risen to the supreme position of a Buddha.

A bodhisattva will thus attain bodhi and become a Buddha. These two conceptions of bodhi and Buddhahood are integral elements of the bodhisattva doctrine.

IV. Bodhi

The word bodhi is derived from the root buddh, which is thus explained by Monier Williams: "The original sense may have been 'to fathom a depth, penetrate to the bottom'; to observe, mark, heed, regard, attend to; to perceive, notice, become acquainted with, recognise; to know, understand, comprehend; to think, reflect; to deem, consider, regard as, esteem as; to recover consciousness (after a swoon or after sleep, etc.), come to one's senses; to wake up, awake; to admonish." (Skt. Dicy. 685b).

Bodhi, as understood by the Buddhists, is related to the meaning, "to know, understand," and not to the signification of "waking up," as Śīlavāra and D. T. Suzuki incorrectly assume. The word occurs in the Rg-veda in the epithet bodhin-manas, which means "having an attentive mind" ("bodhin-manasaḥ rathy-stirā havana-śrutaḥ," Rgveda V. 75.5; vol. iii, page 530). In Buddhist philosophy, it signifies "supreme Knowledge", "Enlightenment", "perfect Wisdom" (Skt. Dicy. M.W. 688—Pāli Dicy. s.v.).

The conception of bodhi has been elucidated and explained by several Buddhist writers. Two qualifying adjectives are commonly associated with it: samyak (right, perfect) and anuttarā (nothing higher, without a superior, incomparable, unsurpassed,
pre-eminent, supreme). The usual appellation in thus anuttarā-
samyak-sambodhi.\(^{48}\) (The prefix sam is also placed before the
word bodhi in order to emphasise its excellence and
completeness.) The form bodha is also found.\(^{49}\)

Bodhi or Sambodhi, the summum bonum of a bodhisattva,
is primarily and essentially equivalent to Omniscience. Of
course, it has been analysed into its constituent elements, and its
various aspects have been elucidated by the Buddhist philosophers.
But the simple root-idea, shorn of all accretions and amplifications,
is Omniscience. D. T. Suzuki defines bodhi in terms of the
dharma-kāya\(^{50}\) (cosmic spiritual Body). But the term bodhi
was in use long before the doctrine of the kāyas was propounded.
It is therefore inadmissible to introduce such later concepts into the
simple definition of bodhi.

The final goal of a bodhisattva's career is always indicated
by such words as buddha-jñāna\(^{51}\) (Knowledge of a Buddha),
sarvajñātā\(^{52}\) (Omniscience), sarv-ākārajñātā\(^{53}\) (the quality of
knowing things as they are), mārg-ākārajñātā (the quality of
knowing the forms of the Way), anuttara-jñāna\(^{54}\) (supreme
Knowledge), and acintyam jñānam (inconceivable Knowledge).\(^{55}\)
Bodhi has been described as incomprehensible for the ratiocinative
intellect.\(^{66}\) It is infinite, because the qualities that produce it are
infinite. It is pure and perfect Knowledge of all things,
free from uncertainty and obscurity. It is the result of
the complete destruction of the two āvaranas (veils, coverings),\(^{57}\)
which relate to the sins and passions (kles-āvarana) and to know-
able things (jñey-āvarana). It is pure, universal and immediate
Knowledge, which extends over all time,\(^{58}\) all universes, all beings
and all elements, conditioned and unconditioned (samskṛta,
asamkṛta). It is absolute, because it does not need repeated
mental acts. It is identical with Reality and Suchness (tathāta),\(^{59}\)
and embraces all that exists. It is all-pervading, like
space.\(^{60}\) It is therefore the supreme and precious Wisdom that
a bodhisattva seeks.

V. THE BUDDHA

A Buddha is primarily a fully "enlightened" being. But
the characteristic attributes and qualities of a Buddha have been
described and enumerated in several definite formulae. In the
Āva. Ča., a Buddha is said to possess ten Powers (balāni), four
Grounds of Self-confidence (vaṣāradyāni) and three Fields of Mindfulness (smaṭy-upasthāṇāni). But the last item is not mentioned in the standard Mahāyānist treatises, which replace it by eighteen “āvenika-dharmāḥ” (special, exclusive, unique attributes). This formula gives us the accepted formal definition of a Buddha. The Indian philosophers have the habit of devising precise numerical lists for all their ideas and ideals. A Buddha is one, who has acquired the ten balas, the four vaṣāradyas and the eighteen āvenika-dharmas. No other being possesses these attributes.

(a) The Ten Powers. A Buddha possesses the knowledge of correct and faulty conclusions. He knows fully and truly the consequences of all actions in the past, the present and the future with regard to their causes and circumstances. He is cognisant of the various aspirations or dispositions of the different types of persons. He knows the true nature of the various dhātus (elements) in the universe. He understands the higher or lower powers of different creatures. He knows the Way that leads everywhere. He realises the disfigurement, purification and origination of all the forms of Musing, Deliverances, Concentration and Ecstatic Attainment. He remembers all his previous existences. He discerns the process of the death and rebirth of all beings. He knows that his āśravas (Intoxicants: sins and errors) have been destroyed. Thus he acquires the Powers that are associated with such varied and accurate Knowledge.

The last three Powers are due to the threefold Knowledge (tīrāvividāñ) that a Buddha gains immediately before Enlightenment.

(b) The Four Vaṣāradyas. This word vaṣāradya (Pāli vaśāraja) means “perfect self-confidence, self-satisfaction”, and the four vaṣāradyas are a Buddha’s four “Grounds of Self-confidence”. The term has also been translated as “conviction”, “les assurances”, “absence of hesitation”, “la confiance”, “les intrepidités”, “les habiletés”, “kinds of intrepidity”, “die Selbstsicherheiten”, “les certitudes”, “vierfaches Selbstvertrauen”, etc. The root-idea seem to be “maturity, experience”. The adjective vaṣārada (Pāli: visārada) means “experienced, wise, self-confident”. It is the opposite of stārada, which is ultimately derived from the Sanskrit word carad (autumn), and literally means “autumnal, this year’s”. Figuratively, it came to denote
“unripe”, “immature”, “inexperienced.” The Pāli substantive sārañja means “shyness”, “timidity” (Pāli Dic.). A novice is sometimes said to suffer from parsat-charadanya (diffidence or timidity in an assembly). The Tibetan equivalent is mi-hjìg-pa, and hjìg-pa means “fear, apprehension, dread” (Tib. Dic. Das, 457b). The Tibetans interpret vaicāradya as “fearlessness”. According to S. Lévi, the Chinese also translate it by a word which means “without fear”. 

A Buddha has four Grounds or Subjects of Self-confidence, on account of which he boldly preaches the doctrine and “utters a lion’s roar”. He knows that he has attained perfect Enlightenment and understands all principles and phenomena (dharmāḥ). He knows that he has destroyed all the āsravas (Intoxicants). He knows that the obstacles to the higher life, which he has described, really constitute serious hindrances. He knows that the Way, which he teaches for the cessation of Pain and Evil (duhkha), really leads to that goal. Thus no one in the entire universe, man or deva, or any other being, can accuse him of insincerity or falsehood in this respect. No one can say to him: “You claim to be perfectly enlightened; but here are things that you do not understand. You assert that you have destroyed the āsravas; but these are the āsravas that still remain in your personality. You declare that you have indicated the obstacles to the spiritual life; but some of these practices and ideas are no obstacles at all. You say that you teach the Way that leads to the destruction of Pain: but that Way does not help one to attain that end.” A Buddha knows that no one can justly reproach him in this manner. For this reason, he is always serene, fearless and self-confident, and cultivates a noble and magnanimous spirit. (Pr. Pā. Çata., pp. 1448-9.)

c) The Eighteen Āvenika-dharmas. A Buddha possesses eighteen special and extraordinary attributes, which are called his āvenika-dharmas. This word āvenika means “special, peculiar, extraordinary, exceptional” (Pāli Dic. s.v.). Monier Williams derives it from veni (braiding, weaving, a tress, conflux of two or more streams), and translates: “Not connected with anything else; independent.” Böhtlingk and Roth follow E. Burnouf, who gives the meaning: “qui ne se confondent pas.” He says: “C'est par conjecture que je le traduis comme je
fa\={i}s, le pr\=enant pour un d\={e}riv\=e du mot \={a}ven\=i, 'qui ne forme pas une tresse, ou qui ne se confond pas \=a la mani\=ere de plusieurs \=fleures se r\=eunissant en un seul.'\textsuperscript{77}

The term has also been translated as "independent conditions", "les vertus exclusives," "congenital qualities," "die Bedingungen der Unabh\=angigkeit," "les substances non-m\=e\=l\=ees," "besondere Eigenschaften," "unique characteristics," "unmixed or pure virtues or qualities," "uncommon properties."\textsuperscript{78}

V. Trenckner suggests that the word \={a}ven\=ika is derived from vi\=n\=a (without), with the prefix \={a}, and denotes "sine qua non".\textsuperscript{79} But it is difficult to understand how \={a}ven\=ika can be related to vi\=n\=a. A Buddha's three Fields of Mindfulness, mentioned above, are also described as \={a}ven\=ik\=a\=ni; and an educated woman is said to possess five \={a}ven\=ika-dharm\=as (Av\=u. Ca., i, 14, 7, translated as "cinq conditions distinctes" by E. Burnouf).\textsuperscript{80} The adjectives \={a}ven\=i and \={a}ven\=iy\=a are also found in P\=ali literature; e.g. "\={a}ven\=ikam\=am\=i kar\=o\=nti-\={a}ven\=i-p\=atimokkh\=a\=m u\=d\=iss\=a\=nti" (A\=nguttara, v, 74, line 10—where Ny\=an\=atiloka translates \={a}ven\=i as "getrennt").

"P\=an\=cim\=a\=ni bhikkha\=ve m\=atug\=ama\=sa \={a}ven\=ik\=a\=ni duk\=kh\=a\=ni" (S\=amyutta, iv, 239, line 10).

"\={A}ven\=i-uposatha\=m kar\=o\=nti \={a}ven\=i-pav\=a\=ra\=na\=m kar\=o\=nti" (Vinaya ii, 204, line 26), where T. W. Rhys Davids and H. Oldenberg translate, "perform independently Upasatha and Pav\=ara\=na" (S.B.E., xx, p. 267).

"De\=vadatta . . . \={a}ven\=i sangha-kam\=a\=mi ak\=a\=si" (J\=ata\=ka, i, 490, line 29), where R. Chalmers translates: "He performed the acts of a separate Brotherhood" (J\=ata\=ka Trsln., i, p. 305). The Tibetan equivalent is ma-h\=adre\=s-pa (Csoma, p. 250—M.\=y\=a, p. 10). H\=adre\=s-pa means "mixed", and the term therefore signifies "pure, unadulterated, unmixed" (Tib. Dicy. Das, pp. 699, 948—J\=a\=schke, p. 284). It is to be noted that the same root is employed in a phrase, which denotes "the influx of the Ganges into the sea" (Tib. Dicy. J\=a\=schke, p. 284). This seems to confirm E. Burnouf's conjecture that the word \={a}ven\=ika is related to ve\=ni in the sense of "confluence of rivers". According to E. J. Eitel, the Chinese translate \={a}ven\=ika-dharm\=a\=h by a phrase which means "detached characteristics, the distinctive marks of a Buddha who is detached from the imperfections which mark ordinary mortals" (p. 26). The root-idea seems to be separation, as is evident from the P\=ali passages, in which the word is almost always
used with reference to schism in the Order. We may translate: “special, peculiar, exclusive.”

These eighteen attributes distinguish a Buddha from all other beings. “He is free from errors and faults. He is not noisy or loquacious. He never loses Mindfulness. His mind is always composed and collected. He has no notion of multiplicity (i.e., he considers the universe under its aspect of unity and not with reference to the diversity of phenomena and objects). His equanimity is not due to want of judgment. His Will and Resolution never falter. His Energy is never diminished. His Mindfulness is never relaxed. His Concentration always remains the same. His Wisdom never fails. His Deliverance knows no change. All his actions, performed with the body, are preceded by Knowledge and continue to be in accordance with Knowledge. All his words and utterances are preceded by Knowledge and continue to be in accordance with Knowledge. All his thoughts are preceded by Knowledge and continue to be in accordance with Knowledge. He has absolute and infallible Knowledge and Insight with regard to the past time. He has absolute and infallible Knowledge and Insight with regard to the future. He has absolute and infallible Knowledge and Insight with regard to the present (time).”

Such is the complete formula of the eighteen special attributes of a Buddha, with all its repetitions and redundancies and its partial unintelligibility. The M.S. Al. declares that six of these qualities refer to Method; six deal with Acquisition (of Merit or Knowledge); three are descriptive of Actions, and three define a Buddha’s Knowledge. As this list is not found in the Pali canon and the early Sanskrit treatises, it must be assigned to a comparatively late period (third century A.D.).

This triple formula of the bala, vaisradyas and dvenika-dharma constitutes the stock definition of a Buddha. But there are several other essential factors in the conception of Buddhahood as it is developed by the Buddhist Sanskrit writers for the inspiration and edification of a bodhisattva. A bodhisattva should know and comprehend these qualities and characteristics of the Buddhas before he can appreciate the importance of striving for bodhi.

(d) A Buddha is distinguished from other beings by his deep and great pity, love, mercy and compassion for all beings (karma).
Here we come upon this great word, kāranā, which recurs very frequently in Mahāyānist literature. A Buddha is endowed with maha-kāraṇā, the adjective maha being prefixed in order to emphasise the importance of this attribute. He loves all creatures as his children. He says to them: "I am the Father of the world; you are my children." A Buddha's kāraṇā is discussed in the M. Vāṇḍi, under thirty-two aspects; he pities all beings, because they are enmeshed in various sins, errors, dangers and calamities. It was really necessary to lay stress on this attribute of a Buddha’s personality. According to the Kathā-vatthu, some Buddhists taught that the Buddha could not feel compassion, as he was free from all passion (rāga). This doctrine, which reminds us of the teaching of some Stoic philosophers of Greece, was vigorously combated by the Mahāyānists and others.

(e) In addition to kāraṇā, a Buddha is noted for his thorough and unblemished purity. His bodily actions, his speech, his thoughts and his very soul are pure; and there is not the slightest impurity in him. On account of this fourfold purity, he need not be on his guard against others. These are his four Arakṣyas (Pāli: arakkheyyā).

Many other laudatory epithets have been applied to the Buddha by the pious Buddhists. He is "self-existent," "a conqueror," "a physician," "self-luminous," "Lord of the Universe," "King of Kings," "peerless," "all-beholder," "sinless," "light-giver," "superior to all beings," "sweet-voiced," "the god of gods" (devatīdeva), etc.

(f) A bodhisattva, who becomes a Buddha, will not live in solitary grandeur, as the Buddhahs are numerous. According to the oldest Pāli tradition, there were six Buddhahs who lived before Gautama Cākyamuni. Their names are mentioned in the Mahāpādana-sutta of the Dīgha-Nikāya (ii, 2 ff.). The number of these Buddhahs is seven, because the ancient world believed in the existence of seven “planets” (Sun, Moon, Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter and Saturn). These seven Buddhahs correspond to the seven rṣis of the Indian tradition, who have also an astronomical origin. Their Sanskritized names are mentioned in the Dh. S. (Section 6), the Lal. V. and the M. Vāṇḍi. The number of the Buddhahs, who preceded Gautama Cākyamuni and predicted his advent, was increased to twenty-four in the Pāli Buddhavamsa. But the Sanskrit writers continued the process of multiplying the Buddhahs.
The Lal. V. speaks of kotis (ten millions) of them, as does also the Sad. Pu. The Suvarṇa-prabhāsā tells us of "thousands," while the Su. Vy. estimates their exact number at 81 koti-niyuta-cata-sahasrāni (81 million million niyutas).\(^8\) The Kar. Pu. and the Pr. Pā. Čata. speak of many Buddhas who have their kṣetras (fields).\(^9\) The Mahā-vastu refers to 300 million Buddhas of the name of Cākyamuni, 60,000 Buddhas of the name of Pradyota, and so on.\(^8\) Finally, the philosophers got tired of piling up high numbers in this fashion and declared that the Buddhas were really infinite in number. They hit upon the picturesque phrase: "The Buddhas are like the sands on the banks of the Ganges."\(^9\) Having made the Buddhas innumerable, the Indian imagination could not go further.

It is likely that this idea was suggested by the star-lit tropical sky, and each star was regarded as an inhabited world ruled by a Buddha.

(g) A Buddha has his buddha-kṣetra (field), which he guides and "ripens" in spirituality. The Sad. Pu. contains predictions about the future Buddhahood of several saints, and their kṣetras are described.\(^9\) A kṣetra consists of many worlds and universes, with their heavens, purgatories, earths, devas, pretas, human beings and animals.

(h) A Buddha, who appears on this earth or in any other world, can never cease to exist. This remarkable idea was developed very gradually by the Buddhist philosophers. In the old Pāli tradition, Gautama Cākyamuni after his demise was regarded as more dead than alive. He could not be seen by gods and men,\(^10\) and honour paid to him after his death had only symbolic spiritual significance.\(^10\) The six or twenty-four Buddhas of the past, who are mentioned in the Pāli canon, were not supposed to be living after their parinirvāṇa. But the Mū. declares that a Buddha can live for many aeons (kalpās).\(^10\) In the Sad. Pu., a Buddha is said to live for a very long time in his kṣetra, but he is not immortal. The length of life of each Buddha is specified, and he enters parinirvāṇa at the end of that period. Only in the case of Yaḍodhāra, the author shows that chivalry can be combined with theology, and he allot's her an unlimited span of life as a future Buddha. Gautama Buddha also lives for ever (saddā sthitah).\(^10\) Here we find the first clear hint of immortality for the Buddhas. Further, the same writer contradicts himself by bringing on the scene a Buddha, who had really entered into parinirvāṇa.
long ago, but who suddenly re-appears as a living Buddha in order to sing the praises of the *Sad-dharma-pundarika* as a religious treatise. Thus it is indicated that even *parinirvāṇa* does not imply extinction. The final doctrine on this question is elaborated by the author of the *Suvarna-prabhāsa*, who declares that a Buddha's duration of life is unlimited and immeasurable. Gautama Buddha did not really perish after eighty years' sojourn on earth: he can never die.

(i) The Buddhas are not only numerous and immortal, but they are also superhuman (*lokottara*) in all their actions, even during their earthly lives. A Buddha is entirely free from sensual desires. He is above all human needs and weaknesses: his body has no limits and knows no fatigue. He does not sleep or dream. He replies to all questions immediately and spontaneously without the necessity of thinking over the matter even for a moment. Every word uttered by a Buddha has deep spiritual significance and is intended for the edification of the people. His speech is always rational and perfect, and it is understood by the hearers. He is always in a state of profound concentration. His power of working miracles is unlimited. He eats, drinks, and takes medicine in illness only in order to conform to the ways of the world (*lokānubhīṣita*), as he is really not subject to hunger, thirst, disease, or any human needs and infirmities. His body is not formed by the physical union of his reputed parents, and he is born as a child merely in order to act like ordinary human beings.

(j) Further, if a Buddha is immortal and superhuman, his physical body cannot represent his real nature. He must therefore be essentially a spiritual Being, who either assumes a human form as an *avatāra* (Incarnation) or shows an unreal physical body to the people for their edification. The doctrine of *avatāra* was rejected by the Buddhist thinkers, though it was accepted by the Hindus. But the Buddha pretended to live and work in the world as a mortal in order to save all beings. His physical body (*rūpa-kāya*) was illusory and unreal like the shapes created by a magician (*nirūpa*). "The *rūpa-kāya* is not the Buddha," declares the author of the *Sam. Rā.* (fol. 95b, 4 ff.). The *Suvarna-prabhāsa* teaches that it is impossible to find any relic of a Buddha's body after his cremation. It is a grave error to identify a Buddha with his *rūpa-kāya*, as a Buddha has no form or other material attributes. A Buddha creates many phantom-bodies, which
visit the worlds and preach the Doctrine. The people see them and believe that they are born and perish. All this illusion is due to a Buddha’s wisdom in the choice of methods for converting the hearers (upāya-kausalya).  

(4) If the fragile and limited rūpa-kāya is not the real Buddha, what and who is the Buddha? In contradistinction to the rūpa-kāya, the Mahāyānists speak of a Buddha’s dharma-kāya (cosmic, spiritual Body). A Buddha is the embodiment of dharma, which is his real Body. He is also identified with all the constituents of the universe (form, thought, etc.). This Body, which is also called sad-dharma-kāya, bodhi-kāya, buddha-kāya, prajñā-kāya, svabhāvika-kāya (essential Body), is invisible and universal. It is imperishable and perfectly pure. All beings “live and move and have their being in it.” It is the same as the Absolute Reality (tathātā), which is also one and indivisible for the entire Universe. It is immutable and undifferentiated.

(1) If a Buddha’s real body is the cosmic Absolute, then it follows that all Buddhas are spiritually united in the dharma-kāya. This final step was taken by the Mahāyānists. “All Buddhas are one,” declares the M.S. Aś. There cannot be many Buddhas in reality. Buddhahood, which belongs to the realm of Freedom and Perfection (anāsravete dhātā), unites them all, as they have one Wisdom and one Aim. Gautama Buddha could therefore rightly say: “I was that Buddha of the past, named Vipaśyin.”

A Buddha also possesses a Body of Bliss or Enjoyment, which is radiant and glorious, and bears thirty-two special marks and eighty minor signs (sambhoga-kāya, sambhogikā-kāya, sambhogya-kāya). It is the result of the Merit, which a Buddha has acquired by his good deeds during many aeons. It is visible only to the faithful bodhisattvas, who assemble to hear a Buddha preach. It must, however, be emphasised that the fundamental distinction is between the physical body and the dharma-kāya, which are often mentioned together and contrasted. The sambhoga-kāya was added subsequently in order to give the Buddhas something like the celestial bodies of the Hindu devas. It belongs to the stage of deification, not to that of spiritualisation and unification.

Thus the conception of Buddhahood was developed to its ultimate conclusion in universal pan-Buddhism (as distinct from
Pantheism). The Buddhas were subjected to a sixfold process of evolution: they were multiplied, immortalised, deified, spiritualised, universalised and unified.

There were many causes, which led to this radical transformation of the ideal of a Buddha’s personality. The idea of a Buddha’s enduring dharma-body is found in the Pāli canon. Gautama Buddha was at first regarded as only an arhat like the other monks, and he disclaimed omniscience. But several Pāli passages indicate that he was in some way also superhuman. He could make Yasa invisible, and work miracles at Uruvelā and other places. He declared that he was neither a man nor a deva, but a Buddha, as if the Buddhas formed a distinct species or class of beings by themselves. He is said to be unlike the other monks, as he first found the Way of Enlightenment and showed it to others. He promised rebirth in swarga (heaven) to those who should have faith in him and love him. His body was transfigured, and his birth was accompanied by miracles. He could have lived much longer, if he had wished to do so. He could enable a visitor to see the hidden parts of his body under his garments. Such details show that the process of deification began soon after Gautama Buddha’s death. It was continued and intensified by the Mahāsāṅghikas, the Vaitulyakas, the Andhakas and other Buddhist sects. The uneducated masses and their enthusiastic leaders always love to exalt and glorify their prophet. Hero-worship is ingrained in human nature and takes strange forms among the uncultured sections of society. The Arians of Europe were finally defeated by the more superstitious followers of Athanasius. The competition of the rival Indian sects and movements also led the Buddhists to advance new claims on behalf of their leader. The Jainas taught that Mahāvīra survived death and existed as a Spirit in beatitude. The Hindus deified Kṛṣṇa and prayed to their devas, Viṣṇu, Ēiva and others. The Śāṅkhyas philosophers promised an eternal future of unalloyed felicity as puruṣa. The Vedāntins looked forward to identification with the eternal Brahmaṇ. It would have been impossible for the Buddhists to succeed in their ethical propaganda, if they had adhered to the old doctrine that the survival of a Buddha after death was an “unexplained question” (avyākyta), or if they had taught that a monk perished altogether at death after attaining nirvāṇa, like Godhika and Vakkali of unhappy memory.
Such a dismal message of agnosticism or annihilation could not win many converts in that unscientific age. The Buddhists had to follow the line of least resistance. They perhaps also thought and felt that so wise and virtuous a man as Gautama Buddha could not end in blank nothingness. They transformed him into a living, immortal, powerful and gracious deva. They also bestowed on him all the mystical attributes of the impersonal Brahman of the Upanishads. His humanity, his physical body and his death were therefore denied or thrown into the background, and he was endowed with the sambhoga-kāya and the dharma-kāya. The Mahāyānists borrowed and assimilated the entire theology and metaphysics of Hinduism and Jainism, and then evolved their impressive and comprehensive conception of the Buddha. The life of Gautama was the foundation of the edifice: the rival sects supplied the material for the superstructure.

Such a Buddha—every man and woman, nay every living creature, can and must become. This is a bodhisattva’s goal and ideal.

The bodhisattva ideal reminds us of the active altruism of the Franciscan friars in the thirteenth century A.D. as contrasted with the secluded and contemplative religious life of the Christian monks of that period. The monk prayed in solitude: the friar “went about doing good”. The great Franciscan movement in the history of Christianity offers an interesting parallel to the Mahāyāna “revival” in Buddhism. Both the arhat and the bodhisattva were unworldly idealists; but the arhat exhibited his idealism by devoting himself to meditation and self-culture, while the bodhisattva actively rendered service to other living beings. In the phraseology of modern psychology, an arhat was an “introvert”, while a bodhisattva was an “extrovert”.

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Chapter II

Origin and Development of the Bodhisattva Doctrine

I

The bodhisattva doctrine may be regarded as the final outcome of the tendencies that were at work in India during several centuries after Gautama Buddha's death. These may be grouped and classified as follows:

1. The natural tendencies of development within the Buddhist Church.
2. The influence of other Indian religious sects like the Bhāgavatas and the Gaivas.
3. The influence of Persian religion and culture.
4. The influence of Greek art.
5. The necessities of propaganda among new semi-barbarous tribes.
6. The influence of Christianity.

These different factors, that contributed to the rise and growth of the new doctrine, may be considered in detail.

(I) Natural Development of Buddhism

The most important factor was the natural and inevitable tendency of Buddhism to grow and develop in the changing circumstances of the age. A great religion is not a dead static formula of salvation and ethics; it is always a living, dynamic, self-evolving and self-adjusting spiritual movement. The founder's disciples try to render explicit all that was implicit in the original teaching, and they also contribute new ideas and ideals. Only an ultra-orthodox Mahāyānist would support S. Kimura's contention that the philosophers of the Māhāyana really expounded Gautama Buddha's own "ontological and introspectional principles", which were not communicated to the ordinary disciples. This is an unwarranted assumption. Gautama Buddha took pride in being free from the fault, that was described
as  deśārya-muṣṭi (Pāli: deśāriya-muṣṭhi, "the teacher's fist, closefistedness, keeping things back, esotericism"). His teaching was open to all, like the light of the sun and the moon. The fiction of an "esoteric" Buddhism need not be invoked in order to explain the natural development of Buddhism after the death of the founder.

The bodhisattva doctrine was the necessary outcome of two movements of thought in early Buddhism, viz. the growth of bhakti (devotion, faith, love) and the idealisation and spiritualisation of the Buddha. Bhakti was at first directed towards Gautama Buddha. But he was soon idealised, spiritualised and universalised, as has already been indicated. He then became an unsuitable and unattractive object for the pious Buddhist's bhakti. That deep-rooted feeling found an outlet in the invention and adoration of the bodhisattvas.

The ideal of bhakti arose and flourished among the Buddhists. Some scholars are of opinion that it originated in the Hindu sects and was subsequently adopted by the Buddhists. They think that the bhakti literature of the Buddhists is an imitation of Hindu scriptures like the Bhagavad-gītā. M. Winternitz says: "It was under the influence of the bhakti doctrine of the Bhagavad-gītā, ... that the Mahāyāna Buddhism was developed." H. Kern finds that "the Śād. Pu. is full of un-Buddhistic notions, allied with, if not directly taken from, the Gītā." E. Senart writes: "La tradition bouddhique se meut certainement dans une atmosphère Krishnaïte." He also thinks that the Buddhists borrowed the idea of bhakti from the Bhāgavata sect. K. J. Saunders has tried to show that the author of the Śād. Pu. borrowed much from the Bhagavad-gītā. L. de la Vallée Poussin thinks that Buddhism in its entirety is only a form or aspect of Hinduism: "une modalité de l'Hindouisme," "une cristallisation particulière de l'Hindouisme." This view is based on an inaccurate interpretation of the history of religion.

It is almost certain that the Buddhists were the originators and innovators in several new developments, and the Hindus followed suit. If Buddhism were only a "modality" of Hinduism, the Buddhists would have adopted the whole Hindu pantheon of gods and goddesses instead of exercising their ingenuity and imagination to invent the class of beings known as the bodhisattvas. Buddhism had its own independent genius, which kept it distinct from Hinduism during many centuries, as is
evident from the oft-recurring significant phrase, "pramanas and brāhmaṇas." The Hindus priests of India resolutely refused to preserve Buddhist literature or to acknowledge Buddhist metaphysics as an "orthodox" system. Hinduism absorbed the Bhāgavatas and other new sects, but Buddhism and Jainism could resist its assimilating power. Buddhism has spread among other Asiatic nations, because it is universal in spirit, like Christianity and Islam; but Hinduism is a national religious and social system, like Confucianism and Judaism. Buddhism borrowed some ideas and institutions from Hinduism, and the latter was indebted to Buddhism for fundamental changes in its ethics and ritual. But both maintained their individuality as systems of doctrine and discipline. The idea of bhakti was not a borrowed feather, with which Buddhism adorned itself. It was an integral part of the Buddhist ideal from the earliest times. In fact, the very word bhakti, as a technical religious term, occurs for the first time in Indian literature in a Buddhist treatise and not in a Hindu scripture. The Theragāthā speaks of bhatti: "so bhattiṁ nāma ca hoti, pandito ṇatvā ca dhammesu viseri assa" (p. 41, lines 1–2). This anthology contains verses that go back to the earliest period of the history of Buddhism, and its final redaction took place in the middle of the third century B.C. But the idea of bhakti is found in the ancient Pāli Nikāyas; it was called saddhā in the fifth century B.C. Saddhā was a very important concept in early Buddhism. Faith in the Buddha is repeatedly declared to be essential for the spiritual development of the monks and the laymen. It can even lead to rebirth in a heaven. A novice must "take refuge" first in the Buddha and then in the Doctrine and the Confraternity. It is a great mistake to underestimate the importance of saddhā in early Buddhism, which has been wrongly represented as a dry "rationalistic" system of precepts and theories. Even in the Pāli canon, the impression left on the reader's mind is that Gautama Buddha is the centre of the whole movement, and that the Doctrine derives its vitality and importance from his personality. This is true of all great religions and churches. When the Christians love and exalt Jesus Christ and the Moslems praise and glorify their Prophet, they evince personal bhakti, which can be thoroughly justified by an appeal to history and psychology. Even if the Buddha had advanced no extraordinary claims on his own behalf, his greatness as a man would have given rise to the cult of bhakti for him. The
disciples of a wise and virtuous teacher must love and revere him personally, even though he should modestly declare that his personality is of no importance. It is Personality that secures the triumph of a religious movement; the dogmas and precepts shine in the light reflected from Personality. Bhakti cannot arise without the historical fact of the life and work of a great man. For this reason, it could not have originated among the metaphysicians of the Upanishads, as A. B. Keith has assumed. There was no great man like Buddha or Mahāvira among them. Apart from the irresistible influence of Personality, the absence of any other objects of adoration led the Buddhists to concentrate their love and devotion on the Buddha. They did not hold the ancient devas in high esteem. They could not have any devotional feeling for them or pray to them. The devas were regarded by the Buddhists as glorified super-men, who enjoyed bliss and power, but who were subject to the law of death and rebirth and needed wisdom and liberation as much as the human beings on earth. They were far inferior to the Buddha in character and knowledge. They visited him as disciples and suppliants, and even rendered menial service to him. Having reduced the great devas of Hinduism to such a subordinate position, the Buddhists had no object of love and devotion except the Buddha himself. They, like all men and women, had hearts as well as brains; and the heart will not be denied its rights, whatever the logicians may say. Man is not merely "a reasoning self-sufficing thing, an intellectual all-in-all". As the Buddhists despised the devas, they put the Buddha in their place. It was therefore quite natural that the ideal of bhakti should first grow and flourish among the Buddhists, and not among the Hindus. As a matter of fact, Viṣṇu and Čiva are mentioned only as secondary deities in the list of devas in the Dīgha-Nikāya (Venhu and Isāna). They are not regarded as the equals of the old devas, Brahmā and Čakra. Their cults could not have been very important at that period (fifth century B.C.). Bhakti was chiefly associated in Hinduism with the sects devoted to these two devas. The Bhagavad-gitā also belongs to a much later period (200 B.C. to A.D. 200). It may therefore be inferred on a priori grounds, and also on the basis of historical data, that Buddhism originated the idea of bhakti and did not borrow it from Hinduism. If we find similar epithets applied to Gautama Buddha and Kṛṣṇa in the Sud. Pu. and the Bhagavad-gitā, we must conclude that they
were first invented by the Buddhists and subsequently adopted and adapted by the Hindu sectarian leaders. The latter tried to find some heroes in their own tradition and discovered Kṛṣṇa and Rāma for their cult of bhakti.

This stage in the evolution of Buddhism is represented by the two treatises, the Sad. Pu. and the Su. Vy. In the Sad Pu., Gautama Buddha is described as the loving Father of all creatures, and all pious Buddhists are exhorted to worship and adore him. The Su. Vy. promises rebirth in the Buddha Amitābha’s paradise (buddha-ksetra) to all who should think of him and utter his name with love and devotion. The larger Su. Vy. excludes from this privilege all sinners, who have committed any of the five heinous, mortal sins (ānantaryāni). But the Amitāyur-dhyāna-sūtra abolishes this restriction and offers a happy rebirth (not nirvāna) to all creatures as the reward of bhakti. Bhakti is directed towards a Buddha at this period.

The conception of Buddhahood was widened and elaborated under the influence of Jainism and Hindu theology and metaphysics, as has been indicated above. As a consequence, a Buddha ceased to appeal to the popular imagination as an object of devotion. He had been de-humanised and universalised. He was also theoretically far removed from this world of change and sin. He lost Personality and became cosmic Law. As the Hindus could not love or adore the metaphysical Brahman of the Upanisads, but needed deities of flesh and blood for their cult, so the Buddhists too could not approach the idealised and trans-cendental Buddha of the Mahāyāna with prayer and worship. He had become too great, vast, nebulous, impersonal and incomprehensible for such relations. The Mahāyānists turned in their need to the earlier history of Gautama Buddha, when he was not the remote metaphysical Buddha, but only a charitable, patient and wise bodhisattva, a married citizen and a denizen of this workaday world. As a bodhisattva, he had helped many men and women with gifts of wealth and knowledge. He was a more humane and lovable figure at that stage of his career. The pious worshippers could pray to a bodhisattva for health, wealth and mundane blessings, and that was all that they really wanted. The cult of bhakti is partly an expression of egoism, as it involves supplication for selfish interests. Ordinary men and women are more anxious to secure welfare and happiness in this world than to strive for the distant and doubtful goal of
Buddhahood. The bodhisattvas were thus chosen for worship and adoration in order to satisfy the needs of the devout and pious Buddhists. The bodhisattva doctrine may be said to have been the inevitable outcome of the tendency towards bhakti and the new conception of Buddhahood. This view seems to be confirmed by the fact that the Hinayānists, who did not de-humanise and universalise the Buddha, did not feel the necessity of inventing and adoring the bodhisattvas. The analogy of other religious movements also proves that uneducated men and women require some attributes of human personality in the superhuman beings, whom they are willing to worship. They feel more at home with such helpers. They shrink from the measureless immensity and unapproachable sublimity of the universal Spirit, whether it is called Brahman, Dharma-kīya, Allah or God. The development of saint-worship in Islam and Christianity was due to the same causes as led to the cult of the bodhisattvas in Buddhism. Both Islam and Christianity teach that God has personality and love and answers prayers; but millions of Moslems and Christians have found solace in the worship of the saints. They have felt the need of these human intercessors as intermediate objects of worship. They have placed them between God and Man. Saint-worship was firmly established in the Christian Church as early as the fourth century A.D., as P. Dörfler and H. Thurston have pointed out. 10 The Moslems, too, are fervent worshippers of their saints. R. A. Nicholson says: “In Mohammedan religious life, the wali occupies the same middle position: he bridges the chasm which the Koran and scholasticism have set between man and an absolutely transcendent God. He brings relief to the distressed, health to the sick, children to the childless, food to the famished... His favour confers blessing.” 20 W. M. Patton writes: “Every neighbourhood in the Muslim world has its patron saint.... Since the days of al-Ghazālī (twelfth century A.D.), the Sunnite branch of Islam (excepting the Hanbalite school) has given its approval to the cult of the saints.... In reality, the saint is a far more real God to them than Allah is.... The Shias are enthusiastic worshippers of the saints.” 21 M. Horten expresses the same opinion: “Der Heiligen-kultus hat im islamischen Volke eine ungeheure Ausdehnung gewonnen, von der die zahllosen heiligen Stätten (die Gräber von Heiligen), Feste und sonstige Gebräuche ein beredtes Zeugnis ablegen.” 22 The universal practice of saint-worship shows that it has satisfied
certain fundamental needs of human nature at a certain stage of intellectual development.

The Buddhists invented their class of saints (bodhisattvas) chiefly by personifying the different virtues and attributes of Gautama Buddha’s personality. They also took up certain epithets that were applied to Gautama Buddha, and converted them into the names of some bodhisattvas. The bodhisattvas thus derive their existence and attributes from the central historical fact of Gautama Buddha’s life and work. The two chief bodhisattvas, Mañjuśrī and Avalokiteśvara, are personifications of Wisdom (prajñā) and Mercy (karuṇā) respectively. Maitreyas typifies maitrī (friendliness). Some other bodhisattvas owe their names to the adjectives that were first employed to describe the great Teacher. Buddha is spoken of as “samantato bhadraka” and “samanta-bhadra-kāya” (auspicious or excellent in all ways) in the Aṣṭaka and the Lal. V. ; and we find that Samantabhadra is the name of a bodhisattva. Even “Mañjuśrī” may perhaps be derived from mañju-ghoṣa and mañju-svara, as these two epithets are used to describe Buddha’s voice. Çāntideva in fact refers to this bodhisattva as “ajita-maṇju-ghoṣa” (B.C. Aṣṭa. 1. 13). In other cases, the descriptive titles of the Hindu devas have been transferred to the bodhisattvas. Thus Brahmā is described as “mahā-bala-śtāma-prāpta” in the Da. Bhā. (81. 31), and an important bodhisattva is called Mahāstāma-prāpta (having great strength). Such names as Vajra-pañi and Kṣiti-garbha also suggest the influence of Hindu mythology.

(2) The Influence of Hinduism

Although the idea of bhakti originated among the Buddhists and was adopted in self-defence by the Hindus, yet the new sects, which arose after the fifth century B.C., exercised a profound influence on the further development of Buddhism. They established the cults of certain devas and deified heroes, and the Buddhists were compelled to endow their Buddhhas and bodhisattvas with similar attributes and powers.

The Bhāgavata sect, which was probably founded in the fifth century B.C. in the west of India, inculcated the worship of Bhāgavat (the Adorable) as the supreme Deity and was almost monotheistic. In course of time, the Bhāgavatas came to identify Vāsudeva with Bhagavat and the ancient sun-god Viṣṇu. This
name Vāsudeva has been explained as referring to Kṛṣṇa, who is mentioned as a hero and also as a divine Incarnation in the Mahābhārata. He is also supposed to have been the disciple of Ghorā Angirasa, the sage mentioned in the Chandogya Upaniṣad. It is not relevant to our purpose to discuss whether Kṛṣṇa was a warrior, a religious leader, a tribal god, a solar deity or the spirit of vegetation. But the existence of a sect of Vāsudeva-worshippers at this period explains certain features of the bodhisattva doctrine. This sect is mentioned in the Mahānīddeva (vol. i, p. 89, lines 19–20: "Vāsudeva-vattikā vāhonti"). Vāsudeva as a deity is also spoken of by Pāṇini in his grammar ("Vāsudevārjunābhīyām vam," iv, 3, 98, page 198; bhaktih, iv, 3, 95, page 197). Several inscriptions of the second century B.C. also refer to the cult of Vāsudeva, e.g.

"Deva-dvāsa Vāṣudeva-gaṇuṣa gāruḍadhvajā Dayam." (Bensagar inscription, J.R.A.S., 1909, p. 1555, line 16.)

(Epigraphia Indica X, H. Lüder’s list, No. 669.)

"janā bhagavabhyā sahāṣṭhāna-vāsudeva-bhīyām." (Ghasundi inscription, J.R.A.S., 1887, vol. i, Part I, page 78, line 10.) (Epigraphia Indica X, H. Lüder’s list, No. 6.)

These inscriptions date from the second century B.C. Megasthenes, who lived as an ambassador at the court of Candragupta about 300 B.C., declared that the Indians worshipped Herakles: "This Herakles is held in especial honour by the Sourasenoi, an Indian tribe who possess two large cities, Methora and Cleisobora." As Mathurā was a centre of Kṛṣṇa-worship, it is supposed that Megasthenes refers to Kṛṣṇa as "Herakles". Historical evidence thus establishes the existence of the powerful bhakti-cult of the worshippers of Vāsudeva in the centuries that followed the rise of Buddhism. The Gāṇa sect was making progress during the same period. Gīva is spoken of in the Gāutherforda Upaniṣad as bhagavān, and devotion to him is inculcated.

"sarva-oṣāpi sa bhagavāms tadāṁ sarva-gatah sivāh" (iii, 11, page 50).

"devam atma-buddhi-prakāśam ... sarāṇam aham prapadye" (vi, 18, page 73).
THE BODHISATTVA DOCTRINE

This Upaniṣad is assigned to a date posterior to Buddhism. Čiva is also praised in the Mahābhārata, but the chronology of that immense poetical encyclopædia is uncertain. Patañjali mentions a Čārivas sect in his commentary on Pāṇini’s grammar (about 150 B.C.—“Kīṃ yo uṇah-tālen-ānuvichati sa uṇah-tālakah kīṃ cātah Čiva bhāgavate prāṇot,” v. 2, 76; vol. ii, page 387—“apanyo ity-uyate tetr-esam na sidhyati īvah skandah viśākha ili,” v. 3, 99; vol. ii, page 420). The Čārivas are also mentioned along with the Vāsudeva-worshippers in the Milindapañha (p. 191, lines 6 ff., “siva vāsudeva ghanikā”). The sect of the Pāṣupata, who worshipped Čiva, existed in the second century B.C., if not earlier. Megasthenes wrote that the Indians also worshipped “Dionysos”: “The Indians worship the other gods, and Dionysos himself in particular, with cymbals and drums... he instructed the Indians to let their hair grow long in honour of the god.” This “Dionysos” has been identified with Čiva. The cumulative evidence of all these historical data points to the existence of a vigorous sect of Čiva-worshippers, who had chosen the ancient Rudra and Īśana of the Veda as their deity.

These sects were soon controlled and assimilated by the Hindu priests, who were exerting themselves to stem the tide of Buddhism. The great revival of Hinduism under the Čandāga dynasty in the second century B.C. obliged the Buddhists to develop new methods of popular propaganda. As E. W. Hopkins has pointed out, the second century B.C. was a critical period in the history of Buddhism. The palmy days of royal patronage had ended with the fall of the Maurya dynasty in 184 B.C., and Buddhism had to fight for its life against the Brahmins, who had converted the Bhāgavatas and the Čārivas into their allies. The arhats were becoming too meditative and inert. The Buddhist leaders, who inaugurated the Mahāyāna movement, saved Buddhism from shipwreck by popularising it and inventing compassionate bodhisattvas as Buddhist counterparts of the Hindu deities and their Incarnations. Their methods bear a strong resemblance to the devices employed by the Christian Church in its struggle against the other religions of the Roman Empire.

(3) PERSIAN RELIGION AND CULTURE

Persia was a great empire from the time of Cyrus to the invasion of Alexander, and Darius I annexed the valley of
the Indus about 518 B.C. Persian culture continued to exercise considerable influence on the nations of Asia during many centuries. Persia and India were close neighbours, and the Persians were in many respects more advanced in civilisation than the Indians. D. B. Spooner's fantastic theory of the Persian origin of the Cākyas and the Mauryas is now dead and buried; but India certainly borrowed much from Persia during this period. The lion-capital of Aćoka's pillar at Sārnāth, the architecture of the palaces at Pātaliputra and certain usages of the Maurya court point to the influence of Persian culture. Zoroastrianism, the religion of ancient Persia, may also have contributed to the rise of the bodhisattva doctrine in India. We know that it supplied a great deal of mythology to Judaism. Its fraavahis and amesa-spentas bear a certain resemblance to the bodhisattvas. The six amesa-spentas (immortal holy or beneficent ones, archangels), who are associated with Ahura-Mazdah, are personified abstractions, and the chief bodhisattvas are also really personifications of Wisdom and Love. The amesa-spentas are asa (Truth, Order, Right), vohu manah (Good Thought), aramaiti (Pity), haurovandati (Welfare, Salvation, Wholeness), Kshathra or Kshathra-vairya (Dominion) and amërūtāt (Immortality). The fraavahis may be compared to the bodhisattvas in the Tusita heaven. Zoroastrianism influenced the development of Buddhism more directly through the cult of sun-worship, which was introduced into India in the third century B.C. Sun-worship is referred to in the Dīgha-Nikāya (ii, 11, line 21), and it is ridiculed in the Ādiccupathāna-jātaka (Jātaka ii, pp. 72-3). Many familiar names of the Mahāyāna are suggestive of sun-worship, e.g. Amitābha (Measureless Light), Vairocana (the Brilliant One), Dipankara (Lightmaker). Gautama Buddha himself is called āditya-bandhu (Kinsman of the Sun). The Magas (Magi) are mentioned in Indian literature as the priests of the temples of the Sun in north-western India. It is probable that they established an organised sect of sun-worshippers on the basis of Zoroastrianism and the ancient Indian domestic rites of sun-worship. The solar myth penetrated deep into every phase of Buddhism, and many bodhisattvas were endowed with solar attributes.

(4) Greek Art

The art of Gandhāra in north-western India was based on the ideals and methods of Hellenic sculpture as applied to the representation of Buddhist subjects. The figure of Buddha appears
first in Gandhāra art; he was represented only by symbols at Bharhut and Sānchi. The Greek invaders, immigrants and sculptors thus taught the Buddhists the value of clear-cut definite personality, and the Buddhists invented their pantheon of bodhisattvas in order to worship half-divine half-human beings, such as the Hellenic gods were.\textsuperscript{41}

(5) Propaganda Among New Tribes

During the centuries that followed Alexander's invasion of India, the north-western part of India was repeatedly overrun by foreign invaders like the Pahlavas, the Čakas and the Kuśānas. It was a real meeting-place of nations. The Kuśānas established a vast empire. H. G. Rawlinson says: "These great rulers, about whom we know only too little, built up a vast empire, comprising a variety of nationalities. In the Panjāb were semi-Asiatic Greeks, Parthians, Scythians, Hindus. In Afghanistan and Baktrā, besides the remnants of the older Scythian and Iranian settlers, were Greeks, Parthians, and their own countrymen from Central Asia."\textsuperscript{42} This international atmosphere favoured the introduction of new ideas in Buddhism. The Buddhists grappled with the task of converting these sturdy and semi-barbarous tribes to their faith. Polytheism had to be tolerated and even rendered attractive. The bodhisattva doctrine exalted Love and Activity and peopled the heavens with gracious Beings, who could be worshipped. It is likely that some deities of the new tribes were adopted as bodhisattvas. This period in the history of Buddhism corresponds to the mediaeval period of Christianity, when the Teutons of Central Europe were converted.

(6) Christianity

As the bodhisattva doctrine was formulated before the advent of Christianity, there can be no question of Christian influence with regard to the origin of the new ideal. Christianity certainly influenced the development of Mahāyāna Buddhism at a later period and was also influenced by Buddhism to some extent. There were several channels of communication between the Buddhists and the Christian countries of Western Asia, Africa and Europe. The Buddhists could establish intercourse with the Christians
in Alexandria, Southern India and Central Asia. Clement of Alexandria (c. A.D. 150-155) mentions the presence of Indians at Alexandria and also refers to Buddha and the "Samanas". Porphyry, the Neo-Platonist (233-c. 304), gives interesting details from the lost work of Bardesanes, the Gnostic teacher, who wrote about the Indian monasteries. St. Jerome (c. A.D. 340-420) speaks of Buddha in connection with the dogma of the virgin-birth. The Gnostics, who were numerous in the Roman Empire in the early centuries of the Christian era, borrowed some ideas from Buddhism, though one need not regard the word "gnosis" as the equivalent of bodhi or compare their three "qualities" to the gunas of the Saïkhyya system. Analogy does not always imply a common source. But it is certain that the Indian religion was not unknown to the leaders of the Christian Church during the second and succeeding centuries. Further, there is the tradition that St. Thomas visited India and preached to King Gondophares. It is not possible to determine if this legend is true or false. R. Garbe rejects it, but A. E. Medlycott is of opinion that "the Apostle Thomas had entered King Gondophares' dominions in the course of his apostolic career". E. W. Hopkins also regards the tradition as worthy of credit. But the story of the Apostle's martyrdom is intrinsically improbable, as the Indians did not approve of religious persecution. They have always been very tolerant and broad-minded, and there is no reason why a solitary innocent preacher should have been put to death. The Indians were free from the fanaticism of the Jews and the calculating cruelty of the Roman imperialists. Another missionary, St. Pantaenus (second century A.D.), is mentioned by Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian. Apart from these doubtful traditions, the existence of a Christian community in Southern India during the sixth century is attested by the Egyptian writer, Kosmas Indikopleustes. G. A. Grierson indeed thinks that India learned the bhakti doctrine from this Christian Church; but bhakti was inseparably associated with early Buddhism, as has been indicated above. It was not, however, in Alexandria or the Deccan that Christianity and Buddhism exercised that mutual influence, which cannot be doubted or denied. They met and mingled in Central Asia and Syria. Aëoka sent Buddhist missionaries to Bactria and Syria in the third century B.C., and Buddhism was known in those regions during the centuries that witnessed the rise and
growth of the Mahāyāna. Buddhism and Christianity borrowed much from each other. Diligent investigators have discovered many striking parallels between Christian and Buddhist legends, rites, miracles and precepts, which need not be discussed in detail. Many of these alleged analogies are very superficial and unconvincing. But two great religious systems, which were in close contact with each other, must have exercised some mutual influence, as is evident from the fact that the very word bodhisattva has been taken over by the Greek and Roman Churches in the name of “St. Josaphat”. If it is not the right method to collect isolated passages from the Bhagavata-gītā and then proceed to trace them to Christian influence, as E. W. Hopkins and F. Lorinser have done. Even if we could find precisely similar phrases in the Gospels and the Gītā, the fact would remain that the spirit of the Gospels is not the spirit of the Gītā. The ideals of life taught by the two scriptures are fundamentally different. The Gītā teaches pantheism, caste-duty, asceticism, war and intellectual insight; the Gospels inculcate monotheism, loving service, social equality, peace and faith. In the same way, it is idle to compare the two parables of the lost son in the Sād. Pu. and the New Testament, as the moral of the stories is not the same. They are intended to illustrate quite different ideas. If we apply this test, we should not attach much importance to the Madonna-worship, the fish-symbol, the story of the temptation, the episodes of Simeon and Asita, the miracles of walking on the water or multiplying food, Nathanael’s fig-tree, the scenes of transfiguration, and other such external and secondary matters as have been discussed by van der B. van Eysinga and R. Seydel. We should try to discover where and how the Mahāyāna was really influenced by Christian ideas and ideals. A religion is distinguished and defined only by its spirit. We may safely assert that the spirit of the later Mahāyāna is not the same as that of the earlier Mahāyāna. Nāgārjuna and Vasubandhu follow the real Indian tradition in attaching equal importance to Wisdom and Love, and even stressing the former more than the latter. But Cāntideva seems to ignore prajñā (Wisdom) altogether, though he offers lip-homage to it. He moves in an entirely different atmosphere: he talks with genuine feeling of sin and service, confession and forgiveness. His ideal of perfection is different from that of the earlier Mahāyānists. He seems to have drunk deep at some other fountain. If Christianity has
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at all influenced Indian thought, we shall look in vain for that influence in the Bhagavad-gītā or the Sād-dharma-puṇḍarika. We shall perhaps find it in that remarkable poem, the Bodhi-caryāvatāra. It has been compared to Thomas à Kempis’s “Imitation of Christ”, but it is more Christian in spirit than that manual of a mere monk. Here, if anywhere, we may discern some traces of external influence, as a new spirit is in evidence. The Mahāyāna was true to its genius in thus assimilating foreign ideals, which were very similar to its own. There is indeed much in common between Christianity and the later Mahāyāna, though it is not quite correct to speak of “theistic Buddhism”, a misleading phrase coined by J. E. Carpenter.

II

PHASES OF DEVELOPMENT OF THE DOCTRINE

The bodhisattva doctrine probably originated in the second century B.C. The word bodhisattva is very old and occurs in the Pāli Nikāyas. Gautama Buddha speaks of himself as a bodhisattva, when he refers to the time before the attainment of Enlightenment. This seems to be the earliest signification of the word. It was applied to Gautama Buddha as he was in his last earthly life before the night of Enlightenment. The following clause recurs frequently in the Majjhima-Nikāya: “In the days before my Enlightenment, when as yet I was only a bodhisattva, etc.” The word also seems to be used only in connection with a Buddha’s last life in the Mahāpadāna-sutta (Dīgha-Nikāya ii, 13) and the Acchariy-ābhutta-dhamma-sutta (Majjhima-Nikāya iii, 119). In the Kathā-vatthu, certain questions are raised with regard to the bodhisattva’s actions; the signs on his body, his rebirth in a state of woe, and the possibility of his harbouring heretical opinions or practising asceticism are discussed. It is clear that the previous lives of Gautama Buddha and other saints have now begun to excite interest and speculation. But there was no new systematic doctrine in the middle of the third century B.C., when the Kathāvatthu was composed. The idea of a bodhisattva’s renunciation of personal nirvāṇa is stated clearly and unequivocally in the Pr. Pā Aṣṭa. and bodhi is set up as the new ideal in the Sād. Pu. These
treatises belong mainly to the first century B.C. We may infer that the Mahāyāna doctrine in its earliest form was definitely formulated in the second century B.C. This was also the period of the Hindu revival under the Guṇa dynasty. Most scholars are of opinion that the Mahāyāna doctrine originated in the centuries immediately preceding the Christian era. M. Walliser says: “Welchen Umfang die Herstellung von Mahāyānasūtras zur Zeit des dritten Konzils des Kaniṣka .... erreicht hat, erhellt aus der Notiz des Tārānātha, dass damals die 1,000 Abschnitte umfassende Ratnakātabhūta und das ebenso umfangreiche Avatāmiskā entstanden sein. ... so ist andererseits doch nicht unwahrscheinlich, dass die grosse Masse der Mahāyānasūtras noch in die vorchristliche Zeit zurückreicht.” W. McGovern writes: “The religious aspect of the Mahāyāna developed sometime immediately prior to the Christian era.” K. Saunders assigns the date 50 B.C.—A.D. 50 to what he calls “the half-way Mahāyāna”. S. Dutt suggests 100 B.C. for the first beginnings of the Mahāyāna. We may regard the second century B.C. as the chronological starting-point for the development of the bodhisattva doctrine.

In the course of several centuries (second century B.C. to seventh century A.D.), the bodhisattva doctrine was modified in its essential features. The chief lines of development may be indicated as follows:

(1) In the early Mahāyāna, the bodhisattvas are inferior and subordinate to the Buddhas; but they acquire greater importance in course of time till they are at last regarded as equal to the Buddhas in many respects. They are also endowed with ten balas, four vaśśārayas and eighteen āvenika-dharmas. They are to be worshipped like the Buddhas, or even in preference to them. This gradual exaltation of the bodhisattvas at the expense of the Buddhas culminates in the apotheosis of Avalokiteśvara, who is declared to be a kind of “Buddha-maker”. He helps others to acquire Buddhahood, while he himself remains the eternal bodhisattva.

(2) In the early Mahāyāna, Wisdom and Mercy are regarded as equally important, and a bodhisattva must possess the double Equipment of Knowledge and Merit (jñāna-sambhāra, puṇya-sambhāra). In fact, Wisdom is considered to be somewhat more important than Mercy. Māňjuśrī, who represents Wisdom, is invoked in the opening verses of several treatises, and he is
praised in the Sad. Pu. The glorification of Wisdom reaches its climax in the writings of the Mādhyamika school of philosophy, which was founded by Nāgārjuna in the second century A.D. Prajñā is extolled ad nauseam, while Mercy (karunā) is not discussed in detail. But the later Mahāyāna emphasises Mercy more than Wisdom. It is emotional rather than argumentative. It sometimes seems to ignore and discard Wisdom altogether, as when it declares that karunā is the one thing needful for a bodhisattva. As this ideal gains ground, the bodhisattva Avalokiteśvara increases in importance till he becomes the supreme and unique bodhisattva. The Mahāyāna slowly passes from the ascendency of Mañjuśrī to the reign of Avalokiteśvara.

(3) The early Mahāyāna attaches equal importance to social life and to ascetic retirement from the world. It is, in fact, inclined to exalt the layman-householder and the women in comparison with the solitary recluses. But the later Mahāyāna reverts to the old ideal of celibacy and forest-life. The monk triumphs in the end even in the Mahāyāna, and an inferior position is assigned to family life and to women.

(4) Many practices of Yoga are borrowed from external sources by the Viṣṇau-vādīn (or Yogācāra, Yogācārya) school of philosophers (fourth century A.D.). A bodhisattva is described as the yogen par excellence. The number of samādhis (modes of Concentration) is increased, and wonderful properties are ascribed to them. Yoga, which is endemic in India, is accepted as an integral part of the bodhisattva doctrine.

(5) The quest of bodhi (Enlightenment) is relegated to the background, while active Altruism in this world of sin and suffering is regarded as almost sufficient in itself. The early Mahāyāna teaches that altruistic activity is one of the means of attaining Enlightenment, which is the goal. But the later Mahāyāna seems to forget even that far-off destination and prefers to loiter on the way. A bodhisattva need not be in a hurry to win bodhi and become a Buddha, as he can help and succour all living beings more effectively during his mundane career as a bodhisattva. This idea also resulted in the subordination of the Buddhas to the bodhisattvas. There is a marked tendency to regard Altruism as an end in itself. Avalokiteśvara does not seem to think seriously of becoming a Buddha.

(6) The early Mahāyāna recognises an oligarchy of bodhisattvas, and eight are mentioned as a group of equal rank.
Perhaps Mañjuśrī is regarded as primus inter pares. In the later Mahāyāna, the oligarchy is changed into an absolute monarchy. Avalokiteśvara is first and the rest nowhere. He absorbs all the virtues, powers, functions and prerogatives of the other bodhisattvas, because he is the Lord of Mercy. He occupies the supreme position in the Universe and reigns without a rival.

Kṣitigarbha, Kṣietiesvara, Avalokiteśvara, are all-in-all. This is the last word and the consummation of the Mahāyāna.

III.

MAŃJUŚRĪ AND AVALOKITEŚVARA

Many eminent bodhisattvas are named in the Sanskrit treatises, e.g. Mañjuśrī, Avalokiteśvara, Samanta-bhadra, Gagarāganja, Vajra-pāni, Vajra-garbha, Samanta-bhadra, Vajra-garbha, Vāyūha-rāja, Indra-jāli, Ratna-garbha, etc. But only a few are really important. Mahāsthāna-prāpta is one of the two active ministers in the Buddha Amītabha's paradise Sukhāvatī, and Vajra-garbha figures in the Da. Bhū. Samanta-bhadra promises to protect all preachers (Sad. Pu., chapter 26); Vajra-pāni is described as the chief of Buddha's servants (Gītā 516, 7). But all these are rather shadowy figures. The two most important bodhisattvas are Mañjuśrī and Avalokiteśvara.

Mañjuśrī ("Gentle Glory," "Sweet Splendour"). He is named in the Sad. Pu. (chapter 11), and is regarded as a master of wisdom and knowledge. He has trained and disciplined many bodhisattvas (Sad. Pu., p. 261). He has been aptly called "a male Athene, all intellect and chastity." The epithet "kumāra" or "kumāra-bhāta" is often applied to him. It has been interpreted as "ever young" or "prince royal, a consecrated heir of the Buddha." S. C. Das explains that he is so called, because he observes celibacy (J.B.T.S., vol. 1, p. 39, 1893). But this title does not present any problem, as it is also conferred on other very ordinary bodhisattvas (Pr. Pañ. Çata. 30—Kar. Pu. 106—Sam. Ra, fol. 95a, 4). The passage in the Kar. Pu. shows that it means "young," as a bodhisattva is said to become a kumāra, "twenty years old." E. W. Hopkins thinks that Mañjuśrī
was a missionary in northern India; but we do not possess any historical data about him, and he is associated with the ocean in the Sad. Pu. The title "kumāra" is probably nothing more than a complimentary epithet for the bodhisattvas, who are regarded as "ever youthful", and perhaps also as "princes of Buddha's realm".

Avalokiteśvara. This name has been translated in different ways:

"The Lord, who sees, or looks down."
"The Lord, who is seen or manifested, or is everywhere visible."
"The Lord of what is seen, of the visible world."
"The Lord, who is seen from on high" (i.e. by Amitābha Buddha, as a small Buddha-figure is often placed in the head of the statues of Avalokiteśvara).
"The Lord, who looks from on high" (i.e. from the mountains, where he lives, like Čīna).
"The Lord of View." "Lord of compassionate glances."
"The Lord of the dead and the dying."

The Pāli verb oloketi means "to look at, to look down or over, to examine, inspect, consider". The word avalokita may have an active signification, and the name would mean, "the lord who sees (the world with pity)". The Tibetan equivalent is spyan-ras-gzigs (the lord, who looks with eyes). The Kāranda-çāyaḥ explains that he is so called, because he regards with compassion all beings suffering from the evils of existence. According to N. D. Mironov, the original form of the name was avalokita-svara, which has been found in the fragments of the manuscript of the Sad. Pu. brought by Count K. Otani's expedition from E. Turkestan. It is a remarkable fact that Sanghavarman (third century), Dharmarakṣa and other early translators translated the name into Chinese as kuang-shih-yin (illuminating the sounds of the world). J. Edkins says: "Kuan (looks on), shih (the 'region' of sufferers), yin (whose voices of many tones, all acknowledging misery and asking salvation, touch the heart of the pitiful Bodhisattva)." The Chinese equivalent of the form avalokiteśvara (kuan-tzü-ts'ai) appeared first in Yuan Chwang's writings in the seventh century. It has been objected that avalokita-svara is a queer sort of compound, which would convey no clear meaning to an Indian. But the present form is also a puzzling compound
which cannot be interpreted with any degree of certainty. It may be inferred that the Chinese knew the form *avalokita-suvara*, but it was subsequently changed to *avalokiteśvara* on account of the confusion between *lok-śvara* and *avalokita-svāra*. There was probably some Śivaite influence. A tentative suggestion may be offered: the word *avalokita* may mean "wisdom", as it is employed in the *Mūla* to denote the essence of Buddha’s Enlightenment (*Mūla*, ii, 294, 2). There is also a *samādhi*, called *avalokita-mudrā* (*Pr. Pā. Cātā*, p. 483). In that case, the name would mean "Lord of Wisdom". This interpretation is neither better nor worse than those mentioned above, all of which are unsatisfactory. There is also no valid reason for associating this *bodhisattva* with the dead and the dying: such an idea is not found in the texts that describe his activities.

Avalokiteśvara is the chief minister in the Buddha *Amitābha*’s paradise (*Sad. Pu.* chapter xxiv). He is also regarded as an emanation of that Buddha. He is not mentioned by name in the early treatises like the *Mūla* and the *Lal. Vr.*. But he is prominent in the supplementary portion of the *Sad. Pu.* and in the *Su. Vy.* and the *Ka. Vy.*. In the *M. Vy.* (Section 23), he stands at the head of a list of ninety-one *bodhisattvas*. His origin is obscure. K. J. Saunders thinks that he is a sun-god of Central Asia. M. Winternitz refers to the story of King Vipaçcit in the *Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa* and says: "This king is a counterpart, perhaps a forerunner, of the *bodhisattva* Avalokiteśvara in Mahāyāna Buddhism". He can hardly be a "forerunner", as the Buddhist texts mentioning Avalokiteśvara are certainly older than this purāṇa. Avalokiteśvara’s name, his association with *Amitābha*, his lordly and leisurely movements throughout the Universe, the stress laid on his "eyes" (*Sad. Pu.*, 452, 2), his capacity of illuminating the world (*Su. Vy.*, 56, 5), and his epithet of *samantha-mukha* point to a solar deity. The cult of Avalokiteśvara seems to be a Buddhist adaptation of the sun-worship of the *Saurās* and the *Magi*.

As a *bodhisattva*, Avalokiteśvara is the personification of Mercy. He abrogates and nullifies the old law of *karma*, as he visits the purgatory of *avici* and makes it a cool and pleasant place (*Ka. Vy.*, p. 6). He goes to the realm of the *pretas* and gives them plenty of food and drink; they thus regain a normal figure. The beings, who are liberated from these realms, are reborn in the paradise of *Sukhāvati*. In the purgatories, he creates a lake of
honey and wonderful lotuses, which are as large as chariot-wheels. He visits the demonesses (rākṣasīs) in Ceylon and they fall in love with him; but he converts them to the true religion (Ka. Vy., p. 43). In the country of Magadha, he finds that the people have become cannibals on account of a famine: he helps them by raining down water, rice, cereals, clothes and other things (Ka. Vy., p. 47). In Benares, he assumes the shape of a bee and preaches to the worms and insects in their foul and humble abode. They seem to hear this buzzing sound (ghuna-ghanāyamānām ābdam): “Salutation to Buddha.” They are reborn as bodhi-sattvas in Sukhāvati. Such are Avalokiteśvara’s deeds of mercy.

It is distinctly stated in the Ka. Vy. that Avalokiteśvara is much greater than the Buddhas in Merit, intelligence and sphere of influence (Ka. Vy., pp. 14, 19, 23). His Merit is incalculable, like drops of rain falling continually for a year (p. 19). He is the father and mother of all (pp. 48, 66). The devotee, who recites his name, is freed from pain; and the man or woman, who worships him with one flower, is reborn as a deva (pp. 48, 49).

The apotheosis of Avalokiteśvara culminates in identifying him with the Spirit of the Universe and bestowing on him all the attributes of Brahman and Isvāra. He has a hundred thousand arms and several millions of eyes. The sun and moon have sprung from his eyes, Brahmat and other gods from his shoulders, Nārāyana from his heart, and Sarasvatī from his teeth. He has innumerable pores (roma-vivara), which are intangible, like space (p. 62). In each pore there are many Buddhas, gods, mountains of gold and silver, etc. Pious worshippers can be reborn in these pores and attain felicity (p. 67). Above all, they should learn and recite the mysterious formula, “Om manipadme hum,” which is called “the lore of six letters or syllables.” It is Avalokiteśvara’s special gift to the world and leads to mokṣa (Liberation). This seems to be an invocation of a female deity, “the deity of the jewel-lotus.” F. W. Thomas and A. H. Francke have shown that the popular interpretation is incorrect (Om, “the Jewel in the Lotus”). With this formula, we enter the dark realm of Cakti-worship and Mantra-yāna, which should be clearly distinguished from the historical Mahāyāna.
Chapter III

THE THOUGHT OF ENLIGHTENMENT

A bodhisattva's career is said to commence with the "production of the Thought of bodhi" (bodhi-cittotpāda). He thinks of becoming a Buddha for the welfare and liberation of all creatures, makes certain great vows, and his future greatness is predicted by a living Buddha. These three events mark the conversion of an ordinary person into a bodhisattva. But the later Buddhist philosophers have also introduced a kind of novitiate, which must be gone through before an ordinary person can arrive at the stage of the citt-otpāda. We find that the several factors of this period of preliminary preparation were gradually devised and elaborated. The Da. Bhū. does not speak of any such conditions; it mentions the citt-otpāda as the first step in a bodhisattva's career.¹ It represents the earliest tradition with regard to this question. But the authors of the M.S. Al. and the Bs. Bhū., who belong to the fourth century A.D., add the conception of getra ("family", "predisposition"), which must precede the citt-otpāda.² In the chapters on the vihāras and the bhūmis in the Bs. Bhū., adhimukti (Aspiration) is also put forward for the first time as an element in the novitiate.³ These chapters are certainly later in date than the other parts of the treatise, as the first chapter discusses only getra and the second chapter deals with the citt-otpāda without mentioning adhimukti at all. The M. Vy. shows the theories of getra and adhimukti in their completely developed form.⁴ The works of Čāndideva (seventh century) exhibit the latest phase of this tendency towards the increased elaboration of the factors and conditions appertaining to the preliminary period. He does not attach great importance to getra or adhimukti, but lays much stress on faith, worship, prayer, confession of sins and other practices of piety and devotion as the necessary antecedents that should lead up to the citt-otpāda.⁵ The Dh. S. mentions only such practices, and it ignores getra and adhimukti altogether.⁶ Thus three subsidiary problems must be discussed before we can take up the crucial question of the citt-otpāda, with the Vow and the Prediction that follow it.
Gotra.—It is probable that the Mahāyānists borrowed the conception of gotra from the Hinayānists, as the latter inserted the stage of a gotrabhū between the ordinary unconverted person (pūthujjano) and the sotāpanno (Stream-attainer), who represented the lowest order of Buddhist laymen in the earliest texts. In two passages of the Anguttara-Nikāya, nine or ten worthy types of persons, who are “fields of Merit”, are mentioned, and the gotrabhū is of the lowest rank. He has not entered the Stream or acquired Faith. In a passage of the Majjhima-Nikāya, the gotrabhū is spoken of contemptuously as a nominal “member of the spiritual clan”. The Puggala-paññatti defines an “ordinary person” as one who is not even inclined to abandon the three “fetters”; and it proceeds to describe a gotrabhū as one who is endowed with the conditions that immediately precede the advent or appearance of the noble nature (ariya-dhammasa avakkanti; i.e. he is ripe for conversion as a sotāpanno, but has not yet been converted). T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede derive this word gotra from Sanskrit gotra gup, and explain thus: “a technical term used from the end of the Nikāya period to designate one, whether layman or bhikkhu, who, as converted, was no longer of the Worldlings, but of the ariyas, having nibbāna as his aim.” The M. V. mentions gotra-bhūmi as one of the seven bhūmis (Stages) of the Hinayānists (Section 50). It may be inferred that the idea of placing an intermediate Stage between the unconverted worldling and the fully converted adept of the first Stage was borrowed from the Hinayānists and applied to the development of the bodhisattva doctrine. The Hinayānists seem to have adopted the term gotrabhū in order to endow the numerous new converts of the lower castes and classes with a gotra. This word originally meant “family”, and was then used to denote the group of persons descended in the male line from a common ancestor, who was often assumed to have been a holy sage of ancient times like Kācyapa, Gautama, Bharadvāja, etc. Thus the three higher castes are divided into several gotrais, but the cūḍras do not belong to any gotra. This has been the theory of Hinduism. But early Buddhism used an old term in a new sense, and declared that all Buddhists belonged to the family or clan of Gautama Buddha, as they were his spiritual sons and heirs. Such a notion of democratic equality and spiritual kinship
probably led to the adoption of the Brahmanic word gotra by the Buddhists, who preserved the original Sanskrit form in gotrabhū instead of employing the Pāli equivalent, gotta. The Sanskrit form also betrays its origin.

Gotra, as applied to a bodhisattva's preliminary preparation, has been translated as "Family" and "Breeding". The Tibetan equivalent rigs shows that the qualities of a class or clan are meant, as that word also denotes "caste". S. C. Das translates: "breed, culture, also spiritual descent" (Tib. Dicy., 1:80). The Da. Bhū, which does not speak of gotra as preceding the citt-otpāda, contains references to buddha-gotra; and a bodhisattva is said to "follow the gotra of the Buddha". The idea was subsequently developed and elaborated till gotra became merely a technical term, meaning "tendency, pre-disposition, diathesis".

Thus different persons are qualified by their gotra to become prāvakas, or pratyeka-buddhas, or perfect Buddhas, while the gotra of some individuals cannot be determined and others have no gotra at all. There are thus five species of gotra, as enumerated in the M. Vāj. (Section 61). The person, who is first to become a bodhisattva and then to develop into a Buddha, must have the proper and requisite gotra for his mission, otherwise he cannot enter on the first stage of his career by "producing the Thought of Enlightenment" and taking the Vows. Gotra is either innate or acquired. Innate gotra depends on some superiority in the faculties and is due to a person's deeds in the previous existences; while acquired gotra is obtained in this present life by developing the "Roots of Merit". A bodhisattva's gotra is distinguished by certain signs or marks, which indicate his fitness for the practice of the six pāramitās (Perfections). He attaches the greatest importance to the cultivation of Virtue and thinks of the future life. He is a severe critic of his own actions, and he fears and avoids the slightest sin. He helps others and eschews strife and discord. He exhorts others to abstain from improper actions. He is always merciful and virtuous and loves the truth. He speaks pleasantly even to dumb servants and appreciates the merits of others. He is forbearing and patient even towards those who injure him. He is by nature energetic and courageous, and does his duty without succumbing to indolence and inactivity. He is strong-willed in all preparations for success, and aids other people even in their worldly pursuits. He is not
over-diffident, but believes that he can achieve his aims, even if the task be difficult. He finds happiness in the thought of renunciation; he loves the solitude and silence of the woods. He is by nature not very prone to passion or vice. His mind is not disturbed by evil thoughts. He is pure and bears within himself the seed of all the principles and attributes of perfect Enlightenment. He cannot commit a heinous mortal sin. He possesses great powers of endurance. In fact, his condition is called gotra, because good qualities arise from it. It may be compared to gold and precious gems.

A bodhisattva must be on his guard against certain dangers and obstacles in this preparatory stage. He should beware of passions and vices of all kinds. He must shun bad friends and companions. He must acquire an independent position in life. He must not be dependent on masters and kings, and he must not be exposed to the attacks of thieves and enemies. He must not be altogether indigent, as he must be free from anxiety for the necessities of life. He must properly understand the teaching or advice of his good friends, and evince zeal and energy in following it.

A bodhisattva's excellent gotra protects him against the worst consequences of his evil deeds, even if he should lapse into sin. He may be reborn in a state of woe, but he is soon released from it; and he does not endure terrible anguish like an ordinary worldly man. He also learns to feel pity for other suffering creatures.

Such are the characteristics, dangers and privileges of the gotra stage of a bodhisattva. As it is by nature associated with bright virtue and is thus auspicious and sublime, it must be regarded as a necessary and indispensable condition for the attainment of the supreme position of a Buddha.

The Buddhist philosophers developed the theory of gotra in order to explain why all persons do not try or desire to become bodhisattvas.

II

Adhimukti.—The second idea, which is associated with this preliminary stage, is that of adhimukti (Aspiration). The M.S. Al. mentions adhimukti as a quality possessed by a bodhisattva in the gotra Stage, but it does not devote a special
chapter to *adhimukti-caryā*. In this stage, a *bodhisattva* is afraid of pain and is not prepared to suffer pain for the sake of others.\(^4\) But he has now commenced his progress towards the goal.\(^4\) When he has purified himself in this condition, he will be fit to enter on the first of the ten real *bhāmis* (Stages) of his career.\(^4\) But he is as yet deficient in virtuous action; he is not free from faults and imperfections; and he is not regular and consistent in his life.\(^4\) He possesses the idea of perfection only in the state of germ or cause, as a latent possibility; and his Aspiration may be feeble, moderately strong, or very intense.\(^4\) Noble Aspiration must always precede the Thought of *bodhi*.

III

*Anuttara-pājā* (Supreme Worship).—As the ideal of Faith and Worship gradually became predominant in the Mahāyāna during the fifth and sixth centuries, the Buddhist teachers were not content with prescribing only *gattra* and *adhimukti* as the necessary preliminaries to the *citt-otpāda*. They introduced more devotion and ritual, and also propounded the new and startling ideas of Sin and Confession.

This development is reflected in the *Dh. S.*, the *Cīkṣā* and the *B.C. Āva*.\(^4\) A *bodhisattva* must perform the following religious exercises before he can attain to the "Thought of Enlightenment":—

(a) *Vandana* and *Pājā* (Worship and adoration of the Buddhas, the *bodhisattvas* and the Doctrine).

Çāntideva is the chief representative of this devotional type of Buddhism. In the second canto of the *B.C. Āva*, he sings a hymn of love and adoration for the Buddhas and the great *bodhisattvas*. He wishes to worship them in a fitting manner in order to attain to the *citt-otpāda*. He lavishly offers them everything that is beautiful and gorgeous,—all flowers, fruits, jewels, limpid waters, gem-producing mountains, woods and forests, flowering creepers and fruit-laden trees, celestial perfumes and incense, the wish-fulfilling tree of heaven, lakes adorned with lotuses and swans, wild and cultivated plants, and all other valuable things in the entire universe that may be offered in worship.

At this point in the rhapsody, the poet seems to feel that he
is giving away what does not belong to him and that this sort of pāja really costs him nothing. He suddenly pulls himself up and adds these touching lines, which breathe the true spirit of devotion:

"I give myself to the jinas (the conquerors). I give myself entirely and utterly to their sons (i.e. the bodhisattvas). O noble Beings, take possession of me. I have become your slave through Love." (B.C. Ava., ii, 8.)

Çāntideva then declares that he would render humble service to the Buddhas and the bodhisattvas. He would gladly prepare their bath, massage their bodies, spread perfumes over them, etc. He yields again for a moment to the temptation of bestowing on them costly lamps, spacious palaces, lustrous gems and lovely flowers. But he ends in a happier vein, and praises and worships the Buddhas and the bodhisattvas in these words:

"I bow to the Buddhas of the past, present and future, to the Doctrine, and to the noble band (of bodhisattvas) with as many obeisances (as many times) as there are atoms in all the buddha-fields." 48

(b) Çarana-gamana.—Çāntideva then repeats the formula of "taking refuge" in the Buddha, the Doctrine and the bodhisattvas. The threefold formula dates from a very ancient period. 49 The Mahāyānists subsequently substituted "the group of the bodhisattvas" for the old third term, Sangha. The triad is also known as the "three jewels" (tri-ratna). Novices are always described as taking this first step of confessing their faith in these three "jewels" before they proceed to the higher duties of practising the ethical precepts. 50

(c) Confession of Sins (pāpa-deśanā).—The poet confesses his sins, declares that he is a miserable sinner, promises not to sin again, and takes refuge in the bodhisattvas for protection and succour. These verses introduce a new note in Buddhist literature, which was not heard before in the Hinayāna or the Mahāyāna. Çāntideva exclaims:

"I am a brute: 51 whatever sins I have committed, or caused others to commit, either in this life or in the endless series of previous existences, and whatsoever sins I have approved, all those sins I confess. I am consumed with remorse, and I have earned death through my folly (have slain myself).

"O Leaders! Whatever grievous sins I have committed with my body, speech and mind against the 'three jewels', or my
parents, or my teachers, or others, I confess them all now. I am a sinner soiled with many transgressions (vices, faults).

"How shall I escape from this? I am always beset by fear and anxiety lest I should die soon before the burden (accumulation) of my sins is diminished." (B.C. Ava., ii, 28-32.)

Cāntideva calls on the bodhisattvas to save him. He reflects that death suddenly smites living beings like a thunderbolt. He has sinned through lust, hatred and delusion. He has sinned through the love of kinsmen and friends, who cannot protect him in the hour of death, as every man must reap as he has sown. He has sinned through the pursuit of pleasure, forgetting that all external objects must be left behind by Man, who is only a stranger and a pilgrim on earth. He thinks of the terrible punishment that awaits him after death, and asks: "Who can save me?" He repents of his folly in neglecting the cultivation of virtue. He has failed to amass spiritual Merit. He promises to follow the Buddha’s precepts, as a sick man must obey the physician. He is mortally afraid of the pain of rebirth in purgatory, and again confesses all his transgressions against natural law and against the rules and precepts of the Buddhist Community. He ends by declaring that he will sin no more. (B.C. Ava., ii, 33 ff.)

This remarkable Confession, the “De Profundis” of the pious Buddhist poet, bears witness to the influence of the completely developed Hindu doctrine of bhakti (devotion) on Buddhist thought. The ideas of self-reliance and personal retribution are discarded, and the bodhisattvas are invoked to save a sinner from the evil consequences of his deeds. It is assumed that frank confession is meritorious and can induce the bodhisattvas to help him. This trend of thought reminds us of the ancient Vedic hymns to Varuna and the later devotional literature of the Hindu sects like the Vaiṣṇavas and the Gāitas. The ideas of sin as an offence against higher deities, and of confession, repentance and extraneous protection were alien to the spirit of Buddhism during several centuries. It is true that King Ajātasatru confessed his sin before Gautama Buddha, who declared that he “accepted the confession”, whatever that may mean. But the iron law of karma was not effectively relaxed in favour of erring humanity before bhakti came to be regarded as an easy and alternative device to escape pain and attain felicity. In later Buddhist literature, repentance and confession are held to absolve the sinner from the sin and its
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punishment. They can at least mitigate the disastrous consequences of sin. As many as thirty-five Buddhas are supposed to hear Confession. 65

(d) Puny-ānumodana (Rejoicing in the Good). Cāntideva declares that he rejoices in thinking of the good deeds of all beings, of the Liberation obtained by the arhats, and of the spiritual heights attained by the bodhisattvas and the Buddhas. 66

(e) Adhyēṣaṇa and Yācana (Prayer and Supplication). Cāntideva prays and implores all the Buddhas to preach the true Doctrine and not to disappear in final nirvāṇa. The people will remain blind, if they do not receive instruction from the Buddhas. 67

(f) Declaration of Altruism and Self-Denial.

The last stage, which immediately precedes the citt-otpāda, has been described as parināmanā (the application of one’s Merit to the welfare of others) and ātma-bhāvādi-parityāgah (renunciation of one’s body, or of oneself, etc.). These descriptive terms have been invented by the later commentators, and the Dh. S. even puts parināmanā after the production of the Thought of Enlightenment. 68 Cāntideva really gives us a magnificent Canticle of love and charity. It deserves to be quoted in full, as it reveals the spirit that should animate and inspire the novice, who would become a bodhisattva. As Cāntideva speaks in the first person, he brings us into touch with the living soul of the bodhisattva ideal as distinguished from the dry bones of the tiresome numerical lists of a bodhisattva’s qualities and powers.

He says: “Whatever Good I have acquired by doing all this, may I (by that Merit) appease and assuage all the pains and sorrows of all living beings. 69

May I be like unto a healing drug for the sick! May I be the physician for them, and also tend them till they are whole again! (literally, ‘till the disease does not arise again’). 70

May I allay (literally, kill) the pain of hunger and thirst by showers of food and drink (by raining down food and drink). And may I myself be food and drink (for the hungry and the thirsty) during the intermediate æon of famine! 71

May I be an inexhaustible treasure for poor creatures! May I be foremost in rendering service to them with manifold and various articles and requisites!

I renounce my bodies, my pleasures and all my Merit in the past, present and future, so that all beings may attain the Good
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(accomplish their welfare): I have no desire (for all those things).

To give up everything, that is nirvāṇa: and my mind seeks nirvāṇa. If I must give up everything, then it is best to bestow it upon the living beings.

I have devoted this body to the welfare of all creatures. They may revile me all the time or bespatter me with mud; they may play with my body and mock me and make sport of me; yea, they may even slay me. I have given my body to them: why should I think of all that?

They may make me do such things (actions) as bring happiness to them. May no one ever suffer any evil through me! (literally, 'having had relations with me').

If they have thoughts of anger or of friendliness towards me, may those very thoughts be the means of accomplishing all that they desire!

Those persons who revile me, or do me harm, or scoff at me, may they all attain Enlightenment!

May I be the protector of the helpless! May I be the guide of wayfarers! May I be like upon a boat, a bridge and a causeway for all who wish to cross (a stream)! May I be a lamp for all who need a lamp! May I be a bed for all who lack a bed! May I be a slave to all who want a slave! May I be for all creatures a cintāmani (the philosopher's stone) and a bhadrāghata (a vessel from which a lottery is drawn, a pot of fortune), even like unto an efficacious rite of worship and a potent medicinal herb! May I be for them a kalpa-vṛkṣa (the wish-fulfilling tree) and a kāma-dhenu (the cow yielding all that one desires)!

(B.C. Ava., iii, 6–19.)

IV

Bodhi-cittotpāda.—When a person has fulfilled the requirements of gotra, adhimagati and anuttara-pājā, he is ready for the decisive step, "the production of the Thought of Enlightenment." D. T. Suzuki defines bodhi-citta as "intelligence—heart", and says: "Theoretically speaking... the Bodhi or Bodhicitta is in every sentient being... In profane hearts, it may be found enveloped in ignorance and egoism." He thus identifies bodhicitta with bodhi itself! M. Anesaki also takes a
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metaphysical view of bodhi-citta, and defines it as "the primordial essence of our mind, which in itself consists in the supreme bodhi". But it is not necessary to indulge in such subtleties in order to explain this simple term. Bodhi-citta simply means "the Thought of bodhi". The word citta has also been translated as "heart", "soul", "mind." But it should be interpreted as "Thought, idea", in the compound bodhi-citta. It is derived from the root cit, meaning "to perceive, to form an idea in the mind, etc." (Skt. Dicy., M.W., 323b). The fanciful etymology suggested by the author of the Lankāvatāra-sūtra need not be taken seriously. He explains citta as "that by which karma (action or its result) is gained or accumulated" (cittena ciyate karma). The compound word cittotpāda is employed in its ordinary non-technical sense in a passage of the Divy. (394, 19—sādhu sādhvā mahārāja sābhana te cittotpādah). Here it means "thought, idea". When the Buddhists developed the bodhisattva doctrine, they attached a special meaning to it, and it became a technical term. Bodhi is the prize that a thoughtful person should strive to secure. But it is perhaps "too bright and good for human nature's daily food". The Buddhist writers have therefore adduced several reasons, motives and considerations, which should induce the average man to produce the Thought of bodhi in himself. He should reflect that birth as a human being is a very rare privilege. He may be born as an animal, a preta or a denizen of purgatory many times, and there is no chance of becoming a bodhisattva in those existences. Even if he has escaped these three calamities, it is extremely difficult to find the five or six other favourable conditions that are indispensable for his initiation as a bodhisattva. He may be born as one of the long-lived deva, who cannot aspire to bodhi, though they are very happy. He may be born among foreigners or in a barbarous country. He may be defective in his faculties and organs. He may be misled by false doctrines. And lastly, he may find himself on earth during a period when no Buddha has lived and taught, for the perfect Buddhas are very rare. He should consider himself fortunate in being free from these eight or nine difficulties and disqualifications, and, above all, in being born as a human being at all, for human life is a blessing that perhaps falls to one's lot only once in billions of years. He should never forget the famous simile of the blind turtle, which explains that the chance of being born as a human being is infinitesimally small. Buddha
himself has spoken thus: "Suppose a man should throw into the ocean a yoke with a single aperture in it. It is blown west by an easterly wind or east by a westerly wind; again it is carried north by a southern wind or south by a northerly wind. Now suppose there were a blind turtle in that ocean, and he came to the surface once in a hundred years. What think you, Monks? Would that blind turtle get his neck into that single aperture of the yoke? . . . Verily, that turtle would more quickly and easily perform that feat than a fool in his misery can be born as a human being once again." So difficult it is to enjoy the blessing of life as a man or woman under fortunate and favourable circumstances (ksana-sampad). Further, an ordinary worldly person should realise that his life and the external world are painful, impermanent and unsubstantial. He should think of death and the inevitable retribution after death. Death and dissolution are everywhere around us. Nothing endures. The clouds, that strike terror into men's hearts with thunder, lightning and rain, melt away. The mighty rivers, that uproot the trees on their banks in the rainy season, shrink again to the size of small and shallow streams. The cloud-compelling winds, that smite the mountains and the oceans, abate their fury and die away. The beauty of the woodland too is evanescent. All happiness ends in sorrow, and life ends in death. All creatures begin their journey towards death from the very moment of their conception in the womb. Powerful monarchs, skilled archers, clever magicians, haughty devas, furious elephants, ferocious lions and tigers, venomous serpents and malignant demons—all these can quell, subdue and slay their enemies, but even they are powerless against Death, the fierce and irresistible foe of all living beings. Realising the peril of death and suffering after death, a wise man should feel fear and trepidation (samooya) and resolve to become a bodhisattva.

Besides thinking of his own lasting weal, a thoughtful person should be incited to the pursuit of the ideal of bodhi by the spectacle of the misery and folly of the people around him. They are foolish worldlings, deluded by ignorance. They are attached to sense-pleasures and enslaved by egotism, pride, false opinions, lust, hate, folly, doubt, craving and evil imaginations. They are without refuge and protection and have no haven of rest. They are blind, and there is no one to guide them. They are travelling through this jungle of mundane existence and towards the
precipice of the three states of woe. They do not love virtue and duty, and are ungrateful to their parents and spiritual teachers. They are addicted to violence, strife, falsehood and cunning. Their sins are many, and they suffer from dire diseases and famines. The true religion is rejected, and false creeds arise and flourish. The world is groaning under the five dreaded calamities of degeneracy (kaśāya). The duration of life is decreasing. The living beings are degenerate, their sins and passions increase, and they hold wrong views. The great Āeon itself is nearing its end. Such is the terrible situation, in which the world finds itself. Reflecting on this sad state of things, one should resolve to become a bodhisattva in order to help and save all creatures. Such pity, mercy, love and compassion (karunā kṛpa) are at the very root of the Thought of Enlightenment. A bodhisattva produces this Thought in himself for his own good and for the welfare and liberation of all living beings. He says: “As the Buddhas of yore accepted the Thought of bodhi and regularly followed the discipline of the bodhisattvas, even so I too produce (in my mind) this Thought of bodhi for the good of the world, and I will follow that discipline in due order.” With this resolve, the man or woman becomes a bodhisattva. The Bhū, gives the decisive declaration in these words: “He thinks thus: ‘O may I obtain supreme and perfect Enlightenment, promote the good of all beings, and establish them in the final and complete nirvāṇa and in the Buddha-knowledge!’ Such is his prayer (prārthana).” The two objects (ālambana) of the Thought are thus: bodhi and the good of the living beings (sattvārtha).

Great are the merits and advantages of this heroic step. It cancels and annuls all the sins and transgressions of a bodhisattva’s past lives, thus transcending even the law of karma. It is one of the three “Roots of Merit” (kuṣala-mūlāmi), the other two being purity of thought and freedom from egotism in all its forms. It increases spiritual Merit, and even those, who encourage it, share in that puṇya. It leads to happy rebirths, even if one does nothing to realise it in practice, as even a broken diamond is more precious than gold! It saves a bodhisattva from punishment in purgatory, even if he should be guilty of murder. It is superior to all good resolutions, mundane or supra-mundane. One may count the stars in the sky, but it is impossible to estimate the virtues and merits that are associated with the bodhi-citta. It is the occasion of rejoicing in the heavens.
and hells.\textsuperscript{103} Nature exhibits miraculous phenomena at such an auspicious moment.\textsuperscript{104} A person at once becomes worthy of respect, like a teacher or a father; and others can acquire Merit by helping him, as he is a "field of Merit".\textsuperscript{105} He is now born in the "Buddha’s family".\textsuperscript{106} His Merit cannot be impaired, and he cannot be injured by beasts, yakṣas or other non-human beings. His body does not feel any fatigue, and he acquires a retentive memory (or abiding Mindfulness).\textsuperscript{107} He is freed from anger, falsehood, envy, hypocrisy and all such faults of character.\textsuperscript{108} He acquires four powers\textsuperscript{109}:—(1) \textit{adhyatma-bala}, i.e. joy (\textit{ruca}) in \textit{bodhi}, produced by one’s own strength; (2) \textit{para-bala}, i.e. the joy conferred by others; (3) \textit{hetu-bala}, i.e. joy experienced on account of exercise in past existences; and (4) \textit{prayoga-bala}, i.e. power obtained by practice in the present life, the company of virtuous persons, etc. The Thought of \textit{bodhi} is supremely blessed and auspicious,\textsuperscript{110} and may rightly be compared to a pearl, to the ocean, to sweet music, to a shade-giving tree, to a convenient bridge, to the soothing moonbeams, to the rays of the sun, to a universal panacea and an infallible elixir.\textsuperscript{111}

Having sung the praises of the \textit{bodhi-citta} in the usual florid style, the hair-splitting Buddhist philosophers proceed to describe its different species, the causes that produce it, and the practices that fortify it. It may be regarded as of two sorts. One kind is conducive to Liberation and cannot be turned back, as it persists perpetually.\textsuperscript{112} The other variety of \textit{bodhi-citta} does not lead to Liberation, as it can be turned back, either temporarily or irrevocably.\textsuperscript{113} Further, the \textit{bodhi-citta} may be divided into two categories from another point of view: (1) the mere resolution, and (2) the actual progress (or starting) towards \textit{bodhi} (\textit{bodhiprānidihi-citta} and \textit{bodhiprāthāna-citta}).\textsuperscript{114}

As regards the occasions and causes that may lead to the \textit{bodhi-citta}, special importance is attached to the effect produced by seeing some miracle wrought by a Buddha or a \textit{bodhisattva}, or hearing of it.\textsuperscript{115} A person may study the true Doctrine and the Scriptures, and thus find the chief motive for conversion.\textsuperscript{116} He may be instructed and encouraged by a Buddha or his disciple; he may hear the praise of \textit{bodhi} or \textit{bodhi-citta}; or he may realise how perfect a Buddha’s personality is. Some benign Buddhas may even rouse the Thought of \textit{bodhi} in others by a deceptive stratagem. Even an ordinary worldly person, who has the proper predisposition, can acquire the \textit{bodhi-citta}, as a new-born tiny
sparing, which has not completely broken its shell, utters a sparrow’s cry. So none need despair.\textsuperscript{117} It is a pleasing feature of Buddhist literature on this subject that it lays stress on the advantages of having a good friend \textit{(kalyāṇa-mitra)}. The spirit of haughty self-sufficiency is not inculcated. On the contrary, a good friend is regarded as an indispensable factor in the attainment of the \textit{bodhi-citta}, just like \textit{gotra} and \textit{karuṇā}. The possession of such a helper is indeed a blessing \textit{(kalyāṇa-mitra-parigraha-sampad)}.\textsuperscript{118} He should be intelligent, and he should not hold wrong views. He should not lead the would-be \textit{bodhisattva} to negligence or evil actions. He should aspire to the highest ideals and be a man of deep faith.\textsuperscript{119} Not only is a \textit{kalyāṇa-mitra} necessary for this first step in a \textit{bodhisattva}’s career, but he is useful and valuable at all times. Only a lucky person, who has been very charitable to the poor in a previous existence, can find such a friend.\textsuperscript{120} A \textit{kalyāṇa-mitra} helps a \textit{bodhisattva} to remain fearless and courageous at all times, and always exhorts him to follow the precepts and ideals of the Mahāyāna (as distinct from the other systems).\textsuperscript{121} A bad friend \textit{(pāpamitra)}, on the contrary, dissuades a \textit{bodhisattva} from practising the \textit{pāramitās} (Perfections), drags him down and does not warn him against errors and inferior ideals.\textsuperscript{122} When a \textit{bodhisattva} has found a good friend, he should never desert him, but try to keep him by all means in his power.\textsuperscript{123} He should hold that friend as dear as his own life.\textsuperscript{124} Last, but not least, fearlessness is necessary for the production of the \textit{bodhi-citta}. The would-be \textit{bodhisattva} must not be timid.\textsuperscript{125} He can develop such a courageous spirit, if he is noble by nature and also acquires the strength that comes from knowledge \textit{(pandita bhavati)}\textsuperscript{126} and the habit of meditation and reflexion.\textsuperscript{127} Sincere faith in Enlightenment and intense enthusiasm for it, combined with deep compassion for others, will also dispel all fear.\textsuperscript{128} When the \textit{bodhi-citta} has been attained, it can be rendered firm and strong like adamant \textit{(vajr-opanah)}\textsuperscript{129} if the \textit{bodhisattva} loves all creatures like a wife \textit{(kadatra-bhūvena)} without being contaminated by such affection.\textsuperscript{130} He should also entertain the good purpose of promoting their spiritual and physical welfare. He should adopt the practice \textit{(prayoga)} of daily augmenting and strengthening that double purpose and endeavouring to mature the principles (or qualities) of Buddhahood in himself and others.\textsuperscript{131}
A bodhisattva, who has once accepted the bodhi-citta, must not swerve from the right path or abandon the career. He must reflect that he has given a sacred promise to all creatures, whose welfare and liberation depend on him. He belongs to the family of the Buddhas and must be worthy of his distinguished position. He must be alert and vigilant from the very first day. He should not give up his bodhi-citta, even if Mara (the god of Desire and Death) tries to weaken his resolve with the most dreadful menaces and threats. He should also know that he will certainly suffer torment in the purgatories, if he voluntarily abandons the bodhi-citta through weakness and vacillation. Such a betrayal is a cardinal sin (mūl-āpatti).

V

Pranidhāna or Pranidhi.—Having accepted the citt-āpāda, the bodhisattva makes a great pranidhāna in order to strengthen his resolve and avert the danger of giving up his glorious task. This term, pranidhāna, is explained by Monier Williams as meaning "prayer, entreaty, supplication" (Skt. Dicy. 609). D. T. Suzuki interprets it somewhat differently and says: "Pranidhāna is a strong wish, aspiration, prayer, or an inflexible determination to carry out one's will." L. Feer explains thus: "Pranidhāna signifie 'disposition particulière d'esprit, application de l'esprit à un objet déterminé'." The word has been translated as "vow", "resolve", "solemn aspiration", "prayer," etc. The Tibetan equivalent is smon-lam (Lal. V. Tib., p. 4, line 6). S. C. Das translates: "meditation, prayer, supplication; as a prayer, it seems to be rather for the enjoyment of the fruits of one's merits and seldom for a favour of a necessity undeserved." According to H. A. Jäschke, it means: "Prayer, whether it be in the general way of expressing a good wish or offering a petition to the Deity, or in the specific Brahmanic-Buddhistic form, which is always united with some condition or asseveration, as: if such and such a thing be true, then may... wishing-prayer" (Tib. Dicy., 428a). The Tibetan verb smon-pa means "to wish, to desire". According to E. J. Eitel, the Chinese translate pranidhāna by a phrase, which means "prayers and vows" (p. 121). It may be inferred that the idea underlying pranidhāna
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is that of an earnest wish, and not strictly that of a vow or resolve. It may be rendered as "Earnest Wish" or "Aspiration".

Pranidhāna is both the cause and the result of the Thought of Enlightenment. It is of three kinds: that which relates to happy rebirths; that which aims at the good of all beings; and that which is intended to purify the buddha-fields.

The earliest formula of a bodhisattva's pranidhāna was quite simple. The Pr. Pā. Asā., for instance, gives it in these words: "We having crossed (the stream of transmigratory existence), may we help the living beings to cross! We being liberated, may we liberate others! We being comforted, may we comfort others! We being finally released, may we release others!"

In the Ava. Ca., Pūrabhadra and others add a very short declaration to these four sentiments: "By this Thought of Enlightenment, the Root of Good, and by my renunciation of everything that can be given away, may I become a Buddha in this blind world, which is without a guide and leader." The four clauses of the Pr. Pā. Asā., which form the kernel of the formula, are repeated in the Mttu. (iii, 138.16). In the Lal. V., the bodhisattva Siddhārtha is reminded of the pranidhāna that he had made in his previous existences: "I will attain the immortal, undecaying, pain-free bodhi, and free the world from all pain."

The bodhisattva Dharmākara's pranidhāna in the Su. Vy. is more elaborate. He aspires to free all creatures from the fear of being reborn in a state of woe as animals, pretas, asuras or denizens of purgatory. He expresses such earnest wishes as the following: "May all beings be of a golden complexion! May human beings be equal to the devas in every respect! May all beings possess the wonder-working Powers in such perfection as to be able to traverse many buddha-fields in a moment! May they have the power of remembering their former existences! May they possess the supernal organ of sight and see many worlds and universes! May they obtain the supernal organ of hearing and listen to the words of the preachers in many buddha-fields! May they acquire the power of discerning the thoughts of others! May they be free from the notion of possession and property, even with regard to their own bodies! May they be firmly established in Righteousness (samyaktva) till they attain the great final Liberation! May they not know even the name of Evil (akusala)! May they be blessed with great bodily strength! May they enjoy supreme felicity! May they not be born as
females! May they be free from pain and keep all their faculties unimpaired! May they never turn back from the quest of Enlightenment! 147

These are a few "wishes", selected from the long list of miscellaneous aspirations, which the bodhisattva Dharmākara cherishes for himself and for the beings, who should be born in his buddha-field in the remote future. It is clear that the concept of pranidhāna has been considerably extended and amplified by the author of the Su. Vy. and the sect to which he belonged. But the most detailed formula of a bodhisattva's pranidhāna is found in the Da. Bhū, which mentions ten Wishes or Aspirations.148 Each pranidhāna is characterised as "great" (maha-pranidhāna), and certain epithets are also applied to it, viz.: "Wide and comprehensive as the element of the phenomena, co-terminous with the element of Space (ether), dwelling on infinite futurity, uninterrupted for the entire number of aeons and the Buddhas to be born." These ten pranidhānas may be summarized as follows:—

(1) To provide for the worship of all the Buddhas without exception.
(2) To maintain the religious Discipline that has been taught by all the Buddhas and to preserve the teaching of the Buddhas.
(3) To see all the incidents in the earthly career of a Buddha.
(4) To realise the Thought of Enlightenment, to practise all the duties of a bodhisattva, to acquire all the pāramitās and purify all the stages of his career.149
(5) To mature all beings150 and establish them in the knowledge of the Buddha, viz. all the four classes of beings who are in the six states of existence.
(6) To perceive the whole Universe.
(7) To purify and cleanse all the buddha-fields.
(8) To enter on the Great Way and to produce a common thought and purpose in all bodhisattvas.
(9) To make all actions of the body, speech and mind fruitful and successful.
(10) To attain the supreme and perfect Enlightenment and to preach the Doctrine.

The later writers seem to have preferred a simple form of pranidhāna to the prolix and grandiose declarations of the Su. Vy. and the Da. Bhū. Kṣemendra describes several persons as making a pranidhāna "for the acquisition of bodhi
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and the liberation of the world”, when they give away wealth, certain limbs of their bodies, or their lives, for the benefit of others. But the importance of the idea of pranidhāna was realised in an increasing degree in course of time, as pranidhāna was finally incorporated in the lists of the bodhisattva’s balas (Powers), vaśītās (Mights, Sovereignties), and pāramitās (Perfections). Thus did the Buddhist philosophers evince their appreciation of the Will as a factor in spiritual progress.

VI

Vyākarana or Vyākrti.—According to the accepted doctrine, a bodhisattva must declare his pranidhāna in the presence of a living Buddha, who then predicts his future success in attaining Enlightenment. This “Prediction” is called vyākarana or vyākrti. The Tibetan equivalent is lumi-bstan-pa, which means “precept, inspired command, prophecy” (Tib. Dicy. Das, 1216a). The idea of vyākarana seems to have fallen into abeyance in course of time, as Čāntideva does not attach any importance to it.

The typical formula for such a prediction is given in the Sad. Pu. Gautama Buddha’s prophecy with regard to Čāriputra’s future Buddhahood is uttered in these words: “O Čāriputra, at a future period, after the lapse of immeasurable, inconceivable, innumerable æons, when you have learned the true Doctrine from hundred thousand nayutas of keśis of Buddhas, worshipped them in various ways, and completed this discipline (or career) of a bodhisattva, you will be a Tathāgata who will bear the name of Padmaprabha. You will become a perfectly enlightened Buddha, venerable, perfect in knowledge and conduct, knower of all the worlds, peerless trainer of men who need discipline, teacher of devas and men, a Buddha worthy of adoration... The field of that Buddha will be called Viraja (pure). The duration of his life will be twelve intermediate kalpas. After his final Liberation, his religion will endure for thirty-two intermediate kalpas, and the counterfeit of that religion will also last for as many intermediate kalpas.” Another shorter formula, which describes the perfect Buddha in different terms, is found in the Ava. Ga. It seems to be later in date than that given in the Sad. Pu. It
runs thus: “By this thought of Enlightenment, the Root of Good, and by this renunciation of everything that can be given away, Pūrṇa will realise bodhi after three asamkhyaeyas of kalpas and fulfil the six pāramitās, cultivated with great Love. He will be a perfectly enlightened Buddha, Pūrṇabhadra by name, endowed with the ten Powers, the four Grounds of Self-confidence, and the three special and characteristic Fields of Mindfulness, together with great Love.” These details are communicated by the Buddha in each “Prediction”, which varies according to the time and the individual. It is a Buddha’s duty to give such a vyākaranā before he dies. A bodhisattva, who has received such a Prediction, can attain Wisdom more easily than others. The prophecy may also be made in the bodhisattva’s absence. Curiously enough, the deva Indra is also described as uttering such a prediction; but, as a general rule, vyākaranā is the prerogative of a perfect Buddha. Kṣemendra records many vyākaranas, couched in very short and simple terms, which were made by Gautama Buddha with regard to the future of Puyābhadra, Madhurasya and Sumati, and also of a hare.

It must be noted that the vyākaranā assumes the theory or doctrine of a bodhisattva’s rebirth in future existences. He will cultivate many virtues and acquire knowledge and wisdom during many lives to come. Most Buddhist writers divide living beings into five classes (gatis, goings, modes or states of existence): the devas, the human beings, the pretas, the animals and the denizens of the purgatories. Some authors also mention a sixth class, the asuras (“demons, titans, furious spirits”). Birth as an asura is regarded as a state of misery in the Su. Vy., but the asuras are associated with the devas by Čantideva. Now a bodhisattva cannot (as a rule) be reborn in a purgatory, or as an animal or a preta. These are the three states of woe. He will therefore be born in the cycle of transmigration or re-incarnation as a deva or a human being till he attains bodhi. This doctrine of rebirth, which is not found in the Vedas, suddenly makes its appearance in the Gātāpatha-Brāhmaṇa, in which the stress is laid on the idea of repeated deaths (punar-mṛtyu). The theory is nowhere discussed as a debatable question, and no arguments are adduced for or against it. The dogma was regarded as self-evident and axiomatic. It has been suggested that it was borrowed by the Aryan immigrants from the aboriginal inhabitants of India, or that it may have been the popular belief of the lower
strata of Aryan society. The Indian philosophers adopted and elaborated it in the seventh and eighth centuries a.c. Whatever the origin of the idea may be, it forms the starting-point and the basis of Buddhist philosophy and religion. The series of lives in the past is declared to be without a beginning, and that is all that is vouchsafed to us in the way of argument.

A bodhisattva will thus die and be reborn many times in the different worlds and universes, which are supposed to exist. But an initial problem must be discussed before we proceed further. The Buddhist philosophers teach that a human being has no atman (Pāli: atta), but consists of five skandhas (Aggregates), which are all impermanent and non-substantial. The word atman has usually been translated as "soul", and the question has been asked: "If a bodhisattva has no soul, who and what survives death? How can he be reborn? What is the principle of identity in his numerous existences?"

The five skandhas (Pāli: khandha), which Gautama Buddha himself is said to have mentioned in his second sermon, are as follows:—

(b) Vedanā: ("feeling" or "sensation", or both).
(c) Samjñā: ("perception" or "ideas"). Th. Stcherbatsky, citing the Abhidharma-koça, defines samjñā as "operations of abstract thought", "that which abstracts a common characteristic sign from the individual objects".
(d) Samskāra.—This untranslatable term has been variously rendered as "plastic forces", "syntheses", "pre-natal forces", "potentialities", "conformations", "mental confections", "conditions", "precedent conditions", "complexes of consciousness", "activities", "activities and capabilities", "mental activities", "actions", "synergies", "dispositions", "predispositions", "die Taten", "die psychische Gestaltungen", "die Hervorbringungen", "les concepts", "die Gestaltungen", "die gestaltenden Kräfte", "die Kräfte oder Prozesse", "impressions", "volitions", "volitional complexes", "constituents", "mentations", "aggregates", "les formations", "die Unterscheidungen", "Unterbewusstsein (latente Bildekräfte)", "conceptions", "a complex including will, attention, faith and other conative groups", "die Beättigungen", "die Willensakte", "constituents of being", "potencies", "the fashion or forms of the
perceiving mind," "die verborgenen Prädispositionen," "les dispositions morales," "the grosser conditions precedent to thought, speech and action," "Geistige Gebilde (Willenstätigkeiten)," "merit and demerit," "mental co-efficients," "mental qualities," "actions or deeds," "l'idée," "volitions and other faculties," "energies," "co-ordinated energies," "productions," etc. etc.

The Pāli word sanākhāra, derived from the root "kJ", literally denotes either (1) that which is put together, compounded, conditioned, produced by a combination of causes (= sanākhata), or (2) that which puts together or creates. In the passive sense, it means "phenomena, physical or material life, all conditioned things, which have been made up by pre-existing causes" (Pāli Dicy. s.v.). In its active signification, the word is employed to denote the fourth of the five skandhas and the second of the twelve nidānas (Causes) in the formula of pratitya-samutpāda (Dependent Origination). As a skandha, it has been explained thus: "The mental concomitants, or adjuncts, which come, or tend to come, into consciousness at the uprising of a citta or unit of cognition ... The concrete mental syntheses, called sanākhāra, tend to take on the implication of synergies, of purposive intellection" (Pāli Dicy.) R. C. Childers and D. T. Suzuki identify this skandha with the fifty odd "mental properties or elements", which are mentioned in a late metaphysical treatise (phasso vedanā etc., etc.).¹²⁶ This irrelevant catalogue does not throw any light on the precise meaning of the term, and it need not be taken seriously. A. B. Keith thinks that "the root conception is the impressions resulting in dispositions, pre-dispositions, or latent tendencies, which will bear fruit in action in due course."¹²⁷ R. O. Franke states his conclusion thus: "Sanākhāra : das psychische Hervorbringen der Anschauungs-Auffassungsformen, d.h. Vorstellungen, durch den Geist des 'Nichtwissenden' (d.h. des über das Wesen der Dinge Unaufgeklärten), resp. auch die Vorgestellten (und nur in der Vorstellung existierenden) Dinge selbst bedeutet."¹²⁸ P. Oltramare says: "Les sanākhāra sont les predispositions et les tendances qui expliquent le dharma actuel par un des dharmas antérieurs, et qui, dans le dharma actuel, préparent les dharmas à venir."¹²⁹

In the Pāli canon, the term is explained in these words: "And why, O Monks, do you say sanākhāra? Because they compose a compound (sanākhataṁ abhisaṅkhārenti). They compose the body (rūpa) into the body-compound, feelings (vedanā)
into the feeling-compound, perception (saññā) into the perception-compound, and consciousness or soul (viññāna) into the consciousness-compound”. In another passage, three sankhāras are mentioned: “puññ-ābhisañkhāra,” “apuññ-ābhisañkhāra” and “āneñj-ābhisañkhāra”, which have been interpreted as “act of merit”, “act of demerit” and “stationary act”. The Dhammasaṅgani includes a long list of about forty-seven qualities and powers in this skandha, and gives this general and comprehensive definition: “These and all other incorporeal, causally induced states, exclusive of the khandhas of feeling, perception and consciousness, are called the khandha of the saṅkhāras.” This is very elaborate, but not helpful at all. The Abhidharma-koça follows the same line of thought and explains thus: “Le saṃskāra-skandha, c'est les saṃskāras différents des quatre autres skandhas. Les saṃskāras, c'est tout ce qui est conditionné ; mais on réserve le nom de saṃskāra-skandha aux conditionnés, qui ne rentrent ni dans les skandhas de rūpa, de vedana, de saṃjñā... ni dans le skandha de viññāna.” Vasubandhu also mentions a śūtra, which identifies the saṃskāras with the six kinds of cetana (active thought, intention, purpose, will); but he rejects that explanation and prefers his own omnibus definition, which is really no definition at all. The M. Vī, outdoes both the Dhammasaṅgani and the Abhidhammatthasangaha by enumerating ninety-four mental elements (cittasikā dharmāḥ), which are included in the saṃskāra-skandha. The Tibetan equivalent is hdu-byed, which is explained by S. C. Das as “that which is or seems to be compounded, as opposed to the simple and elementary, anything pertaining to either body, speech or mind that can be analysed. It is thus particularized: mental association, thoughts, ideas, etc.; material or physical compounds; phrases, epigrams, sententious expressions, etc.” (Tib. Dicy., 682). H. A. Jäschke leaves the word untranslated (Tib. Dicy., 276). According to E. J. Eitel, the Chinese translate saṃskāra by a term which means “action, karma” (p. 144).

So many unsatisfactory and bewildering explanations and translations, ancient and modern, seem to make confusion worse confounded. But the passage of the Pāli canon, cited above (Sānụṭṭa-Nikāya, iii, 87), and the dictum of the author quoted by Vasubandhu in the Abhidharmakoça give a clue to the fundamental idea that the early Buddhists tried to convey by this term. The saṃskāra-skandha is the fashioner, the “together-maker”,

the architect of the other four skandhas, not excepting even viññāna. The author, whom Vasubandhu quotes, identifies it with cetanā. In the Milinda-pañha, cetanā is even substituted for the samskāra-skandha, and it is described as abhisākārana-lakkhanā ("characterized by purposive 'putting together'"). Cetanā is defined in the Abhidharma-kosa in exactly the same words as the samskāras: samskṛtām abhisamskaretī (that which puts together the compounds). It may therefore be inferred that the samskāra-skandha stands for cetanā (Volition) and can best be interpreted as "The Will". An eminent scholar has complained that Buddhist literature has no word for "Will". Perhaps this is the word for it. It is necessary to clear away the cobwebs spun round the term by the mediaeval commentators.

(c) Viññāna (Pāli viññāna: "consciousness," "soul"). It has also been rendered as "mind", "intellection," etc. The Dhamma-saṅgani defines it as "thought, ideation, the heart, that which is clear, ideation as the sphere of mind, as the faculty of mind, the appropriate element of representative intellect ion". The Abhidharma-kosa explains thus: "Viññāna, c'est l'impression relative à chaque objet. Le viññāna-skandha, c'est l'impression (viññapta) relative à chaque objet, c'est la préréhension au (upālakāhi) de chaque objet. Le viññāna-skandha, c'est six classes de connaissances, connaissance visuelle, auditive, olfactive, gustuelle, tactile, mentale."

Now these five skandhas are said to constitute a human being. They are severally and collectively impermanent and non-substantial, as there is no ātman in them. This doctrine of pudgala-nairātmya (non-substantiality or phenomenonality of the individual) is taught by almost all the Buddhist philosophers. It is enunciated in Gautama Buddha's second sermon, in which he declares that the five skandhas are devoid of ātman, and that a wise man should say with regard to rūpa, vedanā, samjñā, the samkāras and viññāna: "This is not mine. I am not this. This is not ātman." These three simple sentences have been expanded and elaborated into the oft-repeated nairātmya theory. The Mahāyānist philosophers attach such great importance to this doctrine that they have elaborated a formula of no fewer than fourteen terms, which are regarded as synonyms of ātman, and which are declared to be non-existent and illusory. In this way, they have tried to "rub it in", so that there may be no possibility of error or misunderstanding on this point. These fourteen terms are: ātman,
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sattva, jiva, jantu, purusa, poja, manuja, kardapaka, manava, vedaka, kdraka, vedayitka, jnaka and pasyaka. These redundant words may be translated collectively: "being, individual, person, agent, doer, knower, beholder, one-who-makes-another-do, one-who-makes-another-know." It is held that a bodhisattva, who does not believe in the atman, will find it easy to get rid of sensual desire, pride and egotism in all its forms (the idea of "I" and "Mine"). The theory is thus considered to be conducive to spiritual progress. The Buddhist philosophers regard it as an essential and fundamental principle of their systems. The heresy of sat-kaya-drsti must be destroyed before the first step towards perfection can be taken. This term sat-kaya-drsti means "belief in permanent substantial individuality". It is the bête noire of all Buddhist writers of the Hinayana and the Mahayana. Both schools agree in condemning this wrong view as the root of all evil. The Pras. Pa. Astra. goes so far as to declare that all the sixty-two wrong speculative opinions, which Gautama Buddha rejected, are included in this one monstrous error of sat-kaya-drsti. It is compared to a mountain with twenty peaks, as a person may harbour the following four false notions with regard to each of the five skandhas:

1. This skandha (rupa, etc.) is I.
2. I have this skandha.
3. This skandha is the essence of Me.
4. The essence of Me is in this skandha.

It may be asked how a bodhisattva is reborn and makes spiritual progress during many lives, if there is no "soul". This difficulty has arisen from the regrettable mistake of translating atman by the English word "soul". The idea has gained ground that the Buddhist philosophers do not believe in "the soul", and at the same time teach that a bodhisattva goes through a long series of rebirths during many aeons. This illogical and absurd position has been made the butt of ridicule and criticism. But it is certain that the Mahayanaist writers believed in the continuity of personal identity between one life and the next. They assert the principal of personal identity in the most unmistakable terms. They identify Gautama Buddha and others with the persons that figure in the stories of his past lives. Thus Buddha says at the end of a story: "I was that Visvantara, and that priest was
Devadatta.” The Super-knowledge (abhiṣāna) of pārva-nivārānusmṛtijñāna (knowledge of previous existences) would also be an impossible and meaningless acquisition, if the person were not the same in each life, and if he did not know and feel that he was the same, just as a normal person is conscious of personal identity in the course of his or her life on earth. But it may be asked: “How is this possible, if there is no ‘soul’ that survives death?” This relevant question may be answered by declaring once for all that the Buddhist Sanskrit writers teach the existence of the “soul” in the ordinary sense of that word, but that they deny the existence of “spirit” as an immutable, non-composite, unconditioned, noumenal, absolute Substance, exempt from the law of change and causality. Ātman should be translated as “Spirit”, and not as “soul”. When the Buddhists condemned and combated the ātman doctrine, they meant that they did not believe in the ātman as it was described in the Upaniṣads and the treatises of the Vedānta system. The Chāndogya Upaniṣad declares that the ātman is immortal (8, 14, page 510—tad brahma tad amṛtasya ātmā). The Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad also speaks of “that ātman, that Immortal, that Brahman, that All”. The Katha Upaniṣad teaches that the Ātman (which is also Brahman) is undecaying and unchangeable. Similar ideas are expressed in several other passages of the Upaniṣads. But the Buddhists made no exception to the universal law of change and relativity, and they carried on a vigorous polemic against this ātman-brahman doctrine. Now it is clear that ātman in this sense should be translated in philosophical language as “Reality, the Absolute”, and in religious phraseology as “Spirit”, as in the Biblical saying, “God is Spirit.” The human “soul”, which thinks, feels and wills, does not belong to this category of pure “Spirit”, as it is subject to change and experiences pain and pleasure in this life and after death. This “soul” survives death and represents the principle of personal identity in non-Buddhist systems. The Buddhists recognise its existence and call it vijñāna. This term has been translated by the cumbrous and unwieldy word “consciousness”. But it is advisable to interpret it as “soul”. It is distinctly stated in the Pāli canon that vijñāna is that skandha, which continues to exist after death and enters the mother’s womb for the next re-birth (mātāya kunhi ṅa soka-missatha, etc.). Māra, the dem of Desire and Death, could not find the vijñāna of Godhika and Vakkali after the death of those
monks, though he looked for it everywhere. They had attained final and complete nirvāṇa, and their viññāna was not reinstated in a new embryo. Vijñāna thus corresponds to the “soul”, as this latter word is understood by most non-Buddhist religious teachers. “Soul” is defined as “the spiritual part of man regarded as surviving after death and as susceptible of happiness or misery in a future state” (New English Dictionary, 1919, IX, i, p. 461c). Vijñāna is explained as meaning “a mental quality as a constituent of individuality, the bearer of individual life, life-force (as extending also over rebirths), principle of conscious life, general consciousness (as function of mind and matter), regenerative force, animation, mind as transmigrant, as transforming (according to individual kamma) one individual life (after death) into the next” (Pāli Dicy. s.v.). It may therefore be suggested that Buddhist viññāna should be regarded as the nearest equivalent of the Christian “soul”.

Having established the personal identity of a bodhisattva during all his rebirths, we may now proceed to discuss his duty and discipline.

VII

Caryā.—A bodhisattva, who has fulfilled the conditions of the citt-otpāda, pranidhāna and vyākaranā, is fit to commence his caryā. This word caryā, derived from the root car, means “course, proceeding, behaviour, conduct” (Skt. Dicy. M.W.). It denotes the whole duty of a bodhisattva, all that he has to do. This comprehensive term covers his complete discipline and career. The forms cari and carikā are also found. Vijñā is divided into four parts in the Mūla.118 (1) Prakṛti-caryā (the caryā of Nature). This seems to correspond to gotra, which has been discussed above. (2) Pranidhāna-caryā (the caryā of Aspiration). (3) Anuloma-caryā (the caryā of regular practice). This refers to a bodhisattva’s early training. (4) Anivartana-caryā (or anivarta-caryā). This denotes a bodhisattva’s higher career, when he is sure that he cannot be a backslider.

This rudimentary scheme of sub-division was subsequently amplified in the list of the bhūmis (Stages), which a bodhisattva progressively occupies.

Another group of four caryās is mentioned in the Bo. Bhū, and the M.S. Al.
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(1) Bodhipakṣya-caryā (Practice of the "bodhipakṣya dharmāḥ", i.e. principles conducive to Enlightenment).
(2) Abhijñā-caryā (Practice of the Super-knowledges).
(3) Pāramitā-caryā (Practice of the Perfections).
(4) Sattva-paripāka-caryā (Practice of maturing the living beings, i.e. preaching and teaching).

This latter scheme of classification is preferable to that given in the Mūla, as it really indicates the various duties and qualities of a bodhisattva. It is therefore advisable to adopt this plan of treating the somewhat complicated theme of a bodhisattva's career and discipline. The bodhipakṣya-dharmas and the abhijñās will be discussed before the pāramitās, the bhūmis and the details of the last earthly life of a successful bodhisattva, who attains Enlightenment and thus finishes the long and laborious "Pilgrim's Progress".

VIII

THE QUESTION OF TIME.—A bodhisattva, who has taken the Vow, has an incredibly long pilgrimage before him. He will reach his goal and become a Buddha after the lapse of a very long period of time, in comparison with which even geological and astronomical figures pale into insignificance. According to the Pāli canon, many persons could attain arhatship very quickly, but the idea seems to have gained ground that spiritual growth could not be so rapid and easy. Even the Hinayānists began to think that "thousands of years" were required for that consummation. They also spoke of kalpas in connection with the more difficult task of attaining to the stage of a pratyekabuddha. Thirteen or fifteen kalpas, or twenty antara-kalpas, were considered to be necessary for this result. The unit of a kalpa was adopted for such calculations. The Mahāyānists and the semi-Mahāyānists either speak in general terms of a "long time" or reckon the time in kalpas. Thus we read of "many" kalpas, or of hundreds, thousands or kotis of kalpas. Sometimes nayutas are added to the word koti. But the grandiose Indian imagination soon devised the phrase, "immeasurable innumerable kalpas." According to the Mahā-vastu, the devas tell Maudgalyāyana that Enlightenment is attained after a hundred thousand kalpas,
but Gautama Buddha thinks that the devas are wrong, and he utters these staggering words, apramyehi asankhyeyahi kalpehi. Çántideva tries to give a more moderate estimate and reckons sixty kalpas for each pāramitā (i.e. 360 or 600 kalpas in all); but he also declares that a bodhisattva will struggle for “acintya” kalpas. This word acintya may simply mean “inconceivable”, “unthinkable”; or it may denote a very high number, which is mentioned in the M. Vy. But the Buddhist philosophers perhaps found that precise definition was necessary, and they commenced a regressive movement. They discontinued the practice of speaking vaguely of an “immeasurable” number of kalpas, and fixed the limit at three or seven asankhyeyas of kalpas. The lower figure was then adopted, and three asankhyeyas of kalpas was generally accepted as the duration of a bodhisattva’s career.

Now the terms kōṭi, nayuta, kalpa, antara-kalpa and asankhyeya must be explained. Kōṭi means “10 millions”. Nayuta is probably equivalent to a hundred thousand millions. The Abhidhānappadipika mentions nāhuta, which is interpreted by S. Hardy and W. Kirfel to mean “a hundred thousand millions”; but T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede explain it as signifying only “a vast number, a myriad”. The M. Vy. informs us that a hundred kōṭis make an ayuta and a hundred ayutas make a nayuta (Section 248). Thus a nayuta is equal to a hundred thousand millions. The same result is confirmed by the system of enumeration given in Section 249 of the M. Vy., where the numbers increase in a geometrical progression, with 10 as the common ratio. An asankhyeya (Pāli: asankheyya) is explained by T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede as “an immense period”; and they do not specify any definite number. M. Williams translates, “an exceedingly large number,” and Böhtlingk & Roth also explain the word as “eine best. ungeheure Zahl”. M. A. Rémušat gives it the value, “10, or 1 followed by 17 cyphers.” The Abhidhānappadipika mentions the word, and W. Kirfel interprets it to mean 10, or 1 followed by 140 cyphers. S. Hardy thinks that it is equivalent to 10, or 1 followed by 133 cyphers. It occurs in the Pāli Jātaka (i, 27, 15), and T. W. Rhys Davids leaves it untranslated. In the Milinda-pañha (p. 232, line 8), T. W. Rhys Davids also translates in general terms: “millions of years, æon after æon” (S.B.E., vol. xxxvi, p. 38). L. de la Vallée Poussin has calculated, according to the
data furnished by the *Avatamsaka-sūtra*, that an *asaṅkhya-yena* is equivalent to the 104th term of the series \((10^{2})^{9}, (10^{3})^{1}, (10^{4})^{2}, \ldots \); an *asaṅkhya-yena* would thus be \((10^{2})^{102}\), or 1 followed by 206 cyphers. But he also offers another suggestion and explains that an *asaṅkhya-yena* is the 66th term of the series \(0, 10, 10^{2}, 10^{3}, 10^{4}, 10^{5}, \ldots \).\(^{211}\) J. E. Carpenter adopts the value, "1 followed by 140 cyphers."\(^{212}\)

If it is at all necessary to calculate the exact value of an *asaṅkhya-yena*, we should rely on the *Mahā-vyutpatti*, which gives two lists of numerals, one of which is based on the *Lal. V.*, and the other on the *Abhidharma-kosa*. The former list does not mention *asaṅkhya-yena* and is therefore of no value for our purpose (Section 248, *M. Vy.*). The latter, however, contains the term *asaṅkhya-yena*, and it has also the merit of agreeing with the tables of numerals given in the *Abhidharma-kosa*\(^{213}\) and the Tibetan literature (Tib. Dicy. Das, p. 241). According to these lists, there is a number, called *maha-balâkṣaṇa* (*Tibetan, stobs migchenpo*), which is equal to \(10^{60}\), or 1 followed by 50 cyphers. The *M. Vy.* proceeds with the enumeration, and an *asaṅkhya-yena* (*asaṅkhya-am* in the text) is ten times a *maha-balâkṣaṇa*, or "1 followed by 51 cyphers." The Tibetan lexicon inexplicably omits to mention *asaṅkhya-yena* and leaves a gap in its place. We may conclude from the concurrent testimony of these three authoritative sources that the Buddhist system of enumeration finally reckoned an *asaṅkhya-yena* as the equivalent of \(10^{61}\), or 1 followed by 51 cyphers. A *bodhisattva's* career lasts for \(3 \times 10^{61} \) *kalpas*, or three thousand billion billion billion *kalpas* (reckoning a billion as equivalent to a million million).

According to Buddhist cosmogony, a *maha-kalpa* denotes a complete period of the Evolution and Involution (or Re-integration and Disintegration) of a universe. Each universe is periodically evolved and dissolved, and such a cyclic period is called a *maha-kalpa*. It is divided into four *kalpas*, which are as follows:

1. *Vivartha-kalpa* (the period of incipient Evolution, Renovation, Re-integration or Re-appearance).
2. *Vivrti-avasthā-kalpa* (the period of continued Evolution, Renovation or Re-integration).
3. *Samvartha-kalpa* (the period of incipient Involution, Disintegration, Dissolution or Disappearance).
(4) Samavatta-avasthā-kalpa (the period of continued Involution, Disintegration or Dissolution).

Each kalpa is divided into twenty antara-kalpas (small or intermediate kalpa). An antara-kalpa denotes a period of time, during which the length of human life increases from ten years to about 80,000 years, and then decreases to ten years, the rate of change being one year in a century. Thus an antara-kalpa lasts for 16 million years and the duration of a maha-kalpa is four times 320 million years. A bodhisattva’s career thus covers about four times $3 \times 10^{31} \times 320 \times 10^8$ years, or four times nine hundred sixty thousand million billion billion billions of years.

If we interpret kalpa as an ordinary kalpa and not as a maha-kalpa, the above figure must be divided by four. But if a kalpa, as defined above, is interpreted as meaning an asankhyeya of the Pāli literature, the bodhisattva’s career lasts for only 960 million years. According to E. J. Eitel, the Chinese reckon 1,344,000 or 1,344,000,000 years for a maha-kalpa (p. 68).

Some Buddhist authors, however, have warned us against wasting our time on such fantastic arithmetical computations. In the Mtu., Kātyāyana tells Ānanda that a kalpa is “unmeasured” (aparimitah) according to Buddha’s teaching, but there would be somehow many of them. This logical riddle is left unsolved by the saintly Kātyāyana. And we shall leave it at that. With regard to a bodhisattva’s career, the word asankhyeya is really intended to create an awe-inspiring impression of vast and sublime grandeur. We convert the poetry of religion into bald prose, if we speak of exactly three asankhyeyas and try to confine an asankhyeya of the bodhisattvas within the bounds of our mathematics.
CHAPTER IV

THE THIRTY-SEVEN "DHARMAS"

The Buddhist philosophers devised a formula of thirty-seven "bodhipakṣyā dharmāḥ", which enumerates and comprises thirty-seven practices and principles. They are held to be conducive to the attainment of Enlightenment. The word is met with in several forms:

Bodhipakṣāḥ (M.S. Al. 159.9–177; Kar. Pu., 127.8;
Pr. Pā. Āṭṭa., 194.18; Divy., 350.14, etc.).
Bodhipakṣyāḥ (Sam. Rā., fol. 193b.2; Bo. Bhū., fol. 366.4.1,
fol. 100b.3.3, and passim).
Bodhipakṣikāḥ (Bo. Bhū., fol. 90a.2.2; Mtu. ii, 290.6).
Bodhipakṣikāḥ (Da. Bhū., 53.22; Kar. Pu., 10.13; Lal. V.,
424.12; Dh. S., section 43.)

The first two forms (pakṣāḥ and pakṣyāḥ) occur more frequently than the others. The dharmas are also called bodhipakṣyāṃ mārgāngāni in the Da. Bhū. (42.9), and the Ava. Ča., speaks of bodhi-karakā dharmāḥ and bodhisattva-karakā dharmāḥ, which are presumably the same as the "bodhipakṣyā dharmāḥ" (Ava. Ča. i, 69.12; i, 86.15; i, 75.4).

The term "bodhipakṣyā dharmāḥ" has been variously translated as follows:

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede (s.v. bodhipakkhiya and pakkhiya): "belonging to Enlightenment, qualities or items constituting or contributing to bodhi" (Pāli Dictionary).
E. Burnouf: "les conditions qui sont du côté de la bodhi" (Lotus: p. 430).
S. Lévi: "Les Ailes d’illumination" (M.S. Al. tr. p. 291).
T. W. Rhys Davids: "The principles, which are the wings of wisdom" (Dialogues, ii, 348).
L. de la Vallée Poussin: "Principles conducive to Enlighten-
ment" (Le Musée, 1905, p. 7).
L. Feer: (1) "Les lois qui forment les 37 ailes de la bodhi" (Ava. Ča. tr., p. 101).
(2) "Les 37 lois relative à la bodhi" (Ava. Ča. tr., p. 229).
G. F. Kœppen: "Die begleitenden Bedingungen der bodhi" (Buddh. i, 426).


P. Oltramare, "Conditions favorables à l'Illumination" (Bouddhique, p. 348).

A. B. Keith: "Wings of Enlightenment" (Philosophy, p. 292).

It seems probable that the form pakṣya is not related to the word pakṣa, which means "wing". That simile would not be very appropriate, as no bird has thirty-seven wings. We find other similes referring to the two wings of a bird. The Pali word bodhipakkhiya is probably derived from the Sanskrit form, which was the earlier of the two, as this word does not occur often in the Nikāyas or the Milinda-pañha, though all the factors are mentioned in the Mahāparinibbāna-sutta (Dīgha, ii, 120; Mil., pp. 37 ff.; Vīhāra, p. 372). As E. Hardy has pointed out, the collective term bodhipakṣa dharmāḥ is found in the Lalita-vistarā (8.6; 182.11). It also occurs in the Mtu. (ii, 290.6). The number "thirty-seven" is first mentioned in the Sūc. Pt. (458.1). The term emphatically refers to bodhi and not to the nirvāṇa of the Pali scriptures. Both the term and the complete formula seem to have originated among the Sanskritists or quasi-Sanskritists, who were the forerunners of the Mahāyāna. The Pali rendering points to pakṣya as the correct Sanskrit form, which is also used in the Bo. Bhū in connection with other words, e.g. sukhapakṣa, etc. (fol. 5a.2, fol. 83b.4). It is derived from the substantive pakṣa, which means "a side, party, faction" (Skt. Dicy. M.W. 520b), as in such words as pakṣapāta, pratipakṣa, etc. Literally it means "belonging to a side" (Skt. Dicy. M.W. 521a). Pakṣyāḥ makes both good sense and good grammar. We are therefore justified in accepting this latter form and translating: "Principles which are conducive to Enlightenment," The Tibetan equivalent renders pakṣa or pakṣa by phyogs, which means "side, party, direction", and not "wing" (Tib. Dicy. Das, 840a; J. Rahder, Glossary, 134).

I

It is a curious circumstance that the thirty-seven items of the formula are enumerated in several passages of Buddhist Sanskrit.
literature without being called by the collective appellation, bodhipakṣyā dharmaḥ, e.g. Divy. 208.7ff.; Pr. Pā. Čata. 56-7, 133, 162, 1473; M. Vā. sections 38ff. The term bodhipakṣāḥ occurs in the Pr. Pā. Čata. (p. 1636, line 10), but the list includes more than thirty-seven dharmas. The numeral “thirty-seven”, however, is also found in the same book (p. 1410.19; 274.22). It may be inferred that the exact number and the name of these dharmas were determined at a comparatively late period. The Pāli Nettipakarana, which dates from the beginning of the Christian era, mentions forty-three bodhipakkhiyā dhammā. 2 Aṭṭhakakacca mentions only twenty-eight items in the Sāvām-kāvya (xvii, 24, ff.), and he does not use the term bodhipakṣya.

The formula, in its final form, includes the following thirty-seven dharmas, which are usually given in this order: 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dharmas</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Four Smṛty-upasthānānī</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four Samyak-prahānānī</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four Raddhi-pādāh</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five Indriyānī</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five Balānī</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seven Bodhy-aṅgānī</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Noble Eightfold Way (Ary-āṣṭ-āṅgāmaṅgā or Adbhūt-āṅgika-mārgaḥ)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These principles and practices are regarded as highly beneficial in this life and also for the purposes of a happy rebirth. They are supposed to embody the last precepts and injunctions of Gautama Buddha himself. 4 They also lead to the attainment of the spiritual stage of a pratyekabuddha. They are common to the Hinayāna and the Mahāyāna. The latter starts with these dharmas, but adds the pāramīs and the bhūmis, which constitute its special contribution to the development of Buddhism.

II

THE SMṚTY-UPASTHĀNAS

A bodhisattva must cultivate the four smṛty-upasthānānī. This term smṛty-upasthānānī has been interpreted by modern scholars in different ways:—
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T. W. and C. A. F. Rhys Davids: (1) "Applications of Mindfulness" (Dialogues, iii, 214). (2) "Earnest meditations" (Dialogues, ii, 128).

S. Lévi: "Les Aides-Mémoires" (M.S. Al., tr., p. 203).

R. O. Franke: "Die viervache Geistessammlung" (Digha, p. 218).

A. Schiefer: "Die vier Handlungen des Gedächtnisses" (Triglotte, iii).

H. Oldenberg: "Die viervache Wachsamkeit" (Buddha, p. 227).

W. H. D. Rouse: "Subjects of intent contemplation" (Cikā, tr., p. 216).

M. Winternitz: "Die Richtungen des Gedenkens" (Lesebuch, p. 251).


L. de la Vallée Poussin: "Subjects of mindful reflection" (ERE, ii, 752b).

C. F. Keppen: "Die Handlungen oder Zustände des Gedächtnisses" (Buddha, i, 436).

E. F. Thomas: "Meditations" (Buddha, p. 183, note 2).

Lord Chalmers: (1) "Applications of Mindfulness" (Majjh., tr., ii, 246). (2) "The four starting-points for mustering up Mindfulness" (Majjh., tr., ii, 6).

Csoma de Körös: "The four kinds of recollection or self-preservation" (Csoma, p. 13).


M. Aihäki: "The fourfold fixation of mind" (ERE, v, 455).

H. C. Warren: "Intent Contemplations" (Buddhism, p. 353).

Böhtlingk and Roth (s.v. upasthāna): "Das Dabeistehen, Dasein, Gegenwart. Hierher gehören vielleicht auch die catuhsmryupasthānini der Buddhisten."

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: "Intent contemplation and mindfulness, earnest thought, application of mindfulness" (Pāli Dicy., s.v. sati).

S. G. Das: "The four essential recollections" (Tibetan Dicy., 650c, s.v. dran-pa-ñé-bar-kahig-pa. Lul. V. Til., p. 10, line 12).

F. Heiler: "Die Meditationsobjekte" (Versenkung, p. 17).
THE BODHISATTVA DOCTRINE

K. E. Neumann: "Die Pfeiler der Einsicht" (Majjh., tr., ii, 327).
M. Walleser: "Die vier Stützen des Gedenkens" (Pr. Pā., tr., p. 56).
P. Oltramare: "Les assistance de l'attention" (Bouddhique, p. 348).
P. E. Foucaux: "La présence de la mémoire" (Lal. V., tr., p. 9).

The term smṛty-upasthāna is composed of two words, smṛti and upasthāna. Smṛti (Pāli: sati) is derived from the root smr, and it has therefore been interpreted as "memory" by some scholars, (S. Lévi, E. Burnouf, A. Schiefner, C. F. Koeppen, cited above). Other translations have also been suggested, e.g.

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: (1) Memory, recognition, consciousness. (2) Intentness of mind, wakefulness of mind, mindfulness, alertness, lucidity of mind, self-possession, conscience, self-consciousness (Pāli Dicy, s.v. sati).
H. Oldenberg: "Gedenken, Wachsamkeit" (Buddha, pp. 350, 351).
K. E. Neumann: "Einsicht" (Majjh., tr., ii, 327).
R. O. Franke: (1) "Sittlicher Ernst, Sammlung" (Digha, p. 27, note 6). (2) "Ernêtes sichbesinnen" (Digha, p. 157).
H. Beckh: "Die Besonnenheit" (Buddhismus, ii, 37).
F. Max Müller: "Intense thought" (SBE, vol x, part i, p. 99).
C. A. F. Rhys Davids: (1) "Mindfulness" (Psychology, p. 90, line 19). (2) "Mental clearness" (IHQ, vol. iii, No. 4, p. 701).
F. Heiler: "Gedenken" (Versenkung, p. 96).
E. Senart: "Raison, conscience" (Mtu., i, 554).
M. Winternitz: "Das Gedenken, die Bedachtsamkeit" (Lesebuch, p. 319).
P. E. Foucaux: "Le souvenir"; "la mémoire" (Lal. V., tr., pp. 34, 35).
L. de la Vallée Poussin: "La mémoire de la loi de Bouddha" (B. C. Ava., tr., p. 30).
R. S. Hardy: (1) "The ascertainment of truth by mental application" (Manual, p. 517). (2) "Attention" (ibid., p. 516).

The word smṛti has the ordinary meaning of "memory" in many passages, but it cannot be so rendered in the term
smṛty-upasthāna. As F. Max Müller has pointed out, the root smṛti originally denoted “intense thought”. Smṛti in that sense would signify “Mindfulness”. Almost all modern scholars are now agreed in translating smṛti (and sati) by this expressive English word, “Mindfulness.” Upasthāna means “das Dabeistehen, Dasein, Gegenwart, das Hinzutreten, Erscheinen; standing near, presence . . . approaching, appearing, obtaining, getting” (Skt. Dicy. Pbg. and M.W.). The term may thus be interpreted as the four upasthānas (risings, appearances, or starting-points) of smṛti. But it is probably a wrongly Sanskritized form. The Pāli word is sati-paṭṭhāna. Paṭṭhāna may be derived from pra-sthā, or it may be a contracted form of upaṭṭhāna. As a Pāli substantive, paṭṭhāna means the resort or feeding-ground of an animal, and figuratively the area, field or sphere of Mindfulness (Skt. gočara). But paṭṭhāna, as a derivative of the root sthā, cannot be a contracted form of upaṭṭhāna, and the Pāli term sati-paṭṭhāna is always masculine. Hence the term cannot be a compound of sati and the derivative upaṭṭhāna, and we must interpret it as “the prasthāna of sati”. The word paṭṭhāna also occurs in the title of the seventh book of the Abhiddama-piṭaka, and it has been held to mean “starting-point, origin, cause”. L. Sādaw explains paṭṭhāna as meaning “principal cause”, but that meaning does not yield a proper sense in the compound sati-paṭṭhāna. There is no Sanskrit term that corresponds to the Pāli masculine substantive paṭṭhāna. The Mahāyānists have interpreted it, not as prasthāna, but as upaṭṭhāna, and they have recklessly changed the sense in order to get an intelligible Sanskrit word. It is an unfortunate blunder, as the four meditations are not merely the “appearances” or “risings” of smṛti; they include the whole of it. They are in fact the fields or spheres, in which smṛti is to operate. Most scholars have failed to convey the exact sense of paṭṭhāna in their translations. Perhaps it is best to translate, “The Four Fields of Mindfulness”, thus preserving the original metaphor to a certain extent.

Smṛti is a very important adjunct of a bodhisattva’s personality. It is often associated with another quality, samprajñiya (Pāli, sampajñānā), which means “sustained cognizing, deliberateness, self-awareness, self-possession”. The latter word denotes mental alertness and self-control, and emphasizes the intellectual factors implied in such self-mastery.
Smṛti is the sine qua non of moral progress for a bodhisattva. All Buddhist writers emphasize the necessity of cultivating, safeguarding and developing it. It is the theme of many homilies in prose and verse. Its importance in Buddhist philosophy may be gauged by the circumstance that it is included in several of those overlapping numerical formulae, which the Buddhist philosophers devised with an ingenuity that was worthy of a better cause. Smṛti is reckoned as the seventh of the eight items in the time-honoured, ancient Eightfold Way (vide infra). It is also the first of the seven bodhi-āngas ("Factors of Enlightenment", vide infra) and the third of the five balas (Powers) and the five indriyas (Ruling Principles). It thus appears four times on the list of the thirty-seven "bodhipakṣa dharmāḥ" (Principles conducive to Enlightenment). It is also mentioned in the well-known sentence, which describes the fourth dhyāna (Mṭu., i, 228.10). It is even mentioned as a factor of the third dhyāna (Da. Bhū., 34.4). Such frequency of occurrence in these formulae shows that the Buddhist teachers attached the greatest importance to it.

Smṛti is one of the words that recur very frequently in Buddhist Sanskrit literature. Right smṛti is the entrance to the light of the Faith, and a bodhisattva does not pay attention to anything that is adverse or prejudicial to it. When the bodhisattva Siddhārtha visits the sage Āraṇḍa Kālīma as a wandering seeker after truth, he boasts that he possesses smṛti along with other virtues, and that he is therefore vigilant and ardent. One of the titles of a perfect Buddha is amūpta-smṛtiḥ (one whose smṛti never falters or disappears), and this quality is also reckoned among his eighteen special characteristic attributes. A Buddhist writer goes so far as to say that Gautama's very gait was suggestive of smṛti, as he wended his way to the bodhi-tree at Gaya immediately before the attainment of perfect Enlightenment. He possessed smṛti even during his residence in the Tuṣita heaven before his birth. Smṛti is the axe that is laid to the root of the tree of mundane existence in order to cut it down. A bodhisattva never loses smṛti and is therefore never confused or distracted in mind. Indeed, he regards smṛti as his principal asset. He teaches others the duty of safeguarding it. It purifies his buddhi (intellect), gives constancy and consistency to his thoughts, and helps him always to keep the doctrine in his mind. A bodhisattva always cultivates self-possession, and Mindfulness is indeed an
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essential element in his Equipment, like virtue and knowledge. It is like a door for the control of the senses (i.e. to detach the sense-organs from the external objects). It is the chief instrument with which the senses, which are naturally in a state of unrest, can be diverted from the objects by which they are attracted. It leads to the attainment of Truth. Without smṛti and samprajñāya, one cannot expect to succeed in the struggle against sin. Smṛti confers great power on a bodhisattva (smṛti-balām).

Almost all Buddhist writers have something to say about smṛti and samprajñāya, but Ācārghoṣa and Čāntideva have especially distinguished themselves by their earnest and eloquent exhortations. Ācārghoṣa thus sings the praises of smṛti in the Suwadārāṇandakāvyā (xiv, 35 ff.):—

"So you should preserve Mindfulness and self-possession in all actions, such as sitting, looking round and speaking. He who has established Mindfulness as a doorkeeper at the gate cannot be menaced (overpowered) by sins, even as enemies cannot (conquer) a well-guarded (or concealed) town.

"He who lacks the defensive armour of Mindfulness is indeed a target for sins (i.e., regarded as arrows), even as a warrior in battle, who has no armour, is (exposed to the arrows of) his foes.

"That mind, which is not protected by Mindfulness, is indeed to be regarded as helpless, like a blind man (literally, "one deprived of sight") walking about on uneven ground without a guide.

"(People) are addicted to evils; they are averse to their own highest good; they feel no trepidation when fearsome things are nigh; all this is due to the loss of Mindfulness.

"Virtuous conduct and all the other good qualities remain in their own spheres, and are as it were separated from one another (scattered), but Mindfulness follows them as a cowherd (goes after) the cows.

"Whoever loses Mindfulness loses the Deathless; but he who applies Mindfulness to the body, the Deathless is his (literally, "rests in his hands").

"Who hath not Mindfulness, how can noble Justice (or
Right) be his? And whoever lacks noble Justice goes astray from the true path (literally, "the true path is lost for him").

"Who has lost the true path loses also the seat of the Deathless. Who loses the Deathless cannot win release from Evil (literally, "is not freed from Evil").

"Therefore, you should keep Mindfulness at all times and in all actions. When you are walking, you should reflect, 'I am walking.' When you are sitting, you should reflect, 'I am sitting,' and so on."

In the verses cited above, Açayahoṣha has given us a beautiful lyric on smṛtis, but its simple and terse style cannot be reproduced in a literal prose translation. Çántideva, on the other hand, has described, analysed and classified smṛtis in the spirit of a theologian and philosopher. He says:—

"The teaching of a bodhisattva is nothing but the preparation of the mind" (i.e., of the mind when it is not in a state of unrest).

"The mind will not be diverted from calmness, if external activity is inhibited.

"The mind of one, who has lost Mindfulness and self-possession through being dependent on others, is in a state of unrest, as it is being led towards something else than the desired object. When external activities are kept off (inhibited) by means of Mindfulness and self-awareness, then the mind, for that reason, remains fixed on a single object as long as he desires". (Cikī, p. 123.)

In the fifth canto of Çántideva’s immortal poem, the Bodhi-
caryāvatāra, a bodhisattva is exhorted to keep his great Vow under all circumstances, and he has need of smṛtis and samprajñāṇa for this purpose. The following verses breathe a spirit of profound earnestness:—

"He, who wishes to keep the Rule, should make a great effort to guard his mind.

"He, who does not guard the restive (inconstant, unstable) mind, cannot keep the Rule.

"Mad and uncontrolled elephants do not cause so much pain in this world as will be occasioned by an unrestrained mind in avici and the other purgatories. If the elephant of the mind is bound with the rope of Mindfulness on all sides, then all danger vanishes and all Good makes its appearance.
"Tigers, lions, elephants, bears, serpents, all the guardians of purgatory, the ogres and demonesses, yea, all one's enemies can be bound (in fetters), if one's mind is bound. All of them can be controlled, if only the mind is controlled.

I do obeisance to those who desire to guard their minds, and (say to them): 'Safeguard carefully Mindfulness and Self-awareness in all their aspects.'

If the mind has lost these two, it is unable to perform any actions (auspicious deeds), as a man, who is afflicted with illness, is unable to do anything.

The man, who is not self-possessed in his mind, cannot retain in his memory (the truths) that he has heard, pondered or cultivated, as water cannot remain in a pot that has a hole in it. Many there be who have learning, faith and energy, but they soil themselves with sin through the fault of lacking Self-awareness.

Lack of Self-awareness is like a thief; it follows in the wake of the loss of Mindfulness. Those who are thus robbed go to painful rebirths, even though they may have accumulated spiritual Merit.

The sins are like a band of thieves, who are looking for a chance to enter. If they enter (literally, "obtain entry"), they steal (one's Merit) and destroy happy rebirths.

Therefore, Mindfulness should never be removed from the gate of the mind. Even if it has been lost, it should be re-established by thinking of the pain of evil rebirths (i.e., in purgatory, or as a preta or an animal).

When Mindfulness is seated at the gate of the Mind for its protection, then Self-awareness appears; and it does not disappear, when once it has arisen."

(B.C. A/va., v, 1-5, 23-29, 33.)

So much for smṛti in general. The Buddhist philosophers have devised the special formula of the four Fields of Mindfulness. Smṛti should be applied to

- Kāya (the body),
- Vedanā (feelings),
- Citta (thoughts), and
- the Dharmas (phenomena).
These four smṛty-upasthānas are often mentioned in Buddhist Sanskrit literature (M. Vy., xxxviii, p. 73; Dh. S., xlv, p. 9; Pra. Pā. Cūta., pp. 1,427 ff.; Do. Bhū., p. 38; M. S. Al., p. 140; Cūtā., pp. 228 ff.). It should be noted that the Lalita-vistara calls them only anumṛtis without adding the word upasthāna (p. 33.11).

It seems probable that the kāya-smṛty-upasthāna was the only one at the beginning, as we find kāya-gatā-smṛti frequently mentioned by itself without any reference to the others. The Pāli canon has also a whole sutta devoted to this one form of smṛti ("kāya-gatā-sati-sutta", Majjh., iii, 88 ff.). The Karunā-pundarika and the Lalita-vistara sometimes mention only this kind of smṛti (Lal. V., 209.1—Kar. Pu. 13.9). Aśvaghōsa also speaks only of kāya-gatā-smṛti in a verse of the Saund. Kā. (xiv, 42). Only kāya (the body) figures among the ten anumṛtis, which a bodhisattva should cultivate (Pra. Pā. Cūta., p. 1,443). The next step in the evolution of the formula was presumably taken by adding citta as an object of smṛti. Kāya and citta (body and mind) are a natural pair, and they are often mentioned together. Thus Aśvaghōsa speaks of them in the Saund. Kā. (xiv, 37):

“Sin does not arise for him who applies Mindfulness to the body: he guards his mind under all circumstances, as a nurse protects a child.”

Kāya and citta are also spoken of together in the B. C. Ava., the Āvadāna-cūtaka and the Sam. Kā. The Bodhisattvabhūmi speaks of a virtuous man as prasrabdhā-kāyaḥ prasrabdha-cittah (fol. 87b, 6). The other two items, vedāna and dharma, were added in order to make up the number four. As a matter of fact, the Buddhist authors have written a great deal only about kāya-smṛty-upasthāna; they dismiss the other three with a few words. This shows that this kāya-smṛty-upasthāna is the chief theme. The other smṛty-upasthānas are merely ancillary in character.

Before discussing each smṛty-upasthāna in detail, it may not be out of place to refer to certain comments that have been made about them collectively as a group.

Aśvaghōsa and Vasubandhu agree in regarding these four meditations as antidotes to the four vipāryāsas (Saund. Kā., xvii, 25; M. S. Al., 140.24). Aśvaghōsa declares that the
four viparyāsas (perversions), which cause evil, should be destroyed by the four smṛty-upasthānas respectively. These viparyāsas are mentioned in several passages of Buddhist literature (e.g. Da. Bū. 29.12, 63.6; Cīkṣā, 198.11; Pr. Pā. Cūta., 478; Lal. V., 372.2). Cāntideva explains that a man is afflicted with the four viparyāsas, when he harbours these wrong opinions:

1. What is really impermanent (anitīya) is permanent.
2. The things, which have really no substantial permanent individuality (anatman), possess it.
3. What is really impure (acuci) is pure.
4. What is really painful (duḥkha) is pleasant.

The viparyāsa of impurity was probably introduced through the influence of the Yoga system, which defines avidyā in exactly the same terms (Y. Sū, ii, 5, p. 61). The old Pāli texts speak of acūbhā and not of acuci (Aṅguttara, ii, 52, line 6). Now the four smṛty-upasthānas are regarded as the opposites (pratipakṣatvāt) of these four errors, as a man learns that the body, the feelings, the thoughts and the phenomena are really impermanent and have no substantial existence (M. S. Al., 140.25).

Vasubandhu goes further and ascribes other merits to these four meditations taken collectively. They help a bodhisattva to understand the four Noble Truths about the existence of Evil, the origin of Evil, the cessation of Evil and the Eightfold Way. They are based on the threefold Wisdom and promote the cultivation of the pāramitās. They are adapted by a bodhisattva to the instruction of the ordinary people and of the leaders of the Hinayāna. They confer superior capacity on a bodhisattva, even if they are practised only to a small extent. The beneficial results accruing from them do not disappear even in complete nirvāṇa, and they lead to the Perfections of the ten bhūmis (stages) and the Wisdom of the Buddha. (M. S. Al., p. 141.)

The four smṛty-upasthānas may now be considered in detail.

(A) Kāya-smṛty-upasthāna

A bodhisattva’s attitude towards the body should be determined by this simple rule: “He should see the body in the body, i.e. regard it as the body should be regarded” (kāye kāy-anudarsit). The complete formula runs thus:
"A bodhisattva envisages the body internally, externally, and both internally and externally as it should be envisaged. He is ardent, self-possessed and mindful, and he has got rid of covetousness and despondency in the world. He does not harbour any perverse thoughts associated with the body."  

The same words are used to describe the other smṛty-upasthānas, substituting vedanā, citta and dharmaḥ respectively for kāya.

Kāye kāy-ānudarśṭa: This simple rule seems innocuous enough. But it has let loose a flood of cynical diatribes against the body in Buddhist Sanskrit literature. We find two currents of thought on this subject in these treatises. First, the body is condemned, reviled, despised and anathematized as the source of evil, filth and sin. St. Francis called the body "Brother Ass", but the Buddhist philosophers indulge in more virulent invective. They touch the lowest depths of morbid cynicism. Secondly, the body is valued and cherished as the instrument of altruistic service and final perfection.

According to the Lalita-vistara, Mindfulness with regard to the body is "an entrance to the light of the Faith", which helps a bodhisattva to isolate himself from the body. Almost all Buddhist writers approve of the threefold dictum that the body is foul and filthy, that it is transient and unsubstantial, and that it is the seat and source of sinful passions and desires. These are the three main charges in their scathing indictment of the body.

Physiologically considered, the body is a mass of filth and putridity. It exudes such malodorous and impure substances as sweat, pus, bile, phlegm, urine, saliva and excrements through its nine apertures. It is indeed a rotten carcase, and it is infested by eighty thousand worms. Its natural foulness is not realised by ordinary men and women, as it is usually covered with clothes and ornaments.

The body is thus revolting and repulsive from the aesthetic point of view. But the chief burden of complaint against it is that it is transient and unsubstantial. A bodhisattva analyses the body with his keen insight, and scrutinises it "from the soles of the feet to the crown of the head". He sees that it is merely an artificial collection of "feet, toes, legs, chest, loins, belly, navel, backbone, heart, ribs, flanks, hands, forearms, upper-arms, shoulders, neck, jaw, forehead, head, skull", to which are added other things like the hair, the bones, the sinews, etc. It is composed
of the four elements—earth, water, fire and wind.\textsuperscript{38} A bodhisattva clearly recognises its composite nature, just as a butcher or his apprentice may cut up a cow’s carcass into four pieces and examine them.\textsuperscript{39} A bodhisattva never forgets that the body is made up of many separate ingredients and members, just as a farmer knows exactly that his granaries contain wheat, rice, barley, sesamum seeds, beans, mustard seeds, kidney beans, lentils, and other pulses and cereals.\textsuperscript{40} As the body is thus a merely composite structure, it cannot be really said to exist, as the name corresponds to no reality. A bodhisattva may therefore reasonably ask, “Then what is this body?” \textsuperscript{41} And he understands that it is only like akāra. Further, the body is thus nothing more than an instrument or tool, as it has no essential and independent existence. It cannot feel, or perform actions, or maintain its identity in the past, present and future.\textsuperscript{42} It is also transient and fragile.\textsuperscript{43} It is subject to hunger, thirst, disease, old age and death.\textsuperscript{44} It is like unto a foam-bubble \textsuperscript{45} or a lamp of straw.\textsuperscript{46} Man, the Wayfarer, cannot stay long in this abode of the body.\textsuperscript{47} It is indeed more fragile than a pot of clay: the latter may be kept intact for a long time with proper care, but the body is destroyed very soon like a tree growing on the bank of a river.\textsuperscript{48} By its very nature, it is exposed to the five calamities of “decaying, falling, breaking, scattering and crumbling”.\textsuperscript{49} Indeed, it cannot be otherwise, for the body is the outcome of one’s deeds in a previous life, one’s \textit{karma}; it grows in the soil of \textit{karma} and is watered by sensual passion. \textit{Karma}\textsuperscript{50} is its artificer. It can know no happiness or peace; it must continually be in a state of pain.\textsuperscript{51}

The body is also the seat and source of sin. It suffers from sensual desires, the emotions of hate, fear and despondency, and the fatal malady of delusion and folly. All these are like thieves and robbers, that attack it.\textsuperscript{52} It is the abode of sinful deeds.\textsuperscript{53} The elements, of which it is composed, are unruly and dangerous, like wild horses and serpents. They always cause physical and spiritual evil.\textsuperscript{54}

This threefold arraignment of the body culminates in the famous (or infamous) formula of the nine meditations on the Impure (i.e. the impurity of the body—\textit{aṣubha-bhadvāna} or \textit{aṣubha-pratyavekṣā}; \textit{M. Vy.}, lii, p. 87; \textit{Pr. Pā. Čata.}, 59, 1258, 1431 ff.; \textit{Lal. V.}, 32.21). This method of realising the transitoriness of the body consists in visiting a cemetery (or thinking of it) and seeing or visualising the different aspects of a corpse in process
of disintegration and decomposition. It is called the realisation (bhāvānti) or the examination (pratyaavekṣā) of that which is inauspicious, foul or loathsome. The Pāli texts mention ten offensive conditions of a corpse (Dhammasangani, Sections 263 and 264, page 55), but the Sanskrit writers discuss only nine. The Mahā-vyuṭpatti gives the following list:

1. vinilaka (a discoloured, bluish, livid corpse).
2. vidhūtika (vipūyaka, a festering corpse).
3. vipadumaka (a worm-eaten corpse).
4. vyādhmātaka (a bloated, swollen corpse).
5. vilohitaka (a bloody corpse).
6. vikhāditaka (a devoured and mangled corpse).
7. vikṣiptaka (a scattered corpse).
8. vidagdhaka (a burned corpse).
9. aṭṭhi (bones).

The bodhisattva is exhorted to frequent cemeteries and reflect on the fate of the body. The idea of a visit to the cremation-ground was probably suggested by the old legend, which related that the bodhisattva Siddhārtha saw a funeral procession. A dead man’s body was being carried to the cremation-ground. This was regarded as one of the four incidents that preceded his flight from his home. Kṣemendra, indeed, improves upon the ancient biographies and tells us that the young Siddhārtha actually visited a cemetery and gave expression to edifying sentiments. The vivid Indian imagination played with the idea and did not recoil from suggesting these lugubrious meditations. The author or authors of the Pr. Pa. Čata follow an old tradition in recommending these meditative exercises, which are also mentioned in the Pāli canon. A bodhisattva should go to a cemetery and see the corpses of the persons who died one, two, three, four, or five days before. As he observes them in different stages of decomposition, he should apply the moral to his own body and say to himself: “This body has also the same constitution: it is of such a nature, and it cannot escape this condition.” Then he may observe corpses, which have lain in the cemetery for six or seven days, or which have been devoured and mangled by crows, eagles, vultures, dogs, jackals and worms. Again, he may see heaps of bones hanging together by the tendons, with the flesh and blood on them; or such bones as have altogether lost the flesh, blood and tendons, and look like sea-shells; or such
bones as are scattered on all sides, the bones of the feet in one
direction and the bones of the thighs and other limbs in other
directions. Finally, he may see such bones as have lain in the
cemetery for several years and have been reduced to rotten
powder-dust of a bluish colour. Seeing such corpses and bones,
he should constantly think of his own body, and say to himself:
"Such is the nature of this body." (Pr. Pā. Čāta., pp. 1431–3; Čikṣā, pp. 210 ff.)

In justice to the Mahāyānist writers, it must be stated that
most of them do not mention these meditations at all. They
are not discussed in such standard treatises as the Dh. S., the
M. S. Al. and the Da. Bhū. This circumstance shows that they
were not practised or recommended by all the sects. The idea
was probably borrowed from the Jainas, who attached great
importance to the asui-bhāvānā (anuprektā).

These diatribes against the body and such funereal meditations
are intended to help the bodhisattvā in his spiritual development.
They lead to the abandonment of the sins of sensual passion.
A bodhisattvā is soon delivered from the darkness of delusion, as
he constantly practises these meditations. He also uses them as
the means of converting others. When he regards the transient
body as the abode of calamities and the victim of evil destiny,
he is filled with disgust for it (nirveda). The meditation on the
Impurities is the real antidote to sensual desire. Even an arrant
deluded fool would not love the body and its lusts, if he practised
these exercises. Self-sacrifice is not difficult for a bodhisattvā, if
he regards the body as impermanent. He can render service
as a servant and a disciple to all living beings. He avoids all
wickedness, crookedness and hypocrisy, and does not commit
any sins for the sake of the body. He does not hanker after
pleasures, and gives his all for others. As he grows in spiritual
stature, he understands the fundamental unity of all beings and
identifies their bodies with his own. He then thinks of establishing
all of them in the eternal unity of the Buddha’s spiritual Body,
which is free from sin and ignorance. He knows that his
own body, the bodies of other beings and the Buddha’s universal
spiritual Body are essentially of the same nature. Thus the
application of Mindfulness to the body gradually leads him to the
highest Wisdom.

In the course of development of Buddhist thought, the body
ceased to be despised and condemned, as it came to be regarded as
the blessed instrument of altruistic service and final perfection. This constructive idea finds frequent expression in the works of Čāṇḍa, Čāṇḍideva and Kṣemendra. The Lalita-vistara warns a bodhisattva that a weak body is unfit for the attainment of Wisdom. The body is transient and unsubstantial, but it should be used to achieve substantial results by earning spiritual merit (asāra, sāra). In that case, it becomes an instrument (sādhana) for the service of others. The body, which is troubled with hundreds of diseases and various afflictions, should be employed as a ship to carry other creatures across the sea of troubles. It is indeed frail, unsubstantial, unreal, miserable, impure and ungrateful; but when it is used for the good of others, a bodhisattva rejoices exceedingly, as a wise man should do. He, who does not use this mortal body to secure enduring benefit for himself and others, is indeed unable to discern the difference between the ephemeral things that are worthless and the things that are a possession for ever. In the end, the body will be devoured by vultures and jackals, but it should be preserved as an instrument of Action. It is indeed subject to old age, disease, sorrow and death; it must suffer the pangs of union and separation; but if it is inspired by the wisdom and resolution of a bodhisattva, it can pursue the long career of a bodhisattva, ripen all beings, and fulfil the law of the Buddha. A bodhisattva should regard every action and movement of his body as an occasion for the cultivation of friendly thoughts for the good of all creatures. When he sits down, he thinks thus: "May I help all beings to sit on the throne of bodhi!" When he lies on his right side, he thinks thus: "May I lead all beings to nirvāna!" When he washes his hands, he thinks thus: "May I remove the sinful propensities of all creatures!" When he washes his feet, he thinks thus: "May I take away the dirt of sins and passions from all creatures!" In this way the body can be converted into a holy vessel of benediction. And who can deny that the great Buddha's body was auspicious (kalyāṇe-niketana)? Blessed indeed is he who loses this frail body in doing good to others. Such a sacrifice can be made only by those who have already cultivated virtue and acquired much spiritual Merit. A bodhisattva can never love the body for its own sake, as it is foul, dirty and illusory; if he cherishes it, he does so only because he will gird himself up to save someone sometime somewhere on some occasion in the moment of tribulation. This journey of life
is fruitful only if one does good to others, for who knows what the end of the body will be? A bodhisattva should therefore be indifferent to the body and even to his life. His actions can lead to Enlightenment only if he maintains such a heroic spirit.

(b) Vedanā-smṛty-upasthāna

Vedanā is a “term of very general import, meaning sentience or reaction, bodily or mental, on contact or impression”. It is derived from the root vid in the sense of experiencing a feeling or sensation. It may be interpreted as “sensation”, as it is regarded as the immediate outcome of the contact (sparṣa) between the sense-organs and the external objects in the well-known formula of the twelve nidānas. It is also described as sixfold according to the sense-organ, whose contact originates it (caksuḥ-sparṣajā vedanā, gṛrotra-sparṣajā vedanā, etc.).

T. W. Rhys Davids, L. de la Vallée Poussin, L. Feer, P. Oltramare and P. E. Foucaux agree in translating vedanā here as “sensations”. M. Anesaki’s rendering, “senses,” is perhaps inadmissible. But vedanā also seems to mean “feeling”, as it is said to be of three kinds: pleasant (suḥka), painful (duḥkhā), and neither-painful-nor-pleasant, i.e. neutral, indifferent (aduḥkhā-suḥka). In the famous Tibetan pictorial representation of the twelve nidānas, the symbol of vedanā is a couple of lovers. Surely this is suggestive of “feeling”, and not of mere “sensation!”

It appears that vedanā is something which is both feeling and sensation. We cannot perhaps find a proper word for it in the terminology of European psychology, which has adopted a different principal of analysis and classification. The Buddhist did not regard feeling and sensation as mutually exclusive terms. In any case, vedanā as a smṛty-upasthāna should be interpreted as “feeling”, as there is no sense in speaking of Mindfulness with regard to the sensations, which reach the mind from the external world. The feelings, which arise in the mind, can be the objects of mindful reflexion. It seems proper to follow the lead of R. O. Franke and W. H. D. Rouse, and translate “feeling”.

A bodhisattva, who practises Mindfulness with regard to Feeling, learns to restrain and control all feelings. He girds himself up in order to reach all beings that they should suppress Feeling, as happiness is possible only when Feeling does
not exist. Feeling is a perversion and a delusion. He exhorts all beings to adopt this negative attitude towards Feeling; but he himself, as a bodhisattva, tries to sublimate the three kinds of Feeling into universal compassion. He reflects upon his feelings in such a manner that he achieves two results: he feels deep compassion for all creatures, and he improves his own personality by destroying or diminishing råga (sense-desire), dve§a (hate, ill-will) and moha (delusion, folly). Mindfulness with regard to Feeling can thus subserve the highest ends of a bodhisattva’s discipline. When he experiences a pleasant feeling, he is on his guard against råga. At the same time, he thinks with infinite pity of all those beings who are the slaves of pleasurable feelings. When he experiences a painful feeling, he is free from hatred and ill-will, and he pities those whose hearts are darkened by those emotions. When he experiences a feeling which is neither painful nor pleasant, he hastens to get rid of moha, and thinks compassionately of those creatures who are the victims of moha. Further, he also realises other truths. He understands that pleasant feeling is impermanent, that painful feeling is just like a thorn, and that neutral feeling should leave him calm and serene. Finally, he comprehends that there is no enduring Self behind Feeling, no Ego that feels. He regards Feeling as altogether illusory, like a dream. (Lal. V., 33.12; M. S. Al., 141; Çikša, 232.)

(c) Citta-smrty-upasthåna

A bodhisattva applies Mindfulness internally, externally, and both internally and externally to citta. This word may be interpreted as “Thought”, “thoughts,” or “the mind.” The rendering “heart” has also been suggested. As the word is always used in the singular in all the texts dealing with this upasthåna, it is best to render it as “Thought”.

A bodhisattva, who practices Mindfulness with regard to citta, understands that it is by nature luminous, like åkåsa. This is Vasubandhu’s teaching on the subject. But all the other writers take up a different line of argument, which culminates in unalloyed subjective nihilism. They hold that citta is produced and conditioned by the external objects, which are perceived by the senses; it moves among them and is unstable and restless, like a monkey or the wind. It may be compared to a flowing stream, a flash of lightning, or the flame of a lamp. It is also sensuous and
sensual in its nature, as it takes delight in the five kinds of sensations derived from the external world. It finds pleasure in form, sound, smell, taste and touch, and is therefore nothing better than a moth’s eye, a battle-drum, a hog, a servant that eats of the leavings of food, and a fly in a vessel filled with oil. Further, Thought is altogether illusory and non-existent, as it is related to Time, and a bodhisattva knows that Time is a figment of the imagination. The past is gone, the future is still unborn, and the present cannot stand still. Thus the dependence of Thought on Time shows that it is altogether unreal and impossible. The relation between Thought and the external world leads a bodhisattva to the same conclusion. Cāntideva propounds a dilemma in connection with the vexed question of Subject and Object in philosophy and psychology. He says: “If Thought exists before the Object, on what does its origination depend? And if it arises with the Object...”, the same query can be repeated. As this conundrum is insoluble, we must conclude that Thought does not exist. An examination of one’s own consciousness also confirms this opinion. Thought cannot be the object of mental cognition, as a sword-blade cannot cut itself or a finger-tip cannot touch itself. How, then, can one be sure of its reality? It cannot be found inside us, nor outside us, nor anywhere between the two. It is without form and habituation, and no Buddha has ever perceived it, does perceive it, or shall perceive it at any time. It is a false notion and an illusion.

Having argued thus, a bodhisattva should remember a few striking similes with regard to Thought. It is like a bad friend, as it is the cause of all evil. It is like a fish-hook, as it looks pleasant to the fishes, but is really a calamity for them. It is like a blue fly, which regards filthy things as pure. It is like an enemy, as it torments a person in various ways. It is like a strength-destroying ogre, which always seeks for a loophole to enter. It is like a thief, as it steals all the “Roots of Merit” that have been accumulated. Thus does a bodhisattva look upon citta! (Lal. V., 33:13; Mdh., 62-3; B.C. Ava., ix, 103 ff.; Čiṣṭā, 233 ff.; M. S. Al., 141.)

(d) Dharma-smṛty-upasthāna

A bodhisattva also practises Mindfulness with regard to “the dharmas”. This word, in this context, has been variously translated as follows:
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M. Aneesaki: "The ultimate nature of things" (ERE, v, 455).
W. and M. Geiger: "Die Dinge" (Pāli Dhamma, p. 89, 1. 7).
M. Winternitz: "Die Erscheinungen" (Lesebuch, p. 251).
H. Beckh: "Die Natur der Dinge" (Buddhismus, i, 20, note).

T. W. Rhys Davids: (1) "Reason and Character" (Dialogues, ii, 120). (2) "Ideas" (Dialogues, ii, 334).
S. Lévi: "L'idéal" (M. S. Al. tr., p. 105, note).
J. Masuda: "Die Gegenstände ausser den drei vorhergehenden" (Idealismus, p. 8, note).
K. E. Neumann: "Die Erscheinungen" (Majjh. tr., ii, 327).
P. E. Foucaux: "La loi" (Lal. V. Tib., ii, 42).
S. C. Das translates the Tibetan equivalent (chos) as "conditions of existence."

It is to be noted that the word dharma is almost always used in the plural number in this smṛty-upasthāna: Dharmesi dharmānuddarśi. The detailed comments of the Buddhist writers also show that it cannot mean "the ideal, virtue, character". We must also dismiss the long disquisition on the different principles and precepts (nīvāranas, skandhas, etc.) at Dīgha-Nikāya, ii, 300 ff. as irrelevant and misleading. Dharmāḥ cannot refer to all those doctrinal categories as the objects of this smṛty-upasthāna. If we interpret dharmāḥ here as "Phenomena", "Things", we find that the sense suits the context. Having reflected on the elements of his own personality, like the body, the feelings and the mind, a bodhisattva now turns his thoughts towards the outer world, the universe in general. Thus both the Ego and the non-Ego are included in the operations of Mindfulness. This natural climax gives symmetry and completeness to the formula.

A bodhisattva, who applies Mindfulness to the Phenomena, understands that they are adventitious and extraneous, just as dust, smoke, clouds and frost are merely accidental adjuncts of Space. He acquires perfect knowledge, which is free from all delusion and darkness. He realises that the Phenomena arise
from causes and are thus relative and inter-dependent. They are impermanent and fragile, like a pot of unbaked clay or a town built of sand. They may be compared to the sand on the bank of a river, the flame of a lamp, a clot of foam, a gust of wind, the plaster washed away in the rainy season, the stem of a plantain tree and an empty fist. Such similes can be appropriately applied to the Phenomena. They are caused by Ignorance and they do not really exist. Grass can be twisted and made into a rope, and the buckets of water are turned by a wheel at the well; but there is no "turning" in them one by one. Similarly, the movements of the things in the universe are dependent on one another. The Phenomena are in fact unintelligible. The sprout springs from the seed, but it is neither the same as the seed nor different from it. A seal can give an impression, which is neither the same as the seal nor different from it. We see things on account of the contact between the eye and external forms, but the latter are not in the eye. Fire is produced by the friction of two pieces of wood, but no man can see or tell whence it came and whither it has gone. In the same way, sound is produced by the combined action of the bodily organs and the mind, but all sound is but an echo. It may be produced by means of a stringed musical instrument, which is played with the hand; but no one can perceive whence it comes or whither it goes. Thus the Phenomena are due to primary and secondary causes, and they are void within and without. There is no essence and reality in them. (Lal. V., 33; M. S. Al., 141; Gīṭhā, 236 ff.)

III. THE SAMYAK-PRAHĀNĀS

A bodhisattva should cultivate the four "samyak-prahānāni" (Pāli sammappadhāna). The term has been variously translated as follows:

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: "Right exertions" (Pāli Dicy., s.v. padhāna).
S. Lévi: "Les abandons réguliers" (M. S. Al. tr., p. 238).
A. Schiefner: "Die vier vollkommenen Entschärgungen" (Triglotte, iii).
P. E. Foucaux: "Les quatre abandonns complets" (Lal. V. tr., p. 34).
W. H. D. Rouse: "The four kinds of quietism" (Cikīḍa tr., p. 107).
H. Oldenberg: "Das vierfache rechte Streben" (Buddha, p. 227).
R. O. Frank: "Das vierlei rechte Ringen" (Dīgha, p. 218).
M. Winternitz: "Die tüchtigen Anstrengungen" (Lesebuch, p. 251).
M. Anesaki: "Right control or exertion" (ERE, v, 455).
E. Ekblad: "Den fyrraldiga stora kampen mot synd" (the fourfold great struggle or fight against sin). (Nirvāṇa, p. 133.)
T. W. and C. A. F. Rhy Rhys Davids: "Four Supreme Efforts" (Dialogues, iii, 215).
Lord Chalmers: (1) "The four Right Struggles" (Majjh. tr., ii, 6). (2) "The four Efforts" (Majjh. tr., ii, 320).
C. F. Koeppen: "Die vollkommenen Entsagungen" (Buddha, i, 436).
K. E. Neumann: "Die vier gewaltigen Kämpfe" (Majjh. tr., ii, 327).

The four *samayak-pradhānas* are mentioned in several passages of Buddhist literature (M. V, Section 39, p. 73, Dh. S., xliv; M. S. Al., 141; Da. Bhū, 39; Cikīḍa, 356; Pr. Pa. Cāt., 1436).

It is clear that pradhāna is a wrongly Sanskritized form. The usual Pāli word is *padhāna* (Dhamma-saṅgani, 1366), and the correct Sanskrit rendering would be *pradhāna*, derived from the root dhā (and not from the root hā, jahāti, as in prahāna). In fact, we find the correct form in a few passages of Buddhist literature, e.g. *samayak-pradhāna caturthame açvā* (Mtu., iii, 120.14); *samayak-pradhāna-ottama-vāhanasthāḥ* (Saund. Kā., xvii, 24). The derivative prahita also occurs in the Mtu.: *prahit-ātma vyapakṛto* (Mtu., ii, 118.11, 120.3). In describing the four struggles, some writers have employed the correct verb, *samayak pradaḥāti* (Pr. Pa. Cāt., 1436; M. S. Al., 142.6). The Da. Bhū. has pranidadhāti (38.26). But when the incorrect form
prahāṇa was once accepted, the original meaning was forgotten. Thus the Kar. Pu. explains that the Equipment (sambhūra) of the samyak-prahāṇa consists in the abandonment of all evil conditions (104.23). The M. V. omits the word samyak and speaks only of prahāṇāni.

The first Effort is intended to prevent the inception of such evil and sinful conditions as have not yet arisen, so that new evil and sinful conditions or mental states may not arise. A bodhisattva, who practises this samyak-prahāṇa, rouses (produces) in himself a keen desire (intention, resolution, will—chanda) to attain this end. He strives, puts forth Energy, controls his mind, and exerts himself well. Thus he obtains protection from evil.

The second Effort is directed towards the abandonment (or destruction) of such evil and sinful conditions or mental states as have already arisen. The bodhisattva rouses in himself a keen desire or resolution to attain this end. He strives, puts forth Energy, controls his mind and exerts himself well. Thus he obtains purification.

The third Effort is directed towards the production of such right and meritorious conditions or mental states as have not yet arisen. The bodhisattva rouses in himself a keen desire or resolution to attain this end. He strives, puts forth Energy, controls his mind, and exerts himself well. Thus he secures growth.

The fourth Effort is directed towards securing the permanence and promotion of such right and meritorious conditions or mental states as have already arisen, so that they may not be lost, but should increase, multiply and receive full cultivation with a view to their perfection. A bodhisattva strives, puts forth Energy, controls his mind and exerts himself well. This also leads to growth.

In the scheme of the ten bhūmis, a bodhisattva cultivates these “Efforts” in the fourth bhūmi. They are compared to the chariot of a spiritual warrior by Ācārya Śāntideva: the bodhisattva fights his enemies (the sins and passions), while he is seated in such an impregnable vehicle. They are particularly useful in combating the five hindrances and besetting sins, which are called nivarayāni (coverings, veils, obstacles). They enable a bodhisattva to rise above the stage of a Hinayānist adept and enter on the career of advanced spirituality in the seventh and higher bhūmis, until he reaches final perfection as a Buddha. (M. S. Al., 141; Da. Bhū., 38; Āg., 356; Saum. Kā., xvii, 24.)
IV. The Ṛddhi-pādas (with the Prāthīhāryas and the Abhiñās)

A bodhisattva should cultivate the four “Ṛddhi-pādaḥ” (Pāli: iddhipāda). This term, which consists of two words, Ṛddhi and pādaḥ, has been translated in the following ways:

T. W. and C. A. F. Rhys Davids: (1) “Stages to Efficiency” (Dialogues, iii, 215). (2) “Roads to Saintship” (Dialogues, ii, 129).

H. Beckh: “Die Elemente oder Voraussetzungen der über-sinnlichen Vollkommenheit” (Buddhismus, ii, 75).

E. J. Thomas: “Kinds of magic power” (Buddha, p. 183, note 2).

A. Schiefner: “Die vier Grundlagen der Wunderkraft” (Triglotta, iii).


C. A. F. Rhys Davids: “Bases or preliminaries to potency” (Thera-gāthā tr., p. 265).

H. Oldenberg: “Die vier Teile Heiliger Macht” (Buddha, p. 227).

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: “Bases of, or steps to, psychic power” (Pāli Dicy).


C. F. Koeppen: “Die Principien der Wunderkraft” (Buddha, i, 436).

S. Lévi: “les pieds-de-Magie” (M. S. Al. tr., p. 239).


Lord Chalmers: “Bases of psychic power” (Majjh. tr., ii, 7.)


K. E. Neumann: “Die vier Machtgebiete” (Majjh. tr., ii, 328).

Böhtlingk and Roth (s.v. Ṛddhi): “übernaturnahcher Kraft” (Skt. Dicy. Pbg.).
The Tibetan term for *rddhi* is *rdu-hphrin* (*M. Vy.*, p. 74; J. Rahder, *Glossary*, p. 44; *Lal. V. Tib.*, p. 10). S. C. Das translates and explains: “A miracle, a magical illusion, an apparent marvel, the power to cause which is considered the highest manifestation of moral acquirements” (*Tib. Dicy.*, 1058b). *Rddhi* (Pāli: *iddhi*) cannot be adequately translated by such a word as “magic”. “Magic” has now a specialized sense in anthropology, and it is quite different from the *rddhi* of the Buddhists. We are also not justified in introducing the peculiar theological notion of the “supernatural” into a Buddhist term. The adjective “*psychic*” is also unsuitable, as it has now acquired certain modern associations; and *rddhi*, as described in the Buddhist treatises, far transcends what is commonly called “psychic power”. “Sainthood” is too wide of the mark as a rendering of *rddhi*. “Efficiency” and “potency” are too general, and do not convey a clear idea of what *rddhi* really is. “Super-will”, “more-will”, “wondrous gift” are also unsatisfactory renderings.\(^{81}\)

The word *rddhi* is derived from the root *rdh*, meaning “to grow, increase, prosper, succeed; to cause to increase and prosper” (*Skt. Dicy.*, M.W.). This verb and its derivatives have this original meaning in several passages of Buddhist literature, e.g.: *Tvam rddhi-prāpto vicareśi loke* (*Mtu.*, ii, 321.21); *rāja-dhāni... rddhā ca sphitā ca kṣemā ca* (*Divy.*, 291.13). (Cf. *Mtu.*, ii, 67.21. *Avu. Ca.*, i, 117.14.)

The Pāli word *iddhi* came to mean “potency”, “virtue”, (almost like Greek ἀποτέλεσμα), as when birds are said to fly by *iddhi* (*Dhamma-pada*, 175). We do not find many passages in Buddhist Sanskrit literature, in which *rddhi* bears this generalised sense. But *rddhi* (like Pāli *iddhi*) is very frequently employed to denote “wonder-working Power”. This is perhaps the best translation of the term, which implies the possession of such Power, but which excludes the irrelevant and extraneous notions of “magic”, “miracle”, “supernaturalism” or “mysticism”.

The word *rddhi* is sometimes coupled with *pratihārya*, which means “jugglery, working miracles, a miracle”; Gaukelei, Erzeugung von Wundern, Wundertätigkeit” (*Skt. Dicy. Pbg.* and M.W.). The latter term is of wider import than *rddhi*, as there are three kinds of *pratihārya*, of which *rddhi-pratihārya* is one. The other two may be described as “wonders” only
in a metaphorical sense: they are given as adeçana-pratihārya and anucāṣani-pratihārya. These terms may be translated as "manifestation-wonder" and "education-wonder". They are not of great importance as far as a bodhisattva is concerned. But the first pratihārya, which is associated with rddhi, is frequently mentioned in connection with a bodhisattva's activity. We may regard the two terms, rddhi and rddhi-pratihārya, as synonymous for all practical purposes. Rddhi is also reckoned as one of the six abhiṣās and will be discussed in detail as such.

The word pāda in the term rddhi-pādā has been variously translated as "basis", "mode", "part", "step", "kind", "foot", "way", "stage", "subdivision", etc. H. A. Jäschke translates the Tibetan equivalent rkaṅ-pa as "base, foundation" (Tib. Dic. 156). We may translate: "Bases".

The four rddhi-pādas are frequently described in Buddhist Sanskrit literature (M. Vy., xl, p. 74; Dh. S., xlv; Pra. Pa. Catt., 1436; M. S. At., 142; Da. Bhū., 38.39 ff.; Lalita-vistara, 33). A bodhisattva develops (or cultivates) the first rddhi-pāda by uniting a strong Desire or Will (chanda) to the moulding forces of concentration and effort.

He develops the second rddhi-pāda by unifying Thought (citta) to the moulding forces of concentration and effort.

He develops the third rddhi-pāda by uniting Energy (vīrya) to the moulding forces of concentration and effort.

He develops the fourth rddhi-pāda by unifying Investigation (mimāṃsa) to the moulding forces of concentration and effort.

All the rddhi-pādas help a bodhisattva in the attainment of all his aims for his own good and for the good of others. They produce lightness and elasticity of body and mind. They may be compared to a chariot, which is driven by Wisdom and Mindfulness.

V. THE ABHIJÑĀS

A bodhisattva acquires the five or six abhiṣās (Pāli: abhiññā) in the course of his career. This word abhiṣā has been translated by modern scholars in the following ways:

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: "Psychic powers" (Pāli Dic., s.v. abhiññā).
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Bähtlingk and Roth: "Eine höhere übernaturliche Kenntniss und Macht" (Skt. Dicy. Pbg.).

Monier Williams: "Supernatural science or faculty of a Buddha" (Skt. Dicy., 62b).


H. Kern: "Transcendent knowledge" (Manual, p. 60).

E. Burnouf: "Connaissances surnaturelles" (Lotus, p. 818).

S. Lévi: "Les super-savoirs" (M. S. Al. tr., p. 5).

L. de la Vallée-Poussin: (1) "Pouvoirs mystiques" (Morale, p. 88). (2) "Facultés transcendantes" (Le Musée, 1911, p. 156).


C. F. Koeppen: "Die übernaturlichen Einsichten" (Buddha, i, 440).

H. Beckh: "Die höheren Seelenfähigkeiten" (Buddhismus, ii, 77).

F. Heiler: "Höhere Erkenntniss" (Versenkung, p. 92).

Lord Chalmers: "Transcendent knowledge" (Majjh. tr., i, 320).

M. Anesaki and F. Takakuwa: "Supernatural powers" (ERE, iv, 704a).

F. Max Müller: "Supernatural faculties" (Dh. S., p. 39).

The Tibetan equivalent is miön par ceś pa (M. V., p. 18).


These abhijñās present a difficult problem in Buddhist Sanskrit literature. The formula in its final form comprises six abhijñās, but five abhijñās are most frequently mentioned. The same author sometimes speaks of five abhijñās in one passage and of six in another. 96

The six abhijñās are given in the Sanskrit treatises in the following order 98:—

M. V., (xiv, p. 18) (1) Divyam cakṣuh.
(2) Divyam strotam.
(3) Parasya setah-paryāya-jñānam; para-citta-jñānam.
(4) Pūrva-nivās-ānusmytri-jñānam.
(5) Rādihi-vidhi-jñānam.
(6) Āśravya-kṣaya-jñānam.
The M. Vy. has the heading, *Six Abhijñas*, but it enumerates seven of them! The third and the fourth in its list are really the same, viz. *para-citta-jñānam* and *cetah-paryāya-jñānam*. The copyist has probably made a mistake. The Tibetan version omits *cetah-paryāya-jñānam*.

The order, in which the *abhijñās* are placed, may throw some light on the process of growth, which culminated in the final formula. According to the latest Buddhist authors, *āsrava-kṣaya-jñāna* always occupies the last place and is regarded as the sixth *abhijñā*. The *Dh. S.* omits it altogether. It is also understood that the term *pañc-ābhiṣijñāḥ* refers to the other five *abhijñās*. In that case, we should be justified in holding the view that *āsrava-kṣaya-jñāna* was added to the original group of the five *abhijñās*. But as a matter of fact, *āsrava-kṣaya-jñāna* was included in the fivefold group even in its oldest form; and *ṛddhividhi-jñāna* was the intruder that ousted the former from its position and relegated it to the sixth place.

The starting-point for the evolution of the formula must be sought in the three *vidyās* of the early Buddhists. Buddha is said to have attained *divya-cakṣus*, *pūrva-nivās-ānusmṛti* and *āsrava-kṣaya-jñāna* during the night, in which he acquired perfect Enlightenment. Both the *Lalita-vistara* and the *Mtu.* record this tradition (cf. *Lal. V.*, pp. 344–5; *Mtu.*, iii, 67.7; ii, 283.15 ff., 284.6, 285.5).

Two other thaumaturgic powers were added to these three in order to make up the group of five, viz. *divya-pratra* and *ṛddhi*. These two are mentioned along with *divya-cakṣus* and *jāttimaraṇā* in the *Su. Vy.* (52.16 ff.). It is to be noted that *āsrava-kṣaya-jñāna* has already dropped out, so that only four such powers are recognised. This may have been a stage in the development of the formula, as the *Lankāvatāra* also speaks of four *abhijñās* (*caturvādhāḥ*; *Lka.*, p. 292, verse 211). Finally,
para-citta-ñāna was tacked on to the formula. The order, in which the abhijñas are placed in the Kassapa Samyutta, is significant (Samyutta-Nikāya, ii, 212–13). It shows that three new items were added to the three old viññās, which are put together as the 4th, 5th and 6th abhijñas. But this order was changed by the Sanskritists, and āśrava-kiṣaya-ñāna also disappeared from the group of five. As rādha was a new item, it would naturally be put at the beginning or at the end of the old lists; and the later writers perhaps attached more importance to wonder-mongering than to the purely spiritual quality of freedom from the āśravas. Further, many texts show that the old term āśrava was not in favour with the Sanskritists. In the Pāli canon, it occupies the place of honour, as arhatship, the iunnum bonum of the religious life, was gained only after the destruction of the "āśravas". But a remarkable change of phraseology can be noticed even in such early books as the Divy-avadāna and the Aua. Ça. Arhatship is described as the result of kleśa-prahāna (the abandonment of the kleśas) and not of āśrava-kiṣaya (cf. Divy., 50.9; 166.17. Aua. Ça., ii, 38.2). Now the kleśas are by no means the same as the āśravas either in the Hinayāna or the Mahāyāna, despite the author of the Bo. Bhū. The kleśas are ordinary faults of character. In Pāli literature, ten kleśas are mentioned: lobha (greed), dosa (hatred), moha (delusion), māno (pride), diṭṭhi (speculative opinion), vicikicchā (doubt), thinum (stolidity), udāhaccam (excitement, exaltation), ahirikam (unconscientiousness), and anotappam (shamelessness, or disregard of social censure). The Mahāyāna reckons six kleśas: rāga (sense-desire), pratigha (anger), māna (pride), avidyā (ignorance), kudṛṣṭi (wrong views), and vicikitsā (doubt: Dh. S., lxvii.) The āśravas, on the other hand, are more metaphysical and fundamental sins and errors: they were originally three in number, kām-āśrava, bhav-āśrava, and avidy-āśrava; and a fourth, dṛṣṭy-āśrava, was added at a later period. It appears that some leaders of the Hinayāna and the Mahāyāna quietly ignored the more difficult ideal of āśrava-kiṣaya, which was considered too strenuous for ordinary monks. Only a perfect Buddha and some eminent saints were supposed to possess all the six abhijñas. Most monks and teachers are usually spoken of as only pañc-abhijñah (having five abhijñās). This latter epithet occurs far more frequently than the other, sād-ah hijñah, which is indeed a name of the perfect Buddha in the Mahā-vyutpatti (Section 1, p. 4). Āśrava-kiṣaya-ñāna is thus
not much in evidence as an abhijña in the Sanskrit treatises. Its old associations with the nirvāṇa ideal of the Hinayānists must have deterred the Māhāyānists from attaching much importance to it.

It is probable that the Buddhists borrowed the three additional abhijñaś, divya-cakṣus, para-citta-jñāna and pddhi from the schools of wonder-working ascetics or impostors, that have always flourished in India. The Yoga-sūtras belong to a comparatively late period in the history of Indian literature, but they represent a very old tradition. These three Super-knowledges are mentioned in that treatise, which also refers to the knowledge of previous lives (Yo. Sū, iii, 18, 19, 21, 41, 42). (Cf. Vyāsa’s Commentary on the Yoga-Sūtras, iii, 45, p. 164.)

We shall discuss the six abhijñās in the order in which they are given in the Maha-vyutpatti.

(1) Divya-cakṣus (supernal organ of sight). This abhijña is also called cyutu-upapada-jñāna (the knowledge of death and rebirth) or cyutu-upapatti-jñāna.

The powers of the saint, who possesses this abhijña, are described in a stereotyped passage, which is found in several treatises. “A bodhisattva observes all beings with his pure and superhuman eye, as they die and are reborn according to their actions. Some of them are handsome, while others are ugly. Some are in a happy state and others are in a wretched condition. Some are excellent and others are mean. Some are reborn after death in painful states and the purgatories, because they had done evil with their body, speech and mind, held wrong views, and reviled the noble saints. Others are reborn in heaven and the worlds of the devas, because they had done virtuous deeds with their body, mind and speech, held right views and honoured the noble saints. A bodhisattva thus sees all creatures as they die and are reborn, in all their forms, details and characteristics.” (Da. Bhū., 36; Pr. Pa. Čata., 1447; Lal. P., 344.9; 375.13.)

A bodhisattva surpasses all the devas of all the heavens in this respect. He knows the powers which they possess in virtue of their divine Eyes, but they do not know of the wonders of the bodhisattva’s divya-cakṣus. He sees the death and rebirth of all beings in the ten directions throughout the worlds and universes, which are innumerable like the sands of the Ganges.

C. A. F. Rhys Davids interprets divya-cakṣus as “clairvoyance”,
as it belongs to the devas, i.e. "men happily reborn" (I.H.Q., vol. iii, No. 4, p. 709). But it is doubtful if the word deva can have this simplified signification and if "clairvoyance" covers all the powers of the divya-saktis as described above.

(2) Divya-śrava (supernal organ of hearing).

A bodhisattva can hear all kinds of human and divine sounds in the whole universe right up to the highest heaven, whether they are voluminous or slight, distinct or indistinct, artificial or natural, distant or near. He enjoys the privilege of hearing the voices of all the Buddhas, who teach and preach in their kṣetras (fields). He can hear even the sounds uttered by gadflies, mosquitoes, worms and flies. Kṣemendra relates that Gautama Buddha heard the cries of some merchants at a great distance. He could also hear the prayers of Bimbisāra and Subhadra in the same way, as the author of the Avadāna-sataka would have us believe.

The divya-śrava is not included in the threefold knowledge (tevijjā; tisro vidyāḥ), as is wrongly supposed by M. Anesaki (ERE, xii, 430a).

(3) Para-citta-jñāna (the discernment or knowledge of the mind or the thoughts of others).

If a bodhisattva has acquired this abhijñā, his mind can truly discern the thoughts of other creatures and individuals. He discerns the mind that is subject to sensual desire, and the mind that is free from it. He discerns the mind that is full of hate, and the mind that is free from it. He knows the deluded mind as such and the enlightened mind as such, the sinful mind as such and the sinless mind as such, the small mind as such and the great mind as such. In the same way, he knows exactly if the mind of another person is or is not lofty, boundless, attentive, diffused, concentrated or un-concentrated, liberated or un-liberated, pure or impure, noble or ignoble (Da. Bhū., 35.14 ff.).

(4) Pūrva-nivāś-ātmakriyā-jñāna. This power is also called cyauty-upapāda-darṣana (seeing death and birth).

A bodhisattva can remember his own previous existences and those of others. He can know the actions, great and small, that were done in those lives. He can thus relate the stories of the previous lives of the great bodhisattvas, who have observed wonderful practices and displayed extraordinary energy. He can lead his hearers to faith in Buddha, teach the law of karma, and refute the erroneous views of the Eternalists.
This power has been described in a graphic manner in the 
one, two, three, four, five, ten, twenty, thirty, forty, fifty, hundred, 
many hundreds, many thousands of his previous lives. He 
remembers the čaṇ (kalpa) of Involution, the čaṇ of Evolution, 
and many čaṇs of Involution and Evolution. He remembers 
a hundred kalpas, a thousand kalpas, a koṭi (ten millions) of kalpas, 
a hundred koṭis of kalpas, a thousand koṭis of kalpas, a hundred 
thousand koṭis of kalpas, in short, many hundred thousand niyutas 
of koṭis of kalpas. He remembers thus: "There I was, had such 
and such a name, was born in such and such a family. Such was 
may caste or clan, such was my food, such was the length of my 
life, such was the duration of my sojourn, such were my 
experiences of happiness and sorrow. Then I died there and 
was reborn at that other place; again died there and was reborn 
here." Thus he remembers his various previous existences, 
in all their forms, details and characteristics." This is the Super-
knowledge of pārva-nivāś-ānūmytita. Gautama Buddha declares: 
"I remember immeasurable niyutas of kalpas, as if I were awakened 
from a dream." 110 

(5) Rddhi.—Rddhi as an abhijñā is spoken of as rddhi-vidhi-
jñāna, rddhi-visay-abhijñā and rddhi-vikurvana.111 It also 
figures among a bodhisattva's ten vatsitās (powers). 
The earliest stereotyped description of rddhi-wonders was 
probably borrowed from the Pāli canon.112 The M. Vī., the 
Da. Bhū. and the M. S. Aś. added a few other items, and the 
Bo. Bhū. completed the process by describing eighteen different 
ways, in which rddhi could be manifested.113 This was the high-
water mark of wonder-mongering in Buddhism. This develop-
ment is easily explained by the natural tendencies of the uneducated 
masses and the Indian thinkers' ingrained love of exaggeration. 
The biographies of Christian and Moslem saints also abound in 
iccredible miracles, which are supposed to indicate superior 
sanctity. It is possible that some genuine psychic phenomena were 
oberved, and superstition erected the vast superstructure of 
marvels on this slender basis. The authentic testimony of reliable 
scientific investigators seems to show that thought-reading, 
levitation and other strange phenomena can be witnessed on rare 
occasions in India and other countries.114 However that may be, 
the accounts of rddhi-wonders as given in the Buddhist treatises 
add a ton of sensationalism to an ounce of truth. The final
outcome is the systematic catalogue of miracles in the *Bodhisattva-
bhūmi*, which is reproduced below.

The *Dh. S.* does not give even the simple original formula
of *rddhi*-wonders, which is as follows:—

"He realizes *rddhi* in its various aspects. Being one, he becomes
many; having become multiple, he becomes one; he enjoys
the experience of becoming visible or invisible; he goes unimpeded
through a wall, a rampart or a mountain; he travels cross-legged
in the sky, like a winged bird; he dives up and down the earth
as if it were water; he touches and feels with his hands the sun
and the moon, which are so potent and powerful; he can reach
as far as the *brahma*-world with his body."¹¹⁸ (*Da. Bhū.,* 34.23 ff.;
*M. Vy.,* xvi; *Mtu.,* iii, 409.20 ff.)

The author of the *Bodhisattva-bhūmi* teaches that *rddhi* is
of two kinds: *pāramāṇīki* (i.e. of the nature of transformation)
and *nairāramāṇīki* (i.e. of the nature of creation).

The first kind of *rddhi* can be exhibited in sixteen different ways:—

(a) A *bodhisattva*, who possesses the requisite qualifications, can
shake (*kampana*) a monastery, a house, a village, a town, the realms
of purgatory, of the *pretas*, of animals, of men and of *devas*,
and even an infinite number of worlds and universes (fol. 26a,
7, 2, to fol. 26b, 2, 1).

(b) A *bodhisattva* can emit flames (*jvalana*) of fire from the
upper or lower part of his body, while streams of cold water
issue from the other limbs. This wonder is also called the *yamaka-
pṛathihārya* (the miracle of pairs); it is described in the *Dvīp-
avadāna*, the *Māha-vāstu*, the *Da. Bhū.,* and the *M. Vy.* Further,
a *bodhisattva* can glow with fire and light all over his body and
emit rays of different colours, blue, yellow,¹¹⁸ red, white, scarlet
and crystalline (fol. 26b, 2, 1, to 3, 2).

(c) A *bodhisattva* can illumine with light a monastery, a house,
etc., as in (a) above: *spharana* (3.2 to 4.1).

(d) He can show all the worlds and buddha-fields with their
inhabitants to the monks and other creatures: *vidarṣana* (fol.
26b, 4.1 to 6.2).

(e) He can transmute the four elements into one another (earth,
water, fire and wind); and he can change forms into sounds,
sounds into smells, and so on. He can even transmute cow-dung and
clay into food and clothing (*anyāthā-bhāva-karana*), and turn
stones and sugar into pearls and precious stones (fol. 26b, 6.3 to
fol. 27a, 4.2).
(f) He can pass through walls and other such obstacles, and rise to the highest heaven of the ākuniśṭha devas (gamanāgamana; fol. 27a, 4.2 to 5.3).

(g) He can reduce and increase the size and volume of all things. He can make a mountain as small as an atom, and he can make an atom as large as a mountain (sāmkeśa-prathana; fol. 27a, 5.3 to 6.1).

(h) He can make all things and forms enter into his body, and the spectators, who witness this wonder, also find themselves in the bodhisattva’s body (surva-rūpa-kāya-praveṣana; fol. 27a, 6.2 to 7.1.).

(i) He can assume the external appearance and ways of speech of different kinds of congregations (kṣatriyas, brahmīns, etc.; saṁbhā-gat-opasamkrānti).

(j) He can make himself visible or invisible to other persons, and appear or disappear a hundred times, a thousand times (āvārībhāva-tirobhāva).

(k) He can control and dominate all the creatures in such a way that they come, go, stop, and speak as he wills (vaśītvā-karana).

(l) He can control and surpass the yuddhi of others, except the Buddhas or other bodhisattvas, who are superior or equal to him (pararddhya-abhībhava).

(m) He can confer intelligence and understanding on those who lack it (pratibhā-dāna).

(n) He can confer Mindfulness on those who need it (imṛti-dāna).

(o) He bestows material comforts on all creatures (pratipravrabdhi-sukham; fol. 28a, 1, 1.2). They can then hear the preaching without being troubled by disease and other calamities (sukha-dāna; fol. 28a, 1).

(p) He can emit rays, which allay and assuage the torments of the creatures suffering in the purgatories. He does good to all beings in this way (raṁi-pramokṣa).

The second species of yuddhi (nairmanīkī) is manifested in two ways:

(a) A bodhisattva can create a phantom body, which may be similar to or different from himself (ākāya-nairmanī; fol. 28a, 6.2). Such an illusory body is created in different aspects for the welfare of the beings. It may be intended only to be seen by others, or it may fulfil all its natural functions. Čūra relates how a saint created a phantom monkey (Jā. Ma., p. 147).
(b) A bodhisattva can create a voice, which preaches the doctrine. Such a magical voice is harmonious and clear. When it is associated with the bodhisattva himself (eva-sambuddha), he uses it to rebuke those who are spiritually slack and negligent. It may also be associated with other persons, or it may not be associated with anything or any person (par-asambuddha, asambuddha; fol. 28b, 3.1–2.3).

By means of these two powers, a bodhisattva converts the people to the doctrine of the Buddha, and also renders service to all afflicted creatures in many different ways.

The chief object of rddhi-wonders is said to be the conversion of the people. Such miracles facilitate the preacher’s task of converting the living beings to the faith of the Buddha. Conversion by the rddhi-wonder,” declares Vasubandhu in his usual laconic style. Ordinary persons are thus quickly induced to listen to the teaching. A bodhisattva displays these powers for the good of the creatures. Such deeds may produce the thought of bodhi in an eye-witness and induce him to take the vow of becoming a bodhisattva. An unconverted person may even attain this stage by hearing of the inconceivably wonderful miraculous power of a Buddha or a bodhisattva. A bodhisattva always associates such wonders with his propaganda, as was done by the famous bodhisattva Sadaparibhūta. The exhibition of miracles is indeed one of the twenty-seven means of ripening the creatures that should be employed by a bodhisattva. Gautama Buddha himself set the example, when he converted Mahākācyapa and his two brothers by means of five hundred miracles. Another Buddha emitted glorious rays from his body or wrought other miracles, so that the people may be filled with joy on seeing his power. Every Buddha obtains stupendous rddhi-power as a necessary adjunct of his duties as a preacher, and it is one of his ten imperative duties to perform great miracles. A bodhisattva exerts himself more assiduously for his spiritual improvement, when he can plainly see all the terrors and miseries of the purgatories by his rddhi-power. He can also refute and confound rival teachers by working miracles, as Gautama Buddha did on a memorable occasion.

Besides this general purpose of rddhi, the power may also be employed in other ways. Perhaps the most frequent exhibition of rddhi, that is mentioned in the Buddhist treatises, is the feat of flying through the air in order to reach a certain destination.
The author of the *M. S. Al.*, indeed restricts the use of *ṛddhi* to the purpose of going to the place, where the people, who should be converted or taught, are to be found.†† Many saints are said to fly through the air on different occasions.††† The monks, who came to Rājakrīṣṇa to attend the Council, flew through the air.††† A bodhisattva can also use his *ṛddhi*-power for other purposes. He can create phantom forms of animals or human beings.††† He can come and go anywhere in the entire universe.††† He can hypnotise other persons and make them see things according to his desire.††† He can visit different buddha-fields and heavens without any difficulty.††† He can rise in the air in order to prove his sanctity.††† He can prolong his life to an æon of time.††† He can do good to others by healing the sick, giving sight to the blind and the power of hearing to the deaf, clothing the naked, feeding the hungry, releasing those who are in bonds, and bestowing Mindfulness on the heedless sinners.†††

(6) *Āśrava-kiyā-jñāna* (the knowledge of the destruction of the *āśravas*). This word, *āśrava*, is found in two forms, *āśrava* and *āṟava*, e.g. *āśrava* at Pr. Pā. As. 330; M. S. Al., 105.3; *Av. Ča.*, ii, 143.7; Da. Bhū, 78.9; Mdh., 118.10; etc.; *āṟava* at Lal. V., 348.20, 376.11, 405.21; Mtu., i, 147.13, iii, 337; Su. Vy., 76.3, etc. This word has been variously translated as follows:—

**T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede**: "that which flows (out or onto), outflow and influx, the intoxicating extract or secretion of a tree or flower, technical term for certain specified ideas, which intoxicate the mind (bemuddle it)" (Pāli Dicy. s.v. *āśrava*).

**Bährlingk and Roth**: "Leiden, Fehler, Laster, Gebrechen, Fluss, Ström" (Skt. Dicy. Pbg.).

**Monier Williams**: "Distress, affliction, pain" (Skt. Dicy., 162a).

**M. Walleser**: "Ausfluss" (Pr. Pā. tr., p. 9).

**O. G. F. Rosenberg**: "Die Unruhen" (Probleme, ii, 240).

**E. Burnouf**: "Les souillures" (Introdn., p. 379, line 18, edition 1844).

**L. de la Vallée Poussin**: (1) "Les dépravations" (Le Muséon, 1911, p. 159). (2) "Les Passions" (ERE., viii, 256a).

**T. W. and C. A. F. Rhys Davids**: "Deadly Floods or Taints" (Dialogues, i, 93).

**H. Kern**: "Defiling passions" (Manual, p. 60).

J. Masson: "Die Leidenschaften" (Idealismus, p. 45).

Cosma de Kōōs: "Imperfections" (Csoma, p. 49).

R. S. Copleston: "Corruptions" (Buddhism, p. 93).

S. Lévi: "Les Écoulements" (M. S. Al. tr., p. 75 note).

Lord Chalmers: "Cankers: Running sores or neoplasms of character, with their metastases of evil (Majjh., tr., i, 2).

R. O. Frank: "Die falsche, weltliche Daseinsaufassung" (Dīgha, p. 82. 30).

E. Max Müller: (1) "The vices, affections, appetites, passions" (S. B. E., X, part 1, pp. 13, 14). (2) "Appetites" (Dī. S., p. 52).

Silāṭhīra: "Banes" (Majjh. tr., p. 11).

H. Neumann: "Der Wahn" (Majjh., tr., ii, 366).

P. Ottomare: "Les infections" (Bouddhique, p. 116).

P. E. Foucault: "Les corruptions" (Lal. V. tr., p. 292).


H. Beckh: "Ein die Fesselung der Seele bewirkender Wahn" (Buddhismus, ii, 134).

D. T. Suzuki: (1) "Evil leakages" (Zen Essays, p. 50, note). (2) "Impure outflows of the mind" (Studies, p. 391).

H. Jacobi: "Sinful inclinations" (S. B. E., xlvi, p. 81).

A. B. Keith: "Infection, defilement, intoxicants" (Philosophy, pp. 128, 333).

It appears that the earlier Sanskrit treatises employed the form āḍrava, while the later writers preferred āśūrava.

The root śru means "to flow, stream, trickle, ooze, drip, drop, distil, exude" (Skt. Dicy. M. W. 1155c). Böhtlingk and Roth are of opinion that the form āḍrava is incorrect ("schlechte schreibart"). As F. Max Müller has pointed out, the word āśūrava occurs in the Ātharva-veda, 1, 2, 4 (page 1) 149:

Eva rogam ca-āśūravam c-āntas tiṣṭhatu muṇja it.

It is translated as "a running, a sore" by F. Max Müller. In the Suṣruta, it means "flow, issue, running discharge" (Skt. Dicy. M. W. 162a). According to M. Williams, āśūrava also means "the foam on boiling rice, and a door opening into water, allowing the stream to descend through it" (Skt. Dicy. 162a). The term
āśrava is used by the Jainas to denote "the influx of karma-matter into the soul". It is one of the seven tattvas in Jaina metaphysics (jīva, ajīva, āśrava, bandha, etc.).¹⁴¹ The Dravya-saṅgraha speaks of bhāv-āśrava and dravy-āśrava, and defines them thus: "That activity of the soul, whereby karma flows into it, is said by the Jina to be bhāv-āśrava (subjective influx). . . Matter of various colours, etc., which flows (āśravadi) into the active soul is to be known as dravy-āśrava (objective influx)."¹⁴² The Tattvārthā-sūtra (vi, 1.2) declares that āśrava means "action by body, mind, and speech."¹⁴³ Muni Ratnaçandrajī explains āśrava as "a door, a sluice for the inflow of karma" (Ardha-Māgadhi Dictionary). H. T. Colebrooke says: "Āśrava is the impulse, called Yoga or 'attention', by which the soul participates in the movement of its various bodies (audarika, etc.). As a door opening into the water makes the stream descend through it, so actions flow in upon the soul by the pipe of yoga; or again, as a wet garment exposed to the wind collects the dust from every part, so the soul, wet with previous sins, on all sides collects actions which are brought to it by yoga. Āśrava is good or evil, as it is directed to right or wrong objects. Āśrava has also been defined as 'the action of the senses which impels the soul towards external objects'."¹⁴⁴ The Uttarādhyāyāna-sūtra mentions āśrava as one of the nine tattvas (principles or categories) and also speaks of five āśravas.¹⁴⁵ A saint is said to have annihilated the āśravas, and the prince Balaçri or Mrgaputra is described as one, who prevented the arising of the āśravas through all bad channels. H. Jacobi thus translates and explains the word in these passages: "the influx of karman", "sinful inclinations", "that which causes the soul to be affected by sins" (S.B.E., vol. xlv, pp. 81, 99, 154). H. Jacobi is of opinion that the Buddhists borrowed the term āśrava from the Jainas, as the latter employed the word in its literal sense.¹⁴⁶ But the meaning attached to the word by the Buddhists is very different from the Jaina category of āśrava. The figurative sense of "extract, juice, beverage" originated in the natural development of the language, and the Buddhists probably adopted it without having recourse to the Jaina scriptures.

Āśrava, meaning "intoxicating beverage", occurs in several Pāli passages: e.g.: "merayo nāma pupphāsavo phalāsavo madhovāsavo gulaśavo (Vinaya, iv. 110, line 15). (Cf. also Jātaka, vi, 9, line 12; iv, 222, line 19.) But it means "discharge from a
sore" in some passages, e.g. duṭṭharaṁ āśavam deti" (Aṅguttara, i, 127, lines 3-4). Buddhaghosa does not define the exact meaning of the word. The Asthā-sālīna suggests several different explanations (page 48, lines 9 ff.). "Āśavas are things which flow (āśavani), i.e. flow or arise from the senses and the mind. Or āśavas may be defined as things, which, as states, 'flow' up to the stage of adoption, and which, as in space, flow as far as the topmost plane of existence. The meaning is that they occur keeping these states within that extent of space. The prefix 'ā' in āśava is indeed used in the sense of 'keeping within'. Or, as the juices of the madira fruits (Bassia latifolia), etc., become intoxicants by fermentation for a length of time, so certain states, which are like these intoxicants, are termed āśavas. . . . Or, āśavas are those states, which fructify or beget the pains of the ocean of births of long duration" (The Expositor, i, 63-4). A fanciful etymology is given by a commentator of the Pr. Pā. Čatta.: āśaviaṁ sruvanti (Pr. Pā. Čatta., p. 3, note 2: they flow as far as, or as long as, transmigratory existence). It has also been suggested that ārava is connected with āṣraya. But this is not sound etymology. E. J. Thomas has suggested that Buddhaghosa derives the word from the root "ru" (to press) or "pa-ru" (to beget).

The Tibetan equivalent iszag-pa (M. Ky., p. 10). S. C. Das translateszag-pa med-pa (=ānāśava) as "that which does not flow out", and he renderszag-pa as "depravity, sin" (Tib. Dicy., 1089b). According to J. Eitel, the Chinese translateārava by a word meaning "stream", "the stream of transmigration" (p. 219).

Several other derivatives from the root tru are met with in Buddhist Sanskrit literature: e.g. pravāva (= urine, Ama. Ci., i, 245.2—Kṣem. Latā., ii, 513.15); śravāna (of a wound, M. S. Al. 30.15).

It seems to have escaped the attention of most lexicographers and translators that the Sanskrit form āśava (identical with the Pāli word) occurs in the writings of Čūra and Kṣemendra. It means "intoxicating beverage", when it is employed in its ordinary signification. As a philosophical term, it occurs after such words as rāga and viṣaya-bhoga, and thus seems to have the same connotation asārava: e.g. sur-āśava-tidhu-maṇiya-madhū (Ja. Ma., 101.9); svadān-ālava, rāg-ālava (Kṣem. Latā., i, 935.9: ii, 1021.18).

Thus it may be inferred thatārava, derived from the root
sravani, means “intoxicating beverage”, and not “canker” or “stream”.

Āsrava-kṣaya-jñāna is an important term in Buddhist philosophy. It is not only the sixth abhijñā, but also one of the ten bala (Powers) and the four vairāgyas (Grounds of Self-confidence) that appertain to a perfect Buddha (M. V., Sections 7, 8; Dh. S., Sections 76, 77). Gautama Buddha is said to have cried on attaining Enlightenment: “Dried-up āsravas do not flow again” (āsravah here = “streams or running sores”). In the Lal. V. (348.20), āsrava is regarded as almost synonymous with duḥkha, and the conception of āsrava thus becomes a fundamental idea in the philosophical system of Buddhism. Gautama Buddha is said to have discovered the origin and cessation of the āsravas, just as he discovered the origin and cessation of duḥkha (pain, evil). The eightfold Way is also said to lead to the cessation of the āsravas. The indentification of the āsravas with duḥkha naturally led to the notion that only a perfect Buddha knows that he has destroyed all the āsravas. Ordinary monks and nuns could not be expected to possess the sixth abhijñā, “Āsrava-kṣaya-jñāna”. It was therefore excluded from the formula of the five abhijñās, as has already been indicated above.

In the oldest Pāli texts, three āsavas are mentioned (Majjh. ii, p. 39, lines 3 ff.—Dīgha iii, 216.9, etc.). These were kāma, bhava and avijjā. This old formula is found in the Sanskrit Da. Bhū. (18.5), which speaks only of these three. But the later Pāli texts added a fourth āsava, “diṭṭhi,” and placed it third on the list (Kīnaya, iii, 5, lines 31 ff.—Dhammasaṅgani, Section 1448 and Sections 1096–1100). This development is also reflected in Buddhist Sanskrit literature. The Lal. V. mentions these four ārvavas, but puts diṭṭhi last (p. 348.21). The Da. Bhū. speaks of four bandhanā (bonds), from which a bodhisattva almost frees himself in the third bhumi (p. 36). These bonds are the same as the three old ārvavas, kāma, bhava and avijjā, and a fourth, rūpa (form). But the author has not altogether forgotten the Pāli tradition, as he immediately adds that a bodhisattva has previously destroyed the bonds arising from diṭṭhi. He thus attempts to substitute rūpa for diṭṭhi as the new āsrava. The aversion of the Mahāyānists to the ideal of nirvāṇa may have led to the invention of the term bandhana instead of āsrava, which was closely and indissolubly associated with the old conception of nirvāṇa and arhatship. It is presumably for the same
reason that the ásravas are not enumerated at all in the Dh. S. and the M. Vy.

A bodhisattva knows if and when he himself or some other person has succeeded in destroying the ásravas. He understands the means for attaining this result. He also knows that other persons are puffed up with conceit, when they arrive at this stage. He himself knows all this, but he does not finally realise the abhijña known as ásrava-kṣaya, as he does not wish to enter nirvāṇa. He lives in this world of the ásravas, but he is not soiled and polluted by it. He is thus in the world but not of it. He works in and for the world of sin and sorrow, but transcends it in spirit. This is his greatest glory and his duty. The author of the Bo. Bhū here expounds the true and developed doctrine with regard to a bodhisattva's ideal of life. But an earlier writer has not thought of making such reservations in respect of ásrava-kṣaya and its results. The Pr. Pā. Čata. simply reproduces the old Pāli formula of arhatship in describing the sixth abhijña. “Through the destruction of the ásravas, he knows and realises the undefiled deliverance of the mind and heart, and abides in it. Rebirth is destroyed; the higher spiritual life has been lived. What had to be done has been accomplished. After this life, there will be no Beyond.” (Pra. Pā. Čata., p. 1448.2 ff.) It may be inferred that the Sanskritists only gradually came to realise the full import of ásrava-kṣaya and its implications with reference to a bodhisattva's career.

The four ásravas may now be considered in detail. (a) Kāma. This word has been variously translated as “love of sensual pleasure”, “desire,” “lust,” “passion,” “sensuality.” It may be rendered as (1) “love of sense-pleasures”, and (2) “love of sensual pleasures, sensuality, lust.” It refers to the gratification of the five senses in general, and also to sensuality (carnal lust) in particular.

As a general term, kāma is spoken of as five-fold. There are five kāma-guṇas, corresponding to the five indriyas (sense-organs): the eye (chakṣu), the ear (protra), the olfactory organ (grāṇa), the tongue (jīvot), and the body or skin (kāya). These five “factors or elements of kāma” are referred to in several passages of Buddhist Sanskrit literature. The terms kāma-rāga (love of Pleasure) and kāma-śchanda are also met with. Kāma-śchanda is the technical name for the first of the five nīvaranās (Hindrances), which is indeed identified with
kāma-asava in the Dhammasangani (Section 1153, p. 204). The external objects, which are perceived or enjoyed by the five sense-organs, are called rūpa (form), śabda (sound), gandha (odour), rasa (savour) and īpaśaţi or īpaşa (tangible things) respectively. The sense-organs and the external objects, taken together in pairs, are called āyatanas (spheres of sense). But manas (the mind) is spoken of in connection with the kāma-gunas only in a few passages.

It may be stated here, for the sake of completeness, that manas is regarded as the sixth "sense-organ" (indriya), and the mental objects, ideas or phenomena perceived by it are called dharmas. Thus there are altogether twelve āyatanas.

It is almost impossible to give an adequate idea of the vehemence and pertinacity, with which the Buddhist writers have preached the duty of curbing, controlling, suppressing, crushing and conquering the senses. They are never tired of repeating themselves on this theme, and they have hit upon many apt similes and metaphors to embellish their homilies.

In view of the crucial importance of the subject, no apology is perhaps needed for two lengthy quotations from Buddhist Sanskrit treatises.

The Buddhist writers have found several opportunities to inveigh against the kāmas (in the plural), when they record the events of Gautama Buddha's life. The bodhisattva Siddhārtha, who is known as Gautama Buddha after attaining Enlightenment, decries against the kāmas on five important occasions. He is disgusted with the worldly life of selfish pleasure and decides to leave his home at night. He witnesses the beautiful women of the palace, as they lie asleep in different postures. This sight moves him to the following outburst against the kāmas:

"Oh how foolish are those, who are enmeshed in the dense darkness of delusion. They think that there is some good in the pleasures of sense, which are really worthless, even as the birds placed in a cage can never escape from it (literally, "never obtain egress").

These pleasures, in them fools are slain, as those, who are condemned to death, (are killed) in a slaughter-house.

These pleasures,—ignorant fools take delight in them, as they may like beautifully painted vases, which are filled with filth.

These pleasures,—in them fools are drowned, like elephants in the water (of rivers, pools, etc.).

These pleasures,—in them fools find joy, as swine (wallow) in filth.
These pleasures—fools cleave to them, like dogs to a heap of bones.  

These pleasures—fools fall into them, like moths into the flame of a lamp.

These pleasures—fools are caught with them, like monkeys with smearing ointment.  

These pleasures—in them fools are destroyed, like the fish brought up in a net.

These pleasures—in them fools are cut to pieces, like rams on the wooden floor of a slaughter-house.

These pleasures—in them fools are impaled, like malefactors on the point of a pike (or stake).

These pleasures—in them fools perish, like old elephants in a bog.

These pleasures—in them fools are wrecked, like shipwrecked persons on the wide seas.

These pleasures—into them fools fall, as the blind (literally, “born blind”) fall over a high precipice.

These pleasures—in them fools come to their end, like water that has gone into the chasm leading to the nether world.

These pleasures—in them fools are choked with smoke, like the great Earth during the dissolution of the Universe at the close of the æon.

These pleasures—by these fools are kept in a whirl, like the potter's pierced wheel.

These pleasures—in them fools go astray and wander about, like blind persons (literally, “born blind”) in the interior of a mountain.

These pleasures—by them fools are made to turn round and round, like dogs tied in a leash.

These pleasures—through them fools wilt and wither, like grass and the trees in the hot season.

These pleasures—in them fools wane (in strength), like the moon in the dark fortnight.

These pleasures—by them fools are devoured, as the serpents (are devoured) by Garuḍa.

These pleasures—by them fools are swallowed up, as a ship (is swallowed up) by a huge leviathan (sea-monster).

These pleasures—by these fools are despoiled, as a trading-caravan (is despoiled) by a band of robbers.

These pleasures—by these fools are broken, as trees (are broken) by the wind.
These pleasures—by them fools are slain, as the living creatures (are slain) by snakes.
These pleasures—the fools, who regard them as agreeable and delicious, are wounded by them, as by the edge of a razor-blade, besmeared with honey.
These pleasures—by them fools are carried away, like logs of wood by a flood of water.
These pleasures—with them fools play, like children with their own urine and excrements.
These pleasures—by them fools are made to turn round,¹⁸¹ like elephants with the driver's goad (or hook).
These pleasures—by them fools are cheated,¹⁸² as simple-minded folk (are cheated) by rogues.
These pleasures—in them fools throw away their roots of merit, as gamblers (throw away) their wealth.
These pleasures—by them fools are devoured, as travelling merchants (are devoured) by the female ogres". (Lal. F., pp. 206 ff.)

Here we see that the author is terribly in earnest and piles up many telling similes in order to warn a bodhisattva of the dire dangers that lurk in the pleasures of the senses. Certainly no one, who has once read this passage, can ever forget it.

The bodhisattva Siddhārtha's interview with King Bimbisāra of Rājagṛha furnishes another occasion for an eloquent sermon on the evils of Pleasure. The King tries to dissuade the young bodhisattva from his purpose, offers him half the kingdom and promises to aid him in conquering a new kingdom, if he prefers that course. The bodhisattva thanks the well-meaning friend, and replies in these burning words (Buddha-carita, xi, 7 ff., pp. 86 ff.):—

"I know the danger of old age and death. I wish to obtain final Release, and have adopted this mode of life. I have left my beloved kinsfolk in tears (literally, "with tears on their faces"). Of course, with even greater determination have I abandoned Pleasures, which cause Evil.

I fear Pleasures (literally, "external objects of sense") much more than I fear serpents, or thunderbolts fallen from the sky, or even a fire fanned by the wind (literally, "flames associated with the wind"). Pleasures (the kāmas) are evanescent; they rob a person of his possessions of spiritual Merit¹⁸³; they are hollow and illusory in this world. They delude the minds of men,
even if they are only hoped for; they can do so in a much greater degree, if they abide in the mind.

The slaves of Pleasures (literally "those conquered by Pleasures") do not obtain happiness, even in the heaven of the devas, still less in this world of mortals. He, who thirsts for Pleasures, cannot be satisfied, as Fire, the friend of Aeolus, has never enough of fuel.

There is no evil in the world like Pleasures; but people are addicted to them through folly. A wise man, who is afraid of evil, knows this truth; how then should he himself long for what is evil?

Having obtained possession of the sea-robed Earth, they (i.e. kings) wish to conquer the other shore of the great ocean. People are never satisfied with Pleasures, as the ocean has never enough of the river-water that falls into it.

For Māndhātṛ, it rained gold from heaven; he conquered the four continents and oceans; he won even half of Čakra's throne; still he was not satisfied with the things that give Pleasure.

Nahuṣa enjoyed the pleasure of ruling over the devas in heaven, when Čata-kṛatu (Indra) had gone into hiding for fear of Vṛtra; in his pride, he employed the great sages (ṛṣis) as his litter-bearers; but he was not satisfied with Pleasures and so fell (from his high estate).

King Pururavas, the son of Iḍā, entered the third heaven, and got the famous goddess Urvaci into his power; but he was still not satisfied with Pleasures. In his greed, he wished to rob the sages of their gold and so fell into perdition.

Who would put his trust in these things that give Pleasure? They were transferred from Bali to Mahendra, from Mahendra to Nahuṣa, and back again from Nahuṣa to Indra. In heaven and on earth, they are indeed exposed to many vicissitudes.

These are Enemies, which we call "Pleasures". Who would seek them? They have ruined even the ascetics, who had really other things to do, and who were clad in the bark of trees, lived on roots, fruits and water, and wore matted hair as long as snakes.

Even the thought of these Pleasures is inauspicious and brings about Death. What (should one say) then of the lawless persons, who are habitually addicted to them? For the sake of these Pleasures, Ugrāśvala met his death at the hands of Bhīṣma, though he was formidable, when armed with his weapons.
One should reflect that Pleasures give very little delight and yield no satisfaction, even if one possesses them up to the culminating point. Righteous men despise them and they are certainly sinful. Who would take this poison, which is named "Pleasure"? 173

Those, who are masters of their minds, should give up Pleasures. They learn of the misery of those people, whose hearts are set on Pleasure, and who are engaged in agriculture and other similar pursuits. And they (see) the happiness of those who are indifferent to Pleasures.

If the slave of Pleasure succeeds in his desires, it should be regarded as a calamity for him. When the desires are gratified, he falls into Pride. Through Pride, he does what should not be done, and he does not do what should be done. Then he is stricken and goes to a miserable destiny (in rebirth).

What man, who is master of his mind, can find delight in Pleasures, which are obtained and kept with much trouble, and then cheat us and again disappear? They are indeed like borrowed things.

What man, who is master of his mind, would love Pleasures, which resemble a firebrand made of a wisp of straw. Those, who feel a hankering for them, seek them and take them. But if they do not let them go, they come to grief. 174

What man, who is master of his mind, would love Pleasures? They are like angry and fierce snakes. Those weak-willed men, who are bitten by them in their inmost souls, are destroyed and do not find happiness. 174

What man, who is master of his mind, would love Pleasures? They are like a skeleton of old bones. Dogs feel the pangs of hunger for bones. 175 Even so, those, who enjoy Pleasures, are never satisfied. What man, who is master of his mind, would love Pleasures? They cause misery, as they have to be shared with kings and thieves, and also with fire and water 176 (i.e. may be destroyed by them). They are like meat, that has been thrown away.

What man, who is master of his mind, would love Pleasures? Those, who are addicted to them, are exposed to dangers on all sides, from their relatives and their enemies. Pleasures are indeed death-dealing things, like the Spheres of Sense. 177

What man, who is master of his mind, would love Pleasures?
Those, who strive to get them, come to a miserable end in the mountains and the forests, or on the waters of the ocean.

Pleasures resemble the fruits that hang on the topmost branch of a tree. . . .

The poet continues his scathing invective and compares Pleasures to glowing cinders, to the joyful sensations of a dream, to a stake for impaling criminals, to a sword, and to ferocious beasts. He then proceeds and explains the philosophy of the simple life of asceticism:

"Antelopes are lured to their death by songs; moths fall into the flame (fire) for the sake of the beauty of form; the fish, avid of flesh, swallows the iron-hook. Thus Pleasures bear evil fruit.

As to the idea that 'Pleasures are enjoyments', they cannot be reckoned as enjoyable objects, when they are well scrutinised. Clothes and other things should be regarded only as remedies for pain (antidotes to pain).

Water is desired to quench thirst, and food is sought in the same way for appeasing hunger. A house (is needed) to keep off the wind, heat and rain; and clothes serve to cover the nakedness of the body and keep off the cold.

Sleep serves to counteract drowsiness. A carriage allays the fatigue of a journey. A seat obviates the necessity of standing. Bathing gives cleanliness and the strength that comes of good health.

The things that give pleasure are therefore only the means of alleviating pain for human beings; they are not objects of enjoyment.

What wise man would admit that he enjoys them, when they are used only as remedies?

A man, who is burning with bilious fever, may think that the application of cold is an enjoyment; but he is only intent on finding the method for assuaging pain. Such a man may indeed have the idea that Pleasures are enjoyments.

Pleasures have no absolute quality of their own; for this reason also, I cannot think that they are enjoyments. The same conditions (or things), as point the way to happiness, bring misery again.

Heavy garments and aloe-wood give pleasure in the cold, but cause pain in the heat. The moonbeams and sandal-wood are pleasant in the heat, but painful in the cold." (B. Cl. xi, 7-42.)
Açvaghoṣa thus puts some positive arguments into the bodhisattva's mouth, and does not merely indulge in glowing rhetoric on this theme.

When the bodhisattva arrives at Gayā-śīra, he thinks of three new similes on the subject of the kāmas. He says to himself: "There are monks (jīramaññas) and priests (brahmāññas), who have not freed their bodies and minds from Pleasures. They delight in Pleasures; they are attached to Pleasures; they are intent on Pleasures; they lust after Pleasures; they thirst for Pleasures; they are deluded and infatuated by Pleasures; they are consumed by Pleasures; their attachment to Pleasures never ceases. Further, they experience acute, sharp, bitter, harsh and disagreeable sensations of pain, which consume their bodies and torment their souls. Thus they are incapable of fully realising the special insight into transcendental, noble knowledge. This is just as if a man, who wishes to have fire and light, and seeks for them, were to take two moist pieces of wood and rub them against each other after throwing them into the water. It is impossible for him to produce fire and light. Even such are these monks and priests". In the second simile, the bodhisattva compares the slaves of Pleasure to a man, who should try to produce fire by the attrition of two moist pieces of wood on dry land. In the third simile, he speaks of a saint who has renounced Pleasure, and compares him to a wise man, who tries to get fire by the friction of two dry pieces of wood in a dry place. His efforts are crowned with success. (Lāl. V., pp. 240 ff.—Mtul. ii, 121 ff.)

When the bodhisattva Siddhārtha enters on a conflict with Māra, the deva of Desire and Death, he carries on a lively debate with him and his daughters, and expatiates on the evils and dangers of the kāmas. He points out that Pleasures are rooted in evil and pain. They only intensify craving and lust, as salt water makes a man more thirsty than before. The beautiful bodies of fair women are really infernal machines of Evil, full of filth and impurity. Even the pure and ethereal bodies of the celestial nymphs are transient and must perish. Pleasures are fleeting like autumn clouds. They destroy a man's spiritual Merit, as lightning can burn up a field of ripe rice. A bodhisattva despises them, as if they were a heap of burning, ill-smelling dried excrements.

Finally, when the bodhisattva Siddhārtha has attained Enlightenment and begins to preach his doctrine, he condemns sensual
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Pleasures as vulgar, ignoble and degrading in his very first sermon. Thus we find that he rejects and repudiates Pleasure at each step in his career from the eventful night of Renunciation to the still more eventful night of Enlightenment. On five occasions he utters the warning, like an ever-recurring refrain: “Beware of the kāmas.”

In the Divy-āvadāna, aversion to the six-fold pleasures of sense (including those associated with manas, the mind) is regarded as the sum and substance of Gautama Buddha’s teaching. When Buddha preaches a very short sermon for the benefit of Pūrṇa, he exhorts him not to take delight in attractive forms, sounds, odours, savours, tangible things and mental objects. That ideal is declared to be essential to liberation (nirvāṇa). Even manas is here regarded as a source of evil, and the number of the dangerous kāma-gunas is thus raised to six.

The Buddhist writers had thus ample authority in Buddha’s alleged deeds and words for their vehement denunciation of all kinds of sense-pleasures. The tradition was maintained by a long line of teachers from Ācārya to Čāntideva, who repeated the stock similes and the familiar arguments. They sometimes added a few touches of foul cynicism, and imagined that they had improved upon their predecessors. Ācārya has inserted several homilies against the kāmas in his poem, the Saundarāṇāṇanda-kāvyā, which relates the conversion of Nanda to the monastic ideal of Buddhism. Nanda was madly in love with his consort Sundari, and could not think of becoming a monk. As the Buddhist teachers did not contemplate the possibility of sublimating, ennobling and idealising the sentiment of love, they could only condemn and combat it as a vile and dangerous passion. They saw only bestial lust in human love.

According to the legend, Gautama Buddha took Nanda up to svarga, and showed him the celestial nymphs, who were immeasurably more beautiful than Sundari. Nanda forgot his wife and was now infatuated with the nymphs; but these could be won only through severe austerities. Nanda began to practise penance with the ultimate object of winning a nymph and enjoying sensual pleasure. There is a touch of cynical irony in this situation. He thus tasted the higher joys of the ascetic life, though his motive was ignoble. He was taunted and rebuked by the other monks for practising penance with a worldly aim. The upshot was that Nanda really appreciated the merits of the monks'
Rule and was weaned from his love for his wife. He joined the Order of Monks.

This story gives Açvaghoṣa several opportunities of putting edifying words into Gautama Buddha’s mouth. His views and exhortations may be summarised as follows:

The senses (indriyas) are by nature fickle and restive. They must cause pain always and everywhere. They smite both the body and the mind. The five indriyas may be compared to arrows besmeared with the poison of wrong thoughts. Carking care is their feathered part, and their fruit is Pleasure. They fly in the firmament of material objects. They slay human beings like deer, when Eros, the hunter, shoots them at the heart. They can be parried by means of the armour of Mindfulness. When one sees a living form, one should not think if it is a man or a woman. Desire ruins the pleasure-loving world; it is a false and treacherous friend. If the mind feels no inclination for the objects that give pleasure, it cannot be enslaved by them. As both fuel and the wind are necessary for the burning fire, so both external objects and the inclination of the mind must be present before sinful attachment can arise. The same object can produce different feelings in the minds of different persons: love, repulsion, indifference or disgust. The mind is therefore the prime cause of slavery to sensual pleasure. One should always be vigilant and watchful in controlling and restraining the five sense-organs. Even if a person should be reborn in svarga as the reward of good deeds, he must descend again to Earth after the lapse of a certain period of time, as a traveller comes home from strange climes. He may be reborn as an animal, a preta, or a denizen of a purgatory. He must then be tormented by the memory of the pleasures that he had enjoyed in svarga. Even the great devas must leave svarga sooner or later through the power of karma, and thus suffer terrible agonies. The pleasures of svarga abide not for ever: one should therefore aim at obtaining final Liberation. A soul, which is enmeshed in Ignorance, must sooner or later return to Earth, as a bird, which is tied to a string, must come back even after a long flight from home. As a leper obtains no relief by the application of warmth, even so a sensual man finds no happiness by indulging in pleasures. If some remnants of Desire should remain in the mind, as fire sometimes lies concealed under the ashes, then they should be eradicated by spiritual cultivation (bhāvanā).
Other Buddhist writers have also warned a bodhisattva against the snare of Pleasure. A bodhisattva should know the misery and danger and disadvantages of the kāmas. They are like the water seen in a mirage in the hot weather. They expose a person to legal punishments and penalties like mutilation, imprisonment and death. They cause rebirth in painful states of woe. Sensual pleasure is associated with the lovely bodies of men and women, but these must be reduced to dust and ashes in the cemetery. All men and women are really walking skeletons covered with flesh. A bodhisattva should think with disgust of kisses, which make two persons imbibe each other’s saliva; and the saliva is just like the faeces, as both derive their origin from food. And why should a wise man seek another person’s impure and malodorous body and thus eat filth? Pleasures cannot be enjoyed without money. Money cannot be earned without enduring much trouble and tribulation and committing heinous sins, for which one must be punished in the dreadful purgatories. Foolish people waste the days of their youth in hard work and in self-imposed exile in order to earn money: and how can they really enjoy Pleasure in old age? They serve cruel masters and sell themselves for money. Even their wives and children are exposed to severe hardships in travelling at home and abroad. These fools risk their lives in battle for the sake of false glory. Wealth must first be acquired and then guarded, and it may be lost: it is thus a source of misery at all times. It absorbs all the energy and interest of worldly persons, and leaves them no time to think of their eternal Liberation. The slaves of Pleasure thus incur many dangers and misfortunes and reap only a meagre reward, like the beasts harnessed to a chariot, which get only a handful of grass for their labour. Even the brutes can gratify the sensual appetites: a wise man should rise above them and make a better use of his precious life as a human being. He can attain Enlightenment with a thousand millionth part of the toil and trouble undergone by foolish people in the vain pursuit of Pleasure. The love of Pleasure sows strife and discord among friends, and incites men to falsehood and cunning. It is at the root of all quarrels, conflicts, struggles and rivalries in society. It makes men forget virtue, law and duty. Verily, it is a diabolical thing, and begets untold evil.
pleasure-loving man should always remember the parable of the crow. A dead elephant’s carcass was floating down the river Ganges. A crow sat on it and began to eat of the flesh. It was sweet and good to eat, and the crow was glad at heart. So he did not cease eating of it. But he did not know, poor fool, that he was being carried down to the briny ocean, wherein no bird can live. And when he reaches the ocean, still sitting on the elephant’s carcass and eating of the sweet flesh, he will be slain and devoured by the monsters of the deep. A pleasure-loving man is like unto that foolish crow. He will find himself in an evil state of woe, when he is reborn as a preta or an animal, or in a purgatory. This is the famous Parable of the Crow.\textsuperscript{211}

The Buddhist philosophers have devoted all their powers of rhetoric, exposition and argumentation to this important theme of the kāma. It is not difficult to understand and explain their attitude. Buddhism depended for its success and progress on the Order of celibate monks. It had rejected the old Indian ideal of the married sage (ṛṣi) and had approved of the new mode of life, which was adopted by the unmarried munī, the lonely hermit and thinker. Celibacy cannot be maintained without a deep-rooted and unnatural aversion to sense-pleasures. It was the duty of the Buddhist philosophers to decry and denounce Pleasure in unmeasured and even repulsive terms, if their disciples were to live unspotted from the world. Similar cynical diatribes against Pleasure and Love are found in the writings of the medieval Christian monks.\textsuperscript{212} The institution of celibacy rendered it necessary to forget the sweet and sane moderation of the ideals taught in the Rāmāyaṇa and the Mahābhārata, and even in the Upaṇiṣads. The spirit of Buddhism is in this respect quite different from that of ancient Hinduism and Hellenism. It is marked by exaggeration, abnormality, cynicism and sophistry. Self-restraint, self-control and self-discipline, which must be inculcated and practised by all philosophers, were thus interpreted as implying the complete suppression and repression of some vital and essential elements in human nature.

(b) Bhava-(āstrava). “Bhava” means “existence”, “form of rebirth,” “life.” It usually denotes continuing existence in one of the three states or spheres, which are mentioned in Buddhist cosmology, viz. kāma-dhātu, rūpa-dhātu and arūpa-dhātu or arūpya-dhātu (sensual-material existence, deva-corporeal existence, and formless, non-material existence).\textsuperscript{213}
An advanced bodhisattva is free from the craving for existence in any form.

(c) Avidyā-(āsavā). The Intoxicant of Ignorance or Nescience. Avidyā is discussed in the section on the twelve nidānas (vide infra).

(d) Dytī-(āsavā). The Intoxicant of metaphysical speculation. It refers especially to the fourteen questions, that are regarded as unsolved and insoluble (avyākṛta-vastūni, "unexplained subjects"). Speculation on such problems is condemned as fruitless and dangerous. These questions are as follows:

(1) The Universe is eternal.
(2) The Universe is non-eternal.
(3) The Universe is both eternal and non-eternal.
(4) The Universe is neither eternal nor non-eternal.
(5) The Universe is finite (literally, "has an end").
(6) The Universe is infinite.
(7) The Universe is both finite and infinite.
(8) The Universe is neither finite nor infinite.
(9) The Tathāgata exists after death.
(10) The Tathāgata does not exist after death.
(11) The Tathāgata both exists and does not exist after death.
(12) The Tathāgata neither exists nor becomes non-existent after death.
(13) The jīva is the same as the body.
(14) The jīva is one thing and the body another (i.e. they are different).

The order of the questions is not the same as in the Pali texts, and the number has been increased from ten to fourteen by discussing the eternity and infinity of the Universe in four statements.

Nāgārjuna and Candrakīrti have attempted to prove that such theories must be regarded as antinomies, because they end in logical absurdities, and both the positive and negative solutions can be justified. They have also applied the doctrines of śunyatā (emptiness, relativity, interdependence) and pratītya-samutpāda (interdependent origination) in order to show that it is foolish and unprofitable to discuss these problems. As the Tathāgata is really "void by nature" (svabhāva-śunya), he cannot be said to exist or become non-existent after death. As the Universe has only a contingent and phenomenal existence,
it cannot be said to be eternal or non-eternal, finite or infinite. A *bodhisattva*, who accepts any such opinions, is hindered in his development. The foolish non-Buddhist heretics wrangle about such conundrums; but the wise Buddhists maintain the great Silence. They "condemn all theories of the Thing-in-Itself, the Ding-an-sich", as L. de la Vallée Poussin has rightly pointed out.

For the sake of completeness, it must be stated that the same four items (*kāma, bhava, avidyā, dṛṣṭi*) are also known as the group of four *oghās* (floods) or *mah-oghās* (great floods). They are also spoken of as the four *yogas* (yokes, bonds, attachments).

Such exuberant redundancy of names and terms testifies to the fertility of the Buddhist philosophers' imagination. It also proves the earnestness of their endeavours towarn the world against these four deadly Intoxicants.

The six *abhiṣeṣa*, that have been discussed, are of two kinds; mundane and supra-mundane. They are acquired through meditation, inward peace, moral conduct and insight. He, who wishes to obtain them, must live in the forest or a mountain-cave, ponder on the Truth and the Doctrine, and abandon his sins, evil passions and worldly desires. He must also practise severe austerities, which are known as *dhūta-guṇāḥ*. Thus stern asceticism and self-mortification must be practised by a *bodhisattva* in order to gain the *abhiṣeṣa*. When he has obtained them, he realises that he had been a blind fool before, and that all his actions in that unenlightened state had been fruitless. A saint may lose the *abhiṣeṣa* that he has acquired; but he can recover them. Faith and resolution lead to the rapid acquisition of the *abhiṣeṣa*. By their means, a *bodhisattva* can see and hear all the Buddhas of the entire universe. He can help other men by interpreting their dreams. He acquires these Super-knowledges in the third or eighth *bhūmi*. They are so important that they are reckoned as one of the four *vāyās* (practices, duties, branches of discipline) that a *bodhisattva* must accomplish.

**VI. THE DHŪTĀ-GUṆĀS**

The *abhiṣeṣa* are to be acquired by living as a hermit and practising the *dhūtā-guṇās* (ascetic practices). The word *dhūtā-guṇā* or *dhūta-guṇā* is generally understood to mean the "qualities
or attributes of a *dhuta* or *dhūta* (i.e. a person who has shaken off sins)," from the root *dhu* (to shake). Or the word may be a synonym of *dhauta*, derived from the root *dhāv*, and thus signify "a purified, cleanse, holy person". T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Steide derive it from *dhu* and interpret it as meaning "a scrupulous or punctilious person" (Pāli Dicy. s.v.). The Tibetan equivalent of *dhūta-guna* is *shyan-pahi-yon-tan*, and *shyan-pa* means "washed or used", from the verb *shyan-ba* (= to clean or cultivate). It seems likely that *dhūta* here is derived from the root *dhāv* and not from *dhu*. S. C. Das explains that *dhūta* in this term does not refer to the person, who has "shaken off" his sins or who has been "cleansed", but that the adjectival participle qualifies the substantive *guna*. He translates: "talents or qualifications kept up, used or practised,—ascetic practices" (Tib. Dicy., Das., 939a). The verb *shyan-ba* is often used to denote the purification and cultivation of the mind by training and exercise (Tib. Dicy., Jäschke, 405b). This interpretation seems to be more acceptable than that given in the Pāli Dictionary.

The Pāli texts mention thirteen *dhūtaṅgas*, but the Sanskrit treatises speak of twelve *dhūta-gunas*. They are earnestly recommended by the author of the *Sam. Ra.* The great saint, Kācyapa, was an expert in such practices. Čāndīdeva and the author of the *Da. Bhū* also teach that a *bodhisattva* should persistently practise them.

The twelve items are not placed in the same order in the *Dh. S.* and the *M.Vy.* They are as follows (*M. Vy.* Section 49—Pr. Pā. Āsā, p. 387):—


2. *Tratāvarikāh.* The *bodhisattva* does not possess more than three robes at a time. *Cīvara* means "the dress of a Buddhist mendicant or any mendicant" (Skt. Dicy. M.W., 327b).

3. *Nāmatikāh* (Nāmantikāh in the *M. Vy.*). The meaning of this word is not clear. The word *namataḥ* occurs in the *M. Vy.* (Section 233, page 381) among vastra-nāmāni (names of articles of clothing), where it is rendered as *phyaṇ-pa* in the Tibetan. It also occurs in Section 272 (page 575) of the *M. Pa.* *Namata* is also found in the *Cullavagga*: "anujānāmi bhikkhave satthakam namatakanti (v. 11.13; Vinaya, ii, page 115); "tenko pana samayena chabbaggijā bhikkhuhiyo... namatakam dhārenti" (x. 10.4—Vinaya ii, page 267). T. W. Rhys Davids
and H. Oldenberg translate it as "felt" in these passages. E. Burnouf is of the opinion that namatikah is a meaningless word and may perhaps be changed to "kambalikah"; but F. Max Müller rejects this suggestion and points out that the Chinese equivalent of namata is "hair-cloth" or "cloth made of hair". The Tibetan term, phyin-pa, is thus explained by S. C. Das, who also mentions namata and kambaliyu as the Sanskrit equivalents:—"the quantity of wool necessary for making a blanket; felt much used by Dokpa nomads of Tibet for tents and carpets" (Tib. Dicy, 836a). Csoma de Körös also gives the form namacika (p. 19), and translates: "clothed or clad in felt."

A bodhisattva, who practises this dhāta-guna, wears a garment made of felt or wool.

(4) Painḍapatikāḥ. The bodhisattva lives only on food obtained by begging from door to door (and does not accept invitations to the houses of the laymen, etc.).

(5) Aiśāmanīkāḥ (Esāmanīkāḥ in the Dh. S. and the Pr. Pa. Asta.). The bodhisattva eats his meal at one sitting, or he has only one seat. The Tibetans translate, stan-geg-pa (M. Vy., p. 86). Stan means "a seat, mat, anything to sit upon". E. Burnouf thinks that the Tibetan equivalent means, "having only one seat." But the practice of eating at one sitting is mentioned in Buddhist literature and is probably referred to here. The Tibetan version is quite literal, and does not explain the meaning of the word. Csoma de Körös translates: "having only one mat" (p. 19).

(6) Khali-paccād-bhaktikāḥ. This term is also puzzling. The Pāli form is khalu-paccha-bhattika and is interpreted by T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede as meaning "a person, who refuses food offered to him after the normal time (i.e. midday)". But the prefix khalu in the Sanskrit word seems to be inexplicable. E. Burnouf boldly conjectured that the whole word should be read as svādu-apacca-bhaktika, and translated as "celui qui ne mange pas de douceur après son repas." The Tibetan equivalent, "Zai phyis mi len-pa" is interpreted by E. Burnouf as meaning "celui qui ne prend rien après son repas": (Zai = food, len-pa = to receive, to accept. Tib. Dicy., Das, 1093a, 1220a). The Sanskrit word appears to be meaningless in its usual form. E. Burnouf's emendation seems plausible. Csoma de Körös translates: "taking no food a second time on the same day." (p. 19).
(7) Āranyakah. The bodhisattva lives in the woods.

(8) Vṛkṣa-mūlikah. The bodhisattva dwells at the foot of a tree, or under a tree.

(9) Ākhyavakāṣikah. The bodhisattva lives in an open unsheltered place (not under a roof in a house). It is derived from avakāṣa (open or wide space, Skt. Dicy. M.W., 879). The Pāli word abbhojāsīka is translated by T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede as "one who lives in the open, the practice of certain ascetics" (Pāli Dicy., s.v.). H. Oldenberg suggests the reading abhrāvakaśika,²⁴² which means, "exposed to the rain, and so doing penance; not seeking shelter from the rain; having the clouds for shelter; open to the sky" (Skt. Dicy. M.W., 746). This word occurs in the Manu-smṛti (vi, 23, page 117), "grīme paṇca-tapas tu syād varṣāv-abhrāvakaśikah." But this suggestion seems to be rather far-fetched and unnecessary.

(10) Čmaṣṭānikah. The bodhisattva lives in or near a cemetery, or visits a cemetery or cremation-ground frequently.

(11) Naṇḍakah (naṇḍadyakah in the Dh. S. and the Pr. Pā. Aṣṭa.). The bodhisattva remains in a sitting posture while sleeping. The Tibetan equivalent cog-bu-pa also means, "one who lives in a lonely mountain-cavern, or in a small tent that accommodates but one man." (Tib. Dicy. Das, 384b.). Csoma de Kőrős prefers this interpretation (p. 20).

(12) Yathā-sanstarakah (Yathā-sanstarakah in the Dh. S.). T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede interpret the Pāli word yathā-santhatika as "accepting whatever seat is offered" (Pāli Dicy.). But H. Kern translates: "Spreading a night-couch where one happens to be."²⁴³ The Tibetan version is vague and may be interpreted in two ways, according to E. Burnouf: (1) "Celui qui reste à la place où il est", (2) "Celui qui garde son tapis tel qu’il l’a une fois placé."²⁴⁴ As this ascetic practice is forbidden to monks, H. Kern’s interpretation is likely to be correct. S. C. Das translates the Tibetan term as "a recluse, who stays where he is" (Tib. Dicy., 1080a). Csoma de Kőrős translates: "who accommodates himself as he can" (p. 20).

Thus we see that the old Indian practice of tapas (austerities) has become an integral part of the discipline of a bodhisattva. The beginnings of this innovation may be noted in the Lal. V., which adds tapas to the virtues of charity and moral conduct in several passages. Gautama Buddha is said to have practised rites and penances for many aeons, and to have lived the higher life by
cultivating liberality, virtuous conduct and tapas.\textsuperscript{245} He has fulfilled his resolve with tapas.\textsuperscript{246} Tapas is indeed declared to be indispensable for Enlightenment, which cannot be attained without performing severe penances for many kalpas.\textsuperscript{247} The Mtu. also describes Gautama Buddha as "endowed with virtue, forbearance and tapas".\textsuperscript{248} This tendency to exalt tapas is a curious feature of Buddhist Sanskrit literature, though the Lal. V. and the Mtu. also faithfully insert Gautama Buddha’s first sermon, in which he condemned such austerities and mortifications (ātma-kāya-klāmatha).\textsuperscript{249} Čūra praises the bodhisattva Viśvantara for practising tapas during half a year.\textsuperscript{250} But the glorification of tapas and the dhūta-gunas reaches its climax in that authoritative treatise, the Sam. Rā. Its author enumerates ten advantages that result from the practice of the dhūta-gunas. He says:—"There are ten advantages that accrue to a bodhisattva, who is firmly established in the noble family of recluses that are content with the four requisites. He is free from deceit and loquacity (or from deceitful talk). He does not exalt himself; and he does not revile (or decry) others. He moves about in the houses (of the laity) without undue friendliness or repugnance. He preaches the Doctrine (literally, "bestows the gift of the dharma") in a disinterested spirit. His religious teaching is effective". (Sam. Rā., fol. 119a, 6 ff.)

It is not difficult to understand the causes of this intrusion of the idea of tapas into Buddhist philosophy. Although Gautama Buddha clearly and emphatically condemned austerities and also rejected Devadatta’s suggestions, yet we find that the dhūta-gunas are mentioned in several passages of Pāli literature.\textsuperscript{251} The Mūlinda-panha devotes a whole chapter to them (chapter vi); it enumerates twenty-eight virtues (gūnas) that are inherent in them and eighteen good qualities that are acquired by the monks through these practices.\textsuperscript{252} The Mahāyānist writers also approve of tapas, though Kṣemendra reverts to the original teaching and proclaims its futility.\textsuperscript{253} But he was only a voice crying in the wilderness. It may be surmised that the acceptance of tapas as a condition of the bodhisattva’s discipline was due to several irresistible tendencies that were at work in India. The Jainas valued tapas very highly as a means of Liberation.\textsuperscript{254} It destroys karma and purifies the soul, as the Uttarādhyayana-sūtra teaches. The views of the Jainas are referred to in the Pāli canon.\textsuperscript{255} The Majjhima-Nikāya speaks of other preachers, who taught the ordinary social
virtues and tapas. The competition of these rival sects led the Buddhists to practise similar austerities, as the people admired and followed such self-torturing ascetics. Vanity may have been the motive of many monks, who adopted the dhāta-guṇas. The common people always revere the spiritual athletes, who can curb and control the body and its appetites with such self-restraint and resolution. It is also probable that some earnest souls are born with a deep-seated longing for such a life of excessive self-denial. They wish to enjoy the spiritual luxury of completely dominating and crushing the sensual elements of human nature. Perhaps a few are called to this task in each generation, and they fulfil their peculiar mission. The history of all great spiritual movements exhibits this phase of stern asceticism. The Greeks as a people loved life, beauty and joy; but they too produced Diogenes, "the mad Socrates," and the School of the Cynics. Jesus Christ "came eating and drinking", and St. Paul advised Timothy to drink a little wine for the sake of his health. But the Christian Church honoured the ascetics of Egypt and Syria, and the names of St. Anthony and St. Simeon Stylites are famous in world-history. Thus it seems to be the universal law of historical development that Religion should have a few fanatical heroes, who assert the supremacy of Mind over Matter in the most striking and uncompromising fashion.

It is probable that the recorded account of the austerities practised by Gautama Buddha himself suggested the idea of tapas to the later Buddhists. It is true that Buddha repudiated those experiences as fruitless and dangerous, but the fact remained that he had gone through them at a certain stage in his career. The champions of tapas may have appealed to those texts, as the Christian ascetics referred to Christ's long fast of forty days. Further, it was held that all the events and experiences of Gautama Buddha's life would be repeated in the last earthly life of every advanced bodhisattva before he attained Enlightenment. He must be born in a wealthy family, marry, renounce his home, and so forth. But the episode of the penances was a stumbling-block for these devout Buddhists, who idealised Buddha in this way. The Lal. Vi. explains the laudable motives of the wise bodhisattva in practising duṣṭara-caryā (austerities). He wished to exhibit a wonderful deed to the world. He intended to humiliate, confound and instruct the deluded heretics by excelling them even in those austerities, which they prized, but which he really
knew to be vain and foolish. He desired to show the fruits of perfect Wisdom and to analyse the different factors of meditation. He aimed at utilising the merits of his virtuous deeds. He hoped to convert the devas by a special form of meditation. He could thus display his physical strength and endurance and also acquire fortitude. He thought that he could thus more easily convert the people. He aspired to cultivate the āsphānaka meditation, which is difficult even for the pratyeka-buddhas. He expected to obtain yoga-kṛśma (peace from bondage, uttermost safety, Liberation). The Mtu. also declares that the salvation of all creatures was the bodhisattva’s only motive in practising penance. The specious pleas adduced in the Lal. V. show that the Buddhists found it difficult to reconcile this episode with the perfect wisdom of a spiritually advanced bodhisattva. But even the Lal. V. admits that the bodhisattva derived some positive benefit from his tapas. Thus the old tradition relative to Gautama Buddha’s own tapas could be interpreted in such a way as to induce the Buddhist monks to engage in similar practices. But Kṣemendra resolutely adheres to the ancient doctrine and consistently condemns tapas. He goes so far as to say that the bodhisattva Siddhārtha had to perform penance, because he had committed a sin in his previous existence. It may be inferred that there were at all times two schools of thought among the Buddhists. Some approved of tapas and the dhātu-gunas, while others condemned them. It is worthy of note that they are not discussed in such standard treatises as the Bo. Bhū. and the M. S. Al.

VII. The Vaṣcitās

Vasubandhu teaches that a bodhisattva, who is spiritually advanced, can exhibit all the wonders of rddhi, as he has acquired ten vaṣcitās (Powers, Sovereignties). These ten powers are enumerated in the Da. Bhū., the M. Vy., and the Dh. S. But the order, in which they are placed, is not the same in the different treatises. They are also referred to in several other passages of Buddhist literature.

According to the author of the Da. Bhū., a bodhisattva acquires them in the eight bhāmi. They are as follows:

(1) Ayur-vaṣcitā (power of longevity). A bodhisattva has sovereignty over the length of life. He can prolong it to an immeasurable number of kalpas (eons).
(2) Cittā (Citta)-vaśītā. He has sovereignty over the mind, as he has acquired the knowledge of an infinite number of samādhis (modes of Concentration).

(3) Parijātā. He has the mastery of Equipment, as he knows all the arrangements and adornments of all the worlds and universes.

(4) Karma-vaśītā. He has sovereignty over Action, as he comprehends the consequences of deeds at the proper time.

(5) Upapatti-vaśītā. He has mastery over Birth, as he understands the origin of all the worlds and universes.

(6) Adhimukti-vaśītā. He has sovereignty over Faith (or Aspiration), as he sees well all the Buddhas of all the worlds and universes.

(7) Pravādhana-vaśītā. He has mastery over all the Vows, as he sees well the time for Enlightenment in any buddha-field according to his desire.

(8) Rudhī-vaśītā. He is lord of the wonder-working Power, as he sees well the marvels of all the buddha-fields.

(9) Dharmā-vaśītā. He has mastery over the Doctrine, as he beholds the light of the source of the Doctrine in the beginning, the middle and the end.

(10) Jñāna-vaśītā. He comprehends thoroughly the attributes of a Buddha, viz. his Powers, his Grounds of Self-confidence, his special exclusive attributes, and the principal marks and the minor signs on his body. Therefore he is the Lord of Knowledge.

VIII. THE INDRIYAS AND THE BALAS

The five indriyas and the five balas, which have the same names, are included among the thirty-seven bodhipaksya-dharmas.

In the final formula, these are:—(1) śraddhā (Faith), (2) vīrya (Energy), (3) smṛti (Mindfulness), (4) samādhi (Concentration), (5) prajñā (Wisdom). But it is almost certain that this group of five was accepted after a process of change and selection. The Pāli texts speak of four, five or seven balas, and the names vary. Only three items (vīrya, samādhi, and prajñā) are mentioned at Mū. ii, 290.9, and samādhi is omitted at Lal. V., 434.22. Chanda takes the place of śraddhā in several passages of the Lal. V. (239.1—262.8—434.19). This substitution of chanda for śraddhā gives us a glimpse into the early history of the pentad. Chanda was
associated with the idea of personal effort, as in the formulæ of the ṛddhi-pūdas and the sanyāk-prahānas. But śraddhā suggested pious devotion to the Buddha. Chanda gave place to śraddhā, as the Buddhists tended more and more to exalt the Buddha and depend on his help and grace instead of working out their own salvation with diligence and being their own “islands of refuge”. It is also to be noted that the same group of five (with chanda in the place of śraddhā) is incorporated in the formula of the eighteen āvemika-dharmas (special exclusive attributes) of a perfect Buddha (Nos. 7, 8, 9, 10, 11). It is almost certain that chanda originally occupied the place now accorded to śraddhā.

Another group of five balas is also mentioned in the Lal. V.: punya, prajñā, jñāna, ksānti, vīrya—{Lal. V. 316.15}.

We may also surmise that an attempt was made by some thinkers to add the two terms vimukti and vimukti-jñāna-darśana to the group of the five balas. The innovators failed in this case, though they succeeded in tacking these notions on to the three old skandhas of cīla, samādhi and prajñā. The five balas and indriyas represent important and fundamental Buddhist concepts. They are related more to the needs of the heroic monk than to those of the ordinary layman. They begin with Faith, take up three āṅgas (parts, limbs) of the eightfold Way (vīrya = vyāyāma, smṛti and samādhi), and end with the highest Wisdom. The formula was found so helpful that the Yoga school borrowed it from the Buddhists. It is found in identically the same form in the Yoga-sūtras (i, 20, page 23).

It is probable that the five balas were introduced into the formula of the thirty-seven dharmas after the five indriyas, as the latter are always mentioned before the balas in the list. Aśvaghosa indeed omits all mention of the indriyas at xvii, 26 of the Saund. Kā., where he speaks of the balas. This circumstance may lead us to suppose that the indriyas were not recognised as a group in his time. But he knew of them, as he refers to śraddh-endriya in the same poem (xii, 37). In fact, the five indriyas, which are included among the “bodhipakṣa-dharmas”, have been taken over from another old list of twenty-two indriyas, which also occurs in the Pāli canon. These twenty-two indriyas are enumerated in the M. V. (Section 108, page 156), but not in the Dh. S. It has been suggested that this list of indriyas is a revised and more elaborate form of the twenty-three or twenty-five categories (tattvas) of the Sāṅkhya system. But the
THE THIRTY-SEVEN "DHARMAS"

Buddhist list seems to include only the categories referring to the individual living being, and it does not analyse the external world. Thus the six external āyatanas (form, sound, odour, etc.) are excluded. It seems more likely that the philosophers of the Sāṅkhya school developed the idea suggested by the Buddhist categories and extended its scope (cf. Sāṅkhya-kārikā, verse 22, page 20). The twenty-two indriyas are placed in a peculiar order in the Pāli and Sanskrit texts, and the M. Vy, makes matters worse by putting jīvita at the end (instead of the ninth place, which it occupies in the Pāli list: Vibhanga, p. 123, lines 3 ff.).

The M. Vy. also places duḥkha before sukhā. It will perhaps make the list more intelligible, if we mention the items in the following order:—

(1) jīvita (life, vitality, vital spirits, vital principle).  
(2) Puruṣa (male).  
(3) Strī (female).  
(4) Cakṣus (the eye, or vision).  
(5) Ėtra (the ear, or hearing).  
(6) Ghrāṇa (the olfactory organ, or smelling).  
(7) Jihvā (the tongue, or taste).  
(8) Kāya (body-sensibility).  
(9) Manas (mind).  
(10) Duḥkha (pain).  
(11) Sukha (pleasure).  
(12) Saumanasaya (joy).  
(13) Daurmanasaya (grief).  
(14) Upekṣā (hedonic indifference, or equanimity).  
(15) Ėraddhā (faith).  
(16) Vīrya (energy).  
(17) Smṛti (mindfulness).  
(18) Samādhi (concentration).  
(19) Prajñā (wisdom).  
(20) An-ājñātam ājñāsyāmi (indriya), (the thought, "I shall come to know the unknown").  
(21) Ājñā (gnosis, knowledge).  
(22) Ājñātāti (one who possesses knowledge).

This list may be easily divided into its component parts. The first three categories are biological; the next six are the sense-organs and sense-functions. The five from No. 10 to No. 14 are feelings;
the next five (Nos. 15–19) are the important factors of Enlightenment, and the last three relate to the thought of Enlightenment, Enlightenment and the perfectly enlightened man.

Five indriyas (Nos. 15–19) have been taken out of this list and included among the thirty-seven bodhipakṣya-dharmas. This word indriya means, "belonging to the ruler," "governing, ruling, controlling principle," "directive force." These five indriyas are related to moral and spiritual qualities and values." (Pali Dicy.) The Sanskrit authors also interpret the term in the same sense. Ācyaghoṣa says that the categories are called indriyas as they are "chief or principal" factors: (Saund. Kā, xii, 37). Vasubandhu explains that they are of "sovereign importance" (ādhipaty-ārthen-endriyây-ucyante: M. S. Al., 143, 21.) The Tibetan equivalent, dban-po, also indicates the etymology of the term, as it means "Indra, powerful, mighty, a ruler, lord or sovereign" (Tib. Dicy., 908a). The word has been variously translated as "faculties", "mental energies", "organs of spiritual sense", "de fem organen for andlig fornimmelse", "organs of moral practice", "moral qualities", "die Vermögen", "les sens", etc. But it is advisable to avoid confusion by eschewing the words "organ" and "faculty" in translating this term, when it refers to these five indriyas. It should be rendered as "chief categories" or "chief controlling principles.

These five indriyas and balas are mentioned as a group in several passages of Buddhist Sanskrit literature (M. Vy, Sections 41, 42; Dh. S. Sections 47, 48; M. S. Al., 143, 19 ff.; Da. Bha., 39; Pr. Pā. Čaṇa., 1437). They are sometimes not called indriyas or balas (Lat. V., 245.5). A bodhisattva must cultivate them (bhāvyayati: Da. Bha., 39.) H. Kern thinks that the only difference between the indriyas and the balas is that the latter are more intense than the former. But there seems to be a radical distinction between the two categories. The indriyas are regarded as static in character, while the balas are dynamic. The word bala has been variously translated as "moral powers", "strengths," "forces," "virtues," etc. It is perhaps best to render it as "powers". The M. S. Al. explains that they are so called, because their contraries or opposites (vipakṣāḥ) are feeble (p. 143). Ācyaghoṣa teaches that the balas, which he describes as "noble" (āryāḥ), serve to destroy the five "mental obstructions" (cetaka-khilāni, literally, "waste or fallow land"); hence, "barrenness of mind"; Saund. Kā, xvii, 26). These five khilas are the
following:—(1) Doubt or misgivings about the Teacher (Buddha). (2) Doubt about the Doctrine. (3) Doubt about the Confraternity, or Order of Monks. (4) Doubt about the course of training. (5) Anger towards the other monks.274

The items, vīrya and prajñā, will be discussed as pāramitās; smṛti has been dealt with in the section on the smṛty-upasthānās; and samādhi will be treated in detail in connection with the dhyāna-pāramitā. We shall therefore now discuss only śraddhā and its relation to a bodhisattva’s career.

 hend the list, and the other six follow: (śīla, hṛi, apatrāpya, sruta, tyāga, prajñā).276 Čraddhā is also mentioned as the first of the four sampadi (blessings, accomplishments), viz. śraddhā, śīla, tyāga, prajñā, which are often spoken of in connection with the conversion and moral improvement of unbelieving, wicked, selfish or deluded persons.277 A bodhisattva is said to “establish unbelievers in the sampad of Faith”. Čraddhā is placed first in the list of the 108 dharmāloka-mukhas (entrances to the light of the Religion) in the Lal. V., and it figures twice again in that list as an indriya and a bala.278 According to the scheme of the ten bhūmis, a bodhisattva acquires ten “purifying principles” (pariṣodhakā dharmāḥ) in the very first bhūmi; and here too śraddhā occupies the first place, the other dharmas being love, friendliness, etc.279 It is also mentioned in the Čikṣā as the first of the four principles or qualities, which prevent a bodhisattva from falling away from the right path, the other three being Reverence (gaurava), Humility (nimnānātā) and Energy (vīrya).280 Thus there is remarkable unanimity among the Buddhist writers in giving śraddhā the first place in several numerical lists and formulae.

Čraddhā is said to be recommended by Gautama Buddha
himself as the starting-point of a pious Buddhist’s life in the new faith. The *Lal. V.* relates that Buddha did not wish to preach the Doctrine to the world after his Enlightenment, as he was not sure that the people were ripe for it. If they did not accept his teaching, it would mean only fruitless work and fatigue for him. But the *deva Mahâbrâhma* persuaded him to teach the people. Gautama Buddha then spoke of *sraddhā* as the first necessary condition for receiving religious instruction. Similarly, when Buddha exhorts Nanda in the *Saund. Kā.*, he puts *sraddhā* first: “Henceforward you should again guard your conduct. Cultivate first the *indriya* of *sraddhā* (or ‘let *sraddhā* be your guide’). Thus, friend, you will attain to the Deathless” (*Saund. Kā.*, xiii, 10).

*Sraddhā* has been accorded a prominent position by the Mahâyânist authors in another remarkable context. They have put *sraddhā* right into the old formula, which describes the renunciation of a monk and his initiation into the Order. This formula reads thus: “He left his home for the homeless life with right Faith, having removed his hair and his beard and donned reddish-yellow orange-coloured garments.” *Sraddhā* is often mentioned in connection with the renunciation of the home and the world (*sraddhâyā praṇavajita*).

Almost all Buddhist writers have sung the praises of *sraddhā* in eloquent words. “It leads to inviolable aspiration.” It renders a person independent of the guidance of others. It enables a *bodhisattva* to escape the power of Evil (*Māra*) and to put forth great Energy; but it must be rooted in *Dharma* (righteousness and religion). It is indeed the most excellent of all possessions. He, who has faith, will be rich in virtues. Faith gives constancy and strength. It is a rare gift, which is not easy to come by. *Sraddhā* is so blessed that she should be accorded divine honours and worshipped as a goddess. If a deed is purified by Faith, it will bear great fruit in increasing spiritual Merit. Faith is indeed like unto ambrosia, and its power fulfils all desires, when it is combined with the Thought of Enlightenment and Renunciation. Faith is like a ship, in which a *bodhisattva* can safely enter the great ocean of Virtue and Merit; but if he makes shipwreck, he cannot acquire supreme Wisdom. Faith is the seed of bright virtue (*çuklo dharmah*): if the seed he burned by fire, how can it put forth green sprouts? A *bodhisattva*, who is lacking in Faith, will
easily fall into the grievous sin of Pride. Without Faith, no one can even start on the long career of a bodhisattva, which begins with the "Thought of Enlightenment". Faith is the root of that idea. It leads the way; it is the parent of all virtues; it fosters and promotes them. It dispels all doubt and shows us the City of Bliss. It destroys Pride and gives joy to the pure mind. Through Faith, a bodhisattva rejoices in renunciation and charity, and becomes invincible on account of the increased keenness and radiance (clearness) of all his faculties and powers. He never swerves from the path of righteousness and discipline, especially as he is always devoted to the Church (saṅgha) and cannot be misled by bad friends. He is protected by the Buddhas; he acquires purity of will and purpose, and practises the pāramitās. He constantly thinks of the Buddhas and attains the ideal. Faith thus leads to the highest Enlightenment."

In this way, the Buddhist authors extol and magnify Faith. Ācāryāghoṣa also adds the human touch in a few simple verses:

"When a man needs water, he believes by Faith that it exists in the bowels of the earth. Then he digs the ground."

"The husbandman believes by Faith that grain will grow in the soil, otherwise he would not expect a crop or sow the seed". (Saund. Kā., xii, 33; 35.)

The persons, towards whom śraddhā should be directed, are the Buddhas, especially Gautama Buddha, and the higher bodhisattvas.

Three Additional Indriyas. It has been indicated above that the five indriyas have been taken from the comprehensive list of twenty-two, and then included among the thirty-seven bodhi-pakṣya-dharmas. But some philosophers have also attempted to associate three other important categories of that list with a bodhisattva's discipline. These are Nos. 20, 21 and 22, which represent the supreme goal of Wisdom. The Pr. Pa. Cūsa interprets these three last indriyas as referring to the initiation, development and consummation of the process of cultivating the five indriyas of śraddhā, viṛya, śmyti, samādhi and prajña. The novice is in the condition indicated by the indriya No. 20, "I shall know the unknown." When he has made some progress, he is in the stage of Gnosis (ājñā). When he has thoroughly acquired the five indriyas, he is a perfect adept (ājñātāvā). It should be stated, however, that most Buddhist writers do not deal with these three indriyas at all.
Ten Additional Bales. The Mahāyānīst authors were inclined to exalt and glorify the bodhisattvas and accord them a position of equal dignity and importance with the Buddhas. According to an old tradition, a Buddha possesses ten bales; (these have been enumerated in the section on “The Buddha”). An advanced bodhisattva was therefore also supposed to have ten bales (M. Vīy., Section 26; Dh. S., Section 75). But the epithet Daća-bala generally denotes a perfect Buddha, as the older tradition maintained itself in literature. These ten bales of a bodhisattva are of merely theoretical interest, and they are not described in detail in the principal treatises.

Here we have another of those numerical lists, with which Buddhist literature is over-burdened. To make matters worse, the items are not the same in the M. Vīy. and the Dh. S., which give two different lists. The Dh. S. attributes the following bales to a bodhisattva:—


(2) Pratisāṅkhyaṇa: “Power of computation” (Pali Dicv.)

Tibetan: So-Sor brtags-pa = “detailed examination” (Tib. Dicv., 557).

(3) Bhāva: “Cultivation or production by thought” (Pali Dicv.). Tibetan: bsam-pa = “thought, inclination” (Tib. Dicv., 1316).

(4) Kṛṣṭi: Forbearance, patience.

(5) Jñāṇa: “Knowledge.”

(6) Prāhāṇa: “Renunciation” (or perhaps, “Exertion”).

(7) Samādhi: “Concentration.”

(8) Pratīkhyāṇa: “Intelligence,” or “Readiness of Speech.”

(9) Puṇya: “Spiritual Merit.”


The M. Vīy. gives the following list:—

IX. The Seven Bodhy-āṅgas or Sambodhy-āṅgas.

A bodhisattva must cultivate and practise the seven bodhy-āṅgas or sambodhy-āṅgas (Factors or Constituents of Enlightenment. Pāli: bojjhanga sambbojhangā). This term bodhyāṅga has been variously translated as follows:

E. Burnouf: "Les parties constituant de la bodhi" (Lotus: p. 796).
T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: "Factors or Constituents of Knowledge or Wisdom" (Pāli Dicy.).
M. Añesaki: "Divisions of bodhi" (ERE. V. 455).
S. Lévi: "Les membres de l'Illumination" (M. S. M., tr., p. 241).
E. Hardy: "Forms of Wisdom" (Nettipakarana, xxxi).
P. E. Foucaux: "Les parties de l'intelligence parfaite" (Lal. V. tr., p. 35).
K. E. Neumann: "Die sieben Erweckungen" (Majjh. tr., ii, 329).
These Factors of Enlightenment are mentioned in several passages of Buddhist Sanskrit literature (Dh. S., Section 49 ; M. Vy., Section 43 ; Lal. V., 34.3 ff. ; Div., 208.9 ; M. S. Al., 144 ; Da. Bhā. 39 ; Cikā. 144.10 ; Pr. Pā. Čata., 1437, etc.). They are called bodhy-anigka dharmanā in the Da. Bhā. (57.22). According to the scheme of ten bhūmis, outlined in that treatise, the bodhy-anigas are associated with all the bhūmis. This teaching shows that the Mahāyānisists also attached considerable importance to them. The Equipment (sambhāra) of the bodhy-anigas serves to enlighten a bodhisattva with regard to the true nature of all phenomena. He accumulates and acquires this Equipment with unflagging zeal, and is never satisfied with his achievement.

These seven Factors of Enlightenment are as follows:

1. Śrāvī (Mindfulness). Śrāvī has been discussed in the section on the four smṛty-upasthānas.


The word pravīcaya has been variously translated as "examination", "research", "investigation", "study", "discernment", "discrimination", "le tri", "das Nachdenken", etc. The form sīcaya is also found (M. S. Al., 144.10). The form pravīcaya occurs in the Da. Bhā. (22.18), and pravīcita in the Mī. (ii, 346.3), which also speaks of Buddha’s loka-pravīcaya (ii, 290.3). T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede translate sīcaya as "investigation", which seems to be a suitable rendering (Pāli Dictionary).

The other word, dharma, presents some difficulties. Does it mean "the Law, the Doctrine, Buddhist Scriptures", or does it signify "things, phenomena"? L. de la Vallée Poussin and M. Anesaki approve of the latter interpretation. T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede translate: "Investigation of Doctrine" (Pāli Dicy., s.v.); and Lord Chalmers and R. O. Franke agree with them. The Lal. V. states that this bodhy-anigas helps a bodhisattva to fulfil the whole dharma. Vasubandhu teaches that this bodhy-anigas dispels all causes of doubt and uncertainty, and enables a bodhisattva to preach the dharma effectively. Such passages seem to prove that dharma in the name of this bodhy-anigas means "Doctrine, Scripture", and not "phenomena or things". E. R. J. Gooneratne thinks that it refers only to the four Truths. But this interpretation is perhaps too narrow. "Dharma" includes all that has been uttered and taught by the Buddha. The teaching of the Buddha has been divided into
twelve sections and sub-divisions: sutra (discourses), geya (mixed verse and prose), vyakarana (expository answers), gatha (poems), udana (solemn or triumphant utterances), ityukta (quotations), avadana (edifying stories), jataka (birth-stories), vaipulya (extended treatises or longer texts), adhutha-dharma (tales of wonder, miracles) and upadecha (treatises on esoteric ritual). These twelve categories of Scripture are collectively described as dhrama-pravacana (exposition of the Doctrine). An earlier list mentions only nine items and omits nidana, avadana and ityuttaka (ityukta). A bodhisattva gains several advantages from the study and investigation of the Doctrine. He develops all the elements of his personality and experiences sublime happiness at the hour of death. He is reborn according to his desire and always remembers his past existences. He associates with the Buddhas and hears the Doctrine preached by them. He is protected by magic spells, acquires Wisdom, Faith and Concentration, and finally attains Enlightenment.

A bodhisattva may also learn much about the dharma by receiving instruction orally from a competent teacher. In that case, he should listen with reverence, love and faith, and earnestly desire to acquire virtue and the knowledge of the Doctrine. He must get rid of pride and mental distraction.

(3) Virya (Pali: virojya). Virya will be discussed in the section on the paramitas.

(4) Priti (Pali: piti). This word, derived from the root pri, means "emotion of joy, delight, zest, exuberance" (Pali Dicy.). It has been variously translated as "bliss," "rapture," "le plaisir," "die Heiterkeit," "l'amabilité," "pleasurable interest," "le contentement," "joy in what one has attained," "die Froehlichkeit," etc. It is often associated with prasada (joy, satisfaction) and pramadha (delight). The sukha (happiness, pleasure) of priti (joy) is sometimes mentioned, especially in connection with the first dhyana. Priti is one of the indispensable qualifications of a bodhisattva. The Dhammasaugani explains it thus: "Gladness, rejoicing at, rejoicing over, mirth and merriment, felicity, exultation, transport of mind." As C. A. F. Rhys Davids has pointed out, priti connotes emotion as distinct from bare feeling. It is referred to the skandha of samskaras, and not to vedana (feeling), as it is a complex psychological phenomenon. The five species of priti, mentioned by Buddhaghosa, are not discussed by the principal Sanskrit writers.
is regarded as something ethereal, as some devas are said to have priti for their food. A bodhisattva attains to rapt Concentration by means of priti. Acraha teaches that priti arises from the cultivation of virtue, and it can save a bodhisattva from sloth and languor.

(5) Prastrabdhi (Pali: passaddhi). This word also occurs in two other forms: (1) prastrabdhi (Avad. C., i, 32.4). (2) Prasaddhi (Pr. Pa. C., 1438.4).

The adjective, prastrabdha, is often applied to the body and the mind. Literally, the word means “cessation, stopping”, as in the passages of the Dity and the Avad. C., where the stopping or cessation of miraculous power and of pain is spoken of. In the compound apratiprasadha-margah (M. Vy., Section 30, page 63), it means “interrupted”. As a philosophical term, prastrabdhi came to signify “cessation of pain”, “serenity”, “tranquillity.”

It has been variously translated as follows:—

M. Anesaki: “Satisfaction” (ERE, v. 455).
P. E. Foucaux: “L’assurance” (Lal. V. tr., p. 35).
E. R. J. Gooneratne: “Pacification of the mental and bodily defilements” (Anguttara trsln., p. 55).

E. H. Johnston: “Prasaddhi is properly the feeling of intense, almost buoyant calm, that ensues on the sudden cessation of great pain, and has a similar meaning, as applied to the mind” (Sawnd. K., p. 156).

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: “Calm, tranquillity, repose, serenity” (Pali Dicy.).
Monier Williams: “Trust, confidence” (Skt. Dicy. 646).
Bahltingk and Roth: “Vertrauen.”
S. Levi: “La Rémisison” (M. S. Al. tr., p. 242).
Lord Chalmers: “Serenity” (Majjh. tr., ii, 7).

In the terminology of Buddhist philosophy, prastrabdhi signifies “tranquillity, serenity,” whatever the original meaning of the root prambh, rabh may have been. It is often associated with
priti. As a bodhi-anga, it helps a bodhi-sattva to do his duty. Açvaghoṣa teaches that tranquillity springs from joy and leads to felicity.

(6) Samādhi. Samādhi will be discussed in the section on dhyāna-pāramitā.

(7) Upekkhā (Pāli: upekkhā, upekkha). This word is derived from the root īk, and literally means "looking on". It has been variously translated as follows:—

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: "hedonic neutrality or indifference, zero point between joy and sorrow; disinterestedness, neutral feeling, equanimity"; "sometimes equivalent to feeling, which is neither pain nor pleasure" (Pāli Dicy.).

S. Lévi: "L'Apathie" (M. S. Al. tr., 242).


Lord Chalmers: "The Poise of Indifference" (Majjh. tr., ii, 7).


P. E. Foucaux: "La patience" (Lat. V. tr., p. 35).


Upekkhā (Equanimity) is an important term in Buddhist philosophy. It is one of the twenty-two indriyas, which have been mentioned above. It is also one of the four brahma-vihāras (Excellent or Sublime States), which a bodhi-sattva cultivates. Thus it occurs in three numerical lists. It is also mentioned in the sentences that describe the four dhyānas.

The exact connotation of this term has been indicated in several Pāli passages. Upekkhā is one of the ten pāramis (Perfections), which are mentioned in the later Pāli treatises. According to the Cariya-pitaka, it consists in preserving the same mental attitude in all circumstances, in joy and sorrow, in fame and obloquy, and in gain and loss. The Dhamma-sangani explains it thus: "It is the mental condition, which is neither pleasant nor unpleasant, the sensation or the feeling, which is neither careful nor painful." In the Jātaka, the Perfection of upekkhā is described in these words: "I lay down in the cemetery (cremation-ground) and my pillow consisted of the bones of the corpses."
His equanimity was not disturbed, even when the villagers tried to vex or please him by spitting or by offering garlands and perfumes, and thus he acquired the Perfection of uppekkhā.\(^{333}\)

The Tibetan equivalent is \textit{bdan-sñoms} (\textit{Lal. V. Tib.}, p. 36, line 18). According to S. Lévi, it means, "l'équilibre par rejet."\(^{334}\) S. C. Das explains thus: "\textit{Btan-sñoms} is a word signifying impartial and equal treatment of friend or foe, i.e., to abstain from anger or affection for friends and relations, equal treatment to all living beings without either attachment or hatred" (Tib. Dicy. 529a). \textit{Upekṣā} thus seems to denote the mental state of equanimity under all favourable and unfavourable circumstances, and also the practice of impartiality in one's conduct towards others. Kṣemendra and a commentator of the \textit{Pr. Pā. Aṣṭa} emphasize the latter aspect of \textit{upekṣā}.\(^{335}\) The other Mahāyānists authors also regard it as a principle of action, and not merely as a subjective psychological phenomenon. When \textit{upekṣā} is regarded as "equanimity", it is the neutral middle term between \textit{sukha} and \textit{duḥṣa}. When it is interpreted as "impartiality", it is the neutral middle term between \textit{anunaya} (friendliness) and \textit{pratīgha} (repugnance); it then corresponds to \textit{udāśina} (neutral), which is the mean between \textit{mitra} and \textit{amitra}. \textit{Upekṣā} has something in common with the "Apathy" of the Stoics of Greece and Rome.\(^{336}\)

A \textit{bodhisattva}, who cultivates \textit{upekṣā}, does not hurt or injure any living being.\(^{337}\) He does not love or hate anything or anyone. Gold and a stone are the same to him.\(^{338}\) He develops a feeling of aversion to mundane existence (or to the idea of personal existence).\(^{339}\) He acquires the certitude of knowledge.\(^{340}\) He is free from sorrow, as he has transcended the feelings of love and hate.\(^{341}\)

These seven \textit{bodhi-āṅgas} as a group are highly valued and appreciated by all the Sanskrit authors, Hinayānists and Mahāyānists alike. A Buddha is said to be richly endowed with "the flowers of the \textit{bodhi-āṅgas}";\(^{342}\) but they are usually spoken of as "jewels and gems" (\textit{ratnāmi}).\(^{343}\) The commentator of the \textit{M. S. Al.} works out the simile in detail and compares the seven \textit{bodhi-āṅgas} to the seven \textit{ratnas} of a universal monarch. According to the Indian tradition, a monarch (\textit{cakra-vartin}) possessed seven "jewels" : a wheel (\textit{cakra}), an elephant (\textit{hasti}), a horse (\textit{aśva}), a gem (\textit{manī}), a woman (\textit{strī}), a treasurer or manager (\textit{grha-pati}), and an adviser or Marshal (\textit{parināyaka}). Vasubandhu applies this idea to a \textit{bodhisattva}, who cultivates the seven \textit{bodhi-āṅgas}.\(^{344}\)
Smrti (Mindfulness) gains the knowledge that has not been acquired, as a monarch’s wheel conquers new territory. Dharma-pravicaaya (Investigation of the Doctrine) dispels all doubt, as the monarch’s elephant destroys his enemies. Virya (Energy) enables a bodhisattva to understand everything quickly and acquire the Super-knowledges (abhiijña) rapidly, as the monarch’s horse traverses the whole earth as far as the ocean. A strenuous bodhisattva gains more and more of the Light of Truth and is therefore filled with Joy (priti), as the monarch is pleased with the lustre of the gem. A bodhisattva, who has cultivated prashrabdi ( Tranquillity), is freed from all mental obstructions and evil qualities \(^{344}\) and attains felicity, as the monarch enjoys happiness with the woman (queen). By samādi, a bodhisattva succeeds in the aim that he has contemplated, as the monarch achieves success with the help of his grha-pati (steward). By upekṣa, a bodhisattva lives and goes wherever he likes, without let or hindrance, as the monarch’s adviser or Marshal manages the army with its four divisions, and leads it to the place where it can have its encampment without any trouble.\(^{344}\)

Thus does Vasubandhu, the commentator of the M. S. A., show his appreciation of the seven bodhi-aṅgas. Āryaghoṣa does not indulge in such play of fancy, but he exhorts a bodhisattva to destroy the seven anusayás (evil proclivities and tendencies) of the heart by means of these seven Factors of Enlightenment.\(^{345}\) These anusayás are pride, doubt, ignorance, lust, hatred, delusion, and the craving for rebirth.

X. The Eightfold Way and the Four Noble Truths

It is a curious circumstance that the eightfold Way is included among the thirty-seven bodhi-paksiya-dharmas, but the four Noble Truths (ārya-satyāmi) are not found in that formula. The eightfold Way itself is the fourth of the “Truths” that Gautama Buddha is said to have discovered on the night, during which he attained Enlightenment.\(^{344}\) The eightfold Way is thus torn from its original context in the formula of the bodhi-paksiya-dharmas. It cannot be explained or understood without reference to the three other Truths that lead up to it. The Mahāyānists or semi-Mahāyānists, who devised that numerical list of the bodhi-paksiya-dharmas, attached more importance to the eightfold Way than to the three other Truths, as the latter are merely theoretical in character and
also suggest pessimism. The "eightfold Way", on the contrary, consists of positive and practical precepts, and it breathes a spirit of optimism. The author of the *Da. Bhūa* even puts the cart before the horse in his scheme of the ten bhūmis. A bodhisattva is supposed to practise the virtues and comprehend the principles that are embodied in the eightfold Way, while he is in the fourth bhūmi; but he understands the four Noble Truths subsequently in the fifth bhūmi.\(^{347}\) It is not explained how a bodhisattva can start on the eightfold Way without first realising the other three Truths, of which it is only a sequel. As a matter of fact, the Mahāyāṇists did not attach much importance even to the eightfold Way. They taught that the six or ten pāramitās (Perfections) were the most important factors in a bodhisattva's career. The *Sad. Pu* explicitly declares that the arhats (i.e. the Hinayāṇists) preach the four Noble Truths and the twelve nidānas, while the bodhisattvas (i.e. the Mahāyāṇists) teach the pāramitās.\(^{348}\) The *Da. Bhūa* and the *M. S. Al.* devote only a few lines to the eightfold Way. This difference of opinion between the Hinayāṇists and the Mahāyāṇists is reflected in Buddhist Sanskrit literature. The *Avu. Ça.* and the *Dīvy.,* which belong mainly to the Hinayāṇa, speak of the four Truths as the fundamental doctrines of Buddhism, while the later treatises only mention them briefly without attaching great importance to them. The *Lal. V.* and the *Mtu.* transmit the older tradition, as they record the earliest sermons of Gautama Buddha; but they also value the pāramitās as the essential elements of a bodhisattva's discipline.

(a) The Four Noble Truths.

The four Truths are called ārya-satyāni (Pāli: ariyasaccañi).\(^{349}\) The word ārya (Pāli: ariya) literally means, "that which is in accord with the customs and ideals of the Aryan clans, held in esteem by Aryans, generally approved. Hence: right, good, ideal" (Pāli *Dīcy.,* s.v.). The four Truths may thus be described as "sublime or noble" Truths. They are mentioned in several passages of Buddhist Sanskrit literature (*Lal. V.*, 350-5, 416, 2 ff.; *Mtu.*, i, 285-3; ii, 331, 17 ff.; *M. Vf.*, Sections 54, 56, 112; *Dh. S.*, Section 214; *Da. Bhūa*, 42, 17 ff.; *Madh.*, 475 ff., etc.).

The *Lal. V.* relates that Gautama Buddha explained the four Truths to the five disciples in his first sermon after the attainment of Enlightenment. He said: "O monks (bhikṣus), these are the
four sublime Truths. What are the four? Pain (Duḥkha), the origination (samudaya) of Pain, the cessation (nirrodaya) of Pain, and the Way (mārga) leading to the cessation of Pain. Then what is Pain? Birth is Pain (or Evil); old age is Pain; disease is Pain; death is Pain; union with that which is disagreeable is Pain; separation from that which is agreeable is Pain; when one does not obtain what one desires and seeks, that is Pain. In short, the five elements or substrata of sensory existence, which depend on attachment to existence, are Pain. All this is called Pain. Then what is the origin of Pain? This Craving (tṛṣṇā), which leads to renewed existence, which is accompanied by the lust of sense-desire, and which takes delight in various objects (literally, "there and there"), even this is called the origin of Pain. Then what is the cessation (or destruction—nirrodaya) of Pain? The complete renunciation and destruction of this same craving, accompanied by the lust of sense-desire, which takes delight in various objects, and which, as the cause of Birth and Rebirth, leads to renewed existence. Then what is the Way leading to the cessation of Pain? It is this same eightfold Way (literally, "with eight members or limbs"): Right Views, Right Intention, Right Speech, Right Action, Right Livelihood, Right Endeavour, Right Mindfulness and Right Concentration. These are the four sublime Truths." (Lal. V., 417.2 ff.)

The M. Vy. analyses the clauses in this sermon that refer to the different forms of Pain, and it enumerates the eight items (birth, old age, etc.). These are called "the eight duḥkhatās" (forms of duḥkha). Çantideva adds a few others, e.g., the pain of poverty, the pain of rebirth in a state of woe, and the pain of a sojourn in the world of Yama. Another scheme of classifying the duḥkhatās (forms or states of pain) was also introduced. Three duḥkhatās are spoken of, viz. (1) duḥkha-duḥkhatā (painful sensation caused by bodily pain); (2) samskāra-duḥkhatā (pain having its origin in the samskāras, volitions or compounds, which are impermanent); and (3) viparināma-duḥkhatā (pain caused by change). The author of the Da. Bhā. places them in this order: samskāra-duḥkhatā, duḥkha-duḥkhatā and parināma-duḥkhatā. He changes viparināma to parināma in describing the third duḥkhatā, and also attempts to relate these duḥkhatās to the twelve nidānas ("causes"); vide infra. Thus samskāra-duḥkhatā is due to the first five nidānas (avidyā, samskārāh,
vijñāna, nāma-rūpa and ād-āyatana; duḥkha-duḥkhata arises from the next two nidānas (sparśa and vedanā); and the third duḥkhata originates in the remaining five nidānas (trīṇā, upādāna, bhava, jāti and jāra-marāṇa, etc.).

The Buddhist philosophers have also mentioned three aspects of each of the Truths, thus making a twelfold scheme of "insight into Knowledge" (jñāna-darśanam) or of "the wheel of the Doctrine" (cakram). Each Truth receives three parivartas (turnings, revolutions), and is regarded in three ways, viz. (1) As the knowledge of the Truth obtained by thorough reflexion; (2) as something which is to be realised, practised and cultivated; (3) as something which has already been known, realised, practised and cultivated. This scheme of classification seems to have been generally accepted, as it is explained at length in the Lal. V. and also frequently mentioned in other treatises. An attempt was also made to introduce another formula with sixteen sub-divisions, but it failed to win general recognition. This formula is as follows:

Duḥkha. (a) Duḥkhe dharma-jñāna-ksāntih (Acceptance of the knowledge of the Law with regard to Pain).

(b) Duḥkhe dharma-jñānam (Knowledge of the Law with regard to Pain).

(c) Duḥkhe-nvaya-jñāna-ksāntih (Acceptance of the traditional or retrospective knowledge with regard to Pain).

(d) Duḥkhe-nvaya-jñānam (Retrospective or traditional knowledge with regard to Pain).

Similarly, each of the three other Truths (samudaya, mārga and mārga) are amplified in these four ways, thus making sixteen items in all (M. Vy., Section 56; Dh. Ṣ., Section 96; Mdh., p. 482).

Apart from these elaborate and systematic statements, the Buddhist writers have also given us a few concise aphorisms, which assert the universal nature of duḥkha. "All this is Pain, not Happiness." "All the five skandhas are Pain." "Pain is like disease." "Pain grows surely and certainly, like weeds in a field." "Pain is assuredly everywhere, and Happiness is nowhere to be found." "Life is the epitome of all Pain." This fundamental pessimism became the cardinal feature of almost all Indian systems of philosophy. The Yoga school borrowed the idea and the fourfold formula from the Buddhists. Patañjali declares that life is only Pain to a wise man; and Vyāsa, the commentator,
speaks of **samsāra** (trans migratory existence), its cause (**hetu**), liberation (**mokṣa**) and the means or expedients for its attainment (**mokṣa-ôpâya**). (Yo. Sū., ii, 15, p. 74.) Vyāsa also refers to the usual formula of medical science: "disease, its cause, health, and the medicine or drugs prescribed." (p. 78). It has been suggested that the Buddhists borrowed the formula from the medical treatises. But medical science was not highly developed in India in the sixth and fifth centuries B.C. It is more likely that the writers on medicine were indebted to Buddhist literature for the four terms. There is nothing very original or striking in the idea of putting these four propositions together, and the formula belongs to the earliest Buddhist texts in a historical sense. From that source, it found its way into the literature of **Yoga** philosophy and medical science.

The few Sanskrit treatises that belong mainly to the Hīnayāna represent the four Truths as the central and fundamental dogmas of Buddhism. The **Avad. Ga.** and the **Divy.** teach that a person, who understands these Truths, has attained the first stage on the way to **arhatship**. Gautama Buddha converts the people by first expounding these Truths, which are always mentioned as constituting the theme of the sermons. The Mahāyānist authors, on the contrary, do not attach much importance to the four Truths. The **M. S. Al.**, for instance, does not mention them at all. The Mahāyānistists really took up a new attitude towards the problem of **Duhkha**. The older tradition of Buddhism emphasised the fact of Pain so persistently that it tended to generate a kind of morbid cowardice in the **arhat**, who learned to avoid Pain at all costs and under all circumstances. But the Mahāyāna introduced the new and revolutionary idea that Pain (**duḥkha**) should be welcomed with joy, if it is endured in the service of other creatures. This alchemy of altruism transmuted evil into good, and led to a thorough re-valuation of all values. **Duhkha** and **sukha** were recognised to be relative terms, and a **bodhisattva** was exhorited to suffer **duhkha** for the good of others. The whole basis of Buddhist philosophy, theoretical and practical, was thus radically altered. The centre of gravity was shifted from **duḥkha** (Pain) to **kāma** (Love), and the formula of the four Truths was not regarded as the central doctrine of the religion. The new ideal is expounded by almost all the Mahāyānist authors. Candra- gomin defines it in a concise phrase: "Pain (endured) for the sake of others is Happiness" (**par-ārthe duḥkham sukham**).
Kṣemendra says: "Pain is regarded as happiness by those, who sacrifice themselves for doing good to others." The author of the *M. S. At.* declares that a bodhisattva feels profound joy even in pain on account of his great compassion. He is prepared to suffer in a purgatory or other states of woe in order to save all creatures. He thinks only of the interests of others, and not of the pain endured. He is not afraid of duḥkha, and he may indeed be said to be closely associated with duḥkha, though he is free from it in another sense. It is clear that these Mahāyānist philosophers exhibit a new attitude towards duḥkha, and they have travelled far from the negative and pessimistic standpoint of the early Buddhists. For this reason, they do not think that the comprehension of the four Truths is the beginning of Wisdom. They also rise to a higher point of view, when they declare that an advanced bodhisattva is really beyond and above both Pain and Pleasure. He does not associate the notion of Pain or Pleasure with anything in the universe. Such is a bodhisattva's perfection of insight with regard to Pain.

*(b) The Eightfold Way*

The fourth of the Noble Truths is "the eightfold Way" (Pāli: *atthāṅgiko maggo*). In Sanskrit, the first word is found in two forms: (1) *aṭṭāṅga* (*Mtu.* iii, 332.10; *Lal. V.*, 417.13; *M. Vy.*, section 44; *Pr. Pā. Čata.*, 1010.14; *Kar. Pu.*, 106.31; *Sam. Rā.*, fol. 193b, 3; *Avv. Ča.*, i, 232.3, etc.

(2) *Aṭṭāṅgika* (*Divy. 164.14; Kā. Vya.*, 46.1; *Dh. S.*, section 50; *Mtu.*, iii, 335.12; *Lka.*, 204, verse 117, etc.).

The latter form corresponds to the Pāli, but the former occurs more frequently in the Sanskrit treatises. The phrase means; "The Way, which has eight constituents or parts, or embraces eight items." It is also called a *vitiḥ* (street or road).

This Way was taught by Gautama Buddha to his first disciples as a middle path between excessive unbridled sensuality on the one hand and severe self-mortification on the other. He said to them in his first sermon: "O monks (*bhikkhu*), there are two extremes that a monk should avoid. Attachment to sensual pleasures is low and vulgar; it is fit only for the ordinary persons and not at all for the noble disciples; it is associated with evil; it is not conducive in the sequel to the spiritual life, to disgust with the world, to dispassionateness, to destruction (of Pain), to insight, to perfect Wisdom and to final Liberation. And this (other)
extreme course, which consists in the practice of mortifying (tormenting) one's body, this is also painful and associated with evil; it causes Pain in this present existence and also results in Pain in the future. The Tathāgata, avoiding these two extremes, teaches the Doctrine of the Middle Way."

It may be inferred that the eightfold Way occupies an independent position by itself, although it is also included in the formula of the Four Truths. It is placed before those Truths in the Lal. V., and the Mtu. Those Buddhist Sanskrit writers, who maintain the tradition of the Hinayāna, hold it in high esteem; but the Mahāyānists dismiss it with a few words. The author of the Āva. Ça. relates the story of Subhadra, who is told by Gautama Buddha that the eightfold Way constitutes the essential and central principle of the new religion. "In whatever religious Discipline, the noble eightfold Way is not found, there the pramanas (holy, saintly men) of the first, second, third or fourth degree are not found... In this religious Discipline, the eightfold Way is found, and the pramanas of the four degrees are also found in it." A perfect Buddha is praised in the same treatise as "the teacher of the eightfold Way". The ideal of moderation is also emphasised by Kṣemendra, who employs the simile of the lute-string for this purpose. "If the string is stretched too much or too little, no music can be produced; even so a wise man should cultivate moderation." The Middle Way is indeed the ambrosia of piety; it is the one blessed Way for all Buddhists.

The eightfold Way is mentioned in several passages of Buddhist Sanskrit literature; but it is not thoroughly discussed in detail, as it is in the Pāli canon. The eight items are as follows:

(1) Samyag-dṛṣṭi (Pāli: sammā-dīṭṭhi): "Right Views." The word dṛṣṭi has been variously translated as "doctrine", "la vue"; "belief", "faith", "outlook", "opinion", etc. The English word "View" corresponds literally and etymologically to Sanskrit drṣṭi. The Dhamma-saṅgani seems to identify samyag-dṛṣṭi with Wisdom in general, and its verbose explanation does not exactly define the meaning of this word. In other Pāli passages, samyag-dṛṣṭi is said to denote belief in the utility of alms, sacrifices, oblations and good deeds, and in the existence of other worlds, of spontaneously generated beings and of holy saints and monks. But such interpretations seem to be unsuitable and far-fetched. The author of the Pr. Pā. Ça. explains samyag-dṛṣṭi as "faith..."
in the Buddha, the Doctrine and the Confraternity or Church (dharma, saṅgha). The M. S. Añ. defines it as "conformity to the knowledge of things as they are (or to the insight into Truth)." But it is perhaps admissible to suppose that samyag-dṛṣṭi originally referred to the comprehension of the four Noble Truths, which were mentioned with the eight-fold Way in Buddha's first sermon and which were regarded as the cardinal dogmas of Buddhism. This view is also confirmed by several important Pāli passages. The Lat. V. teaches that samyag-dṛṣṭi helps a bodhisattva to observe the Rule.

(2) Samyak-saṅkalpa (Pāli: sammā-saṅkappa): The word saṅkalpa has been variously translated as "aspiration", "resolve", "thoughts", "aim", "intention", "decision", "la combinaison", "la volonté", "le jugement", "die Gesinnung", "das Entschliessen", etc. The Dhammasangani regards it as synonymous with vitakka (Sections 7, 283 and 298). It explains thus: "The discrimination, the application, which is the disposing, the fixing, the focussing, the super-posing of the mind, right intention, which is a component of the Way, and is contained in the Way." The Sangīti-suttanta of the Digha-Nikāya mentions three kusala saṅkappā and three akusala saṅkappā, the latter being "sense-desires, enmity, and cruelty." The same triad is mentioned in several passages of the Majjhima-Nikāya, and sammā-saṅkappo is said to consist in renunciation, goodwill (anibbāna) and kindness (abhinandana). Rhys Davids and W. Stede render sammā-saṅkappo as "Right thoughts or intentions" (Pāli Dicy.). It is perhaps best to translate, "Right Intention," thus preserving the singular number as in the original. The Tibetan equivalent rög-pa (Lal. V. Tib., 362.21) means "ideas, thought, full comprehension" (Tib. Dicy., Das., 539). According to Vasubandhu, samyak-saṅkalpa consists in the analysis and arrangement of the knowledge that constitutes samyag-dṛṣṭi. He thus establishes a close relation between samyag-dṛṣṭi and samyak-saṅkalpa. The Lat. V. teaches that right Intention enables a bodhisattva to get rid of all doubt, uncertainty and indecision.

(3) Samyag-vāk (Pāli: sammā-vācā): Right Speech. A bodhisattva's duties with regard to Speech will be discussed in the sections on śīla and the saṅgraha-vastūni (vide infra).

(4) Samyak-kammānta (Pāli: sammā-kammapa). The word kammānta has been translated as "conduct", "action", "la
THE THIRTY-SEVEN "DHARMAS"

fin de l'œuvre", etc. Its general meaning is "doing, acting, working, work, business, occupation, profession". The Dhammasangani (Section 300) defines it as "tihi kāya-duccaritehi ārati virati" (aversion to and abstention from the three errors of conduct), and it is understood as referring to the avoidance of the bodily sins of killing, theft and unchastity in some other Pāli passages. But this interpretation is surely too narrow. It is best to interpret it in a general sense: "Right Action."

(5) Samyag-ājīva (Pāli: sammā-ājīva): Right livelihood or mode of earning one's livelihood. A bodhisattva must have a pure and honest mode of gaining his livelihood. Various dishonest or unsuitable pursuits and professions are described in some Pāli passages. But we do not find a similar list in the principal Sanskrit treatises.

(6) Samyag-vyāyāma (Pāli: sammā-vyāyāma): "Right Endeavour." The word vyāyāma is derived from the root yam, "to stretch out," "to extend." It originally signified "struggle, fight", and also "physical exertion and athletic exercise". But the Buddhists employed it in a spiritual sense to denote "moral striving, effort, exertion, endeavour". The Dhammasangani (Sections 13, 22, 289, 302) regards it as a synonym of vīrya (Energy), and it is interpreted in the same way thus: "the striving and the onward effort, the exertion and endeavour, the zeal and ardour, the vigour and fortitude, the state of unfaltering effort, the state of sustained desire, the state of unflinching endurance, etc." A bodhisattva, who practises vyāyāma indefatigably, eliminates all obstacles to knowledge and reaches the further shore of transmigratory existence.

The word vyāyāma has been translated as "effort", "energy", "exertion", "application", "tension", "perseverance in well-doing", "das Mühm", etc. The Tibetan equivalent rtsol-ba (Lal. V. Tib., p. 363, line 1) means "zeal, endeavour, exertion, diligence, perseverance" (Tib. Dicy., Das, 1015).

(7) Samyak-smiti (Pāli: sammā-sati): Right Mindfulness. The term has been discussed in the section on the four smṛty-upasthānas.

(8) Samyak-samādhi (Pāli: sammā-samādhi): Right Concentration. The term samādhi will be discussed in the section on Dhyāna-pāramitā.

It is probable that the Buddhists borrowed the word samyak
from the Jainas, who employed it in their well-known formula: Samyag-darśana-jñāna-caritrāni. The Jainas also reckon eight aṅgas of the samyag-darśana. E. Senart has suggested that the eightfold Way may be compared to the eight aṅgas of the Yoga philosophy. But there is really very little in common between these two formulae, for the eight aṅgas of Yoga are: yama (moral abstentions), niyama (observances), āsana (postures), prāṇāyāma (regulation of the breath), pratyāhāra (withdrawal of the senses), dīrgha (fixed attention), dhyāna (contemplation) and samādhi (concentration: Ye. Sa, ii 29, page 101). The number of the items in such formulae is due to the old custom of counting by tetrads, which was also applied to the Olympiads of Greece.

The principle of moderation, which is embodied in the eightfold Way, constitutes a link between Indian and Hellenic thought. Aristotle defined Virtue as the mean between two extremes: "Virtue is a mean state between two vices, one in excess, the other in defect." This noble ideal was discovered and formulated independently in India and Greece.
Chapter V

THE PĀRAMITĀS

A bodhisattva must practise the six or ten pāramitās (Perfections). This important word pāramitā has also been translated as "transcendental virtue", "perfect virtue", "highest perfection", "complete attainment", "die Vollkommenheit", etc. The form pārami is also found (Divy., 637, 5; mantrānām pāramiṃ gateḥ). In Pāli, the forms pārami and pāramitā occur in the Sutta-nipāta, the Jātaka, the Nettipakarana and other treatises; and T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede translate: "completeness, perfection, highest state" (Pāli Dicy.). The term pāramitā has been wrongly explained by Böhtlingk and Roth, Monier Williams, E. Burnouf, B. Hodgson and M. Vassilief as consisting of two words, pāram (the opposite bank, the further shore), and ita (gone, from the root i, Skt. Dicy., M.W. 566c). Böhtlingk and Roth regard it as a contracted form of the abstract substantive pāramitātā (the quality of having gone to the further shore). But E. Burnouf thinks that it is an adjectival participle, which really qualifies a suppressed substantive like buddhi, but which is employed as a substantive on account of its similarity to other abstract nouns ending in -tā. He says: "Ce mot, en effet, est le féminin de l'adjectif pāramita signifiant, 'celui qui est allé à l'autre rive, transcendant,' mais ce n'est ni ce ne peut être un substantif. Or c'est comme substantif que l'emploient les Bouddhistes... Peut-être le mot de pāramitā se rapporte-il à quelque terme sous-entendu, comme celui de buddhi, l'Intelligence, par exemple, de sorte qu'on devrait traduire les noms des diverses Perfections de cette manière: (l'Intelligence) parvenue à l'autre rive de la sagesse, de l'aumône, de la charité, et ainsi des autres... Je dirai seulement que l'expression de pāramitā, une fois introduite dans la langue avec l'ellipse que je suppose, a pu y rester et y prendre par extension la valeur d'un substantif, à cause de sa ressemblance extérieure avec un nom abstrait tel que ceux qu'on forme au moyen de la syllabe -tā". E. Burnouf also refers to T. Goldstücker's
view that the word is derived from Sanskrit parama (= "most distant; last; highest, first, most excellent or distinguished, best, greatest, chief, primary, principal, superior". Skt. Dicy., M.W. 535a). T. Goldstücker was on the right track, but he unfortunately thought that pārami meant "daughter of parama, i.e. of Buddha". Pāramitā is really derived from parama (and not from pāra with the root i), as the Bo. Bhū. clearly explains. The pāramitās are so called, because they are acquired during a long period of time (paramena kālena samudāgatāḥ), and are supremely pure in their nature (paramayā svabhāva-viśuddhā viśuddhāḥ). They also transcend the virtues or qualities of the grāvakaś and the pratyeka-buddhas, and lead to the highest result (paramam ca phalam anuprayaschanti). It is not necessary to accept all the details that are given in the Bodhisattva-bhūmi. But the derivation of the term from parama is thus placed beyond the possibility of doubt. It simply means, "highest condition, highest point, best state, perfection." F. W. Thomas, T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede explain it as a substantive derived from parama, while L. de la Vallée Poussin expresses himself enigmatically: "les vertus d'au-delà, parce que leur mérite est appliqué à l'acquisition de la qualité de Bouddha." The Tibetan equivalent is pha-rol-tu-phyin-pa. S. C. Das explains thus: "to get to the other side; in Buddhism, crossing to the other side of this life, i.e. to Nirvāṇa; absolute transcendental virtue" (Tib. Dicy., 817b). This seems to confirm E. Burnouf's view that pāramitā is derived from pāra. But it only proves that the Tibetan translators did not know the correct etymology of the term. The Bodhisattva-bhūmi, cited above, connects it with parama. Unfortunately, the Chinese also seem to have made the same mistake as the Tibetans. According to E. J. Eitel, they translate pāramitā as "means of passing, arrival at the other shore" (p. 115a). The earlier and alternative form pārami also points to the derivation from parama. The suffix -tā was probably added to it on the analogy of the abstract substantives ending in -tā. It has been suggested that a compound like dāna-pāramitā may be explained as "the quality or condition of a person, who is a dāna-pārami, i.e. who possesses the pārami or highest point of dāna or charity." In this case, the suffix -tā would be added to a bahu-vrihi compound (dānasya pārami yasya). But the two words in such a compound as dāna-pāramitā seem to stand in direct apposition, and it is better to construe thus: dānam eva
pāramitā dāna-pāramitā. The virtue of charity is itself the Perfection.

The six pāramitās are really the chief factors in a bodhisattva’s discipline, and the four additional pāramitās are merely supplementary in character. The six pāramitās are mentioned and discussed in many passages of Buddhist Sanskrit literature, while the seventh, eighth, ninth and tenth pāramitās are mentioned only in a few passages and are not explained at great length. Thus the Bo. Bhū. classifies each of the six chief pāramitās under nine separate headings, but it dismisses the other four pāramitās in a few sentences in another chapter. The M. S. Al. adopts the same method of treatment. The Dh. S. gives six pāramitās in one section and ten in another; but the M. Vy. speaks only of ten pāramitās. The Da. Bhū. definitely increases the number of the pāramitās to ten, as it teaches that a bodhisattva practises one of the pāramitās in each of the ten bhūmis (stages) of his career. This alteration may have been due to the rivalry with the Hīnayānists, who had devised the Pāli formula of the ten pāramis (dāna, liberality; sīla, virtuous conduct; nekkhamma, renunciation; panna, wisdom; viriya, energy; khanti, forbearance; sacca, truthfulness; adhiṭṭhāna, resolution; metta, love or friendliness; upakkha, equanimity). But it is more probable that the number of the pāramitās (and the bhūmis) was raised to ten as a consequence of the invention of the decimal system of computation in the science of arithmetic in the third or fourth century A.D. A. F. R. Hoernle assigns the subject-matter of the Bakhshali manuscript to that period. The oldest epigraphical evidence for this remarkable discovery dates from the sixth century, and the literary evidence belongs to the same period, as the system is employed by Varāhamihira. Many old formulae of Indian philosophy and religion were recast according to the decimal system on account of the enthusiasm evoked by this epoch-making invention. Even the time-hallowed yamas and niyamas of the Yoga system are increased to ten in the later treatises. The Samudhi-rāja-sūtra mentions ten advantages of each pāramitā (chapter xxviii). The Bo. Bhū. assigns ten causes for the phenomena. In the Da. Bhū., a bodhisattva acquires ten qualities in each stage, must beware of ten faults, and so on. The M. S. Al. speaks of ten marks, and the M. Vy. raises the number of caryās from four to ten. There is a sudden transition to the decimal system in many categories and formulae of Indian religion and philosophy. Previous teachers had
preferred the numbers Seven and Eight (e.g. seven bhūmis, fourteen guṇa-isthānas of the Jainas, the eightfold Way, the eight angas of Šūka, etc.). But the number Ten is associated with many lists and items after this period. The six pāramitās were also increased to ten, when the bhūmis were reckoned as ten instead of seven.

The six chief pāramitās are given as follows:

1. Dāna (giving, generosity, liberality).
2. Čila (virtuous conduct, morality, righteousness).
4. Vīrya (energy).
5. Dhyāna (rapt musing).
6. Prajñā (wisdom).

The four supplementary pāramitās are the following:

7. Upāya or Upāya-kauśalya (skillfulness in the choice or adaptation of means for conversion or succour).
8. Pravīdha (aspiration or resolution).
9. Bala (strength, power).
10. Jñāna (knowledge).

The formula of the six chief pāramitās was evolved after a process of selection and experimentation. Thus only two of these virtues are mentioned together (čila and kṣānti) in several passages of the Mtu. (ii, 327, 9; ii, 353, 20; ii, 408, 18; iii, 441, 1). In another passage, vīrya is not mentioned (ii, 296, 6); and dhyāna and kṣānti are left out at Mtu., iii, 249, 13 ff. In the Śū. Vy., another item (samatha, “calm”) is added after dāna (p. 8, lines 6–7), and prajñā is omitted. Another puzzling problem is presented by the fact that the Sad. Pu. mentions only five pāramitās in an important passage (p. 334, line 2), and the Tibetan literature has a treatise on “the five pāramitās” (Tib. Dicy., Das, p. 817b). It seems likely that the formula included only five “Perfections” at a certain period.

The origin of the sixfold formula of the pāramitās must be sought in the early Buddhist triad, čila (virtuous conduct), samādhi (concentration) and prajñā (wisdom), which are known as the three skandhas (groups constituting the factors of spiritual progress) and also as the three sīkiṣas (branches of instruction, the threefold training and discipline). It is probable that prajñā was added to the original group of two, viz. čila and samādhi, which are mentioned together in several passages (Mtu., ii, 361.8; Čikṣa, 121.1). Čila is often said
to lead to samādhi, and prajñā is not spoken of in that context. The eightfold Way also ends with samādhi. The threefold śīla is defined as adhi-śīla, adhi-citta and adhi-prajñā in the M. Vy. (Section 36); the prefix adhi denotes pre-eminence and importance. Citta is here synonymous with samādhi. The last two items are identical with the fifth and sixth pāramitās (dhyāna and prajñā). Śīla is the second pāramitā, to which kṣīni was gradually attached as an important virtue. These two were mentioned together even before the final formulation of the six Perfections. The fourth pāramitā (vārya) was placed between the śīla section (which appertained especially to the laymen) and the dhyāna-prajñā section (which was really cultivated by the monks). The first pāramitā occupied an independent position from a very early period, when it was coupled with śīla. Dāna and śīla were regarded as the laymen's special duties, which paved the way to a happy re-birth. The well-known sentence, which describes Buddha's preaching, begins thus: “dāna-katham śīla-katham saγga-katham.” 19 This was the complete gospel for the layman-householder. The higher virtues of renunciation and celibacy are then mentioned in the latter part of the same sentence: “kāmānām ādīnavaṃ skāram samhīleṣam,” etc. (Dīgha, i, 110.2, 148.7). Dāna was thus the first step that an ordinary person was taught to take; and it was placed before śīla as a distinct duty, though it is logically included in moral conduct (śīla). It may be inferred that dāna and prajñā were added to the central dyad of śīla and samādhi, and they were emphasised on account of the influence of Hinduism. Vasubandhu clearly explains in the M. 8. Al. commentary that the six pāramitās are fundamentally related to the three śīkas. The first three pāramitās correspond to adhi-śīla, and the fifth and sixth to adhi-citta and adhi-prajñā respectively; while the fourth (vārya) is regarded as belonging to all the three branches of discipline. The third pāramitā is sometimes coupled with the fourth, thus making three pairs of pāramitās. 20

In this connection, it may be pointed out that the division of the pāramitās into two sections (with vārya as the common or neutral middle term) is based on the doctrine of the twofold Equipment (sambhāra) of a bodhisattva, which has already been referred to above. Sambhāra means “what is carried together”, hence “materials and requisite ingredients”, “necessary conditions”, “equipment”. It consists of punya
(Merit acquired by good deeds in social life) and jñāna (Knowledge acquired by concentration and wisdom). "Merit" leads to happiness, sense-pleasure, and welfare on earth and in the heavens; but "Knowledge" confers final Liberation. The accumulation of "Merit" is therefore the aim of the layman, while the acquisition of "Knowledge" is the goal of the monk. According to Vasubandhu, the first two pāramitās (dāna and sīla) lead to Merit, the last pāramitā (prajñā) constitutes Knowledge, while the other three partake of the characteristics of both kinds of sambhāra. Thus one may even speak of three divisions of sambhāra. But the application of the results of all the pāramitās for the attainment of Enlightenment really abolishes the distinction between mundane Merit and supra-mundane Knowledge, and all the pāramitās may be regarded as conducive to the equipment of Knowledge. In this way, Vasubandhu attempts to unify and sublimate social Action and ascetic Meditation in the single ideal of the quest for bodhi.

The six pāramitās are thus related to several basic concepts of early Buddhism. The Buddhist Sanskrit writers attach the greatest importance to the pāramitās, which distinguish the bodhisattvas from the inferior arhats and pratyeka-buddhas. These latter are regarded as representatives of merely negative ethical ideals, while the pāramitās are put forward as a scheme of positive moral development. It is not easy to understand the claims advanced by the Mahāyānists in this respect. There is nothing new in the formula of the six pāramitās; all the items are found in the old Buddhist scriptures. But the Mahāyānists really contrast their pāramitās with the thirty-seven bodhi-pakṣya-dharmas, which are supposed to constitute the highest ideal of the so-called Hinayāna. It is certainly surprising that the terms dāna, sīla and kṣānti are absent from that curious and comprehensive catalogue of a monk's duties, which does not seem to include social sympathy and altruistic service. The early Mahāyānists were perhaps proud of having combined the social virtues of a righteous layman-householder with the ascetic ideals of a meditative monk in this formula of the pāramitās. They thus bridged the gap that yawned between popular and monastic Buddhism. They taught that a bodhisattva should not cease to practise charity and forbearance in social life, when he ascended to the higher stages of Concentration and Wisdom. The six pāramitās were not new, but the new method
of juxtaposition was devised by the Mahāyānist. They preferred their new formula to the thirty-seven bodhi-pākṣya-dharma, which were regarded as too monastic and anti-social in their scope and tendency. Charity and moral conduct, which could lead a Buddhist only to the gates of a heaven of temporary pleasure in the old Dispensation, were now considered to be as important as Concentration and the higher Wisdom. All are classed together as indispensable factors in the attainment of Enlightenment.

The pāramitās are extolled to the skies in many passages of Buddhist literature. They are “the great oceans of all the bright virtues and auspicious principles”, and confer prosperity and happiness on all creatures.28 They are a bodhisattva’s best friends. They are “the Teacher, the Way and the Light”. They are “the Refuge and the Shelter, the Support and the Sanctuary”. They are indeed “Father and Mother to all”.29 Even the Buddhas are their “children”.28

Certain general characteristics are ascribed to all the pāramitās as a group. They are sublime, disinterested, supremely important and imperishable.26 They lead to welfare, happy re-births, serenity, unremitting spiritual cultivation, successful Concentration and the highest Knowledge.27 They are free from contamination by sensual pleasure, partiality, love of reward and culpable self-complacency.29 They are placed in this order, as they imply one another and form a progressive scheme of action. The practice of each pāramitā is impossible without the cultivation of the preceding one.29 Each Perfection has three degrees: it may be ordinary, extraordinary, or superlatively extraordinary (i.e. good, better, and the best).30 It is ordinary, when it is practised by the ordinary worldly persons for the sake of happiness in this life or the next; it is extraordinary, when it is cultivated by the Hinayānists for the sake of personal nirvāṇa; but it is of the highest degree, when it is acquired by the Mahāyānist bodhisattvas for the welfare and liberation of all beings. All the Perfections can be cultivated only by means of attentive thought, resolute purpose, self-mastery, and wisdom in the choice of means.31 But foolish and boastful persons may abuse all the pāramitās to their own destruction, as they may be puffed up with pride and arrogance on account of their moral superiority.32 In that case, the Perfections really become obstacles and hindrances. Such disastrous consequences may be avoided by applying and devoting them only to the attainment of Enlightenment.
The different Perfections may now be considered in detail.

1. Dāna-pāramitā. The word dāna literally means "giving", and this seems to be the best rendering in this context. The other equivalents, "generosity," "liberality," "charity," "munificence," do not suggest the vast variety of the things that a bodhisattva gives away, when he practises the Perfection of Giving.

The practice of tyāga (renunciation, Pali: cāga) is almost synonymous with dāna, though the former term is not employed in the formula of the pāramitās. The Mahāyānists attach great importance to this Perfection, and dāna or tyāga is included in several numerical lists. It figures among the six or ten anumāṇī (subjects of recollection), the seven dhanas (treasures), the four sampads (blessings, accomplishments), the three, four or five items of meritorious action (puṇya-kriyāvastūni), the four means of conversion or sympathy (saṃgraha-vastūni) and the four resolutions (adhīsthānāni). Such frequency of occurrence in these different formulae indicates its crucial importance for a bodhisattva's discipline. The Mahāyānists speak much and speak often of what they love. They simply maintain and develop a very ancient Indian tradition in thus exalting and inculcating the practice of charity and self-sacrifice. The duty of dāna is emphasised in the Upaṇiṣads, the Grhya-sūtras and other Hindu scriptures. The motives, methods and merits of Giving are also discussed in detail in several striking passages of the Pāli canon. The Mahāyānists developed the idea of dāna in five ways. They coloured it with the avarice and selfishness of a mendicant monastic Order. They extended its scope and included life and limb among the objects, which should be sacrificed for others. They introduced a spirit of exaggerated sentimentality by praising imaginary men and women, who sacrificed themselves for the protection of animals. They gradually eliminated the noble self-regarding motive of attaining nirvāṇa or bodhi, and taught that dāna should be based solely on the feeling of mercy and compassion (karuṇā). They evolved the new and revolutionary idea of the "gift of Merit", by which a bodhisattva could save all sinners from punishment or bestow undeserved happiness on all creatures. The spirit of the Mahāyāna may be described in Wordsworth's words:

"Give all thou hast. High Heaven rejects the lore
Of nicely calculated less or more."
Dāna is classified and analysed in the first place according to the things given away. The Dh. S., which divides each Perfection into three parts, speaks of three kinds of dāna: the gift of wealth and material objects, of religious instruction and of friendliness (or security and protection). Çāntideva teaches that a bodhisattva gives away his body, his pleasures and his Merit. The author of the Bh. Bhū. divides dāna into three categories: personal dāna (i.e. the gift of life and limb), external dāna (i.e. the gift of material objects), and such dāna as is partly personal and partly external. The love of logic, however, leads him into a difficult situation, as he is at a loss to find an example of the third species of dāna. He mars his valuable dissertation on dāna by the repellent remark that the gift of food, which has been eaten and then vomited by a bodhisattva, is partly personal and partly external! The same writer has also devised a scheme of classification under nine headings, which he applies to all the Perfections. Dāna, for instance, is described as being of nine kinds:

1. Svabhāva-dānam (i.e. dāna in its essential aspects).
2. Sarva-dānam (i.e. dāna in general).
3. Duškaram dānam (i.e. difficult dāna).
4. Sarvāto-mukham dānam (i.e. all-round dāna).
5. Satpurusa-dānam (i.e. the dāna of a virtuous man).
6. Sarvākāram dānam (i.e. omniform dāna).
7. Vighātārthikam dānam (i.e. the dāna, which prevents other persons from being hostile and converts them into suppliants; or, which makes poor persons rich).
8. Iha-amitra-sukham dānam (i.e. the dāna, which is pleasant in this life and the next).
9. Vipuddham dānam (i.e. purified dāna).

This elaborate scheme of classification is used only as a framework for a lengthy disquisition on the pāramitās.

The recipients of a bodhisattva’s gifts are frequently mentioned. In a general way, all suppliants (arūhi, yācaka) should be helped. But certain classes of people are especially indicated. They may be divided into three categories. First, a bodhisattva should bestow gifts on his friends and relatives (bandhusu; mitra-svajanebhyaḥ; kalyāṇa-mitra-māttā-pitṛbhyaḥ). Secondly, he should help the needy, the poor, the sick, the afflicted and the helpless (daridra-sattva-parigrahah; din-ātura-modakah; kṛpaṇa-vani paka-yācaka-bhayaḥ; dīne jane; duḥkhitā nihpratisaraṇaḥ). Thirdly,
he should offer gifts to the Buddhist monks and the Hindu priests (śramaṇa-brāhmaṇacāryah). These two classes are often mentioned together with the poor and the needy as deserving recipients of charity. The phrase śramaṇa-brāhmaṇa-
krāpana-vanipākeśhayaḥ recurs frequently in Buddhist literature. The claims of the poor are not overlooked; but monasticism slowly casts its sombre shadow on Buddhist ethics, and the poor are sometimes forgotten. But we find that only the poor are spoken of in certain passages. The miseries and difficulties of the indigent sections of society are described with real sympathy and insight by Kṣemendra and other writers. We seem to hear the cry of the poor of India in such verses as the following: "His heart melted with pity, when he saw the afflicted and helpless farmers. Their hair looked yellow, as it was covered with dust; their hands and feet were torn and rent; they suffered from hunger, thirst and fatigue; they were troubled with the wounds and hard scratches inflicted by the plough and the spade." Çāntideva teaches that a monk should even share his scanty alms with the poor. But it must be admitted that the Buddhist authors often forget the poor and speak only of charity to the monks and the priests. In such passages, mendicant monasticism stands out naked and unashamed. In the story of Açoka's gifts to the monks, the poor are not mentioned at all. The economic interests of the monastic Order also led to the formulation of the curious doctrine that the merit of a charitable deed depended on the spiritual status of the recipient, and not on the greatness of his need or the nature of the social service rendered by the donor. It is more meritorious to give to a monk than to a pious layman or an ordinary person. A Buddha is the worthiest recipient of gifts (a kṣetra or field). This teaching throws a lurid light on the sub-conscious psychology of the monks, who depended for their subsistence on the alms of the laity.

(2) As regards the objects that should be given in charity, a bodhisattva should give all that he has, his wealth, his limbs, his life, his "Merit" (pūrṇa), and also his wife and children, who are evidently regarded as a man's property. The heroes of many edifying legends are kings and princes, and they are described as giving away "food, beverages, medicine, couches, seats, gardens, houses, villages, towns, perfumes, garlands, ointments, silver, gold, elephants, horses, chariots, clothes, corn, gems, ornaments, musical instruments, men-servants and maid-servants", etc. But
there is also a moving story of "the widow's mite" in the *Avadāna-cūtaka*. A poor woman gives a piece of cotton cloth (*pataka*), which is all that she can afford. A monk does not need superfluous luxuries, and accepts only his simple "requisites", viz. clothing, food, lodging and medicine.

A *bodhisattva* should exercise his discretion in the choice of gifts. He should not give anything which may be used to inflict injury on other living beings. He should also refrain from supplying others with the means of gratifying their sensual appetites and passions (*rati-krīdā-vastu*). He should not give away poisons, weapons, intoxicating liquor, and nets for the capture of animals. He should not bestow on others a piece of land, on which the animals may be hunted or killed. He should not give anybody the instruments for suicide or self-torture. He should not offer unsuitable gifts: thus, for example, he should not give alcoholic beverages to teetotalers or unwholesome food to the sick. The wealth, that he gives in charity, must be acquired righteously and peacefully. If he has little, he gives what he has. If he possesses something, which is very rare and precious, or which has been obtained with great difficulty, he does not refuse to part with it.

Besides wealth and material objects, a *bodhisattva* should be ready to sacrifice his limbs for the good of others, "his hand, foot, eye, flesh, blood, marrow, limbs great and small, and even his head." This teaching is, however, modified by the sensible author of the *Bodhisattva-bhumi*, who expresses the opinion that a *bodhisattva* need not give away his body and limbs, if his mind is pure. But he can sacrifice his body by becoming a servant or a slave for the sake of others. The idea of giving away one's limbs has given rise to some curious stories, which are intended to be highly instructive and inspiring, but which are simply silly and puerile.

A *bodhisattva* should also give away his wife and children to such suppliants as need their services. But he may not sacrifice his parents in the same way, as they should be honoured and protected. The gift of one's wife and children is regarded as the acme of liberality. It is indeed necessary for an advanced *bodhisattva* to be married in order that he may be able to exhibit this virtue in its perfection!

(3) A *bodhisattva* should also know how to give. He should always be very courteous to the suppliants, and receive them
with every mark of respect and deference (sattkṛtya).\textsuperscript{44} He should also be happy and joyful, when he gives away anything.\textsuperscript{68} This condition is important and essential. The donor should be even happier than the recipient of the gift. A bodhisattva should not repent of his generosity after bestowing gifts on others.\textsuperscript{66} He should not talk of his charitable deeds.\textsuperscript{67} He should give quickly (tvaritam) and with a humble heart.\textsuperscript{68} He should make no distinction between friends and enemies, but should give to all alike.\textsuperscript{69} He should give to the deserving and the undeserving, the wicked and the righteous, everywhere and at all times.\textsuperscript{70} But he should not lose the sense of measure and proportion in his charity. He owes a duty to many living beings and must not sacrifice himself in vain for an unimportant purpose. He must combine wisdom with mercy.\textsuperscript{71}

(4) A bodhisattva, who knows what to give and how to give, should also understand why he should give. The Buddhist writers have mentioned almost all the motives, high and low, that may actuate a donor. Charity confers fame on the generous man (dātr-kṛti).\textsuperscript{72} The love of fame, that “last infirmity of noble minds”, is regarded as a motive, that should not be severely condemned. Charity leads to the accumulation of punya (Merit) and to happy rebirths on earth or in a heaven of the devas.\textsuperscript{73} It should be practised even by selfish persons, as it confers inward happiness and peace of mind. It also affords protection against premature death and all other evils.\textsuperscript{74} It is indeed the source of power, longevity, welfare and prosperity during many aeons.\textsuperscript{75} A gift cannot fail to bring a corresponding reward in the next life: they who give food, money or a lamp will get strength, beauty or lovely eyes respectively as their recompense.\textsuperscript{76} Gautama Buddha himself enjoyed good health on account of his charitable deeds in a former life,\textsuperscript{77} and a bodhisattva’s great physical strength is acquired in the same way.\textsuperscript{78} A very generous donor (dāna-pati) is praised by the poets as a sandal-tree, a cloud, a drug-tree, a kalpa-vrksa (wish-fulfilling tree), a cintāmanī (philosopher’s stone) and a baited hook; and other similes are employed in order to exalt and glorify him.\textsuperscript{79} The Buddhists put their well-known dāna-sūtra (text or aphorism on dāna) into the mouth of Gautama Buddha, who is represented as speaking these words: “If the living beings knew the fruit and final reward of charity and the distribution of gifts, as I know them, then they would not eat their food without giving to others and
sharing with others, even if it were their last morsel and mouthful.
If they should meet a person, who is worthy of receiving a gift,
selfishness (niggarliness), that has once arisen, would not abide
in their hearts. But they do not know the fruit and final reward
of charity and the distribution of gifts, as I know them. For this
reason, they eat without giving and sharing with others; and
selfishness, that has once arisen, abides in their hearts." 80 This
passage describes the merits of charity in a general way, but the
author of the Samādhirāja-sūtra mentions ten advantages result-
ing from the practice of dāna. He says: "A bodhisattva,
who is devoted to charity, conquers the sin of selfish
niggarliness; his heart is ennobled by the spirit of renunciation;
he really enjoys pleasures in sharing them with many persons;
he is born in wealthy families, which command many enjoyments;
he is of a charitable disposition from the moment of his birth;
he becomes popular among the four kinds of assemblies (i.e.
monks, nuns, laymen and laywomen); he enters all assemblies
with self-confidence; his noble fame as a donor spreads
in all directions; his hands and feet are soft and small;
... he is always blessed with good friends until
he acquires Enlightenment." (Sam. Rā., fol. 112a, lines 4 ff.)
The author of the Bodhisattva-bhūmi also speaks of the four glorious
powers (prabhāva) of charity. A bodhisattva gives up the vice
of selfish niggarliness, which is the opposite of generosity. He
matures himself and others for Enlightenment, and his gifts are
the means of converting the people. He experiences heart-
felt joy before giving, during the act of giving, and after it. He
thus serves his own best interests. He allays the pain suffered by
others through hunger, thirst, heat and cold. He acquires wealth
and power, and also learns to love charity for its own sake (Be. Bhā.,
fol. 31a, 5.2–7.2.). Charity thus brings great rewards, but
niggarliness (mātsarya) is a sin that is punished in the next life,
especially if a gift is refused to a monk. 82 The selfish miser is reborn
as a preta, who is perpetually tormented with hunger and thirst.
The ordinary worldly motives for charity are thus fully and
adequately set forth by these Buddhist writers. But the highest
teaching of the Mahāyāna seems to be that a bodhisattva should
practise charity without any selfish motives whatsoever. His
generosity should be absolutely disinterested. He should not
think of the reward of dāna, and he should not desire or expect
any recompense. 83 He should not wish to secure rebirth as a
king or a *deva* as the result of his sacrifice. He should not give in order to obtain honour and fame. He does not desire to be respected as a *dāna-pati* by the king, ministers, priests and citizens. He knows that all such advantages and enjoyments are impermanent and valueless, and this wisdom helps him to act without the thought of reward (*phala-darśanam*). He gives unselfishly and also teaches others to do likewise.

(5) *Karuna*. If a *bodhisattva* has no selfish motives for his charitable deeds, he can be actuated and inspired only by love, pity, mercy and compassion (*karunā, anukampa, kīpā, dayā*). This great virtue, *karuna*, which has already been mentioned as an attribute of a perfect Buddha and of a budding *bodhisattva*, is exhibited, practised and developed chiefly by *dāna*. It is intimately associated with the *dāna-pāramitā*, though it is also the guiding-star of a *bodhisattva*’s entire career. It should be rendered in English by such words as "love", "pity", "mercy", "compassion", and all their synonyms or approximate synonyms put together. No one word can convey an adequate idea of what *karunā* means. It is mentioned in an enormous number of passages in all the principal treatises. It is perhaps the word that occurs most frequently in Mahayanaist literature. According to the *Pr. Pā. Čata*., a *bodhisattva* shows his *karuna* chiefly by resolving to suffer the torments and agonies of the dreadful purgatories during innumerable aeons, if need be, so that he may lead all beings to perfect Enlightenment. He desires Enlightenment first for all beings and not for himself. He is consumed with grief on account of the sufferings of others, and does not care for his own happiness. He desires the good and welfare of the world. All his faults and sins are destroyed, when his heart is full of *karunā*. He loves all beings, as a mother loves her only child. This famous simile sums up a *bodhisattva*’s ideal of *karunā*. He loves all creatures more than he loves himself or his wife and children. He does not love his own children more than other children, as his love is the same for all. He is like a mother, a father, a relative, a friend, a slave and a teacher for all beings. *Āryaçūra* and Čāntideva exalt *karunā* above all other virtues and attributes. *Āryaçūra* says: "The earth, with its forests, great mountains and oceans, has been destroyed a hundred times by water, fire and wind at the close of the aeons: but the great compassion of a *bodhisattva* abides for ever." The same author goes so far as to declare that even Liberation and
the highest Knowledge are superfluous, if karuṇā is mistress of the soul. Another great poet says: "Of what use are Knowledge (Gnosis), salvation or ascetic practices (matted hair and besmearing the body with ashes) to the man, whose heart melts with pity for all living creatures?" Cūra teaches that Mercy (dāya) is really the sum and substance of ethics and religion, as wickedness and corruption will be impossible, when all men learn to love others as their kinsmen. He also anticipates Shakespeare's well-known simile by comparing Mercy to "the gentle rain from heaven". As the rain makes all the crops grow, so Mercy produces all the virtues that should adorn a bodhisattva's personality. Cāntideva also regards karuṇā as the one thing needful. He teaches that a bodhisattva need not learn many things, but only karuṇā, which leads to the acquisition of all the principles and attributes of Buddhahood. As the soldiers follow their king, and as all the activities of mankind depend on the sun, even so all the principles, which are conducive to Enlightenment, arise and grow under the aegis of karuṇā. It is indeed the life and soul of Religion (jīvita-endriya).

The Buddhist writers have not only sung the praises of karuṇā, but have also attempted to analyse and explain it in a philosophical spirit. They teach that it may be considered from two points of view. It consists in realising the equality of oneself and others (par-ātma-samātā) and also practising the substitution of others for oneself (par-ātma-parivartana). When a bodhisattva cultivates the habit of regarding others as equal to himself, he gets rid of the ideas of "I and Thou" and "Mine and Thine". He learns to feel the joys and sorrows of others like his own, and does not prefer his own happiness to that of others. He loves and guards others, as he loves and guards himself. He is also willing to exchange his happiness for the miseries of others. He gives himself for the sake of others. He returns good for evil, and helps even those who have injured him. He identifies himself with the poor and the lowly, and looks upon himself as if he were another person. He follows the two Golden Rules of the Mahāyāna: (1) "Do unto others as you would do unto yourself"; (2) "Do unto others as they wish that you should do unto them."

What is the relation of karuṇā to Egoism and Altruism? This question has been answered in different ways by the principal philosophers. Some of them teach that a bodhisattva acts for his
own good and also for the good of others. His motives are both
egoistic and altruistic. He achieves his own purpose (svārtha) and
also promotes the best interests of others (par-ārtha). Svārtha and
par-ārtha are mentioned together in many passages of Mahāyānist
literature. The author of the Bodhisattva-bhūmi declares that
only the perfect Buddhas and very advanced bodhisattvas can act
from purely altruistic motives, as when they condescend to be
born in a lower world for the good of the living beings. All
ordinary bodhisattvas must work both for themselves and
others, as they wish to attain Enlightenment, even though they
do not care for any temporal advantages or sensual pleasures.
Every charitable action is a step forward on the path to bodhi.
Many donors declare that the Merit of their good deed may be the
means of attaining bodhi. This is their higher spiritual egoism.
They think of their own final liberation from mundane existence
and their goal of Enlightenment, when they help others out of love
and compassion. They combine and reconcile self-interest with
the service of others.

In course of time, the term svārtha was dropped, and only
par-ārtha is spoken of in many passages. This development
indicates the triumph of the ideal of pure Altruism. The bodhi-
sattva should not think of self at all, when he exerts himself for
the good of others. He should be filled with love, and love alone,
without any admixture of self-interest, however sublime and
spiritual it may be. His mind must be so overwhelmed and
saturated with the feeling of pity for others, that it is not possible
for him to think of his own Enlightenment at the same time. The
bodhisattvas, who follow this ideal, do not declare that they wish
to obtain bodhi in exchange for their sacrifices. They utter
such sentiments as the following:

"By the Merit of my sacrifice, may I also use my body in my
future lives for the good of all creatures."

"I do not make this sacrifice in order to secure a happy rebirth
as a king or a deua; and I do not think even of the felicity of
Liberation. By the Merit of my charitable deed, may I become
the guide and saviour of the world, which is lost in the wilderness
of mundane existence. I wish to accomplish the good of others." 

The hero of the ninety-second story in Kṣemendra's Avadāna-
kalpa-lata cries: "For the sake of others, I shall bear this
torturing wheel (discus) on my head." The Pr. Pa. Čuta also
teaches that a preacher should not desire even Enlightenment
as the reward of his disinterested work. Thus only Altruism is finally recognised and recommended as the motive of a bodhisattva's self-sacrifice. Čántideva teaches this ideal as a paradox: "If thou Lovest thyself, thou shouldst not love thyself. If thou wishest to protect thyself, thou shouldst not protect thyself." The last word on this difficult problem is said by the author of the M. S. Al., who declares that Egoism and Altruism are one and the same in the case of an advanced bodhisattva. When the bodhisattva thinks of others in the same way as he thinks of himself, the words svārtha and par-ārtha become synonyms, and there is no distinction between them. In the highest synthesis, Egoism and Altruism are merged in perfect Love.

Kṣemendra also discusses the origin and nature of karuna. Is it natural and innate? Or is it the result of Merit acquired in a former existence? Or does it depend on practice? The poet teaches that compassion is natural and innate in all creatures, even in such ferocious beasts as lions. It can be developed by practice. Thus does the Mahāyāna discover mercy and pity even in the nature and essence of cruel and rapacious brutes. Altruism is here united to the highest optimism. Kṣemendra, like Tennyson, voices the faith that

"Love is creation's final law."

(6) Stories of Dāna. Buddhist literature abounds in stories and legends of charitable and self-sacrificing men, women and animals. They should be regarded as "parables", as most of them are the products of the luxuriant Indian imagination. Some animals are represented as models of virtue, partly because Buddhism does not draw a sharp line of demarcation between the human and sub-human species, and partly because the writers wish to indulge in a little caustic irony against mankind. The birth of a bodhisattva in such a state of woe is explained as being the result of some remnants of Demerit. This explanation must be taken for what it is worth. The Buddhists could not resist the temptation of employing the fable as a medium of religious instruction. India is noted as the original home of this interesting and popular literary genre. The Mahāyānists often teach wisdom out of the mouths of the beasts of the field. The heroes and heroines of these stories give away wealth, limbs, life, wives and children in a spirit of exaggerated and fantastic philanthropy. The lack of a sense of proportion and harmony is the fatal flaw of the Indian temperament as exhibited in literature and religion. The Indian thinkers
and writers often push a good idea to such extremes that it becomes grotesque and ridiculous. But we can read these quaint parables with pleasure and interest, if we appreciate their spirit without thinking too critically of the details. Only a few typical stories can be related very briefly in this essay.

Story of the Tigress. A bodhisattva threw himself before a hungry tigress, which had several little cubs. She would have devoured the cubs, if the bodhisattva had not sacrificed his body for her sake. This curious story is related in the Jātakamalā, the Suvarna-prabhāsa and the Avadāna-kalpa-latā. Kṣemendra narrates it twice and gives Satyavrata and Karuṇārakha as the names of the bodhisattvas. He adds the interesting detail that the cubs were reborn as thieves in their next lives! In the Jātaka-malā, the scene of the story is quite different from the milieu described in the Suvarna-prabhāsa. Aryacakravartin's bodhisattva is a learned teacher, who goes out for a walk with his disciple and sees the tigress in a deep ravine. The bodhisattva's name is not given, but the disciple is called Ajita. The number of the cubs is not indicated. The bodhisattva asks the disciple to leave him and go in search of food for the tigress. In the meantime, he throws himself down into the ravine near the tigress, which devours his dead body. The legend, according to the Suvarna-prabhāsa, is as follows:—

Gautama Buddha, wandering about in the region of the Puṇḍara with his disciples, arrived at a beautiful spot in the woods. He asked Ānanda to prepare a seat for him, and said that he would show them the relics of the great bodhisattvas who had performed difficult feats. He struck the ground with his hands. The earth shook, and a stūpa made of gems, gold and silver rose up. Buddha directed Ānanda to open the stūpa. It contained a golden sarcophagus covered with pearls. Ānanda saw some bones, which were as white as snow and the kumuda flower (white water-lily). All present paid obeisance to the relics. Buddha then told the story of the hero. A long time ago, there lived a king named Mahāratha. He had three sons, Mahāprapāt, Mahādeva and Mahāsattvavān. These princes were one day wandering about in a great park and came to a lonely place called "The Twelve Shrubs". Mahāsattvavān was not disturbed by any fears or misgivings, but his brothers were not so brave. Suddenly they saw a tigress in that hollow of "The Twelve Shrubs". She had whelped seven days before, had five cubs, and was
The three brothers talked of her sad plight and said: "What can this poor creature eat?" Mahāsattvavān asked his brothers to walk on and said, "I shall go into this hollow to do something." He then uttered these words: "I, moved by compassion, give my body for the good of the world and for the attainment of bodhi." When he threw himself before the tigress, she did not do anything to him. The bodhisattva understood that she was very weak. He looked round for a weapon, but could find none. He took a strong hundred-year-old bamboo creeper, cut his throat, and fell dead near the tigress. (Su. Pr., fol. 73b, 3ff.)

King Čivi (Čibi). The story of King Čivi is found in four different versions in Buddhist Sanskrit literature. It is related in the Āvadāna-ṣataka, the Jātakamālā and the Āvadāna-kalpalata. According to the Āvadāna-ṣataka, King Čivi, having distributed all his wealth among the people, thinks of the small insects. He inflicts several wounds on his body with a weapon, and feeds the fleas and mosquitoes with his blood, as if they were his children. In the meantime, Čakra, the chief of the devas, assumes the shape of a vulture in order to put King Čivi to the test. The king offers the vulture a feast of his own flesh, and tells him to eat as much as he needs. Čakra then appears in the guise of a Hindu priest (brahmin), and asks for the king's eyes, which are willingly given. Čakra praises and blesses the king for his generosity. In Kṣemendra's first story of Čivi, the king feeds an ogre (rākṣasa) with his flesh and blood as a recompense for a few beautiful verses, which Indra, disguised as an ogre, recites in his presence. Indra asks him if he felt any pain or grief at the sacrifice of his limbs. Čivi replies in the negative, and says: "If it is true that my mind was not touched by that pain, then may I, by the power of this truthful asseveration, regain my body as it was." His body immediately becomes whole and sound again. It may be stated that this device of saty-ādhiṣṭhāna (resolution by Truth) is employed by the later Mahāyānist writers in order to restore their heroes and heroines to their normal physical condition after the mutilation suffered by them in the exercise of charity. In some stories, Indra, who often appears as the tempter, compensates them at the end by his divine power; but Kṣemendra prefers this curious method of saty-ādhiṣṭhāna for avoiding a tragic conclusion of the moving tales. The hero cannot be left torn and bleeding after his superhuman sacrifice. This
tendency to finish the stories in a happy vein is most marked in Kṣemendra’s writings, while Čūra does not always care to restore his mauled and mangled heroes to their pristine strength and beauty. The same King Čivi (or Čibi) is also the hero of the second story in Čūra’s Jātaka-mālā. Čakra, in the guise of a blind priest, asks for the gift of one eye, but the king gives him both eyes. Čibi remains blind for some time, but Čakra restores his eyes to him in the end and bestows on him the power of seeing things at a distance.

Kṣemendra also narrates a second story of King Čivi. His capital was called Čikhi-ghoṣā. When a violent epidemic raged in the country, the physicians declared that the sick could be cured only by drinking the blood of a man, who had always practised forbearance since the day of his birth. The king knew that he had never yielded to anger, and that his mother had also completely eschewed it during the pre-natal period. He gave his blood to the sick during six months.

Rukmavatī or Rūpāvati. The story of Rukmavatī is told in the Divy-āvadāṇa and the Āvadāṇa-kalpa-latā.122 In the Divy-āvadāṇa, the name is given as Rūpāvati. Rukmavatī was a charitable lady of the town of Utpalāvati. She once saw a famished woman, who had been delivered of a child and who was on the point of eating her own offspring. Rukmavatī was in a dilemma. If she ran home to fetch food for the poor creature, the starving wretch would devour the child in the interval. If she took the child home with her, the mother would perish of starvation. She helped the woman by cutting off her own breasts and giving them to her for food! Indra, the chief of the devas, appeared on the scene, and she was transformed into a man as a reward for her sacrifice! According to the Divy-āvadāṇa, she first recovered her limbs by the device of the saty-ādhiṣṭhāna. Kṣemendra continues the story into Rukmavatī’s next life. She was born as Sattvavara, the son of the chief of a guild. He took pity on the birds of the air, and cut off bits of his flesh to feed the vultures and other carnivorous birds in the cremation-ground. His eyes were also torn out by the birds, and nothing at last remained of him but a heap of bones.123

Jimūtavāhana. The famous story of Jimūtavāhana is related in the Kathā-sūrit-sāgara and the Āvadāṇa-kalpa-latā, and it is dramatised in Harṣa’s play “Nāgānanda.”124 Jimūtavāhana was a prince, who lived in the forest with his aged father. He was
married to a princess, named Malayavatt. As he was walking about, he saw on a certain occasion that a boy, named Čaṅkhacūḍa, was followed by an attendant, who carried two red garments. The boy belonged to the Nāga tribe and was chosen as the victim for Garuḍa, who claimed such a bloody sacrifice every day. His mother was weeping and wailing in the neighbourhood. Jimūtavāhana offered to give his own life and save the unfortunate creature. In spite of the boy’s protests, he donned the red garments and sat on the stone of sacrifice. Garuḍa came, seized him, and began to devour him. Jimūtavāhana looked happy and contented. Garuḍa was astonished at this spectacle, and soon learned his mistake. He expiated his error by repenting of his cruelty, promising to kill no living beings in future, and restoring all the dead Nāgas to life. In Harṣa’s play, the goddess Gaurī also appears on the scene and Jimūtavāhana is restored to life.

Other heroes and heroines of this type are also mentioned in Buddhist literature. Jñānavati, daughter of King Jñānabala, gave her flesh and blood in order to provide medicine for a sick monk. King Punyabala sacrificed his eyes and limbs during many lives. King Surūpa gave his body, his queen and his son to be eaten up by a Yākṣa, whose form Indra had assumed in order to test the king. King Sarvandada gave refuge to a bird, which was pursued by a fowler. He offered to compensate the poor man by giving him an equivalent weight of his own flesh. But the bird became so heavy in the balance that the king had to sacrifice his whole body in order to keep his promise. He regained it by the usual method of saty-adhiṣṭhāna. Padmakā killed himself in order that he might be reborn as a rohita fish, whose flesh was needed as medicine for curing the sick. King Črisena gave away his wife and half of his own body. Manichūḍa fed a demon with his flesh and blood. King Maitribhala converted some ogres to the true faith by giving them his flesh to eat.

The Samādhirāja-sūtra explains why a bodhisattvā does not feel any pain, when he mutilates himself for the good of others. Ananda asks Buddha how a bodhisattvā can cheerfully suffer the loss of his hands, feet, ears, nose, eyes and head. Buddha explains that pity for mankind and the love of bodhi sustain and inspire a bodhisattvā in his heroism, just as worldly men are ready to enjoy the five kinds of sensual pleasure, even when their bodies are burning with fever. (Sam. Rā., fol. 160a, 5 ff.)
The Hare. Another story, which is found in several versions, is that of the self-immolating hare. This hare is perhaps the most famous animal in history, not excepting Balaam’s ass, Alexander’s horse, Robert Bruce’s spider, St. Jerome’s lion, or the wolf of Gubbio. The hare figures in this parable, probably because he is India’s “man in the moon”. The story is related in the Jātaka-mālā, the Avadāna-kalpa-lata and the Avadāna-çataka.

According to the Avadāna-çataka, Gautama Buddha had a young disciple, who had such a vacillating disposition that he left the monastery for his home three times, and was at last persuaded by Buddha to return to the spiritual vocation and persevere in it. This disciple had been a sage in a previous existence, and Buddha had been the hare that had then dissuaded him from abandoning the hermit’s life. The sage, who lived in a forest far from the haunts of men, duly performed the daily religious rites, including the worship of fire. This last point is important, as a fire must somehow be kindled in this story. The hare possessed human speech and felt almost filial affection for the sage. Unfortunately, a drought dried up the brooks and destroyed the roots and fruits, on which the sage subsisted. He resolved to return to the town, where he could live on alms. The hare persuaded him to put off his departure for a day. Next morning, he threw himself into the fire and asked the sage to eat the flesh and continue to live and meditate in the forest. The sage was much moved at this deed, and promised that he would not return to the town. But he refused to save his life by eating the flesh. The hare then resorted to the device of saty-çādhiṣṭhāna and cried: “Since I came to the forest, my heart has taken delight in solitude. By the power of this true speech, may Indra now send down rain.” No sooner had he uttered these words than rain began to fall, and the sage could soon obtain the roots, fruits, herbs and flowers that he needed.

This is the earliest version of this story in Sanskrit. But Āryaçūra tells quite a different tale and assigns another motive for the hare’s self-sacrifice. In the Āvadāna, the hare is ready to die for the sake of friendship and anti-social asceticism, but Āryaçūra evinces the new Mahāyāna spirit by making the hare give his life for the fulfilment of the social duties of hospitality. The fire is miraculously provided by Indra, who comes in the guise of a priest (brāhmin). The Jātaka-mālā gives the story as follows:—
Once upon a time, four animals, an otter, a jackal, a monkey and a hare, lived as friends in a forest. On the eve of the _pesadha_, the hare reminded his friends that it was their duty to show hospitality to some guests the next day. But he was sad at heart, because he himself was not in a position to offer suitable food to any guest. He could procure only a few blades of bitter grass. He silently resolved to offer his own body. On the _pesadha_ day, _Indra_ came to the forest in the guise of a priest (brahmin) and asked for help as a weak and weary wayfarer. The animals pressed him to stay several days in their midst as a welcome guest. The otter offered him seven fishes; the jackal regaled him with sour milk and a lizard, and the monkey treated him to ripe mangoes. But the hare asked the _brahmin_ to eat his flesh, as he had nothing else to give. The _brahmin_ refused this offer and said, "How can I kill a living being, especially a friend?" But the hare leaped into the fire, which _Indra_ had created near by in order to test him. _Indra_ then assumed his own shape; a shower of flowers fell from the sky; and the hare was honoured by having his image placed in the halls of the _devas_ in heaven and on the disc of the moon.

Such is Āryaçūra’s version of the legend, which is really more instructive and interesting than that given in the _Avadāna-catāka_. Kṣemendra adopts the latter, and only adds the detail that the sage’s name was Suvrata. The _Av. Ga._ describes him only as a _rīt_, and gives no name. The Buddhists had evidently learned to appreciate the meaning and value of personality in the interval that elapsed between the _Av. Ga._ and the _Avadāna-kalpa-latā_. Kṣemendra also points out that the story illustrates the advantages of having virtuous friends. His choice of this version of the story proves the vitality and persistence of the old Hinayānīst tradition.

Other animals are also represented as sacrificing their lives for the benefit of human beings. An elephant throws himself down from a rock in order that a caravan of famished travellers in the desert may be kept alive by eating his flesh. A tortoise also sacrifices his life under similar circumstances. A lion and an elephant lose their lives in saving a group of men from the jaws of a fiery dragon. In such stories, the noble character of the animals is often contrasted with the meanness and selfishness of ordinary men.

_Viṣvantara_. The famous story of Viṣvantara is related in
the Jātaka-mālā and the Avadāna-kalpa-lātā. It is regarded as the most pathetic and edifying of all the stories of dāna.

Viṣvantara was the son of King Saṅjaya. He was a very charitable and merciful prince. He gave abundant alms to all, and at last presented even the white elephant of the royal stables to the priests. His inordinate generosity led to such an outcry against him that his father was compelled to banish him to Mount Vaṅka. His wife Madṛī and his two children accompanied him in his exile. The family rode in a chariot driven by four horses. When a priest asked for the horses, he gave them to him. Another priest obtained the gift of the chariot. Viṣvantara took the boy Jālin in his arms, and his wife carried the girl Krṣṇājīnā. They walked on foot till they reached their destination, and lived in a hut of leaves. An old brahmin came one day, when Madṛī was away. He asked Viṣvantara to give the two children to be his servants and attendants. The prince could not refuse this demand. Then Ģakra, the chief of the devas, appeared in the guise of a poor priest and begged Viṣvantara to let him have Madṛī, who was of course given away. Ģakra assumed his own shape and blessed Viṣvantara. In the meantime, the priest, who had taken the two children, brought them to their grandfather King Saṅjaya, who redeemed them for a heavy price. The King and the people were so moved by Viṣvantara’s self-denial that they recalled him from exile and reinstated him in his rank.

This story, which at least does not reek of the shambles, is especially important. According to the Buddhist tradition, Viṣvantara practised the virtue of charity in its full perfection, and was reborn in his next life as the historic teacher, Gautama Buddha.

(7) Transfer of Merit. There is something even more precious than a bodhisattva’s wealth, limbs, wives and children, and that is his Merit (punya). He should give it for the good of all beings. The technical term for this gift is parināmanā (“bending round or towards,” transfer, dedication). The idea of punya is one of the central concepts of Buddhism. Every act, which is inspired by charity, or by charity and morality (sīla), produces some punya, which leads to welfare in this life and also secures happy re-births. Punya is generally regarded as the power of good deeds that were done in previous existences. It is also called kuśala, and it is collectively termed punya-śandha (mass of Merit) and kuśala-mūlāni
(roots of weal). A virtuous person "accumulates" Merit (kuśala-saṅcaya), as a thrifty man deposits money in the bank. No simile appears to be more suitable than that of a bank-account. Punya is supposed to result automatically and inevitably from a righteous action. It is an invisible cosmic force that confers happiness on the individual, to whom it belongs. The Buddhists have developed a precise quantitative view of punya, which seems to convert their much-vaulted ethics into a sordid system of commercial arithmetic. Every good deed produces a certain fixed amount of punya and no more. A unit of punya confers a certain kind of happiness on earth or in a heaven only for a certain period of time, after which it is exhausted. This quantitative notion of punya has culminated in the doctrine of parināmanā (transfer of Merit). Punya acts surely and silently. It cannot be destroyed except by evil actions, which produce Demerit and therefore reduce the sum-total of Merit. It is a mighty Agent in the universe. All that is noble, beautiful, auspicious, glorious and desirable in the world is the result of punya. The Lalita-vistara frequently refers to Gautama Buddha's punya, by which he acquired mystical attainments without difficulty, defeated Māra, and recovered his strength after eating a meal at the end of the period of austerities. The devas derive their power and felicity from their punya. Kings and wealthy men owe their good fortune to their punya. Merit protects a person and can even work miracles in his favour: it can make trees bloom out of season and convert a fiery furnace into a lovely lotus-pond. It can save mariners from shipwreck, and ward off the attacks of demons and hobgoblins. Even the cyclic evolution and dissolution of the Universe are due to Merit. The sun and the moon owe all their splendour to it. Punya is thus a wonderful Power, and it is exalted and glorified in Mahāyānist literature to such an extent that it is finally regarded almost as the equivalent of Wisdom (prajñā) and bodhi. In the early period of the Mahāyāna, punya was considered to be only the means of securing happy re-births, while Enlightenment was reserved for those who acquired jñāna (Knowledge) through Musing and Concentration. But the increasing appreciation of active altruism in social life gave rise to the new idea that punya by itself could lead to Enlightenment. This startling view is clearly expressed by the later Mahāyānist teachers. Čāṇideva even substitutes the "transfer of punya" for the Perfection of Wisdom (prajñā-pāramitā) as the final
goal of a bodhisattva's career.147 Purya usurps the position, which is theoretically accorded to supreme Wisdom (prajñā).

Merit is thus a beneficent power, but Demerit is also a terrible power that causes misery and pain. Sins and transgressions of different kinds lead to rebirth in a purgatory, or as an animal or a preta. They also produce disease, poverty, dishonour and unhappiness in human life on earth.148 Demerit can even affect Nature by drying up wells and creating waterless forests.149 It is the source and root of all evil.

According to the old and approved doctrine of Buddhism, Merit or Demerit, produced by a person's actions (karma), is strictly personal. It is also imperishable. The Bo. Bhu. and the Mdh. teach that the result of actions cannot be destroyed even after many aeons.150 It is impossible to escape the consequences of one's deeds. This teaching is illustrated by many stories in the Anudāna-yataka,151 and Kṣemendra also reverts to this doctrine of personal retribution. Even the great Buddha suffered pain ten times in his life on account of the remnants of his Demerit, which had not been expiated.152 Every man or woman must reap as he or she has sown.153 Every creature is born alone and dies alone.154 His deeds always follow him everywhere.155 He may dive into the ocean or climb lofty mountains; he may take refuge in the heavens or the nether world: but his karma cannot be baulked of its fruition.156 As all beings are under the power of their own actions, no one has a personal relation to another, and it is folly to be attached to any person.157 No one can help another in the next life.158 This rigidly individualistic doctrine of karma is also taught in the Pāli canon. The Sutta-nipāta says: "No one's karma is lost; it comes back and its owner meets it. The fool, who does evil, himself experiences the pain in the other world."159 All the Buddhas teach the doctrine of kamma and kiriya (kamma-vādā, kiriya-vādā).160 It is a heresy to believe that actions do not bear fruit.161 The inequalities among men are due to their deeds, which are their possession and heritage. Karma is indeed the begetter, the kinsman and the refuge of all beings.162 In the later Pāli writings, however, the idea of the transfer of Merit is adumbrated. Some pretas are said to derive benefit from the charitable deeds of their living relatives, but an evil deed cannot be shared with others.163 The transfer of Merit does not exhaust it, but leads to growth in virtue.164 This idea was developed to its logical conclusion by the Mahāyānists.
Several circumstances must have contributed to soften the harsh and uncompromising individualism of the old *karma* doctrine. As E. W. Hopkins and A. B. Keith have pointed out, Hinduism itself exhibited a tendency to modify the doctrine by recognising the transfer of Merit in certain cases. According to the *Rāmāyana*, a woman shares the Merit of her husband’s deeds, but other relatives enjoy their own *punya* (ii, 27, 3–4; vol. 1, p. 123). A faithful wife participates in the husband’s destiny after death (*Manu*, ix, 29, p. 196). A king gets the sixth part of the *dharma* and *adharma* (virtue and sin) of his subjects (*Manu*, viii, 304, p. 180). The householder, who fails to entertain a guest, loses all his Merit (*Manu*, iii, 100, p. 50). Hinduism, which was broad-based on social solidarity, was thus led to deny the validity of the individualistic doctrine of *karma*. The Mahāyāna also owed its teaching of *parināmanā* partly to the influence of Hinduism. As it laid stress on altruistic service, it could not fail to recognise the universal inter-dependence of mankind. The doctrine of *karma* in its unmitigated form repudiated the bond of social solidarity and dissolved society into a vast number of isolated spiritual atoms. Such a theory evidently did violence to the facts of life. The early Buddhists forgot that man was essentially what Aristotle called “a social being”. The Mahāyānists insisted on social sympathy and sacrifice, and they realised that no one was born unto himself alone and no one died unto himself alone. The people of India were also growing more sensitive to suffering on account of the climate, the practice of vegetarianism, and the teaching of love and mercy as inculcated by the Buddhists and the Jainas. They developed a genuine repugnance to the idea of pain and torture of any kind. They lived in an atmosphere of peace, toleration, gentleness and refined culture. They became more and more averse to the contemplation of the sufferings and torments of the creatures, who were condemned to the hot and cold purgatories or imprisoned in the vile bodies of *pretas* and animals. In the *Mtus*, Maudgalyāyana returns from a visit to the purgatories and only delivers a sermon on the well-deserved punishment of the sinners. But a few centuries later, the people of India could not bear to think of such cruel pains and penalties as the doctrine of *karma* inflicted on the unfortunate transgressors of the moral law. They had developed that almost feminine tenderness and sentimentality, which would not allow the representation of tragic scenes on the
stage and banned real tragedy from Indian literature. The same gentle temper rose in revolt against the old doctrine of *karma* with its horrid array of purgatories and miserable rebirths during long aeons. The Mahāyānists evolved the humane teaching that even a sinner was not destined to suffer in the three states of woe, as the *bodhisattvas* could cancel his Demerit by giving him some of their Merit. Avalokiteśvara was described as releasing the sufferers from the purgatories without paying any regard to the law of *karma*. Here again the Mahāyānists nearly abrogated the old law of *karma* and replaced it by the new gospel of *karunā*. The old teachers proclaimed that the cosmic law demanded "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth". But the Mahāyānists taught that love was the supreme law. It was the conflict between the Old and New Testaments of Buddhism. D. T. Suzuki and J. E. Carpenter explain this change in terms of the metaphysical theory of the *dharma-kāya*. But the doctrine of *parināmanā* (or *parivarta*) did not grow in the arid soil of logic and metaphysics. It sprang from the heart of the Indian people, who could not tolerate the idea of protracted suffering of any description. The philosophers subsequently provided it with a rationale.

According to the developed Mahāyāna doctrine, *parināmanā* is of two kinds. A *bodhisattva* may "apply" the Merit of a good deed for his own Enlightenment (*bodhi*). This practice is mentioned very frequently. But a *bodhisattva* may also "apply" his Merit for the welfare and spiritual progress of all creatures. Such *parināmanā* is regarded as more commendable in the later Mahāyāna, which prefers altruistic activity even to the ideal of Enlightenment. In this case, a *bodhisattva* shares his "roots of Merit" with all beings. He declares that he wishes to allay and appease their pain and misery, to save them from all fear, and to lead them to virtue, serene meditation and true knowledge. He desires that all beings should enjoy the blessings of health, strength, friendship, purity and unity, and also gain the knowledge of the Buddhas. As a concrete instance of *parināmanā*, we may refer to the concluding verses of Čāntideva's *Bodhi-cary-āvatāra* and Candragomin's *Gīyā-lekha*. Many Buddhist authors "transferred" the Merit that might accrue to them from the good deed of writing a book. Čāntideva devotes a whole canto to this *parināmanā*. He utters such philanthropic sentiments as the following: "May all, who suffer
pain in body or mind, obtain abundant joy and happiness! May all the denizens of the purgatories rejoice! May all the purgatories be divested of their terrors and become pleasant habitations for those beings! May they soon be released from their misery by the great and powerful bodhisattvas! May the wild brutes cease to attack and devour one another! May the famished pretas get plenty of food! May the blind see and the deaf hear! May the women bear children without travail! May all creatures obtain food, drink, clothes and ornaments according to their desires! May none be troubled with fear or grief! May the sick recover health, and may the feeble gain strength! May all wayfarers travel safely and succeed in their enterprise! May the ugly become beautiful! May all women become men! May all creatures shun sin and vice, and love virtue and righteousness! May they have eternal life, and may the very name of Death perish for ever!" These verses exhibit the spirit, in which a bodhisattva should dedicate his Merit to the service of all beings.

This idea of parināmanā may be compared to the Christian doctrine of participation in the merits of the saints.174

II. Çīla-pāramitā. Çīla, the second pāramitā, includes all the ordinary virtues of an honest, respectable layman-householder. The word is explained as a derivative of the root cīla, meaning "to exercise, to practise".175 Ācavaghoṣa connects it with cīlana (repeated practice, frequent exercise176). The M. S. Al. gives a fanciful etymology for it: caityasya lambhanāt (from the acquisition of coldness, i.e. the suppression of the passions177).

Çīla as a pāramitā has been defined in three ways. It has been identified with Virtue in general, and many admirable qualities have been enumerated as its characteristics. It has also been interpreted in relation to the ideals of purification and restraint, as they are realised with the body, the speech and the mind (deed, word and thought). It is usually understood as referring to the five moral precepts and the ten good and meritorious "Ways of Action", which constitute the Buddhist layman's definite code of practical ethics.

Çīla is a very important category in Buddhist philosophy. It occurs in several numerical formulae. It figures among the six anumerta (recollections), the four sampads (blessings, accomplishments), the seven dhana (treasures), and the three, four or five items of meritorious action (punya-kriyā-vastu).178
It is also one of the three original skandhas (group of factors in spiritual progress), the other two being Concentration and Wisdom, as has already been indicated above.

The Buddhist writers have pointed out the fundamental importance of "*sīla*" in eloquent words. *Sīla* is compared to a flawless gem, crystal or lapis lazuli, and the expressive adjective *achchidra* is often applied to it.\(^{128}\) It is more precious than silver and gold.\(^{166}\) A Buddhist without *sīla* is an impostor, and he can be neither a layman nor a monk.\(^{181}\) All auspicious actions depend on *sīla*.\(^{182}\) A virtuous man is infinitely superior to a great conqueror.\(^{188}\) *Sīla* adorns a person like a beautiful silk garment. Its "fragrance" spreads far and wide.\(^{184}\)

(a) *Sīla*, as a general term for many virtues, embodies the Buddhist's ideal of moral perfection. It is attained by completely extinguishing the "fire of the passions."\(^{168}\) It is especially related to the qualities, which are the opposites of the three basic faults, the "Roots of Evil or Demerit" (*akṣata-mālānī*). These three sources of "all our woe" are *rāga* (passion, lust, sense-desire), *dveṣa* (hatred, ill-will) and *moha* (delusion, folly).\(^{158}\) The last term has also been rendered as "bewilderment", "infatuation", "stupidity", "dullness", "confusion of mind", etc. *Rāga*, which is derived from the root *rañj*, is regarded as almost synonymous with *lobha* (greed, appetite). The *Dhamma-saṅgani* defines it thus: "lust, passion, seducing, compliance, . . ., cupidiry, voracity, attachment, covetousness, longing, fondness, affection; appetite for visual forms, sounds, odours, savours and tangible things; appetite for wealth, children and life; craving for sensual pleasures, for existence, and for non-existence."\(^{187}\) The conquest of *rāga* is the essence of righteousness.\(^{188}\) It can be achieved by the meditations on Impurity and by the realisation of the impermanence of all phenomena.\(^{169}\) *Dveṣa* (Pāli: *doso*) is derived from the root *dvī*, and not from *dus*, as Candrakīrti wrongly assumes.\(^{160}\) The *Dhamma-saṅgani* defines it thus: "When annoyance springs up at the thought, 'he has done me harm, is doing, will do me harm', 'he has done harm, is doing harm, will do harm to some one dear and precious to me,' 'he has conferred a benefit, is conferring, will confer a benefit on someone I dislike and object to'; or when annoyance springs up without any ground; all such vexation of spirit, resentment, repugnance, hostility, ill-temper, irritation, anger, hate, antipathy, abhorrence, mental disorder, detestation,
wrath, hatred, hate, hating, derangement, opposition, churlishness, ... disgust of heart—this is what is called dosa. 191 After such a deluge of synonyms, one should understand what dveṣa in Buddhist philosophy really means! It can be eradicated by the cultivation of the feeling of friendliness. 192 Moha, which is derived from the root muh, is thus defined in the Dhammasangani: “Lack of knowledge about the four Noble Truths; lack of knowledge about the former things, about the latter things and about both taken together; lack of knowledge about the assignable causation of causally determined states; lack of insight, of understanding, of comprehension, of enlightenment, of penetration, ... of reflection, of perspicacity; dullness, obtuseness, ignorance: this is called moha.” 193 Moha can be destroyed by the comprehension of the fundamental tenets of Buddhism, especially the four Noble Truths and the formula of Dependent Origination (pratitya-samutpada). 194

These three dire causes of all evil are like a devastating fire. 195 A bodhisattva frees himself from them in the third or fifth bhumi (stage). 196

The Buddhists seem to teach that all sins and vices are due to rāga and dveṣa, which are mentioned together in several passages. 197 All errors and heretical views spring from moha. Rāga and dveṣa are the enemies of Virtue, while moha cuts at the root of Wisdom. The suppression or control of rāga and dveṣa may thus be regarded as the general principle for the cultivation of sīla as a pāramitā.

Sīla is thus rooted in the absence of sensuality and hatred, but its ramifications are many. The Buddhist philosophers’ catalogue of virtues is long and varied. Āryaçūra ascribes eleven virtues to the bodhisattva Sutasma: “generosity, mercy, self-control, ardour, forbearance, fortitude, humility, modesty, conscientiousness, politeness and purity.” 198 The virtues of the beings, who inhabit Sukhāvati (the Region of Bliss), are enumerated in the Su. Fy. They are distinguished for unselﬁshness, purity, love of equality and peace, fortitude, equanimity, friendliness, tenderness of disposition, honesty, love, joyfulness, activity, forbearance, patience, composure, serenity, self-control, calmness, and complete freedom from avarice, arrogance and envy.” 199 The M. S. Al. declares that the bodhisattva are temperate, pure, firm, benevolent, earnest, conscientious, merciful, resolute, unselfish, calm and intrepid. 200 A similar list of virtues
is found in the *Lal. V.* and the *M. Vy.* Such general descriptions convey an adequate idea of the traits of character that the Buddhist teachers admired.

(b) These rambling and over-lapping lists of virtues were reduced to some kind of order in the threefold classification, which was based on the ideal of restraint and self-control (*sāṃvāra*) as applied to body, speech and mind. This triad of deed, word and thought may have been borrowed from Zoroastrianism, but it is probably of indigenous origin, as it is also found in Jaina literature. The Jainas employ the term *gupti* (restraint, guarding) instead of *sāṃvāra*. *Cīla* is often defined as the control and restraint of *kūya* (body), *vāc* (speech) and *manus* (mind). The author of the *Samādhīraja-sūtra* attaches particular importance to this aspect of *cīla*. The *Bh. Bhāt.* and the *Dh. S.* divide *cīla* into three categories, the first of which is *sāṃvāra-cīla*. The other two categories are really equivalent to benevolence, as they are defined as *kusala-dharma-sāngrahaka-cīla* (i.e. *cīla*, which is conducive to the accumulation of *MERIT*) and *sattva-ānugrahaka-cīla* or *sattva-kriyā-cīla* (i.e. *cīla*, which consists in rendering service to the living beings). The former of these two categories may refer to the particular moral precepts of *Buddhism*; but the latter variety of *cīla* is identical with *dāna*, which has already been discussed. *Sāṃvāra* is thus regarded as the keynote of *cīla* by several Buddhist philosophers. A *bodhisattva*, who practices *sāṃvāra*, examines himself and discovers his own faults and shortcomings. He does not care for worldly honour or gain of any kind. He scorns even the power and privileges of universal sovereignty. He acquires perfect spiritual vigilance (*upamāda*) and exhibits it in five ways. He combats and counteracts the sins and vices (*āpatti*) of the past, the present and the future; and he is inspired by the ardent zeal to act in such a way that no new sins may arise. Finally, all his actions are free from sin. Such is his watchfulness or vigilance against himself. He is also firm and serene in deportment, self-confident and pure.

The body, speech and mind must be controlled and disciplined; they must also be purified. This idea of purification is applied to the *bodhisattva’s* personality; it is probably of Persian origin.

According to the accepted Buddhist doctrine, the body can be controlled and purified by practising abstention from the three sins of killing a living being, theft and unchastity; speech
can be controlled and purified by abstaining from falsehood (untruthfulness), slander, harsh or impolite speech and frivolous, senseless talk; and the mind can be purified by the avoidance of covetousness, malevolence and wrong views. Thus we come to the ten “Ways of good or meritorious Action”, which constitute the Decalogue of Buddhism (kuśala-karma-pathāḥ).

e) These ten precepts owe their origin to the fusion of four old Indian ethical rules with the three “Roots of Evil” (rāga, doṣa, moha). The ancient Hindu sages inculcated four virtues and discouraged four vices by teaching the people to abstain from killing, falsehood, theft and unchastity. These four basic articles of social ethics are found in several ancient Hindu scriptures and also in the Yoga-sūtras. They represent the minimum of morality, without which organised society cannot exist. They are therefore common to all civilised nations, and are also included in the Hebrew Decalogue. The Buddhists and the Jainas borrowed them from Hinduism. These four precepts are mentioned in several passages of the Pāli canon. The rules with regard to speech were increased and amplified by the Buddhists, and three other faults were added to “falsehood”. It is a peculiar characteristic of the Indian ethical systems that the duty of pleasant speech is especially emphasised. The number of the precepts was thus raised to seven, and this group of seven is also found in the Pāli canon. Only these seven rules are discussed in the opening sections of the Brahma-jāla-sutta and some other passages. It may be inferred that the formula included only these seven precepts at a certain stage of its development. Finally, the three “Roots of Evil” were added in order to reach the round number Ten. The eighth sin to be avoided is called abhidhyā, which is almost a synonym of rāgu. The ninth item is upāpada, which is the same thing as doṣa; and the tenth is mithyā-drsti, which is equivalent to moha. It was not a happy idea to combine these general terms with the seven definite rules for practical action. The two groups of precepts do not mix well, like oil and water. The spirit of the first set of seven is different from that of the second set of three. The former is concrete and relates to action; the latter is abstract and deals with general motives and ideas. The Buddhist teachers have foisted upon their Church this singular conglomeration of dissimilar items as the standard code of practical ethics, as sīla par excellence.
Before discussing these ten constituents of *śīla*, it must be stated that there was also another line of development, in which the four ancient Hindu rules were increased to five by adding the injunction against the use of alcoholic beverages ("abstaining from any state of indolence arising from the use of intoxicants"). This set of five precepts is known as the five *śikṣā-padaṇī* in Sanskrit literature, though the Pāli term *sikkha-pada* seems to refer to the ten special regulations for the monks, which are given in the *Vinaya*. They are also spoken of as the *śikṣā-padas* of an *upāsaka* (layman). A Buddhist convert promises to observe these five precepts immediately after declaring his faith in the Buddha, the Doctrine and the Confraternity. In Pāli, they are also mentioned as the *pañca-śīla*, but this term is not generally employed in Sanskrit. It is probable that the prohibition of alcoholic beverages was at first intended only for the monks. It was subsequently extended to the laity. Some writers attempted to incorporate this important fifth rule in the formula of the ten "Ways of meritorious Action" by omitting the item "Harsh speech" (*pāruṣya*) and substituting teetotalism for it. Others inserted it as the third item without omitting any other rule, and thus raised the number of the precepts to eleven! But these attempts to secure a place in the Decalogue for the new rule did not succeed. It retained its position only in the smaller group of the five *śikṣā-padas*. The Mahāyānists carried on vigorous propaganda against the use of alcohol, but they did not attach much importance to this separate list of five items. It is not given in the *Mahā-vyутpatti*, which, however, speaks of liquor-drinking as a sin. Āryaśūra describes the evil consequences of alcoholism in the *Kumbha-jātaka*. The ancient special rules for the monks are also found in the Mahāyānist treatises, though they are not considered very important. They include the five *śikṣā-padas* mentioned above and the following five additional rules:

Not to use perfumes, garlands and unguents.
Not to use a high big bed.
Not to eat at the wrong hour.
Not to take part in worldly amusements, like music, dancing, etc.
Not to accept silver and gold.

The ten "Ways of Action" are given in both positive and negative forms. The sins and errors are mentioned
as the ten "evil or demeritorious Ways of Action" (daś-akūcalāh 
karma-pathāh). When the word virati or viramana (abstention) 
is added to them, the different items are called "good or meritorious 
Ways of Action". (The word pratirvirati is also found in this 
connection). The word pathāḥ is sometimes dropped, and they 
are described only as "actions" (kuçala-karmāṇī). Both words 
are sometimes omitted, and only the ten kuçalāmi or akuçalāmi are 
spoken of. The author of the Da. Bhū. adds some comments of a 
positive and constructive character to each precept, so that a bodhi-
sattva may understand the complementary ideas of "Thou shalt 
not" and "Thou shalt" at the same time.

The ten "Ways of Action" may now be considered in detail.

1. Abstention from killing living beings (prāṇ-ātipātād viratīḥ).
The form prāṇ-ātipītād is also found. But the Pāli words are: 
pāṇātipātā viramani. It is therefore proper to accept the form 
prāṇ-ātipātā.

This precept corresponds to the ahimsā of the Hindu 
scriptures. A bodhisattva does not use weapons of any kind. He 
does not hate any being, and cannot kill a living creature 
even in thought. He understands that all things originate 
causes, and cultivates pity and compassion. He knows that 
he has Free Will in action, and he believes in the doctrine of 
re-birth. Life is dear to all creatures, and a bodhisattva 
does not do unto others what he wishes that others should not 
do unto him. Ahimsā (not killing) is indeed the highest virtue.

From all these motives and considerations, a bodhisattva abstains 
from taking the life of any living being. He also condemns and 
shuns the barbarous custom of war among the states and kings 
of the world. War has its origin in hatred, avarice, cruelty and 
selfishness, and the glory of victorious kings is stained with blood. 
It is better for a king to abdicate than to wage war. A virtuous 
king tries his best to avoid war, as he knows that the so-called duty 
(dharma) of the warrior-caste (kṣatriyās) is based on cruelty and 
unrighteousness. Such "pacificist" sentiments are expressed 
by Kṣemendra.

The Mahāyānists also extended the scope of this pre-
cept to the relations between human beings and animals, as an 
animal is also a prāṇān (living being). The idea of humaneness 
to animals is found in the Pāli canon. Maitri (friendliness) 
to the brute creation is inculcated in the Avadāna-cūtaka; 
and Kṣemendra cries, "I cannot endure the pain even of
This tendency towards the humane treatment of animals is also fostered by the doctrine that sinful men and women may be reborn as animals. Some animals are said to possess a few human attributes. They can speak as a result of "Merit", and some snakes and parrots can even hear and understand sermons. Certain animals are reborn in a heaven, because they have eaten of a bodhisattva's flesh. Gautama Buddha was born as a hare, a swan, a fish, a quail, an ape, a woodpecker and an elephant in his previous existences. Avalokiteśvara preaches to the worms and insects, which can rise to the position of a Buddha after many aeons. A doe bears a son to a sage in the forest. Prince Kunala is punished with blindness, because he had inflicted the same calamity on some animals in a former life. These details, which have been culled from different treatises, prove that the Buddhists did not regard the animal world only with disdainful contempt. They acknowledged the rights and virtues of the dumb beasts. This feeling of sympathy also led to the condemnation of hunting and flesh-eating. Āryaçūra declares that it is wicked to discharge arrows at the frightened fleeing antelopes. The chief Mahāyānist writers also teach that it is a sin to eat meat. They abrogate the old rule that a monk may eat meat, if it is not especially cooked for him. The Lankāvatāra-sūtra devotes a long chapter to this subject, and several arguments are adduced in favour of vegetarianism. It is possible that an animal may really be one's relative, who is reborn in this state of woe; one's father, mother, brother, sister, son or daughter may reappear on earth in the form of a brute. There is no reason why the meat of some species should be eaten, while other species are spared: hence meat of all kinds should be regarded as uneatable. Meat is impure and repulsive, as it is always blended with blood and the secretions of the body. It is not right to spread terror and agony among the animals, which flee from man as from a ruthless demon. Meat is really nothing but foul ill-smelling carrion, and one should not eat the carcasses of animals. The practice of flesh-eating makes men cruel and sensual. Men are not carnivorous by nature, like tigers or wolves. Hence such diet paves the way for rebirth in the dreadful purgatories. For these reasons, the author of the Lankāvatāra-sūtra teaches that vegetarianism is the only proper course for a bodhisattva. Čāndideva shares this view, but he allows the use of meat as
medicine, if human life is in danger. The Mahāyānist interpretation of āhimsā, as applied to the animal world, has been accepted by the vast majority of the Indian people.

Apart from strict vegetarianism, extreme moderation in eating and drinking is also enjoined on a bodhisattva, who practises the sanuvara of the body. He should eat neither too much nor too little. He should eat only to keep the body healthy and active, as ointment is applied to a wound and as a ship is rigged and repaired. Intemperance in eating and drinking causes disease, torpor and weakness.

2. Abstention from theft (literally, “from taking what is not given”: adatt-ādānād virātiḥ). The form adatta-haranam is also found (instead of adatt-ādānam). Both the Hindus and the Jainas employ the term asteya (not stealing), but the Buddhists have resorted to this curious periphrasis. A bodhisattva is contented with his possessions and does not covet those of other people. He respects the rights of property in things that belong to others. He does not steal even a leaf or a blade of grass.

3. Abstention from unchastity (literally, “false conduct with regard to sensual pleasures,” kāma-mithyā-accarah). The form kāma-mithyā-vādah is also found. The author of the Samādhivijaya-sūtra retains the old Hindu term abrahmacarya (fol. 193b, 6).

A bodhisattva is contented with his own wife and does not cast longing eyes on the wives of other men. He does not harbour even a lustful thought with regard to other married women. Adultery is like poison, that mars and destroys human life, even if it is committed in secret.

4. Abstention from telling lies (majā-vādād virātiḥ, or, anṛta-vacanād virātiḥ). The Hindus employ the simple term satyam (truthfulness).

A bodhisattva speaks the truth and nothing but the truth, and he does so at the proper time. His actions are in harmony with his words. He does not tell a lie even in a dream. Truthfulness is the highest spiritual austerity. The power of Veracity is like a force of Nature and can work miracles. When it is employed by truthful persons according to the procedure of saty-ādhiṣṭhāna, it can give sight to the blind and heal the torn and bleeding limbs of self-sacrificing bodhisattvas. It can cure disease and produce rainfall. It can allay the fury of the elements and save
mariners from shipwreck. It can even restore the dead to life.253
Truth is great and prevails against all the powers of evil.

5. Abstention from slander (paścunyād viratīḥ, or paścuna-vacanād viratīḥ).

A bodhisattva does not sow strife and discord in society by uttering slanderous libels. He does not act as a tale-bearer. He does not repeat what he has heard. He does not separate good friends or take delight in causing disunion among people by his words.252

6. Abstention from harsh speech (pārasyād viratīḥ, or pārasya-vacanād viratīḥ).

A bodhisattva does not indulge in harsh, bitter, offensive, vulgar and angry speech, which cuts others to the quick and wounds and lacerates their feelings. His speech is always sweet, polite, gentle, pleasant, agreeable, beneficial and dignified. It gives joy both to him and to others, as it is sweet both to the ear and the heart. But he may speak harshly in order to restrain foolish persons from evil actions.253


A bodhisattva speaks at the proper time, and his utterances are always cogent, relevant and instructive. He speaks of righteousness and religion. He avoids all conversation about common stories and legends.254 He is not interested in aimless gossip about “kings, robbers, soldiers, villages, towns, countries, kingdoms, capital cities, ministers, officials, eunuchs, carriages, gardens, palaces, monasteries, tanks, ponds, lakes, mountains, demons, ogres, hobgoblins, food, drink, clothes, ornaments, music, dance, love,” etc., etc.255 The Mahāyānists are very severe on what is called “light talk.” Pleasant and useful speech is also regarded as one of a bodhisattva’s four saṅghera-vastus (items of sympathy or conversion). A bodhisattva is not talkative or loquacious: he is inclined to be reticent and speaks little.256 “Sweet speech” is the means of teaching the doctrine (deṣanā). It removes the doubts of the inquirer and sets forth the proper arguments. It may therefore be characterised as grāhaka (“that which makes people take”).257 A bodhisattva’s speech should be pleasant, true, and conducive to the Good.258 It is the mark of a bodhisattva, who cannot fall from his high estate (aviniṣṭhānīya). Dharmākara, the saint who rose to be the great Buddha Amitākha, was a man of sweet speech.259 Prince Sutejas was also gentle in speech.260
As a general rule, a bodhisattva's speech is intended to encourage, delight or instruct others. He encourages others by being the first to speak to them with a smiling and joyous countenance. He inquires about their welfare and their health, and addresses words of hearty welcome to them. He also delights other people by conforming to the ways of the world like a fellow-citizen, and wishes them abundant increase of sons, wives and relatives, or of wealth and worldly goods. He expresses the hope that they will grow in faith, virtue, knowledge, charity and wisdom. He instructs them in religion for their good and weal (hita, sukha), and is always ready to benefit them by his speech, which is devoted to spiritual teaching. It is a very difficult task indeed to speak sweetly to one's enemies and adversaries, or to preach to very stupid and dull persons with great patience, or to hold encouraging and uplifting converse with false, dishonest and cunning people. But a bodhisattva cultivates sweet speech even in his intercourse with such individuals. Further, he exhorts the people to abandon the five nivaranas (Hindrances), to aim at happy rebirths, and to ponder on the four Noble Truths. He rebukes and admonishes lax monks and easy-going householders, removes their doubts and helps them to enter the path of earnestness. He preaches the ten ethical precepts, which free a person from sin and show him the way leading out of all sorrow. As a general rule, a bodhisattva permits others to do what is permissible according to the Scriptures, and prohibits them to do such things as are forbidden. He comforts and solaces those creatures, who are afflicted with diverse fears. He purifies his speech in four ways: he abjures lying, slander, harsh words and frivolous talk. He speaks exactly as he has seen, heard, thought or known; and if he has not seen, heard, thought or known anything, he speaks accordingly. These are his eight noble ways of speech (āryā vyavahārāḥ). He soothes and allays the grief of all persons, who are suffering from bereavement or loss of wealth. He speaks to those who are ill, vicious or heterodox, and he teaches them how to acquire health, virtue or right views (Bṣ. Bhū., fol. 86a, b).

8. Abstention from covetousness (abhidhyāya virātiḥ). The Pāli word abhijjhā is explained as a synonym of rāga in the Dhamma-saṅgaṇi (Section 1126). Aśvaghosha teaches that it destroys the man, who is the slave of sensuality. A bodhisattva is free from this fault. He does not covet the wealth and
possessions of other persons. He does not think thus: "May I get what belongs to other people." His heart is not corrupted by avarice. 270

This precept may be compared to the tenth Commandment of the Hebrew Decalogue.

9. Abstention from malevolence (malevolence, ill-will; vyāpādād viratih). The Pali word byāpāda is given as a synonym of dosa (hatred) in the Dhamma-saṅgani (Sections 410, 1137). A bodhisattva's heart is free from malice. He is friendly, merciful, benevolent, compassionate and kind-hearted towards all living beings. He abandons all anger, hatred, ill-will and enmity. He cultivates thoughts of love and pity towards all creatures, and desires their welfare and happiness. 271

10. Abstention from wrong views (heretical opinions; mithyā-dyāśer viratih). The form mithyā-darśanam is also found. 272

A bodhisattva walks in the path of righteousness. He has firm faith in the Buddha, the Doctrine and the Confraternity. He is straightforward, honest and sincere. He does not think of evil and improper pursuits and actions. 273

The Da. Bhū. explains mithyā-dṛṣṭi in this general way. But the Dhamma-saṅgani repeats the formula, which has already been referred to in the section on samyog-dṛṣṭi (unbelief in the existence of the next life and the fruit of actions, etc.). 274 The term probably refers to the whole system of Buddhist doctrine, and may be interpreted as "heterodoxy". A bodhisattva must be "orthodox" in his views and should not accept the doctrines of the Jainas, the Hindus, and other sects.

(d) As regards the motives and sanctions for right action, the Buddhist philosophers speak of the ordinary worldly inducements and allurements, as in the case of Charity (dāna). Gīta leads to fame, popularity, beauty, happiness, and rebirth in a wealthy family on earth or as a deva in a heaven. 275 It enables a person to meet death calmly and peacefully. 276 The Saṃśādhyāja-sūtra mentions ten advantages of gīta. A bodhisattva, whose conduct is pure, attains complete knowledge, follows the example of the Buddhas, is never blamed by the learned, does not break his promises, remains firm in the right ways of behaviour, flees the world, lives free from any hindrance caused by prepossessions or adverse conditions, acquires
Concentration, and is not afflicted with poverty. (Sam. Rā., fol. 113a, lines 1–2.)

Pure hedonism thus seems to be the ruling theory of Buddhist ethics. But it sometimes degenerates into spiritual terrorism of the worst sort. The ten precepts are more or less negative in character, and the fear of punishment in the purgatories is held to be the chief sanction for virtuous conduct. The hope of reward is supposed to be the mainspring of dāna (Giving); but threats of terrible penalties are considered to be necessary for the observance of ṭila. The Buddhist teachers speak of eight hot and eight cold purgatories in connection with the ten precepts of ṭila. The eight hot narakas (purgatories) are called saṃjiva, kāla-vātra, saṅghāta, raurava, mahā-raurava, tapana, pratāpana and avici. Some of these names have perhaps a meaning. Raurava may signify “the place of cries”; tapana means “heating”. The two purgatories, raurava and avici, are mentioned more frequently than the others. The eight cold purgatories are named arbuda, nirarbuda, atata, hahava (or apaipo), huheva (or hāhādhara), utpala, padma, mahāpadma. Some of these names are evidently onomatopoeic; atata and hahava suggest the effects of extreme cold. Padma and utpala (lotus) are probably euphemistic terms. This scheme of sixteen purgatories was the final product of the vivid imagination of the Mahāyānists, who elaborated the idea of retribution after death. The Mahā-vaitū devote a long chapter to the subject (vol. i, pp. 5–26); but it mentions only the eight hot purgatories and speaks vaguely of sixteen smaller purgatories (utuada) attached to each great naraka. It offers a fanciful etymological explanation for each name, and describes the tortures and the sins associated with each purgatory. Aṣṭaghosa and Çāntidēva have also described the terrors of the purgatories. As the Indians are past masters in the art of exaggeration, there is no lack of burning, boiling, baking, rending, tearing, wounding, bleeding, freezing, shivering, piercing, sawing, splitting, mauling, mutilating and other pains and torments in these purgatories. Çāntidēva has in fact drawn up a systematic penal code for the sinners, who violate any of the ten ethical precepts. As in Dante’s Inferno, the punishment is often suited to the transgression. Thus a thief sees unreal gold and jewels, which he tries to appropriate in vain; an adulterer pursues phantoms of women, who mock his lust; a liar’s tongue is cut out of his mouth, and so on. The only redeeming feature of
this hideous nightmare of the Mahāyānists is that the sojourn in these purgatories does not last for ever. Each sin is completely expiated after a certain period of time, though that period may be very long.

A sinner may also be punished by being reborn as an animal or a ōreta. The troubles and calamities of the animals are described in the Mahā-vastra and the Buddha-carita. An irascible teacher, who told his dull pupils that they were buffaloes, was reborn as a buffalo. Some careless persons, who spat on the walls of sacred buildings, were even reborn as walls! The Mahāyānists certainly do not lack a sense of humour. The ōretas, whose mouths are as small as the eye of a needle and whose bellies are as large as a mountain, are always tormented with hunger and thirst. This class of imaginary creatures is a peculiar product of Indian wit and folklore. Finally, a sinner may be reborn as a poor, ugly, diseased and deformed man or woman, and may be unfortunate and unsuccessful in his or her life on earth.

Such are the terrible sanctions behind the Mahāyānist Decalogue.

(c) Some Mahāyānist philosophers have risen to the noble conception that a person should do the right, because his conscience prompts and compels him to act in that manner. Čita is regarded as the means of leading others to Enlightenment, and not as the price paid in advance for the pleasures of heaven. The ruling and controlling principle of a bodhisattva’s ċita should be hrī (conscientiousness) and utma-laįja (shame in or before oneself). This important term hrī denotes a remarkable concept in Mahāyānist ethics. It is often coupled with apatrapāya (vayapatrapāya, apatrapā. Pali: ottappa), which means “shame with regard to others, fear of social censure”. These two are included in the formula of the seven dhanaś (treasures). Apatrapā belongs after all to the sphere of enlightened hedonism, as it is associated with social approval and popularity. But hrī (Pali: hiri) introduces us to a new order of ideas. “It has been explained as “purity of intention, and modesty with regard to oneself”.” The idea of “shame” can easily develop into that of “self-respect”, as the Greek word atoșis clearly shows. Hrī represents an inner self-determining disinterested principle, which inspires a bodhisattva to the practice of ċita. It is synonymous with laįja, which is extolled in the Bs. Bhā. and the M. S. Al. A bodhisattva feels shame, if he is not
energetic in the cultivation of the pāramitās. .digest is destroyed in the absence of this quality, which is also indispensable for the Equipment that leads to Enlightenment. It raises a bodhisattva above the eight ordinary motives and deterrents: viz. gain and loss, fame and obloquy, praise and blame, pleasure and pain. Aryaśūra teaches that a bodhisattva does not commit any sin, because he has ātman-ajña (self-shame) and witnesses his own actions, even if they are concealed from others. Hṛṣi thus points to the existence of that inner Mentor, which is also recognised by Marcus Aurelius and Kant as the necessary postulate of true ethics.

(f) The Mahāyānists have thus gone through the entire gamut of the motives that govern human conduct. But they have rather stultified themselves by teaching the strange doctrine that a bodhisattva may violate any or all of the precepts of āśā, if he is moved by compassion for others. This view has led to much subtle casuistry. The Bo. Bhā. and other treatises explain that the ethical rules are not absolute. They may be infringed, if a bodhisattva can thereby render service to an unfortunate creature. This doctrine must have originated on account of three circumstances. These keen thinkers must have realised that no ethical laws can be universally and eternally valid, and that the ordinary social code must break down under certain circumstances. They attached such exaggerated importance to mercy and compassion that they began to take a short-sighted view of ethical obligation. They thought that the immediate relief of pain and suffering outweighed the permanent loss inflicted on the individual and on society by the deliberate violation of the great moral principles. It is also probable that they wished to excuse and condone the moral laxity of the Buddhist monks, to which the well-known passage in the Rāṣṭrapāla-paripṛcchā bears witness. Čāntideva also speaks with suspicious frequency of the sins of rāga (passion, lust) as venial and even commendable offences, when a bodhisattva commits them in order to please and gratify others. The medieval monks of Europe also passed through a period of widespread corruption; but they did not formulate a regular philosophy of degeneracy. The later Mahāyānists sought to justify the sensual escapades of the monks (alias bodhisattvas) by referring to the assumed motive of karunā. Tantrism cast its shadow before.
The author of the *Bodhisattvabhumi* indicates the circumstances, in which a bodhisattva may infringe the seven chief precepts. He may kill a person, who intends to murder a monk or his own parents. He should say: "It does not matter if I suffer in the purgatories for this sin: but I must save this misguided creature from such a fate." He can "take what is not given", if it is necessary to deprive unjust kings and wicked robbers of their ill-gotten gains, which must lead to their ruin and destruction. He may have carnal knowledge of an unmarried woman, if he can thus prevent her from harbouring thoughts of hatred and ill-will. He may tell lies for the sake of others. He may slander someone in order to separate another bodhisattva from a bad friend. He may speak harshly to a sinner in order to warn and reproach him. He may indulge in frivolous talk in order to win over such persons as are addicted to music, dancing and gossip. He may adopt an objectionable mode of livelihood in order to approach and convert the people, who follow such sinful practices. He may take part in amusements, if he wishes to soothe the grief, worry and anxiety of those who are depressed in mind; but he should not be boisterous or undignified in his behaviour. As a general principle, he is not forbidden to conform to the ways of the world, as he must help others and maintain amicable relations with them. He should not be afraid of sinning now and then for the sake of others, as he has a long period of time at his disposal before Enlightenment can be attained. In this way, the Mahayanaists teach that the end justifies the means and that a bodhisattva may sometimes adopt St. Paul's device of "becoming all things to all men".

*(g) Stories of *Citra*. The stories of *siла* are not so numerous or sensational as those relating to *dāna*.

*Cakra*, the chief of the *devas*, observed the first precept by turning back his aerial car in order to spare some tiny nests, even though he was hotly pursued by his enemies, the Demons, after the defeat of his army. But his humane action gave him the victory, as the Demons were bewildered and thrown into confusion by this sudden and unexpected movement. A quail and a whale lived on vegetarian food, as they did not wish to kill small animals. A prince was troubled with keen qualms of conscience, because he drank the water out of a pot that belonged to a sage, and he was thus guilty of theft. A bodhisattva disobeyed the command of his *brahmin* teacher, who asked
his pupils to steal for his benefit. A king, who was deeply infatuated with the beautiful wife of one of his officials, refused to gratify his passion, even though the husband was willing and eager to give up his wife as a loyal subject. Upagupta and Padmaka rejected and repelled the advances of certain prostitutes. Prince Kunāla and Prince Kalyāṇakārī also refused to be seduced by passionate women, who fell in love with them. Kṣemendra relates a foolish story of incest and its terrible consequences. A fish saved his comrades from death by calling down rain from the heavens through the power of veracity. A young quail saved his parents and himself by extinguishing a forest-conflagration in the same manner. Puṣṇa was reborn as a slave-girl's son, as he had committed the sin of using harsh language in his previous existence. Sthaviraka and Hastaka were also visited with condign punishment for the same fault. Raivata was condemned to twelve years' imprisonment for a crime, which he had not committed, because he had falsely accused another man of such a crime in his former life.

The stories relating to chastity and the punishment of harsh speech are more interesting than the others.

III. Kṣānti-pāramitā (Forbearance and Endurance). A bodhisattva should practise the Perfection of kṣānti. This word has been rendered as "forbearance", "patience", "meekness", "die Milde", etc. A. B. Keith, following D. T. Suzuki, interprets it as "not feeling dejected in the face of evils". But this explanation is not adequate. Kṣānti is always described as the opposite of krodha (anger), dvesha (hatred), pratigha (repugnance) and vyāpāda (malice). It is defined as freedom from anger and excitement (akopana, aṣṭabhanatā) and as the habit of enduring and pardoning injuries and insults (par-āpakāraṇya marṣanam). This is the primary and fundamental connotation of kṣānti. But it is also used in two other subsidiary senses: (1) patient endurance of pain and hardship (duḥkh-ādhibāsana), and (2) acquiescence in or acceptance of the ideals and doctrines of the religion with faith (dharma-nidhyān-ādhimukti).

These three aspects of kṣānti may be discussed in detail.

1. Forbearance. A bodhisattva knows that the Buddhas are "the ocean of forbearance"; gentle forbearance (kṣānti-sauratyam) is their spiritual garment. He cultivates this virtue in its full perfection. He forgives others for
all kinds of injury, insult, contumely, abuse and censure. He forgives them everywhere, in secret and in public. He forgives them at all times, in the forenoon, at noon and in the afternoon, by day and by night. He forgives them for what has been done in the past, for what is being done at present and for what will be done in the future. He forgives them in sickness and in health. He forgives them with his body, as he never thinks of striking them with his hands or a stick or a stone; he forgives them with his speech, as he never utters harsh words; and he forgives them with his mind, as he harbours no anger or evil thoughts against them. Even if his body is destroyed and cut up into a hundred pieces with swords and spears, he does not conceive an angry thought against his cruel persecutors. He forgives all without exception, his friends, his enemies, and those who are neither. He forgives even weak and socially inferior persons, who may insult or injure him. He forgives wicked and cruel persons, who may have inflicted terrible and unendurable pain and loss on him for a very long time. Being reviled, he reviles not again; being beaten, he beats not again; being annoyed, he annoys not again. He does not show anger towards one who is angry. He is like a dumb sheep in quarrels and squabbles. In a word, his forgiveness is unfailing, universal and absolute, even as Mother Earth suffers in silence all that may be done to her.

A bodhisattva should cultivate certain modes of thought and ponder on some great principles, so that he may understand why he should forgive others. He should remember Buddha’s words: “The strength of a religious teacher is his patience.” He should love all beings and therefore bear with them. His enemy of to-day may have been a friend, a relative or a teacher in a previous existence and should therefore be regarded as an old comrade. A bodhisattva also knows that there is no permanent substantial individuality in any man or woman. Hence it follows that there is really no one who reviles, beats and injures, or who is reviled, beaten and injured. All beings are ephemeral and mortal; it is improper to be angry with such miserable creatures. They are also afflicted with pain. Even those, who live in great affluence, cannot escape the three kinds of pain that are inseparable from the very nature of things. A bodhisattva should try to alleviate their pain, not to increase it by lack of forbearance. He should also be more or less of a determinist in judging others,
who harm him. Those enemies are not free agents: their wicked deeds are produced by causes, over which they have no control, as disease originates in physiological conditions. All men are driven and dominated by the forces set in motion by their actions in past lives, even though they may not know this law.

"Tout comprendre, c'est tout pardonner." Further, a bodhisattva cannot really blame others for the injuries that they may inflict upon him, because he suffers on account of his own sins and misdeeds in his previous existence. His enemies are only the instruments of the cosmic law of karma. In fact, they are his best friends, and he should thank them for their services. They deprive him of the dangerous impedimenta of wealth, fame and worldly happiness. They enable him to exhibit the virtue of forbearance, which leads to heaven and also to Enlightenment. They do him much good, while they ruin their own chances of a happy rebirth. A bodhisattva should also reflect that anger is a grievous sin, which must certainly be expiated in the dreadful purgatories. It destroys all the Merit that has been acquired in many lives. It is therefore better to suffer a little in this life at the hands of one's enemies than to yield to anger and endure the terrible consequences of that heinous sin after death. Anger and Envy should be shunned, as a fish would swim clear of the fisherman's net. The envious man forgets that his neighbours only enjoy the fruits of their good deeds. He should learn to rejoice in the prosperity of others and to praise their virtues. Lack of forbearance is often due to Pride (māna). Pride is a very dangerous, destructive and demoralising sin, which a bodhisattva must combat and subdue with all his might. It is the work of Māra, the deity of Desire and Death. A bodhisattva must never praise and exalt himself, or belittle and depreciate others. He should be humble in spirit, like a servant or an outcaste. Humility is indispensable for the attainment of bodhi. It also facilitates the practice of Forbearance. A wise bodhisattva should forgive others even from fear, as vindictiveness always ends in evil. The Buddhas will not forgive him, if he does not forgive those who trespass against him. His own best interests can also be promoted in this way, as he, who is at peace with all, must be happy in life and at the moment of death. Such a man is also invulnerable: he cannot be burned by fire, drowned in water, or wounded by weapons. He is sure of rebirth in a heaven. He finally attains Enlightenment, if he practises
large-hearted, all-embracing, measureless Forbearance towards all.  

Thus do Ṣantideva and the author of the Bodhisattva-bhūmi argue and preach on this theme. But it is really difficult to reconcile the law of karma with the spirit of forbearance. Such frigid metaphysics may teach passive resignation, but not loving forbearance. But the same writers also mention mercy and love as the motive forces behind ḫānti; and here they seem to get at the root of the matter. We forgive with the heart, and not with the head.

2. Endurance. A bodhisattva also exhibits the virtue of ḫānti by enduring hunger and thirst, cold and heat, and also all the severity and inclemency of wind and weather. He lives happily even in places infested with fleas, gnats, serpents and other such obnoxious and dangerous insects and reptiles. He is also capable of enduring any amount of labour, drudgery, hardship and privation, because he loves all who suffer in this world of woe, and wishes to help them. In spite of all this, he is happy and cheerful. He experiences pleasure even when he is subjected to the most excruciating pain, torture and mutilation, because he sends out loving thoughts and wishes to all creatures. He also knows that only the body suffers in this way, and he does not identify his personality with the body. He reflects that he has undergone many troubles and tribulations during many lives only for the sake of transient pleasure and a wretched livelihood; but now he must endure comparatively slight pain in order to acquire Merit and attain bodhi. Thinking thus, he resolves to meet all kinds of pain calmly and joyfully. He is prepared to starve and suffer, if he does not get even the necessaries of life. He can bear the loss of all perishable worldly possessions, taken separately or collectively. He works hard day and night to purify his heart from all evil, and he does not yield to indolence and lassitude. He does not rest or recline on a couch or a seat, or even on a bed of grass and leaves, at the wrong hour. He is not afraid of the toil and exertion that are necessary for the service of the Buddha, the Doctrine, the Confraternity and his teachers, for the study of the principles of the religion and their dissemination among others, for the task of careful self-examination in the privacy of solitude, and for the cultivation of calm and insight. He observes the hard rules of the monastic Order—lifelong celibacy, poverty, mendicancy, ugliness of face and features
after the tonsure, the robe of peculiar hue, and the permanent loss of all amusements and social amenities.\(^{340}\) If he is a householder, he has to work and labour as a farmer, a merchant or an official. But a bodhisattva, monk or layman, is not discouraged or depressed on account of all this pain and misery. He does not turn back from his quest.\(^{340}\)

3. Acceptance of the Truth. A bodhisattva exercises kṣānti of the highest and most difficult kind by the realisation of insight into the real Law and Truth of the universe. He investigates the Doctrine thoughtfully and intelligently, and thus acquires firm faith in the merits of the Buddha, the Doctrine and the Confraternity, in the Truth, in the power and glory of the Buddhas and the bodhisattvas, in the Cause, in the Fruit, in the sumnum bonum and in his own methods and efforts for its attainment.\(^{341}\) Such kṣānti can be developed only through pure knowledge and persistent practice. It is of three kinds.\(^{342}\) A bodhisattva may only hear some preacher and accept his teaching (ghoṣanuga kṣāntih); or he may observe and follow the regular religious discipline and practise reflexion (ānulomiki kṣāntih); or he may reach the highest stage by accepting and realising the truth that nothing is produced or originated. The Samādhirajā-sūtra describes the great powers and privileges of a bodhisattva, who acquires these three forms of kṣānti, which it does not, however, define or explain (fol. 26a, 6 ff.). The Da. Bhū. and the M. S. Al. explain the third kind of kṣānti (anupattika-dharma-kṣāntih) as the comprehension and acceptance of the doctrine that all phenomena and things are illusory, non-existent, un-produced and un-differentiated.\(^{343}\) It is obtained by an advanced bodhisattva in the eighth bhūmi (stage). In modern parlance, he "sees life steadily and sees it whole".

4. Stories of Kṣānti. There are some beautiful stories relating to this pāramitā, one or two of which have perhaps also the merit of being true.

Story of Pūrṇa. Pūrṇa was a Buddhist apostle in the early period of the history of Buddhism. His story is related in the Pāli canon.\(^{344}\) In Sanskrit, it is found in the Divy-avadāna and the Avadāna-kalpa-latā.\(^{345}\) It is one of the gems of Buddhist literature. Some irrelevant details need not be considered here (e.g., his birth as a slave-girl's son, his attachment to one of his half-brothers, his success in business, etc.). The story of his kṣānti begins with his ordination as a monk. He resolved to go as a
missionary to a country, which was inhabited by wild barbarous tribes. He asked permission of Gautama Buddha, who tried to dissuade him from his risky enterprise. Buddha said: “The people of Cronāparānta are fierce, violent and cruel. They are given to abusing, reviling and annoying others. If they abuse, revile and annoy you with evil, harsh and false words, what would you think?” Pūrṇa replied: “In that case, I would think that the people of Cronāparānta are really good and gentle folk, as they do not strike me with their hands or with stones (clods of earth).”

Buddha: “But if they strike you with their hands or with clods, what would you think?”

Pūrṇa: “In that case, I would think that they are good and gentle folk, as they do not strike me with a cudgel or a weapon.”

Buddha: “But if they strike you with a cudgel or a weapon, what would you think?”

Pūrṇa: “In that case, I would think that they are good and gentle folk, as they do not take my life.”

Buddha: “But if they kill you, Pūrṇa, what would you think?”

Pūrṇa: “In that case, I would still think that they are good and gentle folk, as they release me from this rotten carcass of the body without much difficulty. I know that there are monks, who are ashamed of the body and distressed and disgusted with it, and who slay themselves with weapons, take poison, hang themselves with ropes or throw themselves down from precipices. (So I shall thank those people for rendering me a service).”

Buddha: “Pūrṇa, you are endowed with the greatest gentleness and forbearance. You can live and stay in that country of the Cronāparāntas. Go and teach them how to be free, as you yourself are free”. (Divy-āvadāna, pp. 38, 39)

This story is probably based on historical facts, and therefore deserves to be related in detail.

Story of Kunāla. King Aśoka had a son, named Dharma-vivardhana, whose eyes were as beautiful as those of the Himalayan bird, called kunāla. He was therefore also called Kunāla. When he grew to manhood, his step-mother Tisyarakṣita fell in love with him, but he tried to preach virtue to her. He thus incurred her enmity, and she resolved to destroy him. Kunāla was sent by the king to the town of Takṣačilā in the north in order to quell a revolt of the citizens. Kunāla ruled Takṣačilā as a successful and popular governor. In the meantime, Aśoka fell ill, and
Tisyaraksita his wife restored him to health by her efforts. She asked to be allowed to exercise royal power for a week, and Acoka complied with her request in order to show his gratitude to her. She despatched an order in Acoka's name to the citizens of Takṣaḷa, commanding them to put out Kunala's eyes. The citizens did not know what to do; but Kunala gladly submitted to the ordeal, as he had thoroughly understood the Buddhist doctrine that all external things are transient and worthless. He even took the eyes in his hands and began to philosophise in verse. He left the town and wandered back to Pataliputra as a beggar, accompanied by his wife Kaśicamalla. He begged his bread on the way by singing and playing the vina (lute). The unfortunate couple found refuge in the royal garage (ūna-gāra), where they were discovered by the palace-servants. When they were taken into the king's presence, the lascivious and vindictive queen's intrigue was exposed. Acoka was furious with rage and grief, and threatened to put her to death with cruel tortures. But Kunala had learned the duty and virtue of forbearance so well that he interceded for her. He said to King Acoka: "O King! I am not troubled with pain at all. In spite of the terrible wrong (inflicted on me), there is no burning anger in me (manyu-tāpah). My heart is full of love for my mother, who put out my eyes." This is the moral of the story. The author of the Divya-avādana ruins the tragedy by adding that Kunala then cried: "If these words are true, may both my eyes immediately become as they formerly were." He thus got back his eyes by the process of satyādhiṣṭāna.

We seem to hear distant echoes of a palace-intrigue in this story. Or is it only a piece of fiction, like the other avadānas?

Story of Kṣantivādin. This famous story is told in the Jātaka-māla and the Avadāna-kalpa-latā. Kṣemendra relates it twice, first as the Kacidudar-avādana and then as the Kṣanti-avādana. A holy monk lived in a wood. He was called Kṣantivādin, because he often preached the virtue of forbearance. Now it happened that the king of that country came to the wood on a pleasure-trip with his wives and attendants. When he had strolled about for a time, he drank some wine and fell asleep. His wives came to the monk's hermitage in the course of their ramble. They listened to an excellent sermon on forbearance. When the king
awoke from his sleep, he set out in search of the ladies. When he saw them at the hermitage, he was beside himself with rage and jealousy. He reviled and abused the monk, called him a charlatan and hypocrite, and cut off his hands, arms, ears, nose and feet. But the monk’s forbearance and serenity remained unshaken. He was sorry for the king and pitted him. He even uttered sincere wishes for his future welfare. That king had in the meantime met the guerdon of his *karma*: the earth opened and swallowed him up. The monk died peacefully and went to a heaven.

Kṣemendra avoids this tragic conclusion. He restores the monk to his normal condition by the device of *saty-ādhiṣṭhāna*.

Is this story based on a real tragedy? It is a simple story, but it has become very popular and important. Perhaps it had its origin in the capricious cruelty of a drunken despot.

These three names, Pūrṇa, Kunāla and Kṣantivādin are famous in Buddhist literature. The halo of *kṣanti* surrounds them. There are other minor tales relating to the same Perfection. Gautama Buddha forgave his assailants, and offered hospitality to the men who were sent to kill him. Queen Padmā asked her husband not to punish her wicked rivals. A boy did not curse the king who shot him. Dharmapāla forgave his executioners. And so on. *Kṣanti* is one of the favourite themes of the Buddhist story-tellers.

IV. Vīrya-pāramitā. *Vīrya* as a *pāramitā* is a many-sided and comprehensive term. The word *vīrya*, derived from *vīra* and *vār*, literally means "the state of a strong man, vigour, strength, power, heroism, prowess, valour, fortitude, courage, firmness, virility" (Pāli Dic. and Skt. Dic. M. W.). As a *pāramitā*, it has been translated as "strength", "energy", "strenuousness", "manliness", "zeal", "courage", "power", "die Tapferkeit", "diligence", "vigour", etc. It is advisable to leave it untranslated, or to adopt "Energy" as a conventional rendering.

*Vīrya* is an important category in Buddhist philosophy and religion. It is also reckoned among the five *bhānas* and *indriyas* and the seven *bodhi-angas*, as has already been indicated above. The *Dhamma-saṅgāni* defines it thus: "The striving and onward effort, the exertion and endeavour, the zeal and ardour, the vigour and fortitude, the state of unfaltering effort, the state of sustained desire, the state of not putting down
the yoke and the burden, the solid grip of the yoke and the burden, energy, right endeavour, this is *vīrya*" (Section 13). The *M. S. Al.* gives a fanciful etymology: *varena yojāyati* (it unites one to that which is excellent).\(^{351}\) *Vīrya* is generally defined as "energy in the pursuit of the Good", "vigour in well-doing", "effort for the Good" (*kuśa-otsāḥ)*.\(^{352}\) The *Bodhisattva-khāmi* describes it as "the great energy or vigour of the mind in the accumulation of meritorious principles" (*ṣītāsy-ṣīy-utsāḥ kuśa-dharma-saṅgroha*).\(^{353}\) The words *apramāṇa* (vigilance, alertness, watchfulness) and *dhṛti* (fortitude, steadfastness) also denote certain aspects of *vīrya* and are frequently employed.\(^{354}\) The opposite of *vīrya* is *kausīdyā* (*kausīdyā*), "indolence, sloth." Other words, which are synonyms of *kausīdyā*, are also contrasted with *vīrya*, e.g. *middha*, *nidrā*, *ālaya*, etc. But Çantideva also mentions three other faults in this connection, viz. attachment to ignoble and evil things, despondency (*viṣāda*: "despair, discouragement"), and self-contempt (diffidence, *ātmāvamanāṇa*).\(^{355}\)

*Vīrya* is often praised by the Mahāyānist writers, and its fundamental importance is indicated in unequivocal terms. Enlightenment depends entirely on *vīrya*; where there is *vīrya*, there is *bodhi*.\(^{356}\) *Vīrya* is the chief and paramount cause of all the auspicious principles that are conducive to Enlightenment (*bodhi-karaṇānām kuśa-dharmaṇām pradhānam kāraṇaṃ*).\(^{357}\) It promotes a *bodhisattva*’s material and spiritual well-being.\(^{358}\) It is far better to live only for a day with full *vīrya* than to vegetate without energy during a hundred years.\(^{359}\) *Vīrya* destroys all pain and darkness, and it has therefore been praised by all the Buddhas.\(^{360}\) It ensures success and protection, and counteracts all fears and evil proclivities.\(^{361}\) Gautama Buddha himself was a great *vīra* (hero) and owed his victory over *Māra* chiefly to his *vīrya*.\(^{362}\)

*Vīrya* is of two kinds: the *vīrya* of preparation and initiative (*sannāha-vīryam*, i.e. putting on the armour) and the *vīrya* of practice and activity (*prāyoga-vīryam*).\(^{363}\) The *Dh. S.* adds a third variety, which is not clearly intelligible (*para-niṣṭha-vīryam*, or *pari-niṣṭha-vīryam*).\(^{364}\) It may signify "the *vīrya* that leads to the supreme End"; but it is not important, as it is not discussed in detail. If we attempt to arrange and analyse the prolix and redundant statements of the Buddhist authors on this subject, we find that *vīrya* may be considered under the following aspects:—
1. Moral Development. A bodhisattva resolutely combats all the great and small sins and vices (kleśa, upakleśa) that may drag him down. He employs a suitable antidote to every dangerous fault and weakness. He dispels hatred by the cultivation of love, counteracts sensuality by the meditations on Impurity, and so on. He exerts himself continually and seriously (sūtattva-satḥtya). He keeps vigil and restrains his senses. He is not contented with a little progress and achievement, but hopes to equal and surpass the great bodhisattvas of old. He is inspired, and not discouraged, by their example. He does not yield to despair, as he knows that all shall and can become Buddhas. He knows that self-sacrifice will become easier with practice. He, who can give only herbs and vegetables at first, will end by sacrificing even his life.

2. Study of the Scriptures and General Education (Gītāō-vīrya). In the early days of the Mahāyāna, learning was perhaps not considered very important. The Sad. Pu. contrasts Gautama Buddha, who possessed vīrya, with Ānanda, who had much knowledge, but who lagged behind in the race for Wisdom. In course of time, the importance of religious instruction and liberal education was fully recognised. A bodhisattva is diligent in studying the Scriptures. He knows the Doctrine well. Çantideva mentions eighty different ways of commencing the acquisition of religious learning. But a bodhisattva also studies the arts and sciences, and thus gets a good liberal education. He devotes his energy to the acquisition of a thorough knowledge of the five principal subjects of study or branches of learning (vidyā-sthānani). These five vidyā-sthānas are: Buddhist philosophy, logic or dialectics, grammar, medicine, and the technical arts and crafts. These accomplishments help a bodhisattva in his work of converting the people, healing the sick, and conferring material benefits on all. He studies with attention and mental concentration. His learning is then profound and accurate. He is well-versed in all the arts and sciences (kalās and sāstras; gautrijñatā; sarva-vidyāḥ; bahu-śrutya). In order to acquire such encyclopaedic knowledge, he must be very diligent and industrious. This is his gītāō-vīrya (Energy in Education).

It is probable that the ideal of a liberal education was borrowed by the Buddhists from Hinduism. Early Buddhism did not attach much importance to Learning; perhaps because the latter was almost identical in that age with the hated threefold vidyā
of the brahmins. Gautama Buddha laid stress chiefly on morality, monasticism and meditation. But the conversion of many Hindu priests to Buddhism must have led to a movement in favour of higher education among the Buddhist monks. The heroes of the Mahâbhârata and the Râmâyana are described as well-educated and cultured men. Râma is spoken of as "vidvân sarva-câstr-ârtha-tattva-vajña" in the opening verses of the Râmâyana.377 This ancient Indian ideal was also accepted by the Mahâyânists, who taught that a bodhisattva must be a prodigy of erudition and even learn the mechanical arts. The Buddhists improved on what they borrowed and very nearly approached the modern ideal of education.

3. Altruistic Activity (sattv-ârtha-kriyâ-vîryam). A bodhisattva reflects carefully before he embarks on an enterprise; but he carries all his work to a successful issue.378 He does not leave it half-done, and he is not daunted and discouraged by difficulties and dangers.379 He maintains the same energy and resolution under all circumstances (samaam vîryam).380 He devises the proper expedients for attaining his end. He is indefatigable and optimistic (âcâlatha-vîrya).381 He does not lose hope on account of the stupidity and wickedness of the people; he does his daily task like the sun.382 Like a king, he has his devoted soldiers, whose names are Zeal, Strength, Joy, Exclusive Application, Self-mastery and Courage. He also acts on the two great principles: "Equality of self and others," and "Regard of others in place of self." He develops a healthy pride in himself and his own capacity, and is therefore eager to undertake the most difficult tasks. The same pride gives him the strength to overcome all passions and endure all trials. He says: "I will conquer everything; nothing shall conquer me." This pride, which stimulates noble ambition, self-confidence and self-respect, must be clearly distinguished from vanity, conceit and arrogance, which ruin the soul.383 Such noble pride leads a bodhisattva to regard himself as the very embodiment of virtue and wisdom. He can even say with truth: "The six Perfections do not help me; it is I, who help the Perfections." 384 He is determined to observe the five "continuities" (ânantaryam) by persistence in his devotion to the Mahâyâna, to the ideal of self-sacrifice, to the duty of saving all beings, and to the pursuit of true knowledge and perfect wisdom.385 For such a bodhisattva, nothing is impossible.386
As regards the reasons and motives for the cultivation of vīrya, the Buddhist writers adduce the usual arguments based on the certainty of death, the fear of punishment after death, the promotion of one's welfare on earth, the assurance of a happy rebirth, the rarity of the Buddhas and the difficulty of moral development in this life. We have heard all this before. Čāntideva only adds a few picturesque similes in order to inspire a bodhisattva with unflagging zeal and intense ardour. A bodhisattva is like a man carrying a vessel full of oil, who is surrounded by soldiers armed with swords; he will be killed, if he stumbles. When a drowsy man sees that a snake has come upon his breast, he suddenly rises up; even so a bodhisattva should always remain alert and active. He should rout the passions, as a lion slays the deer. 287 There is one new idea, however, which must be appreciated. It comes as an agreeable surprise. It is like an oasis of positive affirmation in the vast desert of Indian pessimism and negativism. In the midst of the gently soporific metaphysics of Buddhism, Čāntideva suddenly propounds the idea that happiness consists in activity. He thus reminds us of Aristotle's definition of happiness as the energy or activity of the soul in accordance with virtue. 288 A bodhisattva finds his happiness in his work. He does not work in order to obtain something, which will make him happy. For him, work is happiness and happiness is work. 289 Hence he is always active. When he has finished one task, he straightway commences another. This ideal of unremitting activity is a distinct and valuable contribution to the developed bodhisattva doctrine.

Stories of Vīrya. There are a few stories of vīrya, but they are not very interesting. In the Lal. V., a few of Gautama Buddha's extravagant exploits in his previous lives are mentioned. He dried up the ocean by emptying out the water in order to recover a precious gem that had fallen into it. 290 This feat is also referred to in the Mahā-vastu as the most remarkable exhibition of the Perfection of vīrya. 291 Gautama Buddha also counted the leaves on a tree in a previous life. 292 The hero Kanakavarnā fought single-handed against a host of Yākṣas. 293 Prince Sudhana undertook a perilous journey, braved many dangers and went through numerous adventures in order to meet his wife, a Himalayan woman, who had returned to her father's house on account of a palace-intrigue. This story is related in the Mṛu. 294 and the Āvadāna-kalpa-latā, but Kaśmendra gives Sudhana
as the prince’s name. Sudhanu was thus united to his sweetheart “with great labour and great vīrya”. Some earnest men also showed uncommon vīrya in their efforts to join the monastic Order. Tripita’s father refused to give his permission for this step, but the young man fasted six times and his father then relented. Gangika tried to put an end to his life in order to be reborn as a monk. Lack of vīrya in study can sometimes have tragic consequences. Some students, who were slack and lazy, were reborn as parrots and swans as a punishment for their indifference to duty. Another novice, who was negligent in keeping a fast, was reborn as a snake.

V. Dhyāna-pāramitā. With this Perfection, we enter the realm of asceticism and abnormal psychological phenomena, and the Mahāyāna now begins to be anti-social and unintelligible. Dhyāna, derived from dhya, is one of the terms that cannot be translated. It has been rendered as “meditation”, “trance”, “ecstasy”, “contemplation”, “rapture”, “die Versenkung”, “die Vertiefung”, etc. But C. A. F. Rhys Davids has pointed out that jhāna in Pāli “does not mean meditation”, as this English word implies intellectual effort. E. J. Thomas has shown that “ecstasy” is also an inadequate rendering. It is really inadvisable to apply European terms to Indian concepts, as the lines of intellectual development in Europe and India have been different. It is easier and more profitable to understand the Indian terms than to search for an exact equivalent, which does not exist. C. A. F. Rhys Davids explains dhyāna as “the practice of rapt musing or abstraction”. This may be accepted as a conventional rendering for the present.

Dhyāna is defined in the Bodhisattva-bhūmi as “concentration and stability or fixity of the mind” (citt-aikāgyam cittasthithā). The M. S. Al. gives a fanciful etymological explanation: “dhārayaty-adhyātman mana iti dhyānām” (that which supports the mind). The opposite of dhyāna is viśkepa (distraction of mind) or manah-kṣoṇha (agitation or disturbance of the mind). Dhyāna is thus primarily and principally the means of experiencing and attaining serenity and calm (cāmāthā), which is indeed coupled with mental Concentration in the Pr. Pā. Čata.

1. Preliminaries of Dhyāna. A bodhisattva, who begins to practise dhyāna, must go through a preliminary stage of
preparation, which may be said to include Renunciation and Solitude, the cultivation of the four Sublime or Perfect States (brahma-vihārāḥ), and the use of the kṛṣṇāyatanas.

(a) Renunciation and Solitude. A bodhisattva must now give up family life and ordinary social intercourse, and retire to a secluded spot in the forest. He must live as a celibate hermit and recluse. M. Anesaki expresses the opinion that "the Mahāyānists find the life of nobles or householders in no way incompatible with the practice of the pāramitās and the attainment of bodhi" (ERE, v, 453). But the principal Sanskrit writers do not support this view. The well-known Pāli aphorism, which condemns the householder’s life, is found in the Sanskrit version in several passages. "Life in the home is narrow and full of hindrances ('cabin’d, cribbed, confined'), while a monk’s life is like the open air. It is difficult to lead the pure, austere and holy spiritual life as a householder." 487 According to the Pr. Pa. Čata., celibacy is necessary for Enlightenment. Even if a bodhisattva is married, his marriage is really a "pious fraud" for the conversion of others. He does not really enjoy sensual pleasure: he remains a celibate.488 The Da. Bhū. teaches that a bodhisattva becomes a monk in the first stage of his career.489 The Jātaka-māla distinctly favours the monastic life, and the married state is regarded with contempt and aversion by some of Čūra’s noblest heroes. Kṣāntivādin thinks that life in the home is prejudicial to the growth of virtue, as it is associated with money-making pursuits, love of pleasure, jealousy, anger and pride.410 Ayogrha also expresses similar sentiments.411 Agastya condemns the householder’s life as troublesome, irksome and undesirable.412 In the Bisa-jātaka, a whole party of seven brothers, their sister and several servants and friends renounce home-life and retire to the forest.413 In the Aputra-jātaka, Čūra admits that a householder may be able to observe the precepts of religion; but he adds that it is well-nigh impossible, as the layman must tell lies, use violence, and injure others in order to earn wealth and keep it. A home is always infested with the serpents named Sensuality, Pride and Infatuation.414 This is Čūra’s idea of a home! Čándideva declares that a married man cannot attain Enlightenment, and he also indulges in that amazing tirade against Passion, which has already been referred to. He teaches that a bodhisattva must renounce the world in all his lives after taking the great Vow.415 Kṣemendra also regards
celibacy and renunciation as indispensable for a bodhisattva. He even relates the story of a couple, who maintained a purely spiritual relation in married life, though they could not avoid marriage on account of the pressure of external circumstances. A similar story is told in the Avadāna-çataka, which also praises several women for their aversion to marriage. Kṣemendra goes so far as to say that ordination as a monk confers absorption even for the sin of matricide. It is true that the Sad. Pu. speaks of the duties of a bodhisattva, who is a king; and Çāntideva also seems to admit that a bodhisattva may be a householder. The Bodhisattva-bhūmi definitely mentions both “laymen and monks” in connection with the first four pāramitās, but it does not refer to the laymen in the chapter on dhyāna. On the whole, it may be inferred that the Mahāyānists philosophers exalt and glorify monastic celibacy and seclusion, while they only condone and tolerate domestic life as an inferior state.

In this connection, it is interesting to note that these writers also adopt the misogynist’s attitude towards women. In the early treatises of the Mahāyāna, women are not always regarded with contempt and suspicion. The Lal. V. treats Siddhārtha’s marriage as a romantic episode. The Sad. Pu. prophesies the future Buddhahood of Gautama Buddha’s wife Yaśodhāra, and of King Sāgara’s daughter. It speaks of the “sons and daughters of good families” as potential bodhisattvas, and mentions five hundred women, who will certainly become Buddhās. The eighth varga (section) of the Ava. Ga. is devoted to the stories of spiritual heroines. The idealism and devotion of women are celebrated in the legends relating to such married couples as Viśvantara and Madrī, Kunāla and Kāñcanamāla, and others. Kṣemendra even admits that a virtuous daughter like Sumāgadhā is better than a son! These details show that the better instincts of the Buddhist philosophers sometimes prevailed in spite of their one-sided theories. But the general trend of thought in their treatises points to the conclusion that women are spiritually and intellectually inferior to men. Even in the Sad. Pu., which acknowledges a woman’s right to be a bodhisattva, final Enlightenment is reserved only for men, and a woman’s sex is changed before that consummation. The Mū. declares that a bodhisattva is not born as a woman; but it is probable that this dictum refers to an advanced bodhisattva’s last life.
The Bodhisattva-bhūmi is more definite on this point. It explains that a bodhisattva may be born as a woman during the first asāṅkhya-yog of his career, but not during the second and third asāṅkhya-yogas (fol. 39b.4). A woman can never be a Buddha (fol. 39b.3-3). The greatest boon that a woman can crave is speedy rebirth as a man. In numerous passages, women are described as wicked and dangerous. They are foolish and fatuous creatures. They are very prone to vice and sin (fol. 39b.4.3). They are the slaves of lust and passion. They are fond of intrigue, gossip and crooked ways. Birth as a woman is a calamity. A bodhisattva should avoid women, even if they are nuns. If he is married, he should fear and despise his wife; and he should understand that the married state is merely a concession to the prejudices of society. A bodhisattva, who preaches the Doctrine, should not pay too much attention to women. It may be inferred that a woman is eligible for the first step of the "Thought of Enlightenment", but must be reborn as a man in order to ascend to the higher stages of a bodhisattva's career. A male bodhisattva, married or unmarried, should beware of the wiles and charms of the fair sex. And a model male bodhisattva should be an unmarried monk.

It is probable that the influence of Hinduism at first led to the conception that a woman should be a man's friend and comrade in spiritual progress. The householder's life was praised and appreciated to the fullest extent in the ancient Hindu Scriptures. The Rāmāyaṇa and the Mahābhārata usually mention couples of famous persons, e.g. Rāma and Sītā, Vasiṣṭha and Arundhati, Nala and Damayantī, etc. This tradition was maintained in some Buddhist stories, like the legends of Viḍvántara and Kuñjāla. The Mṛtus, also recounts several tales of Gautama Buddha's previous lives, in which his wife had been very helpful to him. But monastic celibacy triumphed in the end. It must also be remembered that Gautama Buddha's wife did not play an important part in his movement, and she was not present at his death-bed. These celibate monks were bound to drift into an attitude of contempt and aversion with regard to women. The Christian monks of Europe have also written virulent diatribes against women. Monasticism not only lowered the status of women, but also created an anti-social bias in the minds of the Mahāyānist teachers. They rail not only against the family, but also against society and social life in general.
is always a short step from violent misogyny to unalloyed cynicism. Most Buddhist philosophers belittle and revile common humanity, and prefer the solitude of the forest to the delights of social intercourse. Ordinary men are spoken of as "children" (balah), which is really a euphemistic term for "fools". They are avaricious, envious, quarrelsome, vain, stupid, conceited, demoralised and incorrigible. A bodhisattva should wander alone like a rhinoceros. The trees and flowers in the forest are pleasant friends that give no trouble, and their company is preferable to that of these silly and selfish men of the world. A bodhisattva, who has retired to the forest, should "find tongues in trees, books in the running brooks". He should be free from the ideas of Self and Property, like the trees around him. He should not be afraid of the wild beasts, but should be prepared to sacrifice his life for them in a compassionate spirit, if they attack him. He should devote himself to meditation and self-examination, and also preach occasionally to the laymen, who may visit him in his hermitage. The Mahayânist effusions on this theme contain some excellent Nature-poetry and a great deal of bad philosophy.

(b) The Brahma-vihāras. A bodhisattva should practise the four meditations called the brahma-vihāras. The forms brahma-vihāra and brahmya-vihāra are also found (Kar. Pu. 114.30; Bo. Bhā., fol. 38a, 4.2; M. S. Al., 122.7).

The word has been variously translated as follows:

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: "Sublime or divine state of mind" (Pâli Dic.).

Monier Williams: "Pious conduct, perfect state" (Skt. Dic., 740a).


S. Lévi: "Les stations brahmiques" (M. S. Al., tr., p. 318).


Lord Chalmers: "Excellent states" (Majjh. tr., ii. 40).


It is very doubtful if the term implies any reference to the neuter Brahman of the Upaniṣads or the masculine Brāhma, the deva of Hinduism. It is true that the practice of these meditations is said to ensure rebirth in the world of Brāhma (brāhma-loka), but that idea may itself have originated in mistaken notions about the etymology of this term. The word brahma, derived from bhū (to increase), here means "excellent, perfect", as in other words like brahma-jāla-sutta (the perfect net), brahma-cariyā, brahma-vāda, etc. (Pāli Dīcy., s.v.). Perhaps it is best to translate: "Perfect or Excellent States."

These four meditations are also known as apramāṇāni (the "infinitudes", "infinite feelings", "measureless meditations"). The Pr. Pā. Čāta. speaks of them throughout as apramāṇāni, and not as brahma-viharās. Perhaps the latter term was discarded, when the word vihāra was employed to denote the different stages of a bodhisattva's spiritual career, as in the B. Bhū. These brahma-viharās seem to have been borrowed by the Buddhists from another school of philosophers. In the Makkhādeva-sutta of the Majjhimā-Nikāya (Majjhima, ii, 82), it is hinted that they did not constitute Buddha's original contribution to Indian religious thought. C. A. F. Rhys Davids is of the opinion that they were taught by an important preacher, whom she calls "the unknown co-founder of Buddhism". They are also found in the same order in the Yogo-nītrat (1.33, p. 38). The first three are also mentioned in Vyāsa's commentary on Yā. Sū., iii, 23 (p. 148). This shows that they belonged to the common tradition of the Indian religious world. In Buddhist Sanskrit literature, they are mentioned and described in many passages (M. Vy., Sections 69, 82; Dh. S., xvi; M. S. A., 121; Da. Bhū., 34.18 ff.; Pr. Pā Čāta., 1314, 1444; Mtu., iii, 421; Lal. V., 297.10, etc.).

The four brahma-viharās consist in the cultivation of four feelings, according to a certain method, viz. maitrī (love or friendliness), karunā (compassion), muditā (sympathetic joy) and upekkhā (equanimity).

It is possible to indicate the growth of this fourfold formula in Buddhist Sanskrit literature. In many passages, only maitrī is
mentioned: (e.g. Pr. Pā. Cūta., 261.4; Saund. Kā., xviii, 11, 34; Lka., 259.2; Mtu., iii, 373.11; Kṣemendra, ii, 501.57; Ava. Ču., ii, 34.15; Lka., 259, verse 23, etc.). At other places, only maitri and karunā are mentioned together. These form a natural pair, and are spoken of as such at Da. Bhā., 19.21, 39.13; Pr. Pā. Cūta., 19.8, 134.4, 136.4; M. S. Āl., 180.29, 47.71; Mtu., ii, 340.20, etc. But it is more puzzling to find only maitri, karunā and muditā mentioned in several passages, e.g. Mtu., ii, 362.5; Sam. Rā., fol. 193b, 4. Vyāsa, in his commentary on Yā. Sū., iii, 23, refuses to recognise upekkhā as a bhāvanā (practice for realisation). It differs also in its aim and spirit from the other three meditations.

In course of time, these social virtues were appreciated in an increasing degree. The Mahāyānist writers even reckon mahā-karunā among a perfect Buddha's attributes. It is considered as important as the balas, the vaiśāradyas, and the ēvenika-dharmas. The Mtu. exalts the brahma-vihāras to such an extent that it promises nīvāna and the summum bonum to the person who practises them.447 This was a daring innovation, as the old Pāli writers regarded them only as the means of securing rebirth in the heaven of Brahmā. All the brahma-vihāras were thus emphasised and inculcated with greater zeal, and karunā was chosen as the most important among them. The honorific title mahā was also prefixed to all, especially to maitri and karunā.448

As karunā and upekkhā have been discussed in the sections on dāna and the bodhy-āṅgas respectively, the two other brahma-vihāras will now be considered in detail.

Maitri ("friendliness or love". Pāli: mettā). Some scholars have translated this word as "love", but others prefer "friendliness, benevolence, la bonté, goodwill" as the proper rendering, as they believe that "love" has certain Christian associations.449 Maitri is a feeling that is directed towards those who are happy in life. Its opposite is vyāpāda (malice). It is thus distinguished from karunā, which is shown to unhappy and afflicted living beings. "Love," as defined and described by Jesus Christ and St. Paul, approximates more to karunā than to maitri: (cf. St. Matthew v, 43; St. Luke vi, 27 ff.; St. John xv, 13; 1 Corinthians xiii). "Friendliness" seems to indicate the the content of the term maitri with a sufficient degree of accuracy. It is characterised by the desire to do good to others and to provide them with what is useful.450 Maitri is mentioned and extolled
more frequently in the Pāli canon than karunā. The Hinayāna emphasises maitri, while the Mahāyāna lays stress on karunā. This seems to be their distinctive note. As a brahma-vihāra, maitri is exercised through a certain meditative practice, and the same formula is applied to all the other brahma-vihāras. This practice belongs to the dhyāna-pāramitā in the Mahāyāna, and the Pr. Pā. Cāta. actually places these brahma-vihāras between the four dhyānas and the four samāpattis in its oft-repeated lists of a bodhisattva’s duties. The process of meditation is thus described in the case of all the brahma-vihāras, substituting karunā, muditā and upekṣā respectively for maitri: “He (the bodhisattva) abides pervading the whole Universe (with its chief element, the Truth, and its remotest element, Space) with his mind, accompanied by maitri, with vast, great, undivided, unlimited and universal freedom from hatred, rivalry, narrow-mindedness and harmfulness”. (Da. Bhū., p. 34.)

This formula differs in some respects from its Pāli original (cf. Dīgha i, 250; section 76 ff.). The Da. Bhū. gives it in a form, which is not exactly the same as that found in the Pr. Pā. Cāta. It has been suggested that these meditations are directed towards particular individuals and not towards the world in general. But the wording of the sentence does not warrant such a conclusion. It is as vague and abstract as it can possibly be. Maitri is regarded as a great Power in the universe (maitri-bala). It prompts a bodhisattva to hope, pray and wish for the welfare of others, without passion or expectation of reward. It can tame wild beasts and venomous serpents. It prevents and allays physical and mental pain and evil. It establishes peace and concord among mankind. It is of three kinds according as it is directed towards the living beings, towards all things and phenomena, or towards no particular objects. The perfect Buddhas can emit rays of maitri from their bodies, which are diffused over the world and promote peace and joy everywhere.

Muditā (Sympathetic joy). This word has been variously translated as “appreciation”, “die Mitfreude”, “satisfaction”, “joy”, “delightfulness”, “happiness in the happiness of all”, “das Freundschaftsgefühl”, etc. E. Senart suggests that it may be a Prākrit form of mṛdutā (gentleness, softness). But this feeling is said to be directed towards virtuous and righteous persons (puny-ātmakesu). Its chief characteristics are joy,
faith, and freedom from despondency, craving, jealousy, insincerity and hostility. It is associated with the alertness of all the faculties.483

(c) The Ten Kṣīṇāyatanaś (Pāli: kasiṁāyatana). A bodhisattva should practise certain exercises in concentration and self-hypnotism, in which his attention is fixed on one of the ten kṣīṇāyatanaś (bases or objects of such exercises). These ten objects are the four colours and the six elements: blue, yellow, red, white, earth, water, fire, air, space and mentality (intellection).484 By gazing at them, visualizing them, or concentrating his mind on them in other ways, a bodhisattva can produce that mental state of calm and quiet somnolence, which is favourable to dhyāna.

2. Dhyāna and the Nine States. The conception of dhyāna has been amplified and modified in course of time; but the central doctrine revolves round the nine psychological states, real or imaginary, which are called the uṇḍūrvā-viḥāras (i.e. states that follow one another in regular succession). The first four of these states are known as the four dhyānī,485 and the last five are usually spoken of as samāpattis (Attainments).486 These latter are really the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth items of a list of eight vimskjas (Deliverances, or Stages of Deliverance).487 The first three Deliverances are not relevant to our subject in this section. The early history of these categories is obscure. They probably existed before the rise of Buddhism, as the Brahma-jāla-sutta connects them with non-Buddhist sects.488 According to the Lal. V., Rudraka Rāmaputra, who was Gautama Buddha's teacher for some time, practised them.489

The first four dhyānīs were borrowed by the Buddhists at an early period, and special importance was attached to them. Gautama Buddha attains them on the night of Enlightenment. He is also described as passing away to nivāraṇa from the fourth dhyāna and not from the eighth, though he had also reached the latter stage.479 Perhaps the four dhyānīs and the eight "Deliverances" belonged to different systems until five "Deliverances" were added to the original four dhyānīs. These five highest stages are generally called samāpattis, and not dhyānīs, in the Sanskrit treatises. The Pr. Pa. Catta. always speaks of them as āraṇya-samāpattayah.471 Four of these are frequently mentioned, but the last of the nine uṇḍūrvā-viḥāras is rarely discussed. Perhaps it inspired a kind of fear, as it seemed
to be too much like extinction and death. All the nine are also
called anupūrva-vihāra-samāpattayah.
It is not possible to find any regular system of "mystical"
meditation in these nine states. They are most probably nothing
but mere verbiage, which corresponds to no real experience. This
subject cannot be properly discussed in the absence of ascertained
and verifiable facts. The nine states are described as follows 473 :
(a) First Dhyāna. He (i.e. the bodhisattva), free from
sensual pleasures and evil demeritorious states of mind, attains
and abides in the first dhyāna, which arises from seclusion, and which
is associated with the pleasure of joy and accompanied by reflection
and investigation.
(b) Second Dhyāna. With the cessation of reflection and
investigation, he, serene at heart, concentrates his mind on
one point, and attains and abides in the second dhyāna, which is
associated with the pleasure of joy, and arises from rapt con-
centration in the absence of reflection and investigation.
(c) Third Dhyāna. Having renounced the attachment to
joy, he remains equable, mindful and self-possessed; experiences
in his body the pleasure that the Noble ones describe as "living
in equanimity, mindfulness and happiness"; and attains and abides
in the third dhyāna which is devoid of joy.478
(d) Fourth Dhyāna. On account of the abandonment
of pain and pleasure and the previous disappearance of elation
and dejection, he attains and abides in the fourth dhyāna,
which is neither painful nor pleasant, and which is absolutely
pure through equanimity and mindfulness.474
(e) The Non-material Samāpattis. He transcends entirely the
perceptions of material form, eliminates the perceptions of resistance
(repulsion), does not pay attention to the perceptions of diversity,
realises that "Space is infinite", and attains and abides in the
sphere of the Infinity of Space.476
(f) He transcends entirely the sphere of the Infinity
of Space, realises that "Consciousness is infinite", and attains
and abides in the sphere of the Infinity of Consciousness.
(g) He transcends entirely the sphere of the Infinity of Con-
sciousness, realises that "there is nothing", and attains and abides
in the sphere of Nothingness.
(h) He transcends entirely the sphere of Nothingness, and attains
and abides in the sphere of "neither-Consciousness-nor-non-
Consciousness" (or, "neither-Perception-nor-non-Perception"),
(i) He transcends entirely the sphere of "neither-Consciousness-nor-non-Consciousness" and attains and abides in the Cessation of Consciousness and Feeling.


This Sanskrit formula differs in some respects from its Pāli original. These psychological states are also supposed to bring a bodhisattva into direct touch with the different worlds and spheres, whose existence is assumed in the cosmology of the Buddhists. C. A. F. Rhys Davids says: "This was so to sink the whole world of sense, and the work of mind on the world of sense, that the other worlds might arise in the man's awareness". She believes that the Buddhists could even establish communication with the dead by means of the dhyānas. However that may be, the cosmology of the Mahāyānists divides the universe into three divisions: the sphere or realm of sensuous Desire (kāmanda-dhātu), the sphere of Form or Matter (rūpa-dhātu), and the sphere of Formlessness or non-Materiality (arūpa-dhātu, aruppaka- or arūpya-). As W. Kühr has pointed out, these three categories were first applied to the conception of bhava (Existence), and then extended to the entire universe. The macrocosm and the microcosm were thus brought into harmony.

The sphere of Desire includes the earth, the firmament, the four Guardians of the cardinal points, the group of thirty-three devas, the denizens of the realms of Yama and of the Tūtiya heaven (Delight), and the devas called nirmāna-ratayah (who rejoice in their creations) and para-nirmāta-vaśa-vartinah. Excluding the inhabitants of the earth and the firmament, there are thus six classes of celestial devas in this sphere. But a bodhisattva rises above this low region by means of the four dhyānas and the four samāpattis. The four dhyānas can transport him to the heavens of the devas that inhabit the second sphere of Form or Matter (rūpa-dhātu). These devas are called rūp-avacara devaḥ (the devas of the realm of Form). They have bodies, but are free from sense-desire. The number of these heavens is not quite fixed. The Pr. Pā. Čata. mentions twenty-one in one passage and seventeen in another. The Mtu. mentions fifteen names and also gives another list of sixteen. The Divy-āvadāna speaks of seventeen classes of devas in this sphere. The Abhidharma-kos and the Lal. V. give the same number. The Dh. S. and the M. Vy. agree in enumerating eighteen deva-groups, and this seems to be the accepted tradition. These eighteen heavens
are mentally accessible to a bodhisattva in a regular order by means of the four dhyānas. They are as follows (M. Vy., sections 157–63):—

First Dhyāna.

(1) Brahma-kāyikāḥ (the devas, who belong to the company of Brahmā).
(2) Brahma-pārisādyāḥ (brahma-pārśādyāḥ in the Dh. S. Pāli: brahma-pārisājja. The devas, who are in the retinue of Brahmā).
(3) Brahma-purṣhitāḥ (the ministers or priests of Brahmā).
(4) Mahā-brahmānāḥ (the devas attached to the great Brahmā).

Second Dhyāna.

(5) Parittābhāḥ (the devas of limited splendour).
(6) Apramāna-abhāḥ (the devas of immeasurable splendour).
(7) Ābhāsvarāḥ (Pāli: ābhassara. The radiant devas, "shining in splendour").

Third Dhyāna.

(8) Paritta-śubhāḥ (the devas of limited lustre or aura).
(9) Apramāṇa-śubhāḥ (the devas of immeasurable lustre or aura).
(10) Ābhās-kṛṣṇāḥ (Pāli: subha-kīṃṇā. The devas of steady aura).

Fourth Dhyāna.

(11) Anabhṛakāḥ (The devas of the cloudless heaven).
(12) Punya-prasavāḥ (the devas of auspicious birth).
(13) Vrhat-phalāḥ (Pāli: vṛhapphala. The devas of the heaven of great results or abundant reward).
(14) Avisrāḥ (Pāli: aviihā. The immobile devas).
(15) Atapāḥ (the serene devas).
(16) Sudṛṣaḥ (the beautiful devas, "well-looking").
(17) Sudarśanaḥ (the clear-sighted devas, well-seeing).
(18) Akaniṣṭhāḥ (the highest devas; literally, "not the smallest").

The Dh. S. omits the apramāṇa-śubhas and inserts the asaṃjñīsattvas, who correspond to the asaṅga-sattas of the Pāli list of sixteen deva-classes. This name means "unconscious beings" (cf. Divy., 505.23). The M. Vy. adds three items to the Pāli list: the anabhṛkas, punya-prasavas and brahma-kāyikas. It leaves out the asaṅga-sattas.

These names betray the influence of Hinduism and
Zoroastrianism, as they seem to be derived from Brahman and from words meaning "Light". The number eighteen was probably regarded as mystical, because it is equal to $2 \times 9$. The M. Vāy. adds two other names, aghanīthas (the "rare devas, "not too dense"); and maha-mahesvar-dyatanam (the realm of the great Čiva). The fourth dhyāna is sometimes divided into two parts, and the different heavens are then allotted to five dhyānas: Nos. 1–4 to the first dhyāna, Nos. 5–7 to the second, Nos. 8–10 to the third, Nos. 11–13 to the fourth, and Nos. 14–18 to the fifth. This scheme of division is apparently adopted in the M. Vāy.

The four heavens of the Formless Sphere are reached by the dhyānas of the four samāpattis, which have been mentioned above. They have the same names as these samāpattis.

3. Dhyāna and the Samādhis. Emerging from this perplexing labyrinth of dhyānas and devas, we may remark that these standard dhyānas are not regarded as very important by the Mahāyānist authors, who are more interested in different samādhis (modes of Concentration). These samādhis bear definite names and can produce certain results. Samādhi originally also denoted self-restraint and contentment, but it is synonymous with dhyāna in the Sanskrit treatises. Many new forms of Musing and Concentration are spoken of. One may remain absorbed in them for several years or even during many millions of aeons. The Lankāvatāra-śūtra mentions another set of four dhyānas, which seem to belong to a different tradition. They are as follows:

(a) Bāl-opacatīriṣam dhyānam. This dhyāna is practised by the Hinayānists and the Yogins, who believe in the non-substantiality of the Ego. It is meant only for beginners (bālas).

(b) Ārtha-pravītiyam dhyānam. This dhyāna is practised by the bodhisattvavā, who understand the principle of the non-substantiality of all phenomena. It consists in the investigation and examination of propositions.

(c) Tathātā-ālambanam dhyānam. This dhyāna consists in comprehending the principle of Suchness or Reality and meditating on the Truth.

(d) Tāthāgataśam dhyānam. This dhyāna belongs to the perfect Buddhas, who have personally realised the highest Knowledge and rendered service to all beings.

Other treatises also mention different kinds of samādhi. The
M. Vy. gives as many as 118 samādhis in Section 21 and nine more in Section 24. Some samādhis have significant names, e.g., vajr-opama (like adamant), ratna-mudra (seal of gems), vidyut-pradipa (having the splendour of lightning), tejvati (fiery, ardent), avavarta (irrevocable, not turning back), etc. The Sam. Rā. extols a particular samādhi and prescribes certain moral qualifications for its successful attainment. The Dh. S. mentions eight names of samādhis, some of which are also found in the M. Vy.
The Lānkāvatāra-sūtra speaks of "thousands of samādhis". The Pr. Pā. Āsta. enumerates the samādhis acquired by a bodhisattva. The Pr. Pā. Āsta. names and describes an enormous number of samādhis. It opens the list with the famous samādhi known as sārangama ("going to the brave", "accessible to the brave") and simha-vikridita (lion-play). Out of this plethora of samādhis, three should be selected for special mention, as they are considered to be very important. They are also called vimakṣa-mukhāmi (mouths or entrances of Liberation). They destroy the three "Roots of Evil" (rāga, dvega and moha). They are as follows —

(i) Čānyatā (Emptiness). The doctrine of Čānyatā will be discussed in the section on praṇa-pāramitā.

(ii) Ānimitta. The Tibetan equivalent for this term is mtha’-ma med pa, and S. C. Das translates it as "unconditioned". He gives the Sanskrit equivalent as ānimitta, but ānimitta is the more correct form. T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede render it as "signless", as also do S. Lévi ("sans-signe") and M. Walleser ("das Zeichenlose"). H. Kern translates, "groundless, reasonless." The idea seems to be that the bodhisattva attains a state, in which he enters the realm of the Unconditioned and the Causeless.

(iii) Apranihita. The Tibetan equivalent of this term is smon pa med pa. S. C. Das translates it as "passionless". T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede render it as "aimless", and C. A. F. Rhys Davids suggests "not hankered-after". M. Walleser interprets it as "das Neigunglose", and S. Lévi gives a very literal translation, "sans-voeu." W. H. D. Rouse explains it as "untrammelled". Perhaps it means "free from Desire". The root-meaning of pranidhāna seems to be "wish", as the Tibetan equivalent indicates.

The samādhis are very useful to a bodhisattva for all possible purposes. Samādhi is said to be the means of attaining final Liberation. But the different samādhis can be used to perform many miracles in this life. Pūrṇa flew in the air
and saved certain travellers from shipwreck by means of a samādhi. Another samādhi can call the devas to one’s aid. Another confers perpetual youth, while others enable a bodhisattva to travel everywhere in the universe. A bodhisattva can employ the samādhis in order to heal the sick, protect the people from all dangers, produce rainfall in a period of drought and famine, bestow wealth on the poor, and warn and admonish the heedless sinners.

4. Some scholars have attempted to compare these dhyānas and samādhis to the ecstatic states of the Yoga system and of Christian mysticism. É. Senart says: “Les yogin ont fait l’éducation et préparé les voies du bouddhisme.” He thinks that the “ultra-cognitive” samādhi (asamprajñāta) of Yoga is equivalent to the fourth dhyāna of the Buddhists. H. Beckh writes: “Der ganze Buddhismus ist durch und durch nichts als Yoga.” R. Garbe says: “Die Lehren des Yoga zu den Grundlagen des Buddhismus gehören.” But it is probable that the Yoga system in its developed form did not exist, when the Pāli canon was composed. The word yoga has sometimes a pejorative sense in the Pāli scriptures, and even in the Mahā-vastu; it means “bond”, “fetter”. It is not till we come to the Lankāvatāra-sūtra that we find the term yogin applied to a bodhisattva. Further, the four dhyānas do not correspond to anything in the Yoga system. There are four stages in Yoga, but they are entirely different in their spirit and scope. The Buddhists do not believe in the existence of Īśvara, but that doctrine is an integral part of the Yoga system. Dhyāna in the Yoga-sūtras is only a means of attaining samādhi (Yo. Sū., iii, 1–3, pp. 118, 119). But the Buddhists regard the four or eight dhyānas as ladders reaching to the highest regions of the universe. All that can be maintained is that certain practices of Concentration were borrowed by the early Buddhists from other schools, and that the later Mahāyāna was deeply influenced by the Yoga system as it is known to us. At the same time, it must be emphasised that the spirit of the Mahāyāna is quite different from that of the Yoga philosophy. C. A. F. Rhys Davids and F. Heiler have tried to compare the dhyānas to the experiences of the Greek and Christian “mystics”. But the dhyānas and samādhis of Buddhism have very little in common with the practices and aspirations of Plotinus, St. Theresa, Eckhart and other European “mystics”. Christian mysticism is based on fervent
emotion and pious theism: the dhyāna of Buddhism is rooted in thought and spiritual autonomy, as it ends in mindfulness and equanimity, or in total coma and unconsciousness. The Christian mystic loses himself in God and has a vision of Christ: the Buddhist monk is intensely conscious of his own personality, and does not aspire to meet another higher Personality, immanent or transcendental. The formulae of the Buddhists do not help us to understand the psychological states that are produced (if they are produced at all). "Mysticism" is a vague term, and it is difficult to compare and contrast two such nebulous growths as Buddhist dhyāna and Christian "mysticism". It is perhaps impossible to find a common denominator for these radically different historical phenomena.

VI. Prajñā-pāramitā (The Perfection of Wisdom).

This Perfection represents the summum bonum of Buddhist philosophy. Prajñā has been translated as "gnosis", "wisdom", "insight", "intuition", "la science transcendant", "transcendental idealism", "knowledge", "spiritual enlightenment", "la science de la nature des choses", etc. The English word "wisdom", derived from Gothic "witan, weis", is related in meaning to prajñā, which is derived from jñā. The opposite of prajñā is often given as avidyā (ignorance), moḥa (delusion, folly), or simply daunja (non-wisdom). H. Kern suggests the untenable theory that prajñā is the female consort of Īśvara, or Durgā, who is also identical with Nature.

Prajñā is of three kinds: that which depends on hearing the teaching from another person and on the study of Scripture; that which arises from reflexion; and that which is developed by cultivation and realisation (pratāmyā, cintāmyā, bhāvanāmyā). The concept of prajñā is so important that it is mentioned in several numerical lists, e.g. among the balas, the indriyas, the dhanas, the cakṣus and the adhiṣṭhānas. It is explained in three different ways by the Buddhist authors.

1. Prajñā as ordinary knowledge and learning. The Bodhisattva-bhumi and the Lal. V. sometimes interpret prajñā as the knowledge of the arts and sciences. But this original sense of prajñā was not adopted in systematic Buddhist philosophy.

2. Prajñā and the Vijnāna-vādins. The two great Mahāyānist schools of Buddhist philosophy do not agree in their interpretation
of prajñā. The Vijñāna-vādins (Yogācāras) explain prajñā in a positive manner as "the Knowledge of the supreme Good or the supreme Truth" (param-ārtha-jñāna), or simply as "Knowledge" (jñāna).\(^{108}\) It depends on right investigation and concentration, which lead to the knowledge of that which exists and as it exists.\(^{109}\) It consists in an unobscured and lucid knowledge of all that is knowable (sarva-jñey-ānāvarana-jñānam: Bo. Bhū., fol. 84b.6). It implies the knowledge of the four Noble Truths, of what should be done or not done (karaṇiya, akaraṇiya), of the philosophical categories and arguments, and of moral corruption and purification (aṅkileṣaya, vyavadānasya).\(^{110}\) The Vijñāna-vādins thus identify prajñā with perfect Knowledge in all its aspects, and regard it as insight into Reality (tathatā).\(^{111}\)

3. Prajñā and the Mādhyamikas. The Mādhyamika philosophers have interpreted prajñā in a negative sense, but they have expounded their ideas with remarkable prolixity and pertinacity. They have even composed voluminous treatises, which deal only with this pāramitā. They also extol and glorify it in eloquent terms. They invoke it in the exordium of the Pr. Pa. Aṣṭa., as if it were a substitute for the "triple jewel" of the Buddha, the Dharma and the Saṅgha. They apply the epithets āryā (noble) and bhagavatī (adorable) to it, and we know that Buddha was always described as bhagavān. The Mādhyamikas do not shrink from declaring that the prajñā-pāramitā is the mother of all the Buddhas and bodhisattvas.\(^{112}\) It is the good friend of the bodhisattvas. It is a pearl of great price. It is immeasurable, pure, lovely, profound, wonderful, infinite, indivisible, unshakable and inconceivable. It is greater than all the other pāramitās, as the moon is greater than the stars. All the other pāramitās should be transmuted and sublimated into the prajñā-pāramitā, which really includes all of them. The other pāramitās, without prajñā, lead to the lower stage of the Hinayāna, while this prajñā-pāramitā is the essence of the Mahāyāna and is even sufficient by itself without the other Perfections. It produces, maintains and promotes them all.\(^{113}\)

This prajñā-pāramitā is understood to mean ānitya (literally, "emptiness, void"). This elusive term may be translated as "conditioned, contingent, phenomenal Existence" or as "Non-existence". It is explained in these two different ways by the Mādhyamika philosophers.

(a) Ānitya as conditioned Existence. The original doctrine
THE BODHISATTVA DOCTRINE

of the Mādhyamikas was regarded as a middle way between the dogmas of absolute Existence and absolute Non-existence. The Śamādhīrāja-sūtra says: "'Is' and 'Is not' are both extreme opinions; 'Purity' and 'Impurity' are also the same." The Mādh. declares that the foolish people, who believe in Existence or Non-existence, do not understand the real nature of things. The Lankāvatāra-sūtra shows that absolute Existence and Non-existence are relative terms, as each proves the necessity of the other. Nāgārjuna has expressed this view in his famous aphorism:

"No destruction, no production; no discontinuity, no permanence; no unity, no diversity; no appearance (coming), no disappearance (going)."

These eight negatives sum up the early teaching on śūnyatā, which really amounts to a systematic exposition of the old Buddhist formula of the pratītya-samutpāda (Pāli: paṭicca-samutpāda, "Dependent Origination") or the twelve nidānas (bases, grounds, causes). It is distinctly stated in the Mādh. that śūnyatā does not mean "Non-existence" (abhāva) and that it is identical with the principle of the pratītya-samutpāda (Mādh., 503.10 ff.; 491.15 ff.). The root-idea of the obscure and unintelligible formula of the twelve nidānas is found in the Pāli canon: "This being, that becomes; from the arising of this, that arises; this not becoming, that does not become; from the ceasing of this, that ceases." The term suññatā also occurs in several passages of the Pāli canon, and the Andhakas had a definite theory of śūnyatā (Kathā-vatthu, xix, 2, p. 578). The Mahāyānists only reiterated the old doctrines and developed them to their logical conclusion. The fundamental notion is thus explained in the Mādh.: "There is nothing that arises without a determining cause; hence there is nothing that is not empty or void (śūnyā)." (Mādh., 505.2-3.) "Things and phenomena do not arise by themselves." (Mādh., 76.1.)

This doctrine of universal causation and inter-dependence is embodied and formulated in the numerical list of the twelve nidānas, which has been devised to explain how the law of causality operates.

Pratītya-samutpāda and the Nidānas. The word pratītya (Pāli: paṭicca) is derived from the root prati (with prati) and literally means "resting on, falling back on". The term pratītya-samutpāda signifies "arising on the grounds of a preceding cause,
happening by way of cause, causal-genesis, dependent origination." 
(\textit{\"{}hetu-pratyaya-apek\textsc{\textendash}ka bhav\textendash n\textsc{\textendash}nam up\textsc{\textendash}d\textsc{\textendash}uh.\textsc{\textendash}} Mdh., p. 5). The Mdh. also gives an incorrect grammatical interpretation: \textquotedblleft the production or origination of successively perishable things or phenomena.\textquotedblright

E. Burnouf has also mentioned this explanation: \textquotedblleft la production connexe des conditions faites pour disparaitre successivement.\textquotedblright \textsuperscript{419}

The twelve items of this formula are also called \textit{nīdānas}. This word, derived from \textit{da} (dyati, to bind) and \textit{ni} (along), suggests a series or connected chain. It means \textquoteleft Grundursache, Wesen, Grundform; a first or original cause, basis, a primary or remote cause; source, origin, cause\textquoteright (Skr. Dicy. Pbg. and M.W.; Pāli Dicy.). These twelve \textit{nīdānas} are given as follows in the Sanskrit treatises:

\textquoteleft From Ignorance (\textit{avidyā}) as cause arise the \textit{samikāras}; from the \textit{samikāras} as cause arises Consciousness (\textit{vijñāna}); from Consciousness as cause arises Name-and-form (\textit{nāma-rūpa}); from Name-and-form as cause arises the sixfold Sphere of the Senses (\textit{jāt-dvātana}); from the sixfold Sphere as cause arises Contact (\textit{spāra}); from Contact as cause arises Sensation (\textit{vedāna}); from Sensation as cause arises Craving (\textit{trṣṇā}); from Craving as cause arises Grasping (clinging, \textit{upādāna}); from Grasping as cause arises Becoming (\textit{bhava}); from Becoming as cause arises Birth (\textit{jāti}); from Birth as cause arise old age, death, grief, lamentation, pain, dejection and despair\textquoteright. (\textit{Lal. V.}, 346, 419; \textit{Mṭt., iii}, 448.)\textsuperscript{520}

In the \textit{Da. Bhū.}, \textquoteleft the five \textit{indriyas}\textquoteright are mentioned in place of the \textquoteleft sixfold Sphere of the Senses\textquoteright, and \textit{abhinandana} (delight, pleasure) is inserted as a synonym of \textit{trṣṇā}. Instead of \textit{jāti}, the \textit{Da. Bhū.} speaks of \textquoteleft the emergence of the five \textit{skandhas} (aggregates)\textquoteright.\textsuperscript{521} The \textit{Lal. V.} also mentions all the \textit{nīdānas} in the reverse order, but most treatises always begin with \textit{avidyā}.

1. \textit{Avidyā} (Pāli: \textit{avijjā}). \textit{Avijjā} is defined in the \textit{Dhamma-saṅgani} as \textquoteleft lack of knowledge about the four Noble Truths\textquoteright, exactly in the same way as \textit{moha}, with which it is thus identified (Sections 1100, 1162). The \textit{Da. Bhū.} explains \textit{avidyā} as \textquoteleft delusion or folly (\textit{moha}) with regard to the things, which are material compounds\textquoteright.\textsuperscript{522} It infatuates the beings. Kṣemendra equates \textit{avidyā} and \textit{vāsanā} (subliminal impressions), and declares that it is the root of the tree of phenomenal existence and of all pain.\textsuperscript{523} \textit{Avidyā} is mentioned in the \textit{Yoga-sūtras}, where it is defined as the error of imagining that
transient, impure, painful and non-substantial things have just the opposite characteristics (Y. Sā., ii, 5, p. 61). J. Woods translates it as "undifferentiated consciousness" (p. 110). A Tibetan symbolic picture of the nīdānas represents it as a blind man feeling his way with a stick. The idea of blindness seems to be essential. T. W. Rhys Davids interprets avidyā as "a productive, unconscious Ignorance", while S. Lévi stresses the point that it is an objective entity. As avidyā is absent from the list of the nīdānas in the Mahāpadāna-sutta and the Mahāniddāna-sutta of the Digha-Nikāya, it was probably borrowed from a Hindu school which had affiliations with the Upaniṣads. It is difficult to understand its exact nature as the first link of the chain of causation. Perhaps it is something like the "Unconscious" of C. R. E. von Hartmann's metaphysics.

2. Saṃskāra. Kṣemendra refers to the threefold division of the saṃskāra that belong to the body, speech and the mind. In an Ajanta fresco, they are represented by a potter working at his wheel, surrounded by pots; but the Tibetan picture has only the wheel and the pots, without the potter. The latter symbol is more appropriate, as the Buddhists do not recognise the existence of Omar Khayyām's "potter". The Da. Bhū. teaches that the saṃskāras bring about the realisation of the results (of actions) in the future.

3. Viṣṇāṇa. Kṣemendra identifies viṣṇāṇa with the six "organs of sense" (including manas). According to the Da. Bhū., it causes the reunion of Becoming. In the Ajanta fresco and the Tibetan picture, it is represented as an ape, or an ape climbing a tree. It is also considered under six aspects according to its connection with the six indriyas (the eye, the mind, etc.).

4. Nāma-rūpa. This term denotes "mind-and-body". Nāma includes the four non-material "aggregates" of sensation, perception, volitions and consciousness, while rūpa means "form, the body composed of the four elements". Contact and attention are also comprised in nāma, which is a comprehensive term for the individual's mental life. In the Tibetan picture, it is represented by a boat crossing a stream (i.e. a living being on the ocean of saṃsāra or transmigratory existence). Nāma-rūpa was borrowed by the Buddhists from the Upaniṣads: (cf. Chāndogya Upd., vi, 3-2-9, p. 337; "tad etad amṛtam satyena-cchannam prāpo va amṛtam nāma-rūpe satyam tābhyaṁ ayaṁ prānas channah"; Brhadāranyaka Upd., i, 6.3, p. 249).
5. Sādāyatanam (Pāli: saḷ-āyatana). Āyatana literally means "place or sphere for meeting or of origin; ground of happening". It denotes both the six "organs of sense" (including manas) and the corresponding objects. The former are called the internal āyatanae, and the latter are the external āyatanae. In the Ajanta and Tibetan pictures, they are represented by a mask of a human face, or a house with six windows.

6. Sparśa (Pāli: phasso). Contact is of six kinds according as it is produced by each of the six organs of sense (the eye, the ear, etc.). It is represented in the Tibetan picture by a man seated with an arrow entering the eye.

7. Vedanā. Sensation or Feeling has been discussed in the section on the smṛty-upasthānas. In the pictures, it is represented by a couple of lovers embracing each other (cf. T. W. Rhys Davids, "Buddhism," p. 158).

8. Trīṇa (Pāli: tanhā). After avidyā, trīṇa (Craving, Thirst) is the root-cause of evil. It is of three kinds according as it produces the desire for sensuous pleasures, for existence, and for non-existence (vihara). It is often compared to a fever and a stream. It leads to the wrong idea of the reality of the phenomena. The Lankāvatāra-sūtra declares that avidyā is the father and trīṇa is the mother of the phenomenal world. Trīṇa is also the name of a daughter of Māra, the deva of Desire and Death. According to the Da. Bhū, it produces attachment to the objects of enjoyment. In the Tibetan picture, it is represented by a man drinking wine.

9. Upādāna. This word, derived from dā with upa and ṭ, literally means "that material substratum by means of which an active process is kept alive or going", hence "fuel" (for a fire). In Buddhist philosophy, it denotes "grasping, clinging to existence or to external objects", as this tendency feeds the fire of Becoming and leads to rebirth. According to the Da. Bhū, it creates the bond of moral corruption. There are four kinds of upādāṇa, arising from sensuous Desire, heresy, belief in rites and ceremonies, and the wrong idea of a substantial Ego (ātman). In the Tibetan picture, upādāna is represented as a man picking flowers and storing them up in large baskets. E. Burnouf translates the term as "la conception".

10. Bhava (Becoming, "das Werden"). Kṣemendra mentions the three divisions of bhava, viz. the spheres of kāma (sensel-desire), rūpa (form) and arūpa (ārūpya, formlessness).
H. Oldenberg interprets bhava as rebirth and the continuance of existence. But the Tibetan picture represents it as a married woman. L. A. Waddell says: "She is the wife of the individual, whose life-history is being traced. ... It is literally fuller Becoming, —Life as enriched by satisfying the worldly desire of home and as a means of obtaining an heir to the wealth amassed by Greed."  

11. Jāti (Birth). The Da. Bhū. explains jāti as the emergence or appearance of the five skandhās. Kṣemendra refers to the round of different lives. The Tibetan picture shows the birth of a child. L. A. Waddell says: "It is the maturing of the man's life by the birth of an heir and as a result of the married existence of the tenth stage."  

12. Jara-marana, etc. Only jara-marana is sometimes mentioned. Vṛddhi (disease, sickness) is added to the seven items in several passages. The Tibetan picture shows a corpse, which is being carried off to cremation or burial.  

This famous formula of the twelve nidānas has given rise to much controversy. E. J. Thomas has refuted R. Pischel's theory that the terms are borrowed from the phraseology of the Sāṅkhya-Yoga system, which did not exist in its developed form in the fifth and fourth centuries B.C. The tentative attempts of the early Buddhists have left clear traces in the Pāli canon. The Mahāpadāna-sutta and the Mahānidāna-sutta do not mention all the twelve items (Digha, ii, 31 ff., 55 ff.). The Sutta-nipāta gives a somewhat different series (Dvayatānapassanā-sutta, pp. 139 ff.), adding other terms, ārambhā, dhāra, ināja, etc. The series is prolonged in the Samyutta-Nikāya by adding saddhā and other positive concepts after "old age and death". But the Sanskrit writers took up the ready-made formula with its twelve factors. It is probable that there were only six items in the earliest form of the series, viz. vijnāna, nāma-rūpa, sad-dhyātana, sparṣa, vedanā and triṣṇā. These form a coherent group, and the discussion in the Mahānidāna-sutta is abruptly broken off at tadā. It is a sort of anti-climax to continue the series after triṣṇā, which is the central theme. In this shorter form, the formula was perhaps originally intended as an expansion of the second and third of the four Noble Truths (the origin and the cessation of Pain, which is due to Craving). The traditional explanation is that the first two terms refer to a past life, the next eight describe the present life, and the last two are related to a
future existence. This interpretation is unconvincing and unsatisfactory, as “Birth” is unnecessarily repeated, and the sense of the entire formula is obscured and distorted. In the third section, according to this analysis, there is a gap between Birth and Death, and the transition is too abrupt. H. Beckh thinks that the individual is really born at the stage of bhava (Empfängnis), and that the nine preceding terms refer only to the activities of a “super-sensible spiritual being”, which is called a gandharva. This gandharva carries with it all the skandhas of the person, who is not yet born: (“Dieses Seelenwesen, das die vor der irdischen Empfängnis vorhandenen übersinnlichen Wesenstelle skandha’s des Menschen in sich hat”). All this is very ingenious; but the gandharva cannot possess rūpa or the sense-organs, and it cannot feel trīṣṇā (Craving). H. Beckh’s interpretation cannot solve this curious problem. His irrelevant references to Sāṅkhya terminology do not call for serious comment. H. Oldenberg accepts the traditional Theravāda explanation, and says: “So wird die Region des Geborwerdens zweimal berührt, und das Irreführende, die tatsächlich vorhandene Unklarheit liegt darin, dass dies beidemal mit verschiedenen Ausdrücken geschieht.” But why should this item occur twice? L. de la Vallée Pousin thinks that the twelve items have been arranged by taking pairs of terms from the Devyatānapassanā-sutta and the Kalaha-vivada-sutta of the Sutta-nipāta. He mentions the theory of the gandharva, and says: “La pensée (citta = viśīṇa) revêt une forme corporelle (pas où il faut entendre le nāma-rūpa), qui se munit des organes (ṣad-ayutana). Ainsi constitué, l’être intermédiaire contemple les créatures, et... il voit certain couple embrassé: il entre en contact (sparṣa) avec ce couple,” etc. This explanation is repugnant to good taste, unconvincing and far-fetched. P. Oltramare points out that the formula has also been applied to the universe in general, and not merely to the individual life: “Expression d’une loi universelle absolue, le pratitya-samutpāda est mis en dehors du temps et de la relativité.” He is of opinion that it was intended only to explain the origin of suffering for the practical aim of edification and that it is very unsatisfactory in its present form: “Que dans l’application de ce principe, il y ait des bizarreries et des enfantillages, personne n’en disconviendra.” J. Kirste begins with old-age-and-death and tries to trace the causal connection backward. He defines avidyā as “Unbewusstsein”, “da darin Nichtwissen und Nichtsein verschmolzen sind”
(Album Kern, pp. 75-7). P. Oltramare also thinks that the
nirāgāra do not really succeed one another in time, but act
simultaneously to produce Pain. He says: “En réalité, tous
les douze se trouvent coopérer à la fois, directement ou indirecte-
ment, à la souffrance que l'individu éprouve d'instant en instant.”

But the simultaneous existence of such factors as Contact and
Craiving would be impossible. Some items must precede the
others. There is an essential time-plan in this formula. We
may do worse than follow the Indian tradition as it has been
preserved and interpreted by the Tibetan priests, who explained
to L. A. Waddell that bhava and jāti introduced the romantic
elements of marriage and parenthood into this all-too-dull formula.
The same person is not born again, but his child appears on the
scene. This explanation may not be absolutely correct, but it
at least makes sense out of the series, while almost all other in-
terpretations make nonsense out of it.

A bodhisattva understands the truth of the pratitya-samutpāda
in the sixth bhūmi (stage). He is then freed from all delusion and
error (moha).

When śūnyatā is understood to mean “conditioned
Existence”, it denotes the absence of an absolute self-existent
Substance or Substratum in all things and phenomena (dharma-
nairītmya). It also implies the non-existence of any uncaused
or self-caused entities and phenomena. It is thus equivalent to
Causality and Phenomenalism, and may perhaps be compared to
the basic ideas of the systems of Auguste Comte and Herbert
Spencer.

(b) Āśūyata as Non-existence. Some Buddhist philosophers
go further and explain śūnyata as absolute Non-existence (abhāva).
The authors of the Pr. Pā. Čata. and the Vaiśra. Pr. Pā. seem to
revel in a veritable orgy of negation. The Pr. Pā. Čata. says:

“Ignorance is non-existent; the saṃskāras are non-existent;
Consciousness, Name-and-form, the Sixfold Sphere of the Senses,
Contact, Sensation, Craving, Grasping, Becoming, Birth, Eld-
and-Death are all non-existent (avīdya-samāna). . . . A bodhisattva
does not find and discern the origination or cessation, corruption or
purification, this side or the other side of any thing
or phenomenon. If a clever magician or his apprentice were to
create a great crowd of people in a square and preach the Perfection
of Wisdom to them in order to establish them therein, then he
would not thereby establish any being in the Perfection of
Wisdom, because all things and beings are of such a nature that they are illusory (māyā-dharmatā) . . . All dharmas exist in that they do not exist. They are not merely empty; they are identical with Emptiness. They are transient, painful, non-substantial, quiescent, void, signless, aimless, unproduced and unrelated. There are no form, sensation, perception, volitions and consciousness; no eye, ear, nose, tongue, body and mind; no forms, sounds, odours, savours, tangible things and mental objects; no Pain, or its origin or cessation; no eightfold Way; no past, present or future; no uncompounded elements; no bodhisattva, no Buddha and no Enlightenment . . . A bodhisattva is himself like a phantom of illusion (māyā-puruṣa)." Thus does the Pr. Pā. Čata. expound its doctrine of negation, which is surely carried to the utmost limit. The Vacracchedikā Pr. Pā. exhibits the same tendency. It declares that there are no individuals, no qualities, no ideas, no Doctrine, no beings to be delivered, no production or destruction, no bodhisattva, no Buddha and no bodhi.⁵⁵⁷ Such absolute nihilism seems to border on absurdity. But these writers, like Tertullian, are perhaps not deterred by the difficulties inherent in absurdity. Cāntideva also adds his mellifluous note to this shrill chorus of "non-existent" philosophers, and perpetrates such verses as the following:—

"Nothing exists in the causes, taken separately or collectively. It cannot come from another place, and it cannot stay or go. How does it differ from illusion? . . . If something exists, why should it need a cause? And if it does not exist, why should it need a cause? If Existence is not present at the time of Non-existence, when will it come to be? So long as Existence does not appear, Non-existence will not disappear; but there is no possibility of the appearance of Existence, so long as Non-existence has not disappeared. Hence there is no Becoming and no Cessation at any time; this whole world is not produced or destroyed. All things are empty." ⁵⁵⁸

To such puerile logomachy can these champions of ānyatā descend? They have also devised a set of stock similes. All phenomena and beings are like a dream, an echo, a mirage, the stem of the plantain-tree, the image of the moon seen in water, etc.⁵⁵⁹ (c) Ānyatā has also been classified, and very much so. There are eighteen or twenty kinds of ānyatā. They are described as follows:—
(1) Inward or internal Emptiness (adhyātma-śūnyatā).
(2) External Emptiness (kahirdhā).
(3) Emptiness, which is both internal and external.
(4) The Emptiness of Emptiness (i.e. extreme Emptiness).
(5) Great Emptiness.
(6) The supreme or transcendental Emptiness (paramārtha).
(7) The Emptiness of the compounded phenomenal elements (sanāskṛta).
(8) The Emptiness of the uncompounded noumenal elements (asāmskṛta).
(9) Absolute Emptiness (atyanta).
(10) Emptiness without beginning and end (anavardṛg.: cf. Dīvy., 197.15).
(11) Emptiness without a residuum, or ceaseless Emptiness (anavakāra).
(12) Emptiness by nature (prakṛti).
(13) Emptiness of all phenomena (sarvadharmā).
(14) Emptiness of Characteristics (lakṣyā).
(15) Non-acquisitional Emptiness (i.e. it is difficult to acquire results: anupalambha).
(16) Emptiness of Non-existence (abhāva).
(17) Emptiness of Existence (svabhāva).
(18) Emptiness of both Existence and Non-existence.
(19) Emptiness of that which is not a characteristic (alakṣyana).
(20) Emptiness of Other-existence (para-bhāva-śūnyatā).

The last two items are found only in the Dh. S. The Pr. Pā. Čata. applies these different aspects of śūnyatā to all the concepts and categories of Buddhist philosophy (rūpa, vedanā, etc.), and even to the attributes of a Buddha. The Lankāvatāra-sūtra mentions seven kinds of śūnyatā, some of which are included in the list given above.

(d) Some Buddhist thinkers have also arrived at the conclusion that nothing can be predicated about Reality. The nature of all things and phenomena is undefinable and indescribable. There is neither transiency nor permanence, neither Emptiness (śūnyatā) nor its opposite, neither pain nor pleasure. An advanced bodhisattva rises above all such pairs of opposites and says nothing. He is also above Good and Evil, which really belong to the phenomenal world. He does not recognise the existence of either virtue or sin (punya, pāpa). He is beyond Merit and Demerit. This view betrays the influence of the Upaniṣadī.
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(e) The idea of Emptiness is also applied to all the Perfections (pāramitās). They are then “purified” and exercised in their highest potency. Thus a bodhisattva should “purify” the pāramitā of Giving by thinking that the donor, the recipient and the gift do not really exist. In the same manner, all the persons and things that he meets in practising the other Perfections should be regarded as illusory and unreal. This is the best way of exhibiting the pāramitās in all their glory!

(f) The Buddhist philosophers, having so vociferously asserted the non-existence of all things, at last manage to “deviate into sense” by the subtle theory of the “two kinds of Truth”. Truth may be regarded under two aspects: sāṃyati-satya (or vyāvahāra-satya, “veiled, relative, conventional, contingent, experimental Truth”) and paramārtha-satya (supreme, absolute, metaphysical Truth). The Lankāvatāra-sūtra says: “Every thing exists relatively and contingently; but nothing exists absolutely.” The M. S. Al. declares that the relative world is like a magically constructed wooden elephant, which is fundamentally unreal and illusory, but which may be said to exist. Čāntideva teaches that the phenomenal world, which can be grasped by the discursive intellect (buddhi), exists in a relative sense, as far as ordinary men and women are concerned; but the absolute Truth of Reality is beyond the sphere of Intelligence. This monastic device of dividing Truth into two mutually incompatible parts is intended to reconcile the philosophy of sānyāsatara with the common sense of mankind. The laity live and love and work in the relative world of Phenomena; the monks live and think and dream in the absolute realm of Emptiness. Monasticism meddles even with metaphysics!

(g) Prajñā and sānyāsatara are the sources of a bodhisattva’s moral strength. He is not attached to anything, and he is freed from all desires and fears. Prajñā routs the army of Māra, as water destroys a vessel of unbaked clay. According to the Samādhīrāja-sūtra, a bodhisattva, who has acquired prajñā, gives away everything and is perfect and flawless in character. He loves rapt Musing, and cannot be shaken or conquered by the hosts of Māra. He remains detached in mind and body. He is animated by deep and great Love and Mercy (adhimātra-karanā). He acquires all the dhyānās, samādhis (modes of Concentration) and samāpattis (Attainments) of a Buddha (Sam. Rā., fol. 115a and b).
This is the acme of Wisdom, and its positive aspects are thus emphasised.

VII. Upāya-kauṣalya-pāramitā (also Upāya-kauṣala).

This is the most important of the four supplementary pāramitās. It is also given as upāya-pāramitā.\textsuperscript{572} It may be explained as "skillfulness or wisdom in the choice and adoption of the means or expedients for converting others or helping them". It is especially related to a bodhisattva's work as a preacher and teacher. The Mahāyāna was a "revival" movement and attached great importance to successful propaganda. The Bodhisattva-bhūmi declares that it is a bodhisattva's duty to be an effective preacher (avandhya-dharma-deśako bhavati, fol. 152a, 6.2). According to the Pr. Pā. Cuta., all the pāramitās are fulfilled by preaching.\textsuperscript{573} The Sad. Pu. also emphasises the importance of such missionary zeal.\textsuperscript{574} The Da. Bhū. teaches that a bodhisattva becomes a preacher in the fifth bhūmi (stage).\textsuperscript{575} Preaching and teaching are known as a bodhisattva's "gift of the Doctrine or Truth" (dharma-dāna).\textsuperscript{576} It is more valuable and meritorious than the gifts of material objects (āmiśa-dāna). A bodhisattva knows all kinds of devices and expedients for the instruction and discipline of the living beings (Bo. Bhū., fol. 152b, 5.2). The Merit acquired by such service is a treasure that belongs to him.\textsuperscript{577}

Upāya-kauṣalya is frequently mentioned along with the six pāramitās in the Pr. Pā. Asta.,\textsuperscript{578} but it was subsequently raised to the rank of a pāramitā. Its object is stated in the Bodhisattva-bhūmi to be the conversion of those who are hostile or indifferent to the faith, and the development and liberation of those who already profess Buddhism (Bo. Bhū., fol. 116b, 5). This Perfection is generally exercised in order to gain access to the people, to win their sympathy, to explain the principles of the religion in a popular manner and to facilitate propaganda in other ways. A bodhisattva should always adapt his teaching to the capacity of the audience. He is like a physician, who prescribes different remedies for different diseases and different persons.\textsuperscript{579} He speaks only of heaven to those who desire a happy rebirth.\textsuperscript{580} He does not lay heavy burdens on his congregation. He does not ask them to keep long fasts, but shows an easier way to the simple, pious folk, who try to increase their "Merit".\textsuperscript{581} He does not
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frighten them with the profound teaching of Emptiness, which he reserves for more advanced aspirants.582.

A bodhisattva can adopt other methods suggested by his upāya-kañčala. The Sad. Pu. relates some interesting parables, which illustrate this Perfection. It seems that trickery and falsehood are permitted, if the end of converting or helping others is achieved. The pāramitā, as described in the Sad. Pu., comes perilously near the vice of duplicity and insincerity. Some Christian divines have also recommended "economy of truth" and "pious frauds" in the interests of religion.583 But upāya-kañčala can also take many unobjectionable forms. Two parables of the Sad. Pu. may be briefly related as follows:—

Parable of the Burning House. There was an old man, who was wealthy and owned a ramshackle dilapidated house with but one door. When he was outside the house one day, he saw that it was on fire. He had five, ten or twenty children, who were playing in the house. He did not know what to do. If he had entered the house and tried to take hold of the boys in order to save them, the foolish children would have run away from him in all directions. He called to the boys and cried: "Come, my children. The house is on fire." But the boys did not heed his words, and they did not even understand what he meant by "fire", so ignorant were they. He then showed his upāya-kañčala by calling out: "Boys, I have put bullock-carts, goat-carts, deer-carts and other beautiful toys for you outside the door. Come out and take them." When the children heard this, they straightway ran out of the house and were saved from the jaws of death. The father gave them splendid and costly carriages.

In this parable, the father is Buddha; the children are ordinary men and women; the burning house is life in the world; the three carts are the three Ways of the Buddhist Church, which lead to different degrees and kinds of sanctity; the costly carriage is the highest Way, the Mahāyāna.584

Parable of the Lost Son. A certain poor man had a beloved son, and it so happened that the son left his home and wandered to a far country. He lived in the strange land for fifty long years, but still remained poor. During all those years, his father throve and prospered in the world and rose to be a rich man with much substance and many servants and attendants. Now that poor young man, wandering about in search of food and raiment, came to the town and the street in which his father
lived. He saw that rich man sitting at the door of a fine mansion, and knew not that he saw his father. But the father saw his face and recognised him at once. The poor young man was filled with fear at the thought that he had perhaps come into the wrong street and might be punished for his rashness. So he ran away in great haste. But the old father said to his servants: “Go, my men, and quickly bring that fellow to me.” When the servants came upon the young man, he cried, “I have done nothing against you... O, I am undone.” He fainted and fell to the ground. His father looked after him, but did not tell him who he really was. The old man now exhibited his upāya-kaṇṭṭāla in this way. He let the poor fellow go away. He then called two poor men of humble origin and said to them: “Go, and hire that young man for double wages, and tell him to work here in my house and clean the receptacle of filth.” So the son worked as a labourer in that house and his father saw him from the window. Then the old man put on dirty clothes, took a basket in his hand, and, going near unto his son, said: “Work here, my man; do not go anywhere else... Look upon me as your own father... Henceforward you are unto me like my son.” In this way, the father found the chance of speaking to his son, who thereupon felt happier in the house. But he continued to live in his hovel of straw and did the same menial work for twenty years. At last, the rich man fell sick and felt that his days were numbered. So he first gave much wealth to the young man, and then he gathered together his kinsfolk and fellow-citizens and said to them: “He is my son: I am his father. To him I leave all my possessions.” The son was greatly astonished at this, and rejoiced exceedingly in his heart.

In this parable, the father is Buddha: the son is every pious Buddhist: the labour of cleaning the refuse-barrel is the lower teaching about nirvāṇa (Liberation); and the declaration of the filial relation is the higher doctrine of the Mahāyāna.685

There are other stories of the same type. A man causes a false message to be sent to his children in order to induce them to use a certain beneficial medicine.686 That was his upāya-kaṇṭṭāla. The Sadd. Pu. teaches that Gautama Buddha really attained Enlightenment many aeons ago and lives for ever; he pretends to be born as a man and attain bodhi under the tree. He does so in order to help mankind, and this is his upāya-kaṇṭṭāla.687 An advanced bodhisattva can assume different forms
in order to preach to different congregations. And so on. It is clear that a certain amount of trickery and falsehood is regarded as permissible.

The bodhisattva, who acts as a preacher, must have certain moral qualifications. He should be patient and unworldly. He should not be afraid of sacrificing his life, if need be. He should not ask the people for gifts. He should avoid the company of nuns and women. He should not mix with butchers, actors, and other low people. If he preaches to women, he should not be alone, and he should beware of frivolity. He should not think of food and raiment, but devote himself entirely to his work. He should not keep back anything, as he should not have the "closed fist" of the teacher (ācārya-musti, Bh. Bhū., fol. 44b 2.2). He should not discourage the people or preach the lower ideal of the Hinayāna; but he should not condemn the Hinayāna in a bitter or intolerant spirit. He should not quarrel with the teachers of other sects or enter into unseemly controversy with them. He should not praise himself. He should not judge and censure others harshly, and he should be very tactful in dealing with sinners and heretics.

Such a preacher needs three other things for complete success in his mission. These are: (1) the sangraha-vastu (means or items of sympathy or conversion); (2) the pratisamvadā; and (3) the dhāraṇī. These requisites of effective propaganda may be discussed very briefly.

1. The Sangraha-vastu. The Buddhist leaders showed great sagacity in exhorting the preacher to cultivate four virtues or practices in order to facilitate the task of converting the people to the new faith. These four requisites of propaganda are called sangraha-vastūni (Pāli: sangaha-vatthūni). The second word is sometimes omitted, as at Lka., 346, verse 656, and Sud. Pu., 142. This term has been translated in several ways:

- L. de la Vallée Poussin: (i) "Topics leading to the sympathy of creatures" (ERE, ii, 740a.
- (ii) "Moyens de séduction" (Le Musée, xii, 1911, p. 160).
- S. Lévi: (i) "Les matières de rapprochement" (M. S. Al., tr., p. 319). (ii) "Les choses de cohésion" (M. S. Al., tr., p. 201 note).

This is S. Lévi's rendering of the Tibetan equivalent.
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E. Burnouf: "Les éléments de la bienveillance" ("Lotus", p. 405).

P. E. Foucaux: "Les bases de la réunion" (Lal. V. tr., p. 36).


T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: "Objects (characteristics) of sympathy" (Pāli Dicy.).

F. Max Müller: "Elements of popularity" (Dh. S., p. 39).

The Pāli word sāṅgha means: (1) collecting, gathering; (2) kind disposition, kindliness, sympathy, friendliness, help, assistance, protection, favour (Pāli Dicy.). M. Anesaki interprets it as "sympathy or altruism" (ERE, v. 451). A comparison of several Sanskrit texts would perhaps lead us to prefer a very literal interpretation (viz. "gathering together", "converting"). We read of sattvānāṃ sāṅgrahah in Kas. Pu. (p. 65). The bodhisattvas are said to "bring together" the creatures (sattvān sanghrhanti, Pr. Pā. Gata., p. 286, line 12); sattvā-ganāsya sanghirīṭā (M. S. Al., 117.19); sāṅgraha-vastuvānāṃ sāṅgrhya janatāṃ-aham (Lal. V., 437.15). It is clear that sāṅgrha refers more to the creatures than to the bodhisattva. But such renderings as "popularity" or "sympathy" make us think of it as something possessed by a bodhisattva. The Tibetan word būd bahi dngspö means: "essentials of partnership or cooperation" (J. Rahder, "Glossary," p. 180; M. V., p. 71; Tib. Dicy., Das, 724b). It is perhaps preferable to translate, "Means of conversion". There is also a suggestion of "sympathy" in the term, but not of "popularity".

The four sāṅgha-vatthūni are enumerated in several passages of the Pāli canon. These are: dānaṃ, pēyyavaṭṭaṃ, attha-cariya and samānattatā. This is a fixed and invariable formula in the Pāli scriptures. But it is a remarkable fact that we can trace its growth in the Sanskrit treatises. Thus we find that only artha-caryā is mentioned at Mtu., iii, 383.11 and iii, 407.13. Aśvaghosha mentions only the last two (artha-caryā and sāmānaṃ sukha-duḥkhaḥ) as the qualities of a good friend (Saund. Kā., xi. 17). Only the first two are spoken of at Pr. Pā. Gata., p. 286, line 12. The Bo. Bhā. devotes a whole chapter to the four vastus, but it particularly emphasises dāna and samān-ārthata
at fol. 31a and 31b. The last is again omitted by Çûra at Já, Mâ, p. 95, line 12, while only three are mentioned in the same treatise at p. 2, line 1; the fourth vastu is indicated only by ōdi and prabhrtibhih (= et cetera). It is probable that the complete formula grew up slowly and gradually in the Sanskrit tradition, and that the fourth vastu gained recognition at a late period. Hence perhaps the constant reiteration of samān-arthata in the Bodhisattva-bhûmi. This treatise does not discuss this vastu in detail with reference to the ninefold classification, which is applied to the pāramitās and the other three vastus. This circumstance may also point to the comparatively late origin of the fourth vastu. Another puzzling problem is raised by the entire absence of the vastus from the long list of a bodhisattva’s duties and practices, which is found at several places in the Pr. Pā. Čāta. (pp. 1182 ff., 1373 ff., 375 ff.). The familiar vastus are conspicuous by their absence in these passages, though they are mentioned in the Lal. V., the Da. Bhû, the Mtu, the Ava. Ča. and other treatises (Mtu., 1, 3, 11–12; Da. Bhû, 22.3, 57.16, 45.13; Ava. Ča., 1, 16, 12; M. S. Al., 116; Lal. V., 160.6; M. Vy., xxxv, p. 71; Dh. S., xix, p. 4).

The four vastus are as follows:—

(a) Dāna (Giving, liberality, generosity).

(b) The second vastu is given in several forms, though the meaning is the same: “pleasant, agreeable speech.” The usual form is priya-vāditā (M. Vy., xxxv, p. 71; M. S. Al., p. 116; Be. Bhû., fol. 32a, line 3, section 1; etc.). But other variants are also met with, e.g.

priya-vādyya (Lal. V., 38.17).
priya-vātānam (Já, Mâ, 95.12; Dh. S., xix, p. 4).
priya-vādyata (Da. Bhû, 45.13; Pr. Pā. Čāta., p. 280, line 12).
priya-vākyā (Lal. V., 160.6).
priya-ākhyanam (M. S. Al., 116.4).
priya-vādyam (Mtu., i, 3.12).

The following renderings have been suggested:—


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These two subjects, Charity and Speech, have been discussed above.

(c) The third vastu is given in two forms:—
   (i) artha-cāryā (M. Vy., xxv, p. 71; Bo. Bh., fol. 87b, etc.).
   (ii) artha-kriyā (Lal. V., 182.6).

Artha-cāryā is the word that occurs most frequently. It has been translated in several ways:—


L. de la Vallée Poussin: “Service” (Le Muséeon, 1911, xii, 161).

L. de la Vallée Poussin: “Putting into practice rules of altruism” (ERE, ii, 740a).


S. Lévi: “La conduite dans le Sens” (M. S. Al., tr., p. 201).


Perhaps it is best to translate: “Promoting the interest of others.” The hallowed Biblical phrase “Doing good” seems to be a suitable and literal rendering.

The Bodhisattva-bhūmi explains artha-cāryā in detail as follows:—

A bodhisattva does good to others by exhorting them to the practice of virtue, and his artha-cāryā has the effect of inducing the people to pursue the Good (pravartakah kuśale pravartanāt). It leads to action in accordance with the dictates of religion. It removes the people from evil conditions and establishes them in the Good, and it may be described as avatāraka (that which makes one enter). A bodhisattva thus renders service to those, to whom he has already preached the faith. He is merciful, pious and disinterested in spirit. The most general form of his service to others consists in ripening the beings who are spiritually immature, and in liberating those who are already mature. He also helps others to further their worldly interests by earning, keeping and increasing their wealth (literally, “objects
of enjoyment," bhogānām) through virtuous activity of various kinds. He persuades others to think of their eternal happiness after death and admits them to the Order of monks. He wins praise from all, and lives happily, perfectly serene in mind and body. But it is indeed a very difficult task to render service to certain types of individuals. There are people, who have not done anything to accumulate "Roots of Merit" (kuṭala-mulānī); others have once lived in great prosperity and affluence, but have fallen on evil days; and then there are the misguided outsiders and heretics. It must be very trying for a bodhisattva to do good to such persons, but he does it all the same, and this is his "difficult service" (duṣkarā artha-caryā). He also performs a kind of "all-round" service (sarvato-mukhi) by conferring the blessing of faith on the unbelievers, and by giving virtue to the wicked, wisdom to the foolish, and a charitable heart to those who are selfish and niggardly. He shows favour and sympathy to those who deserve it, and he punishes and restrains those who deserve to be treated in that manner. He rouses the consciences of those who have fallen into the adverse condition of moral insensibility, and makes them feel noble shame. He preaches the three Ways according to the capacity of the hearers.\footnote{Bo. Bhū., fol. 87b, 88a, 88b.}

(d) The fourth vastu is given as samān-arthatā in Sanskrit and samānattatā in Pāli. The form samārthatā is also found (M. S. Al., 116.4) There is a great divergence of opinion with regard to the meaning of this word. The following renderings have been suggested:

Böhtlingk and Roth (s.v. samānārtha): "dieselben Zweck haben verfolgend."


T. W. Rhys Davids: "Impartiality to one as to another" ("Dialogues", iii, 184).

S. Lévi: "le sens en commun" (M. S. Al., tr., p. 201).

E. Burnouf: "la qualité d'avoir un bien commun" ("Lotus", pp. 405-6).


L. de la Vallée Poussin: "Impartialité: son égal intérêt au bien propre et au bien des autres" (Le Muséeon, xi, 160).

L. de la Vallée Poussin: "Practising ourselves the virtues we recommend to our neighbours" (ERE, ii, 740a).


J. Alwis: "Regarding all as one’s self" (JBTBS., 1894, vol. ii, part 2, p. 22).

Pali Dictionary: "Equanimity, impartiality" ... "state of equality, i.e. sensus communis or feeling of common good" (s.v. samānattatā and sangaha).


This term has also been explained by some Buddhist writers, and L. de la Vallée Poussin follows the Bo. Bhū. in his second rendering, "practising ourselves the virtue we recommend to our neighbours." The Bo. Bhū. paraphrases the word thus: "Here the bodhisattva himself pursues the same Ideal or Aim and the same Good (Root of Good) as he exhorts others to follow" (Bo. Bhū., fol. 89a, line 7, sections 2, 3). In this way, the people believe that he teaches them for their spiritual benefit, as he is consistent in word and deed (Bo. Bhū., fol. 89b, line 2, section 2). They cannot reproach him with such words as these: "Thou dost not do well: why dost thou think that others should be exceedingly taught and exhorted by thee? Thou thyself needest admonition and instruction" (fol. 89b, 3.3). Thus the bodhisattva has the same Ideal or Aim as others have, and he thereby shows his samān-ārthata. The Bo. Bhū. is accepted as an authority by L. de la Vallée Poussin, but this interpretation seems to be far-fetched and unconvincing. The author of this treatise lived as late as the fourth century A.D., and he appears to have lost touch with the old tradition.

Another Sanskrit writer explains samān-ārthata in this way: "Samān-ārthata: the pursuit by himself of that (aim) to which he incites others... It makes (people) follow. When the others know that the preacher acts as he speaks, they follow the Good (Ideal), for which he has persuaded them to exert themselves" (M. S. Al., p. 116, lines 8, 14, 15). The author of this prose commentary (Vasubandhu) thus seems to offer the same interpretation as the Bodhisattva-bhūmi. Both belong to the fourth century.
There was an older tradition with regard to this term, as we learn from the Mtu. and the Saund. Ka. The Mtu. gives the fourth vastu as samāna-sukha-duḥkhata, at i, 3, 12 (and not as samān-ārthata at all). Ācārya speaks of artha-caryā and samānvyām sukha-duḥkhayatā (Saund. Ka., xi, 17). It is clear that this interpretation is quite different from that of the fourth-century theologians. It harmonises more with the real import of the other three saṅgraha-vastus, which refer to personal altruism evinced in the ordinary course of social life. There is a sudden and illogical transition in the plane of thought, if we accept the authority of the Bodhisattva-bhumi. It is preferable to follow the Mtu. and translate, “sharing the joys and sorrows of others”; or, “the quality of being the same in one’s relation to others in joy and in sorrow.”

It may also be suggested that we have here most probably to deal with a wrongly Sanskritised form. The Pāli word is samānattata, which means, “the quality of being of an even mind” (Pāli. Dicy.). Now the correct Sanskrit form would be samān-ātmata (and not samān-ārtha). Artha in Sanskrit usually corresponds to attha in Pāli (and not to Pāli atta). If we adopt this view, the word can be easily explained in the sense suggested by the Mtu.: “The quality of having an even mind (in joy and sorrow)”; or, “the quality of having a common mind with others, i.e. sharing their feelings and experiences, and remaining the same in joy and grief.” The Tibetan equivalent is don-ḥthin-pa (M. Vgy., p. 72; J. Rahder, “Glossary,” p. 187). S. C. Das gives the form, don-mthun-pa, and translates: “samānārtha: an assembly having a common interest” (Tib. Dicy., 644). It seems that the Tibetans read artha, and not ātmata. But their opinion is not decisive.

This virtue may be described as anuvartaka (that which follows after, or conforms). A bodhisattva, who practises this vastu, cultivates faith, virtue, liberality and wisdom, so that his conduct may be in conformity with his precepts (Bo. Bhū., fol. 47a).

The object of all the saṅgraha-vastus is the conversion of the living beings. The Buddhist authors are unanimous on this point.

“The Equipment of the saṅgraha-vastus is for the ripening of the beings” (Kar. Pu., 104.34).

“He matures or ripens the beings” (Bo. Bhū., fol. 32a, 3.1).

“One should win (or conquer) the beings by means of the saṅgraha” (Lka. 346, verse 656).
“For the proper conversion, training (or discipline) and ripening of the beings” (Bo. Bhû., fol. 47e, 4–3).

“The maturing of the beings (is attained) through the saṅgraha-vastus” (Bo. Bhû., fol. 90a, 1.2).

“The four saṅgraha-vastus are a door to the light of the Doctrine, which is for the conversion of the beings. In the case of one who has attained the supreme Wisdom, they are for a thorough and detailed examination of the Doctrine (Lal. V., 35.9).

The four vastus are sometimes classified in two groups: material and spiritual (āmiśa-saṅgraha, dharma-saṅgraha). Dāna is the vastu that depends on material objects; while the other three deal with spiritual values (M. S. Al., 116.22).

In the course of development of Buddhist thought, the saṅgraha-vastus, like the brahma-vihāras, acquired a position of greater importance than was accorded to them in the beginning. The Mahāyāna exhibited a marked tendency to emphasise practical altruism. Thus in the fourth century, the four vastus are given the high honour of being mentioned together with prajñā (Bo. Bhû., fol. 32a, 3.1). According to the Pr. Pā. Aśa., they are included in the six pāramitās, which may be regarded as the fundamental factors of a bodhisattva’s career. They are integral elements in that great virtue, which was subsequently raised to the rank of a pāramitā, viz. upāya-kauśalya. The author of the Bo. Bhû. explicitly declares that the saṅgraha-vastus are identical with upāya (fol. 46b, 5, 2–3). The same writer goes so far so to promise rebirth among the devas and even absolute nirvāṇa as the reward of the practice of the third vastu (Bo. Bhû., 87b, 6.3, and 88a, 1.1). This is very high praise indeed according to Buddhist ideas. These saṅgraha-vastus are spoken of as almost equal in importance to the pāramitās in a striking passage of the Bo. Bhû., in which the pāramitās are said to be necessary for the personal realisation of the dharma of the Buddha, while the saṅgraha-vastus are regarded as indispensable for the conversion of others (fol. 90a, 1.2). They are also brought into relation with that supreme virtue, karunā, in which the bodhisattva doctrine culminates. We read in the Jā. Mā. that “they are really due to the outflow of the bodhisattva’s compassion” (p. 2., line 1). They are also included in the list of a bodhisattva’s eighteen āvanti-kha-dharmas (M. V., xxix, p. 61). In this way, these altruistic practices are appreciated in an increasing degree, and their final approximation to the pāramitās indicates the triumph of the ideal of social service.
According to the scheme of ten bhūmis, as outlined in the Da. Bhū., a bodhisattva practises dāna in the first bhūmi, priya-vādītā in the second bhūmi, artha-cāryā in the third bhūmi and samān-ārthatā in the fourth bhūmi. Thus these virtues are finally incorporated in the comprehensive synthesis of the Mahāyāna. It is to be understood that a bodhisattva acquires them in the first four bhūmis, and then continues to cultivate them throughout his many lives, as he devotes himself to preaching and teaching in the ninth bhūmi. He has the greatest need of these virtues and practices at that advanced stage of his career.

2. The Pratīṣṭhānīs. A bodhisattva must acquire the four pratīṣṭhānīs. This word has been translated in the following ways:

Böhtlingk and Roth: “Genaues Verständnis im Einzelnen.”
Monier Williams: “An accurate understanding of the particulars of anything” (Skt. Dicy., 621 b).
T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: Literally, “resolving, continuous breaking up”, i.e. “analysis, analytic insight, discriminating knowledge”, “the four branches of logical analysis” (Pāli Dicy., s.v. pratīṣṭhāna).


S. Lefmann: “Das genaue Verständnis” (Lal. V., tr., p. 55).


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T. W. Rhys Davids: "The discriminating knowledge of all the Scriptures" (SBE., xi, p. 111, line 4).


The Tibetan equivalent, so-sor-yam-dag-par-rig-pa, is a very literal rendering (M. Vë., p. 18; M. S. Al., tr., p. 234, note 1). The Tibetan so-sor (distinct, separate: Tib. Dicy., Das, 1283a) corresponds to Skt. prati, yam-dag-par to Skt. sam, and rig-pa to Skt. vid (Tib. Dicy., Das, 1177b). S. C. Das also gives the form, so-sor-ran-rig-pa, and translates "accurate understanding" (Tib. Dicy., 1284a). J. Rahder mentions another equivalent, tha dadpa yam dag par ses pa ("Glossary", p. 119). In this word, Skt. prati is rendered by the dad pa (= distinct, separate: Tib. Dicy., Das, 564b), and Skt. vid by Tib. ses-pa (= knowledge, wisdom, science: Tib. Dicy., Das, 1243a). It is clear that the Tibetan translators derive the word from Skt. vid (to know). S. Lévi thinks that the Chinese equivalent denotes "intelligence sans obstacle" (M. S. Al., tr., p. 234). According to J. Eitel, it means: "unlimited knowledge" (p. 122).

The fourth-century authors of the M. S. Al. and the commentary have also exercised their ingenuity in explaining the term. Their fantastic comment may be given in their own words: "When one has reached samâta (equality or sameness) in one's own soul, or by oneself, the preaching, that follows for the destruction of all doubts, is designated pratisamvid. . . By this, the explanation and function of the pratisamvids are indicated. By super-normal (transcendental) knowledge, one knows the equality or sameness of all things, and subsequently preaches the Scripture and the Doctrine by means of the knowledge acquired afterwards. This is the explanation of pratisamvid." (M. S. Al., 139.12 ff.) But these obscure words do not throw much light on the real etymology of the word.

It may be argued that pratisamvid is a wrongly Sanskritised form. The Pâli word is paticambhid, and the correct Sanskrit equivalent should be pratisambhid. The Pâli equivalent is derived from the root bhid, and not from the root vid. The grammatically incorrect forms pratisamvidâni and pratisamvidhâ are also met with (Kar. Pu., 103.3; Mtu., iii, 167.3). The first prefix is sometimes omitted, and the simpler
form *samvid* is found at Pr. Pā. Čata., 1471.1. The same word *samvid*, with a slightly different connotation, occurs in the *Saund. Kā.* (xi.10–xiii.22). In Kṣemendra’s *Avadāna-kalpa-lata*, the poet uses this word *samvid* very frequently (i, 823.17; i, 929, 68.1, 913.7; ii, 331.39; ii, 497.42; ii, 281.47, etc.). The forms *pratisamvidi, pratisamvidita* and *pratisamvedayati* occur in the * Lal. V.*, the *Mtu.* and the *Divy.* (Mtu. iii, 256.5; Mtu. i, 228.7; Divy., 567.18; Lal. V., 369.11). But we need not attach any importance to these different forms, as the term *pratisamvid* has a peculiar technical sense.

The questions may be asked: “Is the Pāli word *patisambhidā* itself a rendering of a Sanskrit term? Have the Pāli writers made a mistake in determining the Pāli equivalent of the original Sanskrit word *pratisamvid* (from *vid*)? Is the Sanskrit form earlier than the Pāli?” It is a curious fact that the four *patisambhidās* are not mentioned in the *Saṅgiti-suttaṇa* of the *Dīgha-Nikāya*, which gives a long list of different terms; and the *Saṅgiti-suttaṇa* must belong to a comparatively late period of early Buddhist history, as it is a kind of systematic catechism. The treatise, *Patisambhidā-magga*, which is included in the *Khuddaka-Nikāya*, also cannot be regarded as an early product of Buddhist literature. It may be argued with a certain degree of plausibility that the Buddhists borrowed the Sanskrit term *pratisamvid* from some Brahmanic source, and the Pāli writers translated it inaccurately into Pāli. The word *samvid* occurs in the *Yoga-rūtras* (*cittasaṃvid*—iii, 34, p. 154), and J. H. Woods translates: “consciousness” (p. 262). It is also found in the *Taṅṭiriya Upaniṣad* (sriyā deṣam hriyā deṣam bhīyā deṣam saṃvidā deṣam. 1, 11.3, p. 34). *Pratisamvid* is mentioned in connection with *vidyā* and *abhiṣaya* in the *Avadāna-cūṭaka* (i, 96.8). It should also be noted that *pratisamvid* is mentioned as a concomitant of the supreme *bodhi* at Lal. V., 343.4; it suggests the idea of knowledge, and not of analysis. Such texts seem to indicate that the Sanskrit form may be the original one. The term would then connote “knowledge” of some sort (and not “analysis”). It could in that case be translated: “detailed and thorough knowledge.” It must also be admitted that this sense seems to suit the context better than “analysis” in many passages, in which the four *pratisamvids* are spoken of. They imply thorough knowledge of something for purposes of propaganda.

It should be noted that the prefix *prati* has been interpreted
in two ways. Most scholars think that it conveys the notion of detail and distinctness; but P. Oltramare, following Vasubandhu, is of opinion that it connotes personal action, "knowing personally, or by oneself." The former interpretation seems to be more acceptable.

A bodhisattva needs the four pratisamvids for success in his preaching. According to the M. S. Al., they are required in order to remove all the doubts of others (p. 139.16). In the scheme of the ten bhūmis, a bodhisattva acquires them in the ninth bhūmi, when he appears before the world as a preacher. The author of the Da. Bhū. distinctly associates the pratisamvids with a bodhisattva's activity as a teacher. He says: "The bodhisattva, who is established in this bhūmi, which is called sādhuhati (Stage of good Thoughts), acts as a preacher of the dharma (doctrine, religion), and guards the treasure of the religion of the Tathāgata. Having attained the position (or state) of a preacher of the faith, he teaches the Doctrine with practical skill, combined with infinite (or immeasurable) knowledge, and with the speech of a bodhisattva, in which the four pratisamvids have been realised. The four pratisamvids of a bodhisattva constantly and continually abide with him, entire and indivisible." (Da. Bhū., 76, 24 ff.)

The Karuṇā-pundarīka also declares that a bodhisattva's Equipment of the pratisamvids (sambhūrah) serves to destroy the doubts of all creatures (104.28). The Lal. V. teaches that the attainment of the pratisamvids leads to the acquisition of the dharma-cakṣus (the "eye" of the Doctrine, Lal. V., 35.16). They also confer a certain power (bala) on a bodhisattva (Lal. V., 287.10). When he understands all dharmas (principles, truths) and can preach them to others, he reaches the final and perfect stage of Knowledge (Bo. Bhū., fol. 100b, 2.1). "He has nothing more to learn beyond that. It is the ne plus ultra of Knowledge," cries the author of the Bodhisattva-bhūmi. The same writer values the pratisamvids so highly that he regards them as essential elements of prajñā, the highest Wisdom. They appertain to that kind of Wisdom, which removes the hostility of other people and induces them to ask a bodhisattva for benefits (Bo. Bhū., fol. 85a, 4, 3 ff). A bodhisattva thus acquires the fivefold practical Wisdom relating to the skandhas, the physical elements, the sense-organs and their objects, the formula of Dependent Origination and the relation of specific causation (Bo. Bhū., fol. 100b, 1.2–3).
The Pr. Pa. Čāta, also exalts the pratisamvids to such a degree that it actually includes them among the permanent attributes of a Buddha, and inserts them right in the middle of the traditional formula of ten kalas, four vaiśāradyas and eighteen āvēnikadharmas (Pr. Pa. Čāta., p. 131, line 20). This remarkable innovation shows that the Mahāyānists came to attach great importance to these requisites of successful propaganda.

The four pratisamvids are given as dharma-pratisamvid, artha-, nirukti-, and pratibhāna- (M. Vy., xiii, p. 18; Sam. Rā., fol. 98b. 5, and fol. 193b. 1; Pr. Pa. Čāta., 1449; Dh. S., li, p. 11; Da. Bhū., 77.4; Mtu., iii, 321.14, etc.). They are as a rule mentioned in this order, but artha is put before dharma by the authors of the Sam. Rā. and the Pr. Pa. Čāta., who follow the Pāli tradition in this respect. The third pratisamvid, nirukti, is omitted at Bo. Bhū., fol. 38a, 2.2, though the same treatise discusses all the four at fol. 100a. It appears that dharma and artha existed as a pair of terms before the complete formula was devised, and then artha was always placed first. They are often mentioned together (e.g. artha-vādi dharma-vādi. Da. Bhū., 24.19. Cf. Dhammapada, 363). Nirukti is mentioned without pratibhāna at Su. Vy., 59.8; but these two terms were also employed together before they were added on to dharma and artha as the third and fourth pratisamvids. Thus only nirukti and pratibhāna are mentioned in a passage of the Pr. Pa. Čāta. (1470.20 ff.). We may conclude that the formula consists of two pairs of terms put together.

(a) Dharma-pratisamvid. According to the M. S. Al., this pratisamvid consists in knowing all the names and mutually convertible terms, which are related to each meaning. The Bo. Bhū. offers a very concise and formal definition. It may be rendered as follows:

"Dharma-pratisamvid is the reflective, absolute and irrevocable knowledge of all phenomena in all their forms with regard to the extent and manner of their existence." 59a Dharma and artha are taught by a bodhisattva, and these two items are therefore related to each other. A bodhisattva knows the essential nature (sva-laksana) of all things (or phenomena), their body-of-non-existence (i.e. their unreality), their present classification (or division), and their difference. He knows the skill of unmixed classification in the knowledge of the phenomena. He understands that they remain unshaken and unmoved according to one law.
(or principle). He knows that the various Ways (of the Buddhist faith) meet together in one Way, and he enters into the knowledge of all the spiritual duty and wisdom of a bodhisattva. He understands that all the Buddhas are of the same type, and he knows all about them: their speech, their Powers, their Grounds of Self-confidence, their personality, their great compassion, their use of the pratisamvids, their turning the wheel of the faith (i.e., preaching the doctrine), and their acquisition of Omniscience.997

The Sam. Rā. appears to connect dharma-pratisamvid with the knowledge of protective magical formulae, called dhāranīs; but this is certainly unsound exegesis (Sam. Rā., fol. 106b, 6 ff.).

(b) Artha-pratisamvid. This pratisamvid is defined in the Bo. Bhā. as "the reflective, absolute and irrevocable knowledge of all phenomena in all their characteristics (lakṣaṇa) with regard to the extent and manner of their existence."998 The M. S. Al. uses the same word lakṣaṇa, and adds, "which name belongs to which meaning."999 By this pratisamvid, a bodhisattva knows the division (or classification) of all phenomena in the past and the future, and understands their origin and their disappearance (or, their rise and their end). He knows the differences of meaning. He acquires the practical wisdom relating to the elements or substrata of sensory existence, the sense-organs and their objects, the Truths and the formula of Dependent Origination. He knows the distinctive features of the several yānas, and also the divisions and distinctions of the scheme of the ten bhūmis. He understands the details and characteristics of various times and objects. He knows separately the inclinations, the ruling principles and the resolves of the eighty-four thousand different types of beings, and he understands the word of the Buddha.996

It is to be noted that the later Mahāyānist writers transpose the places of artha and dharma in the formula of the pratisamvids. Thus the Sam. Rā. and the Pr. Pā. Cātu. follow the Pāli tradition in putting artha as the first pratisamvid; but the Da. Bhā., the M. Vy., the Dh. S., and the M. S. Al. agree in placing dharma first. One can only speculate as to the cause of this alteration. Perhaps the later writers attached more importance to the substance and spirit of the dharma than to the letter of the Scriptures. The abstract dharma was more and more spiritualised and universalised, while the Scriptures remained concrete and material. We know that Bodhidharma and his school held such
views. Thus dharma was exalted and artha was given the second place.\(^{601}\)

(c) Nirukti-pratisamvid. The M. S. Al. defines this pratisamvid as the knowledge of the different languages that are spoken in different countries.\(^{602}\) The Bo. Bhū. here does not employ the same term as the M. S. Al. (vākya), but prefers nirvacaneśu. It explains thus: “Nirukti-pratisamvid is the reflective, absolute and irrevocable knowledge of all phenomena in all their etymological or linguistic explanations with regard to the extent and manner of their existence.”\(^{603}\) By this pratisamvid, a bodhisattva knows how to preach the pure (unmixed) Doctrine. He teaches the Doctrine without confounding and confusing the past, present and future. He preaches according to the letter, and does not mix up relative truth and the realisation of true knowledge. He speaks with a pleasant voice, which is accessible to the whole world; and he also teaches by writing without uttering a sound. He gives instruction in all the yānas without making any distinction among them, and he teaches about the Stages of Perfection, the Way and Concentration. He teaches according to the highest Truth and with proper regard to the divisions. He speaks after the manner of the Buddha’s word, and imparts the pure teaching with regard to the duties of all living beings.\(^ {604}\) He also acquires the knowledge of the speech of such non-human beings as devas, nāgas, yakṣas, gandharvas, asuras, garudas, kinnaras and mahoragas.\(^ {605}\)

(d) Pratibhāṇa-pratisamvid. This word occurs in two forms: pratibhāṇa and pratibhāna. It is difficult to determine the precise meaning of the word pratibhāṇa. Modern scholars have suggested these renderings:

S. Lévi: “Présence d’esprit” (M. S. Al., tr., pp. 12 and 234).
“Il indique à la fois la rapidité de l’esprit et la facilité.”


H. Kern: “Readiness in expounding and discussing”


L. de la Vallée Poussin: “Clairvoyance” (of Avalokiteśvara).

(ERE ii, 259.)


Böhtlingk and Roth: “Einsicht” (Skt. Dicy. Pbg.).
Monier Williams: "Light, splendour, brilliancy; intelligence, understanding, brilliance of conception; confidence, boldness, audacity" (Skt. Dicy., 617c).

T. W. Rhys Davids and W. Stede: "Understanding, illumination, intelligence; readiness or confidence of speech; promptitude, wit" (s.v. patibhāna, Pāli Dicy.).

J. S. Speyer: "Power of expounding" (Avu. Ča., ii, 81, note 1).

E. Burnouf: "Notre mot 'sagesse' serait une meilleure traduction de 'patibhāna' que celui d' 'intelligence'. En résumé, la définition de la quatrième connaissance distincte doit revenir à ceci; la connaissance distincte des trois vérités que sait pénétrer la sagesse" ("Lotus", p. 841).

The Tibetan equivalent is spoba-pa (J. Rahder, "Glossary," p. 117; M. Vy., p. 18). It means: "self-reliance and wisdom; courage, self-confidence; fitness, propriety" (Tib. Dicy., Das, 802b). As a verb, it signifies "to dare, to venture". The Tibetan word spoba-pa-can means "daring, bold" (= Skt. viśārada). According to J. Eitel, the Chinese equivalent of Sanskrit pratibhāna means "pleasant discourses" (Eitel, 122b). The Sanskrit verb pratibhā (Pāli: patibhā) means: "to appear, to be evident, to come into one's mind, to be clear, to shine." A comparison of several passages of Buddhist Sanskrit literature seems to show that pratibhāna refers to courage and boldness in speech rather than to intelligence and understanding (e.g. Lal. V., 35.19; Mtu., i, 119.16; Da. Bhū., 4.2; Kar. Pu., 101.23, 103.18; Su. Vy., 4.4; Avu. Ča., i, 48.10; Mtu., ii, 200.18).

As the third pratisamvid, nirakti, is useful for the purpose of effective preaching, it may be surmised that pratibhāna also denotes some quality or advantage relating to speech. If it is interpreted as "intelligence", it seems to be rather out of place as the last pratisamvid. It is therefore advisable to accept the meaning suggested by the Tibetan equivalent and translate: "courage or boldness in speech, ready address."

According to the M. S. Al., pratibhāna denotes readiness of speech with regard to knowledge. The Bo. Bhū. defines it as "the reflective, absolute and irrevocable knowledge of the verbal distinctions of all kinds as applied to all phenomena with regard to the extent and manner of their existence". A bodhisattva acquires the full knowledge of the attributes of ingenuity by means of this pratisamvid. In a noteworthy verse, Aśvaghōsa compares Buddha's speech to a cow; the true
Doctrine is her milk, and pratibhāna is likened to her horns (Sautrā. Kā., xviii., 11). Here pratibhāna is not spoken of as a pratisamvid, but its function in propaganda is indicated. Cāntideva mentions four characteristics of pratibhāna in a passage, which he quotes from a Mahāyāna sūtra (Gītā, 15.17 ff.). "O Maitreyya, pratibhāna in this connection is associated with truth, not with falsehood (untruth); it is associated with righteousness, not with unrighteousness; it diminishes (or weakens) sinful desires (or passions), and it does not increase (or intensify) them; it shows the advantages and merits of nirvāṇa (Release, Liberation, Freedom), and it does not point out the advantages and merits of samsāra ("transmigration", "the succession of births and deaths"; literally, " faring-on")." The writer here does not refer to pratibhāna as a special pratisamvid, but he describes its general attributes. The Lāl. V. declares briefly that pratibhāna is a door to the light of the Doctrine and serves to please all creatures by means of excellent utterances.

3 The Dhāranīs. The Sad. Pu. declares that a pious preacher is invulnerable. He is immune to danger and disease. Weapons and poison cannot injure him. But such a bodhisattva has also special means of protection in the dhāranīs (protective spells), which he receives from benevolently disposed devas and others. The word mukha is sometimes added to dhāranī on the analogy of the term samādhi-mukha. The phrase dhāranī-mantrapadām (spell-words of dhāranīs) is also found.

The idea of using strange or meaningless words as charms for protection against disease and danger goes back to very ancient times. L. A. Waddell thinks that they belonged to the pre-Aryan religion of India. The Atharvā-veda contains short poems, which may be recited as charms; but it also gives spells consisting of unintelligible sounds and syllables, e.g. "Nidhāya va nidhāya va om va om va om va. ē ai om iwineyotih." The Aitiṣṭya-suttanta of the Dīgha-Nikāya contains what are called parittas (prayers for safety), and a few others are found in the Pāli canon. But the Sanskrit writers attach great importance to mystical charms and spells, which have lost the character of prayers and invocations. The bodhisattvas of Amitābha's paradise obtain dhāranīs. Dhāranīs are even said to confer the vaścāradyas (Grounds of Confidence) on a bodhisattva. Dhāranī-pratilabdha (possessed of dhāranis) is a regular epithet of the advanced bodhisattvas. They are
due to the "Roots of Merit".\textsuperscript{619} In the later Mahāyāna, dhāraṇīs are mentioned along with such important concepts as samādhi and kṣānti, and sceptical objectors are severely condemned.\textsuperscript{620}

The chief object of the dhāraṇī is said to be the protection of the preachers against all enemies, that may do them harm.\textsuperscript{621} They guard and protect a preacher against the non-human beings like the deva, devī, Māra, yakṣa, demons, hobgoblins and ogres of all species.\textsuperscript{622} They confer immunity from snake-bite, poison and sickness.\textsuperscript{623} They also ward off the attacks of thieves and robbers.\textsuperscript{624}

The dhāraṇīs are generally uttered and taught by the devas and other super-human beings, who promise to protect the preaching bodhisattvas. Even benevolent rākṣasīs (female demons) volunteer to help the bodhisattvas with these spells. But the increasing importance of these formulae is shown by the circumstance that the Buddha himself is said to have uttered two dhāraṇīs in the approved style.\textsuperscript{625}

The Bo. Bhū. divides the dhāraṇīs into four classes: the dhāraṇī of dharma (the Doctrine), of artha (Meaning), of magic spells (mantra), and the dhāraṇī for the acquisition of kṣānti (Forbearance, or, Acquiescence in the Truth: fol. 105a, 3). The Dh. S. also speaks of four dhāraṇīs, two of which are included in the list of the Bo. Bhū. (dharma-dhāraṇī and mantra-dhāraṇī); and the others are ātma-dhāraṇī (the dhāraṇī for oneself, or for the body) and grantha-dhāraṇī (the dhāraṇī for the Scriptures or books).\textsuperscript{626} The M. Vy. mentions twelve dhāraṇīs, which are supposed to appertain to a bodhisattva.\textsuperscript{627} They are named abhiṣekani (consecrating), jñānaveṭti (possessing knowledge), ananta-varṇā (of infinite praise), asaṅga-mukha-praveśā (entry into the realm of the Unconditioned), etc. etc.

The dhāraṇīs generally consist of strings of short meaningless words, which are to be recited in a spirit of solemn piety. The usual forms of the words seem to show that the root-idea is that of invoking some goddess, as most of the words end in the vowel ś, e.g. jvāle, ruhe, amale, dme, etc. Faint glimpses of the names of female deities are sometimes to be caught through the thick mists of nonsense. A few words are sometimes intelligible. But the whole formula is usually intended to be mystical and unintelligible. There is plenty of rhyme, too, though not much of reason. The dhāraṇīs seem to have gone from bad to worse in course of time. It may not be
out of place to close this section with a few specimens of dhāranīs:

... tutte tutte vutte vutte patte patte katto katto amale amale vimale vimale nime nime ... tu tu tu tu ... phu phu phu phu svehā.

... iti me iti me iti me iti me nime nime nime nime ruhe ruhe ruhe ruhe stuhe stuhe stuhe stuhe stuhe svehā.

... illa cillā cakvo bakvo ... halale halale tanđi tanđi tāda tāda tādi tādi mala mala sphuta sphuta phutu phutu svehā.628

VIII, IX, X. The eighth, ninth and tenth pāramitās are really superfluous. They are named pranidhāna, bala, and jñāna respectively. These subjects have been discussed above (jñāna being equivalent to prajñā).
Chapter VI

THE BHŪMIS

A bodhisattva’s entire career has been divided into several parts and stages. He rises and advances from one stage to another till he attains Enlightenment. These stages have been called bhūmis, and also vihāras. The word bhūmi means, "earth, place, region; (figuratively), ground, plane, stage, level; state of consciousness" (Pāli Dīcy.). In a metaphorical sense, it is employed in a general way to denote "range", "state", "sphere", "station", "condition", "function", etc. We find such phrases as kāma-bhūmi, dānta-bhūmi, kūmrā-bhūmi, nirvāṇa-bhūmi, citta-bhūmi, kṣatāni-bhūmi, prthago-jana-bhūmi, tathatā-bhūmi, etc. In the Dhamma-saṅgani, bhūmi is synonymous with magga (Way). The Yoga-sūtras mention dṛṣṭha-bhūmi, prānta-bhūmi, sārva-bhūma, etc. (Y. Sā., i, 14; ii, 27; ii, 31—pp. 18, 97, 104). Bhūmi has thus become a philosophical term, meaning “Stage” (of spiritual progress). Almost all the Buddhist treatises divide a bodhisattva’s career into bhūmis, but the Bodhisattva-bhūmi also discusses thirteen vihāras (states, stations). The M. S. Al. gives a fanciful etymological explanation of bhūmi: "bhūye bhūye amitānu" ("again and again in the unmeasured stages"); or, "bhūtuṃ amitānīṃ" ("immeasurable number of creatures"), to deliver them from fear). Such conceits need not be taken seriously.

There are at least four different schemes of division in the principal Sanskrit treatises. The Pr. Pa. Čata., the Mahā-vastu and the Da. Būhā describe ten bhūmis in different ways, and the Bodhisattva-bhūmi speaks of seven bhūmis and thirteen vihāras. Candrakirti’s Madhyamakāvatāra is not available in Sanskrit and cannot therefore be utilised as one of the sources for this essay.

The idea of establishing “Stages” on the spiritual pilgrim’s long journey occurred early to the Buddhist thinkers. The Hinayānists developed the doctrine of the four Stages, which has already been referred to. Three vihāras are also mentioned in the Pāli canon: dibba-vihāra, ariyavihāra and brahma-vihāra (Divine, Noble and Sublime). The

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M. Vy. mentions seven bhūmis of the grāvakas (Section 50). The Mahāyānists did not attach much importance to the ten saṁyojanaś (Fetters) and the four Stages of the Hinayānists. They tried to devise a scheme of division based chiefly on the pāramitās.

The bhūmis of the Mahāyāna are now supposed to be ten in number, but it is almost certain that they were only seven in the beginning. The vogue of the Da. Bhū, finally fixed the number of the bhūmis. But the Bodhisattva-bhūmi formally discusses seven bhūmis (fol. 136b), and the Laṅkāvatāra-sūtra speaks of "seven bhūmis" without specifying them (p. 28). The Mahā-vastu speaks of ten bhūmis, but it really describes only seven: it gives no relevant details about the fourth, ninth and tenth. It may therefore be inferred that it recognized only seven bhūmis at the outset. Even the Da. Bhū. shows clear indications of the original scheme of seven bhūmis. A bodhisattva is said to practise all the ten pāramitās in the seventh bhūmi, though only one pāramitā is allotted to each Stage. He is also supposed to practise only the seventh pāramitā in that bhūmi, and this contradiction is left unsolved. There is a great "Prediction" in the eighth bhūmi, as if a new epoch commenced at that point, for the bodhisattva obtains the first Prediction (vyākaraṇa) before starting on his career. It is also stated that a bodhisattva can pass away in nirvāṇa in the seventh bhūmi, if he so desires; but he follows the higher ideal of the Mahāyāna, which is especially realised in the eighth, ninth and tenth bhūmis. A bodhisattva, who has reached the eighth bhūmi, should be honoured like a perfect Buddha! All these details point to an original system of only seven bhūmis. This is also the number of the bhūmis in the Yoga-sūtras (Yv. Sū., ii, 27, p. 97). The probable cause of the change from seven to ten has already been indicated above.

It is a curious circumstance that these different schemes of the bhūmis have very little in common with one another. J. Rahder has tried to show that the system of the Mahā-vastu is closely related to that of the Da. Bhū. He says: "Après avoir mis en lumière l'étroite parenté entre le Daça-bhūmaka, et le Daça-bhūmika, qui montre la préparation à la dernière incarnation dans le Mahā-vastu, etc." But the only points of contact between the systems of the Māt, and the Da. Bhū. are that the sections dealing with the first bhūmi mention a few similar virtues, and that one of the bhūmis in both schemes is named
durjayā (sudurjayā, in the Da. Bhū.). J. Rahder has pointed out that some passages of the Da. Bhū. resemble those of the Mtu.; but the resemblance is so slight and vague that one cannot speak of "l’étroite parenté". On the contrary, the Mtu. has no definite plan, while the Da. Bhū. allot a pāramitā to each bhūmi. The Mtu. declares that a bodhisattva may fall back into a lower bhūmi on account of certain faults, but the Da. Bhū. never speaks of the possibility of retrogression and always discusses virtues instead of sins. The Mtu. gives certain names to the bhūmis, but the Da. Bhū. has quite different names (except one). The account in the Mtu. is incoherent and confused: the Da. Bhū. shows a masterly architectonic faculty. The Pr. Pā. Čāṭa. also fails to evolve an intelligible system: it does not even assign any names to the bhūmis and mentions the same virtues and sins again and again. The names of the bhūmis and the vihāras in the Bo. Bhū. are also different from those of the Da. Bhū., and there is a fundamental difference between the systems outlined in these two treatises. The author of the Da. Bhū. has constructed the framework of his system on the basis of the ten pāramitās, but the Bo. Bhū. divides a bodhisattva's career up to a certain point according to the ancient triple formula of śīla, samādhi (citta) and prajñā. The two writers have not the same point of view. It is true that the author of the Bo. Bhū. makes an unsuccessful attempt to identify some of his vihāras with the bhūmis of the Da. Bhū. and cites some passages from that treatise. But the principles underlying the two systems remain divergent in all essential respects. It may be inferred that the sections treating of the bhūmis in the Māhā-vastu and the Pr. Pā. Čāṭa. represent an early stage in the development of the idea, while the later systems of the Da. Bhū. and the Bo. Bhū. belong to two different schools or sects. The Bo. Bhū. has borrowed several ideas from the Da. Bhū. The doctrine of the bhūmis was not accepted in the same spirit by all the Mahāyānists. The M. S. Al. does not discuss the bhūmis in detail, and the B. C. Āva. does not mention them at all! The Gīkṣa speaks incidentally of the first bhūmi, but not of the others, though the author lived in the same period as Candrakīrti, who gives an elaborate account of the bhūmis in his Madhyamakāvatāra. Perhaps the exponents of śūnyatā as conditioned Existence attached more importance to the bhūmis than the other Mādhyamikas, who interpreted it as absolute Non-existence.
It is advisable to discuss the data of each treatise separately and also to accept the Da. Bhū. as the standard treatise on the subject. The systems of the other books may be summarised very briefly.

I. The Bhūmis in the Mahā-vāstu. (I. 76 ff.)

Kātyāyana, a disciple of Gautama Buddha, explains to Ananda that each bhūmi is "unmeasured", "infinite" (aprameyā), but that there are ten of them.

The first bhūmi is called Durārsha (Difficult-to-enter). A bodhisattva cultivates charity, compassion, indefatigable energy, humility, study of all the branches of Learning (or all the Scriptures), heroism, renunciation of the world, and fortitude. He cannot rise to the second bhūmi, if he takes delight in life and its pleasures, or if he is indolent, worldly, timid, weak-willed, and unfriendly to others. He should also cultivate the idea of the impermanence of all things, and refuse to be entangled in worldly affairs. He produces the Thought of Enlightenment in his mind in this bhūmi and resolves to attain Enlightenment. Thus he gains much Merit and also accumulates the "Roots of Good or Merit". He is prepared to suffer in the aviśī purgatory, if it should be necessary for success in his aim. A wonderful light spreads over the entire universe; the earth shakes and trembles; and the devas promise protection to such a bodhisattva, who is sure not to turn back (aviśīartikā). He gives away wealth, limbs, wife and children; he speaks sweetly to cruel men, who may have threatened to beat, bind or kill him.

In the second bhūmi (Buddhānā, "Fastening"), a bodhisattva cultivates Aversion to all forms of existence in the three realms (bhaveṣu avati). He is full of thoughts of beneficence, love and gentleness. He harbours his great, wonderful and profound purpose with a keen mind. He has uncommon nobility and elevation of spirit. He is noted for his independence and overcomes all obstacles. He is resolute, pure, sincere and steadfast, as his character is such that he is free from sensuous desire and love of pleasure, longs for Enlightenment, and thinks in terms of Infinity. But he cannot rise to the third bhūmi and abide in it, if he is avid of gain, honour and fame, or if he is dishonest and cunning. He should also beware of showing disrespect to his teachers and the Triple Jewel, and of using garlands,
ornaments and unguents. He should not be satisfied with a little progress, and he should never laud himself or contemn others.

The third bhūmi is called Puspa-mandita (Adorned-with-flowers). In this bhūmi, a bodhisattva especially cultivates tyāga (charity, liberality). He confers happiness on all creatures without any selfish motive. He also loves Learning so much that he is prepared to make the greatest sacrifices only to hear a single instructive verse or stanza. But he cannot rise to the fourth bhūmi and abide in it, if he is addicted to gambling and other similar improper pursuits, or if he is too fond of seclusion and solitude. He should also beware of the habit of obtaining money by political influence, and of complicity in crimes of any kind. He should acquire much knowledge and constantly praise the Buddhas, otherwise he will fall back from the fourth bhūmi into the third.

The fourth bhūmi is called Rucirā (Beautiful, Attractive). In this bhūmi, a bodhisattva should beware of immoral practices and the exercise of the wonder-working Powers for illegitimate objects. He should be conscientious and develop a sense of noble shame. He should not incite others to wicked deeds. If he does not avoid such faults, he cannot rise to the fifth bhūmi.

(Note: The Mahā-vastu gives the details about the eighth bhūmi in the section on the fourth bhūmi. These details will be discussed in connection with the eighth bhūmi.)

The fifth bhūmi is called Citta-vistāra (Expansion of the Heart). A bodhisattva now realises that all Existence is consumed with the fire of lust, hatred and delusion, and that it is devoid of protection and happiness. He worships and serves many Buddhas. He cannot rise to the sixth bhūmi and abide in it, if he mixes with the followers of other sects, like the Yogācāras. He should also not be afraid of ascetic practices, and should constantly cultivate calm and insight.

The sixth bhūmi is called Rāpavatti ("Beautiful, Lovely"). A bodhisattva now feels and knows that this "whirlpool" of the world is very terrible and yields little joy and satisfaction. He cannot rise to the seventh bhūmi and abide in it, if he desires to attain the trance of the Cessation-of-perception-and-feeling, or listens complacently to his own praises as a great man and a self-restrained saint.

The seventh bhūmi is called Durjaya ("Difficult to conquer"). A bodhisattva practises self-control in order to do good to many
creatures. He especially cultivates compassion, refrains from killing living beings, and also teaches others to observe this precept. He also practises forbearance in all his actions and forgives his enemies. He masters all the arts, sciences, languages and scripts. He learns everything about gold, silver, gems and precious stones, and acquires all knowledge that may be useful to mankind.

The eighth bhūmi is called Janma-nideśa (Ascertainment of Birth). A bodhisattva is now perfectly pure and may be described as āvaiśvartaka (not capable of turning back). He should be honoured in the same way as a Buddha. His chief characteristic is great Love and Compassion. He cannot commit any of the five heinous sins, or do evil of any kind. He does not frustrate the good deeds of others. He follows the ten meritorious Ways of Action. He is gentle and grateful: he does not pluck the leaves of the tree, under which he sits or sleeps. He does not injure others by charms and spells. He is calm and serene: he is not elated in prosperity or dejected in adversity. He cannot be reborn in a state of woe or in a common purgatory.

The ninth and tenth bhūmis are named Yauvarāja (Installation as Crown-Prince) and Abхиṣeka (Coronation) respectively. But no details are given.

It is clear that the account of the bhūmis in the Mahā-vastu is very confused and incoherent. It is also replete with digressions and repetitions.

II. THE BHŪMIS IN THE PR. PĀ ÇATA. (pp. 1454–73)

This treatise mentions ten bhūmis, to which it does not assign any names. In the first bhūmi, a bodhisattva acquires Merit, cultivates the thought of Omniscience, and thus makes the general “Preparation of Purpose”. He maintains the same mental attitude toward all beings by practising the four “infinite” Meditations of friendliness, compassion, sympathetic joy and equanimity. He gives freely in charity, and cherishes and serves his good friends. He studies the Doctrine and adheres to the Mahāyāna. He renounces his home and becomes a monk. He continually thinks of the Buddhas. He preaches the faith to the people, exhorts them to live the higher spiritual life, and instructs them in the different branches of the Scriptures. He is free from pride and arrogance, so that he may never be born in a family of low and humble origin.
He speaks the truth, and his actions are in harmony with his words.

In the second bhūmi, a bodhisattva purifies his conduct by paying no heed to the doctrines of the Hinayāna and other systems that are prejudicial to his progress towards Enlightenment. He cultivates the virtues of gratitude, forbearance and harmlessness. He experiences great joy by maturing the living beings in the three Ways and working for their rescue and salvation in a spirit of devotion. He feels such deep compassion for all creatures that he resolves to suffer in the purgatories for their sake. He has faith in his teachers, and reveres and serves them. He devotes himself exclusively and entirely to the practice of the Perfections in order to mature and ripen all beings.

In the third bhūmi, a bodhisattva acquires a thorough knowledge of the teachings of the Buddhas in all the worlds and universes. He preaches to the people in such an unselfish spirit that he does not even desire Enlightenment as his recompense for the work. He applies and dedicates all his "Roots of Merit" for the purification of the minds of others. He never feels weary or depressed on account of his heavy burden. He feels shame and disgust at the thought of countenancing the tenets of the Hinayānists.

In the fourth bhūmi, he lives in the forest. He has few desires and does not long even for bodhi. He is contented, and accepts the profound truths regarding Liberation like a true ascetic. He practises all the modes of Discipline and does not harbour any sensual thoughts. He renounces all things and cultivates the idea of passivity. He sacrifices everything, internal and external, and is indifferent to all objects.

In the fifth bhūmi, a bodhisattva avoids intercourse with householders and travels from one Buddha-field to another. He does not wish to enjoy the company of the nuns even for a moment. He works for the good of all without distinction. He shuns the society of the Hinayānists and does not frequent their schools. He does not exalt himself or belittle others. He is never malicious and quarrelsome. He avoids the ten demeritorious Ways of Action, as they cause unhappy rebirths and hinder the attainment of Enlightenment. He eschews pride, arrogance, perverted views, sense-desire, hatred, delusion and doubt.

In the seventh bhūmi, a bodhisattva abandons the wrong belief in the existence of a permanent substantial ātman. He understands
that nothing is produced or destroyed, and that nothing is eternal or evanescent. He gets rid of the idea of Cause. He is not attached to nāma-rūpa (mind-and-body), to the Aggregates (skandha), to all the elements and factors of Existence (dhātu), to the Spheres of Sense, and to anything in the triple Universe. He does not indulge in speculation with regard to the Buddha, the Doctrine and the Confraternity. He is not dejected at the thought that all things are empty and conditioned (çānya). He realises the truths of Emptiness, Signlessness and Desirelessness, as he does not entertain the idea of the triple Universe. He fulfils the ten ethical precepts and cultivates compassion and friendliness. He comprehends the equality (sameness) of all things and principles. He destroys all his sins and passions, controls his mind, acquires calm and insight, and obtains "the eye of the Buddha" (perfect Knowledge).

In the eighth bhūmi, a bodhisattva can read the thoughts of all creatures, acquires the Super-knowledges, sees all the Buddha-fields, serves the Buddhhas by serving all beings, and obtains true insight into the nature of the dharma-kāya (cosmic spiritual Body). He acquires the sovereignty of the Universe and then renounces it. He knows the higher and lower powers of all, purifies the Buddha-fields, and performs all actions without being attached to anything.

In the ninth bhūmi, he attains success in his infinite Resolve and Aspiration. He acquires the two useful powers of nirukti (exegesis) and pratibhāna (readiness in speech). He understands the speech of the devas, nāgas, yakṣas, asuras and other beings. His birth is apparitional, and he is not born through the physical union of a man and a woman. He is always born in a noble family of the warrior-caste or the priestly caste. He belongs to the gotra (family) of all the former bodhisattvas. He illumines innumerable worlds immediately after his birth and causes them to be shaken in six ways. He renounces his home and becomes a recluse. When he sits under the tree of Enlightenment, the tree appears to be made of gold and precious stones. He attains the Perfection of all the virtues and qualities.

In the tenth bhūmi, a bodhisattva becomes a Buddha and acquires all the attributes of a perfect Buddha.

It is clear that there is no plan or system in this account of the ten bhūmis. Only six pāramitās are spoken of, and the same items are mentioned several times.
This important treatise gives a complicated and overlapping system of seven bhūmis, which include thirteen vihāras. The subject is really discussed in detail in connection with the vihāras, to which a long chapter is devoted. But the older scheme of classification in seven bhūmis is mentioned in the next chapter, and the relation of the bhūmis to the vihāras is indicated. The seven bhūmis and the thirteen vihāras are as follows (Bo. Bhū., 136b, 4-7):

i. _Gstra-bhūmi_, which is identical with the _gstra-vihāra._

ii. _Adhimukti-caryā-bhūmi_, which is the same as the _adhimukti-caryā-vihāra._

iii. _Cuddh-āçaya-bhūmi_ (the Stage of Pure Intention or Thought), which is also called the _pramudita-vihāra._

iv. _Caryā-pratipatti-bhūmi_ (the Stage of the practice or performance of the Discipline). This stage is very important, as it includes the following six vihāras: _Adhiçilavihāra; Adhicitta-vihāra; Adhiprajñā-vihāra No. 1; Adhiprajñā-vihāra No. 2; Adhiprajñā-vihāra No. 3; Sābhoga-nirmimitta-vihāra._

v. _Niyatā-bhūmi_ (the Stage of Certainty and Regulation). This bhūmi is identical with the _anābhoga-nirmimitta-vihāra._

vi. _Niyata-caryā-bhūmi_ (the Stage of certain regulated Practice). This bhūmi is the same as the _pratisamvid-vihāra._

vii. _Niññāgamana-bhūmi_ (Attainment of the End of Perfection). This bhūmi includes two vihāras: the _paramavihāra_ and the _tathāgata-vihāra._

The subjects _gstra_ and _adhimukti_ have already been discussed above. The remaining eleven vihāras may be described briefly.

(1) _Pramudita-vihāra_ (The Station of Joy: Bo. Bhū., fol. 123a, 3 ff.).

It is a curious coincidence that the first bhūmi in the scheme of the _Do. Bhū._ has the same designation (_pramuditā)._ In this Station, a _bodhisattva_ is distinguished for purity of thought. He takes the great Vow or Resolve, which is also called the "Thought of Enlightenment". This Resolve is incomparable and inviolable. It aims at saving all beings from pain
and raises a bodhisattva above the śrāvakas and the pratyeka-
buddhas. It arises in a bodhisattva’s mind on account of the accumulation of Merit in a previous life and the acquisition of the proper Equipment for Enlightenment. Such a bodhisattva may rightly be called “Buddha’s son of the breast”. He is full of joy in mind and body, because he is free from anger, malice and excitement, and all fears and dangers have disappeared for him. He understands that there is no permanent Ego and has therefore no notion of Self. He is free from self-love and never thinks of injuring others. He is not proud or covetous. He puts forth great energy, as he is blessed with faith and a pure, unsullied Will. He declares his ten great Aspirations. By virtue of these Aspirations, he subsequently develops many others. He sees many Buddhas, about whom he has read in the Scriptures, or of whom he has thought with faith and devotion. On account of his earnest wish, he is born in the worlds, where a Buddha has made his appearance. He worships and serves those Buddhas and learns the Doctrine from them. He practises virtue and “applies” all his Merit to the attainment of Enlightenment. He “matures” the beings by means of the four sangraha-vastus, and his “Roots of Merit” are purified. He teaches all creatures in a liberal spirit and withholds nothing from them. He is very strenuous, becomes a homeless monk and acquires many samādhis (modes of Concentration). He can see the Buddhas in many Buddha-fields with his supernal organ of sight. He can live for hundreds of kalpas (aeons) and knows the past and the future. He can create his own phantom-bodies and show them to other bodhisattvas who need instruction; and he can perform many other miracles.

(2) Adhiṣṭala-vihāra. This vihāra is said to correspond to the second bhūmi of the Daśa Bhū. A bodhisattva purifies his thoughts by serving his teachers and living peacefully and happily with his fellow-bodhisattvas. He is master of his mind and conquers all the great and small sins and passions. He does not value the things of the world, thinks of the advantages of Liberation, and continually cultivates the bodhipakṣya-dharmas. He is indifferent to worldly gain and honour. He rejects the Hinayāna and accepts the Mahāyāna. He is virtuous by nature, and does not commit the slightest sin. He follows the ten meritorious Ways of Action, knows the results of good and evil deeds in future rebirths, and exhorts others to the pursuit of righteousness on account of his great compassion for them.
(3) *Adhicitta-vihāra*. This *vihāra* is said to correspond to the third *bhūmi* of the *Da. Bhū*. A *bodhisattva* now knows that his thoughts are permanently pure and cannot be corrupted by attachment to worldly and sinful objects. He cultivates the virtue and wisdom that form the antidote to the *āsravaś* (Intoxicators). He cannot be overcome by the hosts of *Māra*. He feels no pain or difficulty in practising severe austerities. He is devoted to the *Mahāyāna* and takes delight in doing good to all. He realises the dangers and disadvantages of all material things and phenomena, and turns his mind away from them. He longs for the knowledge of the Buddhas, as it would confer wonderful benefits on him. He pities the afflicted creatures and becomes still more strenuous and vigilant. He understands that pure and perfect Knowledge and Wisdom are the only remedies for the evils, from which all living beings suffer. He diligently studies the Scriptures and tries to acquire the *dhyānas*, *samādhis* and *samāpattis* (Attainments). He is ready to sacrifice his wealth, serve his teachers, and endure pain and hardship in order to receive religious instruction, which he values more highly than all the treasures of the entire universe. He is so eager in the pursuit of such knowledge that he would willingly throw himself into the fire in order to learn a single new sentence or maxim relating to the Doctrine and perfect Enlightenment. He is prepared even to suffer in the purgatories, if need be. He acts in accordance with the teaching, and attains the four *dhyānas*, the four non-material *samāpattis*, the four "infinite" Meditations, and the five *abhijñās* (Super-knowledges). He is then reborn at will, wherever he thinks that the interests of the living beings can best be served. He is freed from the bonds of sensuous desire, love of existence, hatred and delusion.

(4) *Adhiprajñā-vihāra* No. 1. This *vihāra* is said to correspond to the fourth *bhūmi* of the *Da. Bhū*. A *bodhisattva* now practises the thirty-seven *bodhipakṣya-dharmas*. He gets rid of the last traces of the wrong belief in the *ātman*. He does all actions that have been praised by the Buddha, and avoids all actions that the Buddha has condemned. He is more compassionate, active, grateful, virtuous, energetic and steadfast than ever before. He is more than a match for all rival teachers belonging to other sects.

(5) *Adhiprajñā-vihāra* No. 2. This *vihāra* is said to correspond to the fifth *bhūmi* of the *Da. Bhū*. A *bodhisattva* makes further progress in knowledge and comprehends the four
Noble Truths in all their aspects. He determines to obtain the full Equipment of Merit and Knowledge in order to liberate all beings. He thinks of nothing else but this duty, and cultivates mindfulness, thoughtfulness, proper deportment and other virtues. He acquires a thorough knowledge of the arts, sciences and technical crafts. He helps the people by bestowing wealth on the poor, healing the sick, and supplying all with appropriate objects of enjoyment. He protects them against such dangerous persons as kings, thieves and robbers. He exhorts them to do what is proper and shun what is improper, to take what is beneficial and reject what is detrimental to them. He teaches them how to live together in love and peace in this life, and attain happiness hereafter.

(6) Adhiprajña-vihāra No. 3. This vihāra is said to correspond to the sixth bhāmi of the Da. Bhū. A bodhisattvā now comprehends the formula of the pratitya-samutpāda and the three “Entrances to Liberation”, viz. śānyāta, ānimitta and apranihita. He gets rid of the notions of Doer, Knower, Existence and Non-existence. He realises that the twelve causes of Existence and Pain depend on impure sin and passion (klesa). He attains absolute Knowledge and the Perfection of Wisdom, and can therefore perform all ordinary worldly actions without being attached to anything. He cultivates the kṣaṇti that is called ānulomikī. He experiences thousands of samādhis. He is skilful in the choice of the means for converting and helping others.

(7) Sābhoga-nirmimitta-vihāra (The Station of the Unconditioned, accompanied with Mental Effort or Thought). This vihāra is supposed to correspond to the seventh bhāmi of the Da. Bhū. A bodhisattvā now rises above mere Merit and begins to acquire the Buddha-knowledge in body, speech and mind. He understands the immense scope of Buddhahood and continually tries to be faultless in his deportment, conduct and thoughts. He fulfils the ten pāramītās and all the seven Factors of Enlightenment (bodhy-aṅgāmi). He is completely free from all the sins and passions like sensuous desire, hatred, etc.; or it may be said that he transcends them altogether. He improves and perfects his knowledge of the arts and sciences. He is superior to all beings except the Buddhas and the more advanced bodhisattvas. He experiences a million samādhis. His words, deeds and thoughts are now independent of nimitta (cause and motive). He attains the sumnum bonum, but does not disappear in nirvāṇa.
(8) Anābhoga-nirnimitta-vihāra (The Station of the Unconditioned without Mental Effort or Thought). This vihāra is said to correspond to the eighth bhūmi of the Da. Bhū. In this vihāra, a bodhisattva’s actions are perfectly pure, whereas they were not so in the preceding Stations. He obtains infallible knowledge of the past, present and future. He comprehends that all things are really undefinable and indescribable. There can be no origination and no causation. Thus he acquires the kṣānti that is called anutpattika-dharma-kṣānti. He is now exhorted by the Buddhas and obtains the ten Powers (va inflicted). He can enjoy the dhyānas that he wishes to experience. He can get material objects like food and drink merely by thinking of them. All his desires are automatically fulfilled. He can know everything that he wants to know. He is never deprived of communion with the Buddhas.

(9) Pratisamved-vihāra. This vihāra is said to correspond to the ninth bhūmi of the Da. Bhū. In this vihāra, a bodhisattva understands the problem of moral corruption and purification in all its aspects. He becomes a great and successful preacher and teacher. He is protected by the magic spells of the devas and acquires the four pratisaṃvīds.

(10) Parama-vihāra (the highest or supreme Station). This vihāra is said to correspond to the tenth bhūmi of the Da. Bhū. A bodhisattva now attains the highest samādhis and incomparable, innumerable Powers. He destroys the sins and errors of many beings by spiritual instruction. He is like a cloud that sends down rain on the earth; he lays the dust of passion and promotes the growth of meritorious deeds by his teaching. He is absolutely free from all sins and all hindrances to Knowledge.

(11) Tathāgata-vihāra (the Station of the Buddhas). In this vihāra, a bodhisattva reaches his goal and acquires Omniscience. He attains final and absolute Enlightenment.

This scheme of thirteen vihāras has really very little in common with the ten bhūmis of the Da. Bhū, though the author of the Bo. Bhū. takes great pains to point out that ten of the vihāras correspond to the ten bhūmis of the Da. Bhū. But they do not so correspond. The Da. Bhū. allows one pāramitā to each bhūmi; that is the essential feature of its system. But the author of the Bo. Bhū. mentions the word pāramitā only twice in the chapter on the vihāras (fol. 129b, 5.1 and 130b, 2.1). He does not attach particular importance to the dharma-pāramitā in
the pramudita-vihåra, which is said to correspond to the first bhümi of the Da. Bhä. He omits the Perfection of ksånti altogether. He does not mention the seventh, eighth and ninth pärámítas in connection with the vihåras that are supposed to correspond to the respective bhümìs of the Da. Bhä. He goes further and adds the last vihåra that does not correspond to any bhümi of the Da. Bhä. Here the pretence is dropped. There are other discrepancies too. The Da. Bhä. allots one of the sañgraha-vastus to each of the first four bhümìs, but the Bo. Bhä. puts all of them in the pramudita-vihåra (fol. 125a, 1.2–3). This system of the vihåras is really based on the idea of what is called nirnimitta-bhavana, and not on the ten pärámítas. This is the fundamental difference between the schemes of the Da. Bhä. and the Bo. Bhä. The Bo. Bhä. lays stress on the gradual realisation of the principle of nirnimitta-bhavana (cultivation of the idea of the Unconditioned, the Uncased: fol. 121b, 5.2 ff.). This bhavana commences in the adhimukti-caryā-vihåra and reaches complete fruition in the last vihåra.

In conclusion, the Bo. Bhä. declares that all the vihåras and bhümìs are purified by faith, compassion, friendliness, learning, fortitude, indefatigable zeal and the worship of the Buddhas.

IV. THE BHŮMIS OF THE DAÇA-BHŮMIKA-SÚTRA

The most systematic treatment of the subject of the bhümìs is found in the Daça-bhümika-sútra. The author takes us through a mighty maze, but it is not without a plan. He manages to place almost all the important concepts and categories of Buddhist philosophy in his scheme of ten bhümìs. Thus, for example, he puts the four sañgraha-vastus in the first four bhümìs, the four Noble Truths in the fifth bhümi, the formula of Dependent Origination in the sixth bhümi, and so on. But his system exhibits a certain unity of plan on account of the parallelism between the ten pärámítas and the ten bhümìs. A bodhisattva especially cultivates one of the pärámítas in each bhümi. Other details are subsidiary. The Da. Bhä thus offers a methodical and coherent scheme, which is now accepted as the standard system of division and classification for a bodhisattva's career. The Da. Bhä. does not speak of the gotra-bhümì and the adhimukti-caryā-bhümì, and differs in this respect from the Bo. Bhä. The
latter treatise has borrowed from the Da. Bhū. the "progressive simile" of gold, which relieves the dreary dullness of the Da. Bhū. A bodhisattva is compared in each bhūmi to gold, which is purified more and more by being heated in the goldsmith's fire till it is at last made into an ornament to be worn on the neck of a powerful monarch. The bodhisattva's splendour is likened to the light of the moon and the sun. In each bhūmi, a bodhisattva's glory and power (prabhāva) increase a hundredfold, a thousandfold, a millionfold, and so on. His rebirths exhibit a similar progressive tendency. In the first bhūmi, he is as a rule born as the King of India (Jambudvīpa, Rose-apple Island). In the second bhūmi, he is born as a universal Monarch, ruler of the four dīpas (islands) and owner of the seven "jewels." In the third bhūmi, he is born in a heaven as Indra, ruler of the thirty-three devas. In the fourth bhūmi, he is Suyāma, King of another class of devas. Then he is successively born in the higher heavens as the ruler of the devas of the Tujita heaven, of the nirmāna-rati devas, and of the devas called paramirmita-vāṣa-vartini. Finally, he is born as Mahābrahmā, ruler of a thousand worlds and of two thousand worlds, and ends by being born as Maheṣvara (Śiva). This last stage betrays the influence of the Gāṇa sect, which is also apparent in the list of the heavens in the M. Vy. It is also to be noted that a bodhisattva is not said to be born in the four non-material heavens (ārūpya-dhātu). In fact, the heavens are many, and the bhūmis are only ten. So the author of the Da. Bhū. mentions only two heavens of the Brahma-loka, which, however, belong more to the Pāli than to the Sanskrit tradition (cf. Majjhima iii, 101 ff.). He omits the other heavens of the rūpa-dhātu, and ends his list with Maheṣvara, who seems to have ousted Brahmā from the highest position.

Such is the general plan of the Da. Bhū. A few details about each bhūmi may be added.

1. First Bhūmi, called Pramuditā (Joyful). The form muditā is also found (Lōk., p. 375). The M. S. Al. explains that the bhūmi is so called because a bodhisattva feels keen delight (māda), when he knows that he will soon attain bodhi and promote the good of all beings (p. 181). According to the Da. Bhū., a bodhisattva enters this first Stage immediately after the production of the "Thought of Enlightenment". He rejoices exceedingly, as he remembers the teaching of the Buddha and thinks of the discipline of the bodhisattvas. He realises that he has
now risen above the life of the foolish common people and is also delivered from the fear of unhappy rebirths. He feels that he is the refuge of all creatures. He is not troubled by the five fears that embitter the lives of other men, viz. the fear of loss of livelihood, of obloquy, of death, of rebirth in a state of woe, and of diffidence in assemblies. He does not think of Self; he does not care for honour; he knows that he will always remain in communion with the Buddhhas and the bodhisattvas after his death; and he feels that he is superior to others in all assemblies. He is well and firmly established in this bhumi through faith, devotion, aspiration, preparation, mercy, compassion, friendliness, fortitude, conscientiousness, noble shame, gentle forbearance, reverence for Buddha's teaching, and perseverance in accumulating the "Roots of Merit". He cherishes his good friends, takes delight in righteous activity, seeks for learning and knowledge with unabated zeal, ponders well on the Doctrine, and longs for the stage of Enlightenment and the practice of the Perfections. He cultivates honesty, sincerity and truthfulness, and develops the different Factors of Enlightenment. He is firm like a rock in his aspiration for Omniscience. He takes the ten great Vows. He wishes that his Vows may endure and extend as far as the universe and all space and Buddha-knowledge itself. He has deep faith in the Buddhhas and all their attributes. He knows that the principles of Buddhahood are profound, absolute, transcendental and ineffable. He sees that the worldly people are the slaves of sins, passions and errors, and therefore endure the pain that is inseparable from life. He pities them and resolves to save and liberate them. He then begins to practise charity and self-sacrifice on an immense scale, as he himself has no desire for anything. He gives away wealth, wife and children, and his own limbs and life. He acquires learning, experience and fortitude. He worships the Buddhhas and has the privilege of seeing and serving millions and billions of them. He then "applies" and dedicates all his "Roots of Merit" for Enlightenment. He practises the Perfection of Giving (dana-paramita) with zeal and also cultivates the other Perfections according to his capacity. He pays special attention to the first sangraha-vastu (Charity). As a skilful caravan-leader obtains full information about the difficulties and perils of the road before starting on a journey, even so a wise bodhisattva now learns everything about the discipline and duties of his long career from the Buddha, the bodhisattvas and his good friends. He becomes a
monk, experiences hundreds of samādhis, lives for a hundred aeons, assumes a hundred forms, and performs innumerable miracles.

(2) Second Bhūmi, called Vimalā ("Pure", "Free from impurity," "Immaculate"). The M. S. Al. explains that this bhūmi is so called because a bodhisattva is free from the "dirt" of unrighteous conduct and of the Hinayāna (p. 182). Candrakīrti says: "Possédant les pures qualités de la plénitude de la moralité le bodhisattva, même en rêve, abandonne la souillure de l'immoralité" (Le Muséon, 1907, p. 280). According to the Da. Bhū, a bodhisattva is now straightforward, tender-hearted, active, self-controlled, calm, beneficent, incorruptible, noble, magnanimous, and free from desire. He is distinguished for such traits of character. He also follows the ten meritorious "Ways of Action", as he especially cultivates the śīla-pāramītā in this bhūmi without neglecting the other pāramītās. He knows that the violation of the ten moral Precepts leads to rebirth in the three states of woe and to severe penalties in the case of rebirth as a human being. He exhorts others to observe the ten Precepts, and again resolves to be their friend, guide, protector, teacher and saviour, as they are so deeply enmeshed and engulfed in pain, sorrow, sin and ignorance. He pays special attention to the second sangrahavastu (Pleasant Speech) in this bhūmi.

(3) Third Bhūmi, called Prabhākara ("Light-giving," "Luminous," "Illuminating," "la Terre clarifiante"). W. McGovern translates, "Brightness of Intellect," but the name does not seem to refer to "intellect". The M. S. Al. explains that this bhūmi is so called, because a bodhisattva diffuses the great light of the Doctrine among the living beings (p. 182). But Candrakīrti says: "On nomme cette terre la Lumineuse, parce que, en ce moment, apparaît la lumière du feu, du savoir qui consume entièrement le combustible appelé 'connaisable'" (Madhyanakāvūṭaṇa: Le Muséon, 1907, p. 204). A bodhisattva's thoughts are now pure, constant, unworldly, dispassionate, firm, resolute, ardent, ambitious, noble and magnanimous. He realises that all material compounds are transient, impermanent and momentary. He understands that his body, exposed to grief and pain, is burning with the fire of passion, hatred and error. He therefore cultivates an attitude of still greater aversion and indifference to all things of the world. He longs all the more for Buddha-knowledge, which is incomparable and confers security,
happiness and salvation on all. He again thinks of the misery, sins and folly of the living beings, and again resolves to help, teach and liberate them. He devotes himself night and day to the study of the Scriptures and the teachings of the Buddha in order to gain perfect Knowledge and Wisdom. He practices regular self-examination and meditation. He experiences and acquires the four dhyānas, the four non-material samāpattis, the four brahma-vihāras and the five abhijñās. He gets rid of the āsava of sensuous Desire, love of existence, ignorance, and metaphysical speculation. He especially cultivates the Perfection of kṣānti (Forbearance and Endurance) in this bhūmi without neglecting the others. He pays particular attention to the third saṅgraha-vastu (Promoting the good of others).

The section dealing with this bhūmi presents a perplexing problem. The pāramitā of kṣānti is associated with this Stage, but the attributes and qualifications, that are described, belong to dhyāna (Musing). It seems probable that the original scheme of division was based on the three cītis (branches of instruction) of āsīna, citta and praśīna. The Bo. Bhū. has partially preserved it, though the Da. Bhū. ignores it. But this third bhūmi appears to deal with citta or saṁādhi, and not with kṣānti, which is tucked on at the end. The old scheme was recast and expanded in order to secure the symmetrical parallelism of the ten Perfections and the ten Stages.

(4) Fourth Bhūmi, called Arcismati (Radiant, Effulgent). The M. S. Al. explains that this bhūmi is so called because the "rays" of the bodhipakṣa-dharma burn up the veil and obstruction of sin and ignorance (p. 182). Candrakirti says: "Alors, dans le fils du Sugata, par la culture extrême des auxiliaires de la parfaite illumination, naît un éclat qui est supérieur au resplendissement de cuivre... Par conséquent, produisant le rayon du feu du savoir parfait, cette terre du bodhisattva est appelée Arcismati." A bodhisattva now gains entrance to the light of the Doctrine by reflecting on the nature of the Worlds of things and living beings, of Space, of Consciousness, of the Truth, of the three realms of sensuous Desire, Form and Formlessness, and of noble and magnanimous Aspiration. He matures and perfects his knowledge by his firm resolution and his faith in the "Triple Jewel." He realises that all things arise and disappear, and that non-production is their nature. He thinks of
Action, Becoming and Birth, of transmigratory existence and Liberation, of the beginning and the end, of non-existence and destruction. He practises the thirty-seven bodhipaksya-dharmas. He gets rid of all wrong ideas based on the belief in a permanent ātman. He cultivates and acquires great, inexhaustible, infinite Energy, combined with ardour and zeal for the instruction and development of all beings. He especially cultivates the Perfection of Energy without neglecting the other pāramitās. He pays particular attention to the fourth saṅgraha-vastu in this bhūmi (saṃān-ārthata).

(5) Fifth Bhūmi, called Sudurjayā ("Very-difficult-to-conquer," "Dure-à-gagner"). W. McGovern translates, "Difficult to surpass," but this rendering does not convey the right sense of the name.9 The Stage is not "invincible", as it is interpreted by L. de la Vallée Poussin (ERE. ii, 748). The M. S. Al. explains that this bhūmi is so called, because a bodhisattva performs the difficult feat of maturing others and guarding his own mind (p. 182). But Candrakīrti says: "Le bodhisattva, fixé dans la cinquième terre du bodhisattva, ne peut être vaincu par les devaputra Māra, qui se trouvent dans tous les univers ; à plus forte raison par d'autres, serviteurs de Māra, etc. C'est pourquoi le nom de cette terre est Sudurjayā (Madhyamakāvatāra: Le Mûsûn, 1907, p. 312). A bodhisattva regards all the principles of Buddhahood, past, present and future, with pure thought and equanimity. He thinks in the same way of conduct, meditation, doubt, speculation, knowledge of the right Way and the perfection of all beings. He comprehends the four Noble Truths. He also understands other aspects of Truth, e.g. relative Truth, absolute Truth, the Truths of characteristics, of division, of origination, of things and phenomena, of decay, of non-production, of initiation into the knowledge of the Way, and of the appearance of Buddha-knowledge.10 He thus realises that all things are empty, futile and worthless. He wonders why the foolish worldly people are attached to their perishable bodies and are the slaves of pleasure and pride. He exerts himself all the more for their development and liberation. He acquires the admirable qualities of mindfulness, fortitude, discretion, and skillfulness in the choice of the means for attaining his ends. He practises all the saṅgraha-vastus in this bhūmi, and especially cultivates the dhyāna-pāramitā without neglecting the others. He also acquires a knowledge of the arts and sciences like writing, arithmetic, medicine,
etc. He preaches the Doctrine and obtains the dhāraṇīs for his protection.

(6) Sixth Bhūmi, called Abhimukhi (“Face-to-face,” “Turned towards,” “Showing the face,” “Droit-en-face,” “die Bhūmi der Klarheit,” etc.). The M. S. Al. explains that this bhūmi is so called because the bodhisattva, practising the Perfection of Wisdom, now stands face to face with both saṃsāra (transmigratory existence) and nirvāṇa (Liberation). But Candrakīrti says: “Parce qu’on y comprend que la nature des choses est semblable à un reflet, parce que les bodhisattvas dans la sixième terre s’appuient sur la vérité du chemin, parce qu’elle est tournée vers le princeps des parfaits Buddhas, cette terre s’appelle Abhimukhi” (“Tournée vers”: Madhyamakāvatāra, Le Muséon, 1911, p. 272). A bodhisattva now understands the ten aspects of the equality and sameness of all things and phenomena. All things and phenomena are signless and have no definite characteristics; they are not produced and not originated; they are unrelated and also uncorrupted since the beginning; they are indescribable; they are neither admitted nor rejected; they are like a dream, an optical illusion, an echo, the disc of the moon seen in the water, an image and a magically created unreal object. They are free from the duality of Existence and Non-existence. When a bodhisattva looks upon all things in this way, he acquires the kṣaṇi called ānulomikā. He also comprehends the formula of the pratītya-samutpāda. He realises that all sins and errors depend on the mind. He understands that all things are empty and characterless. He is absolutely free from Desire. He gets rid of the notions of “I” and “Other”, “Doer” and “Knowers”, “Existence” and “Non-existence.” He severs all connection with the “compounded” elements and experiences many samādhis, which are related to the principle of Emptiness. His thoughts are now perfectly firm, steady, profound and pure, and he resolutely sets his face towards Buddha-knowledge. He especially cultivates the Perfection of Wisdom (prajñā) without neglecting the others.

(7) Seventh Bhūmi, called Durangamā (“Far-going,” “Far-reaching,” “Va-loin,” “die Bhūmi der weiten Fernsicht,” “far-distant Attainment,” etc.). The M. S. Al. explains that this bhūmi is so called because it leads to the end of the only Way, to the consummation of the Discipline (p. 182). A bodhisattva now acquires great wisdom in the choice of expedients for
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helping others. He understands that all the Buddhas are identical with their spiritual cosmic Body. He participates in the infinite attributes of the Buddhas, and sees their multifarious physical bodies. He discerns the thoughts and feelings of others. He practises all the ten paramitas at each moment. This Stage witnesses the complete fulfilment of the practical aspects of a bodhisattva's discipline, and now he begins to attach more importance to its meditative and metaphysical aspects. He has conquered all the passions and sins and is free from them. His thoughts, words and deeds are pure, and he is in possession of all the factors of Enlightenment. He works without effort or ulterior motive. He transcends the lower wisdom of the Hinayana. He attains Liberation, but does not realise personal nirvana. He enters the great ocean of Buddha-knowledge, He is free from the four viparyayas. He especially cultivates the paramita "upaya-kaucaalya" without neglecting the others.

(8) Eighth Bhumi, called Acala ("Immovable," "Steadfast"). The M. S. Al. explains that this bhumi is so called because a bodhisattva cannot be disturbed by the two ideas of Cause and Absence of Cause. A bodhisattva now acquires the ksanti called anutaptika-dharma-ksanti. He is not contaminated by any actions. The Buddhas initiate him into infinite Knowledge, otherwise he would enter into nirvana instead of persevering in his efforts to gain bodhi for the good of all. He understands the process of the evolution and involution of the Universe. He knows the exact number of atoms in the different elements, of which the Universe is composed. He assumes different bodies and shows them to the people as he thinks fit. He acquires the ten vairitas (Powers). This bhumi is so important that it is called the Stage of Perfection, of Birth, of Finality. A bodhisattva especially cultivates the Perfection of Aspiration (pranidhana) without neglecting the others, and he pervades the whole world with the feeling of Friendliness.

(9) Ninth Bhumi, called Sadhumati ("Stage of the good Beings," "Stage of good Thoughts," "de Bon–Esprit," "of Holy Wisdom," "die bhumi des guten Verstandnisses," "of the peaceful Mind," etc.). The M. S. Al. explains that this bhumi is so called because a bodhisattva has good thoughts on account of the pratisamvids that he acquires. A bodhisattva now knows all phenomena and principles truly and certainly, whether they are mundane or supra-mundane, conceivable or inconceivable,
compounded or un-compounded. He knows everything about the minds and hearts of men and about meritorious and demeritorious actions. He becomes a great preacher and acquires the four pratisamvids. He is protected by the dhāranis. He experiences many samādhis. He especially cultivates the Perfection of Strength (bala) without neglecting the others.

(10) Tenth Bhūmi, called Dharma-meghā ("Cloud of the Doctrine," "Cloud of Virtue," "die bhūmi der Gesetz- umwölkung," "Nuage de l’Idéal," etc.). The M. S. Al. explains that this bhūmi is so called because it is pervaded by the modes of Concentration and magic spells, as space is occupied by clouds (p. 183). Dharma-meghā is also the name of a samādhi in the Yoga-sūtras (Yo. Sū., iv, 29, page 202). A bodhisattva now enters on the Stage of abhiṣeka (anointing, consecration) and experiences many great samādhis. He acquires a glorious body, which is seen in a celestial lotus adorned with jewels. He emits some rays, which destroy the pain and misery of all living beings. He performs many miracles and creates numberless magical bodies of himself. He obtains the ten "Deliverances" of a bodhisattva. He especially cultivates the Perfection of Knowledge (jñāna) without neglecting the others.

An eleventh bhūmi is mentioned in the Lkā. It is called Tathāgata-bhūmi (Stage of a Buddha). The Dh. S. and the M. Vy. give the name Samanta-prabhā (universally luminous) to this Stage. The Dh. S. also mentions two other bhūmis, called Nirupamā (unequalled, incomparable) and Jñānavattī (possessing knowledge). But these bhūmis are not discussed in detail.
Chapter VII

The Last Life and Enlightenment

The life of Gautama Buddha is the basis and starting-point of all the doctrines and theories of Buddhism. The supposed events of his past lives as a bodhisattva have been related in the avadānas (stories) devoted to that inspiring theme. The doctrine of a bodhisattva's career was also promulgated in order to explain and interpret the historic fact of his marvellous virtue and wisdom. In Buddhist philosophy and history, all roads lead to Gautama Buddha. The real and imaginary important incidents of his life have been regarded as the necessary experiences of all advanced bodhisattvas in their last lives, during which they attain Enlightenment. All such bodhisattvas must be born and must live in the same manner. Gautama Buddha's life is regarded as a concrete instance of the general law relating to a bodhisattva's last earthly existence, which he at last reaches after three asaṅkhya-yās of aeons.

The biography of Gautama Buddha is inextricably mingled with myth and legend. Exaggerated reverence for the Teacher and lack of scientific education have led to enormous accretions of picturesque mythology, which render it difficult to separate fact from fiction. We shall relate such relevant facts and incidents as have contributed to the development of the general bodhisattva doctrine. They are narrated in the Mahā-vastu, the Lal. V., the Buddha-carita and the Avadāna-kalpa-lata. Similar details are given in the Mītu, with reference to a Buddha, named Dipaṅkara (1, 197 ff.). It may not be out of place to indicate the salient features of the legend of Gautama Buddha, which have some bearing on our subject.

1. The bodhisattva descends from a heaven of his own accord and selects his mother. His birth is therefore not due to the law of karma.

2. His reputed father has no connection with his birth. It is a case of "parthenogenesis," and not of "virgin birth," as E. J. Thomas has conclusively proved ("Buddha": pp. 237 ff.).
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(3) He is not soiled by impure elements of any kind at his birth, which is also attended with many other marvels.

(4) He is a Superman even in childhood. He is a highly cultured person, excelling in all physical and intellectual accomplishments.

(5) He is free from passion, but he marries in order to conform to the ways of the world and set a good example. His son is born without any sensual indulgence on his part.

(6) He practises severe penance as an ascetic from similar motives.

(7) He meets Mara, the deva of Desire, in a terrific combat, from which he emerges victorious, and then attains Enlightenment.

(8) All through his life, he is helped, served, encouraged and supported by the devas of the different heavens, who also rejoice at his success in winning budhi.

The birth of Vipassin and of Gautama Buddha is attended with wonders and miracles even according to the Pali canon (cf. Digha, ii, 12 ff. Mahapadana-sutta.—Majjhima, iii, 118 ff. Acihary-avbhatta-dhamma-sutta). We shall deal with the legend according to the Sanskrit treatises.

I. Birth

The individual, who is known as Gautama Buddha, is said to have taken the vow of becoming a Buddha many aeons before his birth as the historic Teacher. There are several versions of the story. He is most frequently said to have been a brahmin, Sumedha or Megha, who took the vow in presence of a Buddha, named Dipanakara. But the Mtu. also gives his name as Abhiya, a monk; and the Buddha, who predicted his future Enlightenment, was Sarvabhuhiti. The same treatise also contains another account, according to which he was a monarch of the four dvipas (islands); and the Buddha, who gave him the vajra, was Samitavin. He is also said to have been a gria (chief of a guild), and the Buddha's name was Cakyamuni. According to Ksemendra, he first conceived the Thought of Enlightenment when he was a king, named Prabhassa. It is not possible to reconcile these conflicting accounts. It may be inferred that several traditional names were known.

Since that remote period, he was reborn many times as a human being or an animal, till he appeared on earth as Prince Vichvantara. When that prince dies, he is reborn as a deva in the
Tuṣita heaven, whence the bodhisattva again descends to the earth. He lives there with the devas, who are supposed to be his disciples and admirers. It is announced that the time is ripe for the bodhisattva's rebirth for the attainment of bodhi, as the age of men is about a hundred years and they know what is meant by pain, old age and death. According to Buddhist cosmogony, a Buddha should not be born at the beginning of a great aeon, when men live very long, nor at the end of a world-cycle, when their lives are very short. In both cases, they would be unable to profit by a Buddha's teaching, which deals with pain, old age and death. The bodhisattva, having decided to be born, then determines the continent, the country or region, the family and the mother. All the devas take part in these deliberations: this is a curious feature of the legend. It is agreed that the bodhisattva should be born in India (Jambu-dvīpa), in the region of Madhyadeśa (Middle Country), and in the family of the Čakrāyas of Kapilavastu. The general law is here stated that a bodhisattva is born only in the two higher castes of the brahmīnas or the kṣatriyās, according as one or the other of these is predominant. The mention of the brahmīna caste is due to the influence of Hinduism, as Gautama Buddha was born in a kṣatriya family, and he attached no importance to the pretensions of the brahmīnas. The family must also possess social influence and certain moral qualifications. It must have sixty or sixty-four qualities, e.g. knowledge, character, courage, piety, fame, etc. The woman, who is to be the bodhisattva's mother, must be endowed with beauty and virtue, and must not have given birth to a child before. She must have thirty-two admirable qualities. Queen Māyā, wife of King Čuddhodana of Kapilavastu, is said to be faultless, tender-hearted, sweet in speech, gentle, good-tempered, modest, conscientious, steadfast, honest, charitable, and free from "the net of women's failings". Here the legend states that Buddha's father was a king; but he was only a wealthy nobleman, belonging to "an unbroken kṣatriya family, rich, of great wealth, of great possessions", as the earliest Pāli accounts describe him. Royalty was conferred on Buddha's parents in order to heighten the moral effect of his Renunciation. When the initial preparations in the Tuṣita heaven are thus completed, the Queen suddenly conceives an aversion to sensual pleasure and asks her husband to be allowed to live quietly in a secluded part of the palace. Celestial nymphs hasten to serve and honour her with
music and flowers. She dreams that a white elephant with six tusks has entered her body. On the same night, the bodhisattva descends as a white elephant with six tusks and enters her womb on the right side. It was the full-moon night of the month of Vaiśākha (April–May). He previously appoints the bodhisattva Maitreya as the teacher of the Tusiita heaven. Here a difficult point in the legend must be explained, if it is possible to do so. According to the older account, the Queen only sees the white elephant in a dream; but the bodhisattva is also supposed to have assumed the form of a white elephant. The latter idea is rather absurd, as the bodhisattva is visible in the mother’s womb as a human child and not as a white elephant, as we learn further on. There is a birth-story (jātaka) of a six-tusked elephant, but it throws no light on this particular point in the legend (Jātaka, v, pp. 36–7). Kṣemendra mentions the dream-elephant, but is silent about the six tusks. He describes Indra’s elephant, Airāvata, as six-tusked. In the Mātṛ, Yaśoda is also changed into a six-tusked elephant. Elephants with six tusks must be supposed to be very rare (if not altogether non-existent); and the bodhisattva may be compared to such an animal, which is a symbol of extreme rarity and excellence. A universal monarch is said to possess a rare elephant. H. Kern thinks that it is a symbol of lightning (SBE, vol. xxi, p. 434, note). But E. Senart identifies it with the clouds, which envelop the sun. He says: “Il est bien évident que cet Éléphant divin’ (āśva hastin) a une certaine signification mythologique, et s’il exprime à la fois et assume la force ou la splendeur du soma, du soleil et du feu, aucune conception n’en saurait mieux rendre compte que celle du nuage enveloppant le soleil.” But the bodhisattva is not born covered with the elephant: he is the elephant. E. Senart also refers to a hymn of the Atharva-veda (iii, 22; page 43), in which the “splendour of the elephant” is mentioned (hasti-varcasam prathatām, etc.). But it is a far cry from the Atharva-veda to the Lal. V. The “six tusks” are also not accounted for according to E. Senart’s hypothesis. E. Windisch has pointed out that the elephant was a symbol of royalty, and he also connects the elephant of this legend with the Airāvata of Hindu mythology. He says: “Der Elefant im Traume deutet zunächst auf die Königs­würde hin. . . . In sofern aber der Elefant den bodhisattva bedeutet, musste er als der herrlichste, höchste Elefant erscheinen. Als solcher galt den Brahmanen Indra’s Elefant: nach diesem
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Vorbilde, das Vorbild noch übertreffend, wurde der bodhisattva-
Elefant ausgemalt. Aber damit ist nicht gesagt dass das
eine identisch ist mit dem andern. In dem Traume der
Geburtsgendete deutet die Weisse Silberfarbe symbolisch die
Reinheit des bodhisattva an. A passage in the Mahabhārata
speaks of a brahmin, who falls into a well or pit in a forest and sees
an elephant with six mouths (sad-vaktraṁ kṣna-sabalam . . .
mahā-gajam. “Mahabhārata. Strī-parvan, xi, 5, 14–15; Bombay
Edition, vol v, p. 6). Vidura explains to Dhṛtarāṣṭra that the forest
in that parable represents transmigratory existence in the world
(samīrīta); the well is the human body; the elephant is the year;
and the six faces are the six seasons (xi, 6, 10–11; vol. v, p. 7).
It may be inferred that the six-tusked elephant is the sun, whose
course in the sky is run during a year with six seasons. The
Mahabhārata speaks of the elephant as “dark”, and does not speak
of tusks. The white colour is regarded as auspicious. The white
elephant of the Buddha-legend may have affinities with both
Aśvāvata and the solar myth. Angelo de Gubernatis says: “The
whole mythical history of the elephant is confined to India. . . .
The elephant generally represents the sun, as it shuts itself up in
the cloud or the darkness, or comes out of it, shooting forth rays of
light or flashes of lightning.” A. B. Keith suggests a different
explanation. He says: “The most plausible hypothesis is to refer
the dream to the Indian belief that a child before its conception
already exists in an intermediate condition, as follows naturally
from the doctrine of rebirth, and to find that the six tusks of the
elephant arise from a misunderstanding of a phrase denoting
‘one who has the six organs of sense under control’. But
this suggestion is more ingenious than convincing.

To proceed with the story. Queen Māyā experiences the
serene joy that usually comes of rapt Concentration. On waking,
she goes to a grove of āśora-trees and sends for the king, who
is at first unable to enter the place. The devas inform him of
what has transpired, and Māyā tells him the dream. The
brahmīns, who are called to interpret the dream, prophesy that a son
will be born to the king. He will become a universal monarch
or a Buddha. The bodhisattva is not contaminated with bile,
phlegm, blood or any impure secretions of the malodorous body
during the entire pre-natal period. He sits in the womb in the
cross-legged posture and is surrounded by a beautiful rectangular
canopy, which has four pillars and a seat for the bodhisattva.
This jewelled structure (*ratna-vyūha*) is carried off to the heaven of Brahmā after the *bodhisattva*’s birth. Māyā can see the *bodhisattva* seated in her womb. This curious conceit owes its origin to the idea that the human body is not altogether pure, as it exudes certain foul and filthy fluids. Queen Māyā enjoys excellent health, and her mind is free from all evil dreams, thoughts and inclinations. She can heal the sick and confer happiness on all creatures. The *devas* honour the miniature *bodhisattva* with music and flowers. All these marvels of the pre-natal period are due to the *reddhi* (wonder-working Power) of the *bodhisattva* himself.

Queen Māyā hears the *bodhisattva* for ten months. This general law applies to all *bodhisattvas*: their pre-natal period is ten months. When the time comes for her to be delivered, she goes to the Lumbini grove with her companions. Invisible *devas* follow her. She takes hold of a branch of a *plakṣa*-tree and looks at the sky. The *bodhisattva* is then born from her right side, which remains uninjured, as his body is mind-made. He is serene and self-possessed, and is quite uncontaminated with impure substances of any kind. *Indra* and Brahmā take him in their hands and wrap him in fine silk, which is not soiled at all. All these incidents are in conformity with the general law that such a *bodhisattva*’s mother is delivered in a standing position, and that his body is perfectly clean and is first taken in the hands of the *devas*, and not of human beings.

Although the *bodhisattva*’s body is clean, yet he gets a bath of hot and cold water, which is provided by the *devas*. He then puts his feet on the ground, and a lotus grows out of the earth. A white umbrella is held over him. He stands in the lotus and looks in all directions. Then he takes seven steps in each of the six directions, and utters such exclamations as the following:

"I am the best and highest being in the whole world. This is my last existence.

"I will put an end to birth, old age, death and pain. I shall destroy Māra and his army," etc. At the same time, celestial music, flowers, rain and winds appear to mark the auspicious event of the *bodhisattva*’s birth. A great and wonderful light spreads over the entire universe and makes all living beings happy and kind. The blind see, the deaf hear, the wicked love righteous ways, and even the pains of the sufferers in the purgatories are assuaged. But an earthquake is also a necessary incident
on such an occasion. A Buddha's life is marked and punctuated with six "earthquakes"; the earth shakes and trembles when he is conceived, when he is born, when he attains Enlightenment, when he begins to preach, when he decides to pass away soon (instead of living for an aeon), and when he dies. Such a bodhisattva's mother dies seven days after his birth, because she is so holy that she may not continue to live as an ordinary wife, or because she must be spared the pain of witnessing her son's Renunciation later on. This general law has of course been deduced from the fact of the death of Gautama Buddha's mother. Several other beings, who are subsequently associated with Gautama Buddha's life, are born on the same day, viz. his wife, his charioteer Chandaka, the horse Kaṇṭhaka, and many other princes, servants and horses.

In this account of the birth of the bodhisattva, the seven steps and the earthquake seem to have a certain symbolic significance. E. Senart explains even Māyā as a symbolic name, but we need not go so far. He also attaches much importance to the trees in the Lumbini grove, as he rightly believes that the legend has much in common with the myth of the birth of Apollo at Delos. He says: "Je veux parler de la légende de Delos sur la naissance d'Apollon; il est aussi impossible d'en nier que d'en expliquer par le hasard l'étonnante conformité avec notre scène, ... une scène toute mythologique, remontant à une époque réculée du développement légendaire." Apollo also walks about after birth and declares that he must proclaim the will of Zeus; but it is difficult to conceive how the Greek myth could have become known in India before the Christian era. It does not belong to the mythology of the Aryans before the dispersion of the tribes, and nothing exactly like it is found in the Vedas. The idea of being born from the mother's side is referred to in a hymn of the Rgveda (iv, 18.1, aym panthā anvittah purāṇo, etc., vol. iii, page 100). It may appear rather strange that an earthquake should mark certain auspicious events. We associate an earthquake with loss of life and property, but it is probable that the Buddhists meant only a slight tremor as a gesture of delight and approval on the part of the devatā of the earth. E. Senart and E. Windisch do not offer any suggestion with regard to the earthquake. The earth is regarded as a goddess in the mythology of many races. L. Spence says: "The earth was personalized by early man, who regarded it
as the parent of all things dwelling thereon. . . . Early man seems
to have regarded it as his mother. . . . The Earth-Mother, then,
would be practically universal. We should expect to find her
everywhere, and indeed we do. In the Vedic hymns, the earth
is the bride of Dyaus; in Greece she was known as Gaea. . . . In
Mexico more than one god was connected with the earth.” 24
But earthquakes are seldom mentioned in the myths of the world,
and they are usually considered to be calamities due to the action
of demons. P. Ehrenreich says: “Erdbeben werden bekanntlich
fast überall auf die Bewegungen fabelhafter dämonischer oder
tierischer Erdräger zurückgeführt, sei es, dass diese ihren Unwillen
äußern oder nur ihre unbequeme Stellung verändern wollen...
In Afrika gelten auch rein animistische oder manistische Agenzien
als Ursache der Erschütterung. Es sind die Seelen mächtiger
Häuptlinge, die auch den Charakter von Lokaldämonen annehmen
können.” 25 But these earthquakes in Buddhist mythology are
connected with auspicious events like the conception and birth of
a Buddha. It may therefore be permissible to venture on the
tentative explanation that has been suggested above. As regards
the seven steps, these are certainly of a symbolic character. In
a Hindu marriage ceremony, the bride and the bridegroom take
seven steps together round the sacred fire. 26 The Mahā-vastu offers
the prosaic explanation that the bodhisattva is tired of sitting in the
womb for a long time and therefore walks about. After the
seventh step, the devas take hold of him. 27 The Buddha-carita
gives us a better clue, as it compares the bodhisattva to the stars of
the constellation “Seven Rṣis.” 28 E. Windisch does not attach
much importance to this passage, as he says: “Aus diesem
Vergleiche etwa zu schliessen, dass Buddha astraler Natur sei,
halte ich für logisch unberechtigt.” 29 E. Senart is silent on this
point. It may be suggested that the seven steps perhaps corre-
spond to the seven “planets”, which give their names to the days
of the week. The bodhisattva’s movements bear some relation
to the solar system as conceived by the ancient world. The
number Seven occurs frequently in mythology. A choir of swans
flew seven times round Delos after the birth of Apollo. Seven
miraculous trees flourished on the Kuen Lün mountains in China. 30

II. The Superman

As a child, boy and youth, the bodhisattva is a prodigy of strength,
skill and erudition. The Lal. V. also relates that the images of the
devas fall down before him on the occasion of his visit to the temple. This incident is intended to prove the superiority of the bodhisattva to the devas and of Buddhism to Hinduism. When the bodhisattva is taken to the school, it is found that he knows as many as sixty-four languages and scripts. At a later period, he shows that he is well-versed in all the arts and sciences: archery, swimming, writing, arithmetic, poetry, grammar, painting, drama, music, dancing, history and the technical crafts. The bodhisattva is thus represented as a veritable Superman, who possesses the most varied intellectual accomplishments. He has finished the most complete course of liberal education that can be imagined. Aristotle, Plato, Albertus Magnus, Leonardo de Vinci, Mezzofanti, Goethe and other versatile polymaths pale into insignificance in comparison with this bodhisattva. The Buddhist writers were indebted to the portraits of the heroes of the Rāmāyana and the Mahābhārata for this ideal of a perfectly cultured and educated man. The Pāli canon does not speak much of Buddha's knowledge of the arts and sciences. According to the Lal. V., a bodhisattva in his last existence is a master of all profane learning. He is also endowed with beauty, strength and physical fitness. His voice is sweet and deep: his body shines like gold, or even more than gold. He is expert in all the sports and exercises of manly youths. He is so strong that he can send a dead elephant flying over the walls of the town by pushing it with his toe. He excels all athletes in running, wrestling, swimming and other sports. He wins a wrestling match against five hundred young men. He surpasses even Arjuna's exploits in archery. His body is not only lovely and powerful, but is also marked by the thirty-two principal signs of the mahāpuruṣa (great man) and his eighty secondary or minor characteristics. They are due to his self-control in previous lives (Sam. Rā., fol. 1934, 1). The thirty-two principal marks are as follows (according to the Lal. V.):

(1) His head is like a cap in shape (or like a royal turban). E. Burnouf interprets the term uṇīṣa-ṛṣa as meaning "having a bump on the head." (Pāli: uṇīsa-niṣa. saha-ṇīṣa-mustakāh; Kṣemendra, i, 671). E. Senart compares the uṇīṣa to the kaparda of Čiva and Rudra, and says: "Toutefois, parmi les interprétations auxquelles il donne lieu, l'une fait de l'uṇīṣa une disposition particulière de la chevelure, ramenée sur le sommet de la tête."
(2) His hair turns towards the right in locks, which are dark-blue like a peacock's tail or mixed callyrium. The M. Vy. and Dh. S. say nothing about the colour of the hair.

(3) His forehead is even and broad.

(4) Between his eyebrows there is white hair, which has the lustre of snow and silver (ūrṇā, Pāli: umṇā). E. Senart compares the ārṇā to the white hair on the breast of Viṣṇu and Kṛṣṇa, to the eyebrows of Zeus, the third eye of Śiva, etc. But his analogies are generally superficial. It is a curious fact that the M. Vy. gives ārṇā-keṣah (having woolly hair?). But Csoma's list has ārṇā-koṇa ("hair of treasure" on the forehead). This is incorrect, as Tibetan spu means "hair" (Tib. Dicy., 798).

(5) His eyelashes are like a cow's (i.e. completely surrounding the eyes, thick like a black cow's; or, "bright and soft like a newborn red calf's").

(6) The pupils of his eyes are very dark (abhiniṇa).

(7) He has forty teeth, which are even (or, "of equal size").

(8) There are no gaps or interstices between one tooth and another (avirāla-danta. Pāli: avirūra).

(9) He has white teeth (or "very white").

(10) He has an excellent voice (brahma-svāra).

(11) His sense of taste is very acute and keen (rāsa-rāsāgratā). E. Senart points out that Agni in the Rgveda has many teeth and tongues. E. Burnouf explains: "Il a la supériorité du goût des saveurs" ("Lotus," p. 567).

(12) His tongue is large and slender (prabhūta-tanu-jīha).

(13) His jaw is like a lion's. E. Senart refers to the epithet of Agni in the Rgveda.

(14) He has evenly-rounded shoulders. (Susaṅgartha has also been rendered as "even", "symmetrical", "equally rounded." Pāli: samavatthakkhandho.) Skandha refers to "the exterior of the whole vocal apparatus," and not merely to the trunk or the shoulders. It has also been translated as "bust". E. Foucaux translates: "le bras bien arrondi."

(15) He has seven convex surfaces or prominences (sapt-ottada, sapt-eschada; i.e. the backs of the four limbs, the shoulders and the trunk are well fleshed. Pāli: sattussado.) Csoma translates: "Of seven spans in stature" (p. 93).

(16) The space between his shoulders is well filled up (literally, "heaped up"; cit-antarāmsa).

(17) His skin is fine and of the colour of gold.
(18) When he is standing erect and not bending, his arms reach down to the knees.
(19) The front part of his body is like a lion.
(20) His body has the symmetrical proportions of a banyan-tree (nyagrodha). “It was believed that a banyan always measured the same in height and width” (Dialogues ii, 15). “The bodhisattva’s height is equal to his outstretched arms” (E. J. Thomas: “Buddha”, p. 220).
(21) Each hair on his body rises straight upward.
(22) Each hair curls to the right.
(23) His private member is concealed in a sheath.
(24) He has well-rounded thighs.
(25) His legs are like an antelope’s.
(26) He has long fingers.
(27) He has long heels.
(28) He has prominent ankles (utsanga-pāda, Pāli: ussāṅkha-pādo). Csoma reads uschantha-pāda and translates: “the joints of the ankles do not appear.” The Tibetan equivalent is shabs-kyi lbu-bu-mi-mnonpa, which means, “the ankle-bone of the foot is not conspicuous” (Tib. Diccy. 363, 1224). The Tibetan interpretation is just the opposite of the usual explanation. Other renderings are as follows:—
His ankles are like rounded shells (T. W. Rhys Davids: Dialogues ii, 14; iii, 138).
Lord Chalmers: “His ankles are over the exact middle of his tread” (Majjh. tr., ii, 72).
F. Max Müller: “Having the foot arched” (Dh. S., p. 53).
(29) His hands and feet are soft and delicate.
(30) His hands and feet are webbed or netted. (jāl-āṅgulihasta-pāda. Pāli: jāla-hattha-pādo.) Other renderings are as follows:—
“His fingers and toes spring clean, without webbing between them” (Majjh. tr., ii, 72).
“Les doigts de ses pieds et de ses mains sont réunis par une membrane, jusqu’à la première phalange” (P. Foucaux, Lal. V., trsln., p. 96).

"His hands have the fingers united by a membrane" (A. B. Keith: "Indian Mythology," p. 195). The Pāli Dicy. explains thus: "having net-like hands and feet, probably with reference to long nails." E. J. Thomas refers to the webbed fingers of some of the Gandhāra statues, and adds: "But this was only a device of the sculptor to give strength to parts likely to be broken, since this feature only occurs when the fingers stand out. Buddhaghosa appears to have known this view, as he denies that the fingers were webbed, and says that one with such a defect could not receive ordination. That the network of lines on the hand was originally intended is a sufficient explanation. Buddhaghosa's own view is not likely to be the primitive one. He says that the four fingers and five toes were of equal length (as he no doubt saw them on statues), and that when Buddha entwined his fingers, they were like a window with a lattice made by a skilful carpenter" ("Buddha", p. 222). The difficulty seems to be that the Pāli text reads simply jāla-hattha-pādo (Dīgha ii, 17), but the M. Vī. and the Divy. give jāl-āvanaddha-hasta-pādā. The Mtu. has jāla, but it does not mention the epithets in their fully developed form, and one manuscript reads jāli (Mtu., ii, 30). The Dh. S. gives a corrupt reading, which may be understood to stand for jāl-ābaddh-ānguli-pāni-pāda-satalā. Thus several Sanskrit texts seem to differ from the Pāli in inserting a participle (āvanaddha or ābaddha) after jāla and also mentioning the fingers. Perhaps the Pāli and the Sanskrit terms do not mean the same thing. The Sanskritists may have altered the phrase in order to explain the "webbed fingers" of the Gandhāra statues. It is a curious circumstance that Csoma's Tibetan list omits this item altogether. But the Tibetan equivalent is phyag dan shabs dra-bas hbring-ba, which means "having the hands and feet connected with a web or net". The word dra-ba is also employed in a compound, which denotes "web-footed, like a goose or duck"; and the word hbring-ba is used in a phrase which means, "her fingers and toes adhered together, like the toes of a goose" (Tib. Dicy., 646, 933).

(31) On the soles of his feet, there are two wheels, white, radiant and luminous, with a thousand spokes, and (complete) with rim and nave (tyre and hub). The Dh. S. and M. Vī. simply mention that the hands and the feet are marked with wheels, and Csoma's Tibetan list agrees with them. The wheel is not described,
as it is in the Lal. V. The Mūla omits the wheel altogether (ii, 29).

It has been suggested that the wheel is the symbol of the sun; but it really represents universal sovereignty, as is clearly indicated in the Maha-sudassana-sutta (Digha, iii, 169 ff.). The word cakra-vartin is associated with a “wheel”, though cakra originally meant “sphere of power” in that word. E. Senart of course discerns a solar attribute in the wheel. He says: “C’est le propre cakra, à mille raias, de Viṣṇu, un des emblèmes les plus antiques et les plus populaires du soleil... Cette roue... peut même paraître issue d’une conception du soleil considéré directement comme le pied du dieu lumineux... Ce pied unique formerait avec la roue unique du char solaire un parallélisme frappant (Rgveda, i, 164.2)” 41 But the analogy is very defective. The bodhisattva bears the figure of the wheel on the soles of both feet, and, according to some accounts, on his hands too. It is not easy to understand why he should bear so many symbols of the sun on his body. A wheel is one of the seven “jewels” of a universal monarch, and a Buddha is also said to “turn the wheel” of the Doctrine. In the sculptures of Bharhut, the wheel represents the preaching of the first sermon by Gautama Buddha. 42 Hence a bodhisattva, who is born with this mark, must become either a universal ruler (cakra-vartin) or a Buddha (dharma-cakra-pravartin). E. J. Thomas has clearly shown the untenability of the solar hypothesis in this case (“Buddha”, pp. 219 ff.).

(32) His feet are well-set (well-planted). “The traditional meaning is that the whole under-surface touched the ground at once” (Dialogues, ii, 14).

The eighty secondary marks are similar to these principal characteristics in many respects. They are described in the Maha-vastu, the Lal. V., the M. Vy., and the Dh. S. 43

With regard to the origin of these signs of a mahāpurusa, it is admitted that the theory of the mahāpurusa existed before the rise of Buddhism. E. Senart has traced it through the epics and the Upaniṣads back to the Atharva-veda (x, 2, p. 217), and even to the Puruṣa-tākta of the Rgveda (x, 90; vol. vi, p. 243). But the theory of the bodily marks of a mahāpurusa has very little in common with the idea of the primeval mythical Puruṣa with a thousand heads, a thousand eyes and a thousand feet. It is more probable that the epithets applied to the heroes of the great epics gave rise to the list of the thirty-two signs. Rāma is described in the
Ramāyana as vīpul-āṃśa, maha-bāhu, maha-hanu, ājñau-bāhu, nālāṭā, sama-vihaṅkt-āṅga, pīna-vaṅkṣas, viśāl-āśa, etc. The
discipline of the marks is pre-Buddhist, as the Pāli canon speaks of
brahmīns who profess to interpret them, and it also disapproves of
such occupations. Some of the marks indicate the poet’s ideal of
manly beauty, e.g. white and regular teeth, a broad chest, black
hair, dark eyes, rotundity of figure, etc. Others are symbolic:
the covered male organ typifies lifelong chastity; the long tongue
betokens success as a preacher, or it may be an emblem of the sun’s
rays. A few marks may be due to some tradition with regard to
Gautama Buddha’s physiognomy. Some are clearly borrowed from
Gandhāra sculpture, which created a figure of Buddha in imitation
of the Hellenic statues of Apollo. A. Foucher says: “Aux
grand Dieux, aux bodhisattvas, au Buddha, ils semblent avoir
été d’accord pour réserver le type idéal de Phoebus-Apollon . . .
Les Buddha, qui tous ont la tête découvert et la marque de l’urna
au front . . . La routine des imitateurs gandhariens vient de
créer de toutes pièces la bosse de l’upīṭha dans l’acception bouddhique
et postérieure du mot. Une malformation de leurs pâles imitateurs
fait surgir sur la tête du Maître . . . une protubérance d’un
caractère anormal.”

The thirty-two marks thus owe their origin to the national
aesthetic ideal, spiritual symbolism and Gandhāra art. The
eighty minor marks are due chiefly to the fussy fatuity of the
Buddhist writers, who could not leave well alone.

III. Marriage, Renunciation and Penance

The bodhisattva is thus physically and intellectually a
very highly developed man. Even as a boy, he is fond of Medita-
tion and once experiences the first dhyāna, as he sits under a tree
in rapt Concentration. This incident seems to be an early
rehearsal of the final scene under the bodhi-tree. His father
naturally wishes that the young man should become a powerful
monarch, and not a Buddha. He surrounds his son with the
greatest comfort and luxury in gorgeous palaces. The bodhisattva
marries only in order to conform to social custom, as he is free
from passion. This general law applies to such a bodhisattva. Here
the Buddhist writers have made a necessary compromise between
fact and theory. They do not go so far as those Jainas, who deny
the fact of Mahāvīra’s marriage. But they spiritualise
the marriage and deduce the general rule for all bodhisattvas in their last lives. In the meantime, the bodhisattva sees four signs (nimittām) that precede his Renunciation. The devas show him an old man, a sick man, a corpse and an ascetic. This incident has been invented as the concrete illustration of a passage in the Pāli canon, in which Buddha declares that he pondered on the realities of old age, sickness and death in the days before the Renunciation. The Buddhas of the universe also exhort and rouse the bodhisattva by reminding him of his great Vow and the practice of the Perfections in his past lives. All bodhisattvas receive such a sañciddana (instigation, prompting) from these Buddhas before the Renunciation. At last, the bodhisattva leaves his home at night and becomes a wandering monk and student. All such bodhisattvas take this step. The devas help them in their flight by opening the gates, sending the people to sleep, and rendering other services. Gautama Buddha becomes the disciple of two teachers, but this rule does not apply to all bodhisattvas, as they are supposed to have mastered all the methods of study and meditation in their previous lives. The next event in the careers of all bodhisattvas is the performance of austerities. This rule is derived from the facts of Gautama Buddha’s life; but quite new motives for the action are adduced, so that the bodhisattva should not be supposed to undergo the penance from lack of wisdom. The bodhisattva gives up his austerities, eats proper food, and resolves to seek Enlightenment by Musing and Concentration. He dreams five dreams that seem to augur well for his success. The next day, he goes in the evening to a tree and sits cross-legged under it with the firm determination to win Enlightenment. He is accompanied and praised by many devas. All such bodhisattvas sit in the same way under a tree on the night of Enlightenment. The seat is called the bodhi-maṇḍa (throne of bodhi). But the hardest ordeal now remains. The great duel with Māra begins at this point. Who and what is this Māra, who must be defeated and conquered before bodhi can be attained?

IV. MĀRA AND THE BODHISATTVA

(i) Māra in the Pāli canon. The word Māra (Pāli: Māra) is derived from the root mṛ (to die). The Atharva-veda mentions a Māra, who is associated with Yama, Death, and other
evil powers (vi, 93, 1, page 129; Yama mṛtyur agha-māra nīrtho bhūruḥ, etc.). In the post-Vedic literature, Mṛtyu (Death) is spoken of as pāpma (wicked or evil) in several passages: e.g. tāny asya garbha' eva saanti pāpma mṛtyur aghnāt; sarvāni bhūtanī pāpmanā mṛtyospravāvānī (Gāthapatha Brāhmaṇa, viii, 4, 2, pp. 433, 434). As E. Windisch has pointed out, Pāpman is also the subject of a hymn in the Atharva-veda (vi, 26, page 111; Avo mā pāpmanatirya vaśi, etc.). It may be taken to mean “Misery, Misfortune, Evil.” Māra is called Namuci in Buddhist literature, and Namuci is mentioned as an asura (demon) in the Rgveda (x, 131, 4, yavam surāman aśvinī namucāo-āśure sacā). Māra has been identified by E. Senart with the ancient symbols of Death, Yama, Mṛtyu, etc., as the name evidently means “the slayer.” H. Kern derives it from mala (dirt, impurity) or mārici (ray, mirage); but this etymology is merely fantastic. The words, Māra, Namuci and pāpman (Pāli: pāpipā) are thus found in pre-Buddhist literature. In the Pāli canon, Māra is also called kaṇha (black. Sutta-nipāta, 967, page 187), probably because he was in some way associated with the mythology of the aboriginal tribes of India. Māra is an important figure in the mythology of the Buddhists. We find the following phrase in many passages of the Pāli canon: “this universe, with the devas, Māra and Brahmā, recluses and brahmans.” In the Mahāparinibbāṇa-sutta, Buddha tells Ānanda that Māra has a regular assembly. In the Māratājaniya-sutta of the Majjhima-Nikāya, Mahā-Moggalāna says that he was formerly a Māra named Dūsi, and committed certain sins in that life (Majjhima, i, 333 ff.). In the Māra-samyutta, Māra appears as an elephant and a snake in order to frighten Buddha. He assumes the form of a peasant and disturbs Buddha’s preaching. He tries to distract the audience by making a terrific noise. Such half-comic exploits end in his discomfiture, as it appears that he is nonplussed and rendered harmless, if his identity is discovered. Dīgha (thou art seen) is the formula that can always be employed against him. He enters Moggalāna’s stomach, which feels heavy in consequence; but the saint recognises him. Māra also tempts the nuns in the disguise of a man. He goes about as a mist or a cloud of smoke in order to search for the viṇāṇa of a monk, who has committed suicide. In the Mahāvagga, Māra appears twice and tries to assert his power over Buddha, who sternly repels and repudiates him. In the Nidāna-katha, he attacks Buddha with nine storms.
of rain, wind, rocks, weapons, charcoal ashes, sand, mud and darkness; and his elephant is 150 leagues in height. In all such Pali texts, Mara appears as a living, active and mischievous imp or celestial being. This is his personal aspect: he is a mythological being with a distinct individuality, like Sakka and other devas. But there is also an impersonal aspect of Mara. In many passages, he is regarded merely as the symbol of Evil, Sin, Desire and Temptation. He then belongs more to the realm of Allegory than of Myth. Sensuous pleasure and the sixfold "Sphere of Sense" are said to be his Domain. He cannot obtain entrance (otara), if a monk practises virtue and self-control. Mara's three daughters are allegorical, not mythical, creatures: they are named Tanha (Craving), Arati (Aversion) and Raga (Sutta-nipata, verse 835). In the Padhana-sutta, his mythical personality is not prominent: he serves only as a symbol of Temptation. In some passages, phenomenal existence as such is identified with Mara, and Mara is said to be equivalent to the five khandhas and all perishable things and phenomena (Rada-samyutta, Samyutta-Nikaya, iii, 186). In such utterances, the impersonal and allegorical aspect of Mara is emphasised, and the personal, mythical aspect seems to be entirely ignored.

(2) In Buddhist Sanskrit literature, Mara has also a personal and an impersonal aspect. In his personal aspect, he is the chief of the devas who are collectively called "the marakapikas." There are millions of these devas. Mara has the old titles: namuci, krisna-bandhu, papiyan. He is especially the god of Desire and Lust in general; he represents all that is detrimental to progress towards Enlightenment. He is not chiefly or primarily associated with the idea of Death. E. Windisch lays stress on the wrong point, when he says: "Buddha besiegt den Tod, der Tod will sich nicht besiegen lassen; das sind die primaren Gedanken, die der Maramegende zu Grunde liegen." But the victory over Death is not emphasised in the same degree as the conquest of kama. Mara is first and foremost the god of Lust, Passion, Craving, Desire. One of his daughters is named Triti, and he is spoken of as "the Lord of Desire" (kam-adhipati). He is distinctly identified with Cupid (mamatha, kama-deva) by AcvaghoSa and Ksemendra. He is "the supreme Lord of the eyes of beautiful women." He tempts Cudamani and others as the god of Love. Besides kama, Mara is most frequently associated with kleza (sin,
evil, moral corruption in general). Kleśa is coupled with māra-karma (Māra’s deeds) in the Luṅkāvatāra-sūtra (p. 102.14). He is thus the god of Lust and Sin, but he is not the ruler of the gods of the kāma-dhātu, as E. Senart incorrectly assumes (“le chef des dieux de la région des sens”). The gods of the kāma-dhātu live in six heavens with their separate chiefs. It is indeed a peculiar circumstance that the devas of the Māra class are not assigned to any heaven in the realm of kāma. Their exact position in Buddhist cosmology is not known. In his personal aspect, Māra plays many pranks and resorts to various tricks in order to impede every bodhisattva’s spiritual development. He dissuades a bodhisattva from giving alms to the monks or the poor. He even employs the desperate stratagem of creating a phantom nāraka (purgatory) near the door of the house in order to prevent a charitable householder from going out and helping a monk. He can assume the shape and form of Gautama Buddha and show himself to the monk Upagupta, who is very eager to see Buddha’s physical body. Upagupta and he part good friends, and it is even reported that Māra is converted and his occupation is thus gone, perhaps for ever. But he can also preach false doctrine and mislead the faithful in this convenient disguise. He sows discord among the bodhisattvas and dissuades them from diligence in study. He disturbs the congregations and distracts their attention during a bodhisattva’s sermons. He appears as a heretical teacher in the great contest of the miracles between Buddha and the other religious preachers. He tries to frighten the bodhisattvas by pestering them with fiery meteors (ulhā-patān). He troubles a pious bodhisattva by hiding all the water in a certain region. In various ways, he asserts his power and shows that he is alive and at work. But a bodhisattva can always defeat him by means of magical spells and circles, and also by the power of Virtue and Wisdom.

The personal aspect of Māra is not so important in later Buddhist literature as it is in the Mahā-vastu and the Lal. V. His interesting and concrete figure is resolved in an increasing degree into the abstract idea of Evil. “Māra-karma” does not always denote the actual presence of the deva Māra or his myrmidons, just as such English words as “diabolical” and “devilry” are now dissociated from the conception of the Tempter, who talked to Job and Jesus. This impersonal aspect of Māra is emphasised by the Buddhist writers, who have devised the formula of the four Māras.
In this list, the personal Māra is allotted only one place, while the impersonal Māra consists of three items. It is clear that the former has receded into the background; he is called deva-putra-māra. But the other three Māras are identified with the principles of sin, individuality and transience. They are named kleśa-māra (Sin, Passion), skandha-māra (Aggregates, Components of individual existence) and mṛtyu-māra (Death). Here the general term kleśa has replaced the old narrower word kāma. There is a samādhi, which can rout these four Māras. The Da. Bhū. speaks of “the ways of the four Māras” (catur-māra-pathaḥ). This impersonal triple Māra incites a bodhisattva to sins and spiritual errors. He is especially noted for fostering Pride in the heart (māna, abhimāna, manyana), particularly when a bodhisattva performs miracles or practises austerities. The Pr. Pā. Aśa. earnestly warns a bodhisattva against the dangers of Pride in all its forms. The well-known “army of Māra” must also be supposed to belong to this impersonal Māra, as it only consists of different vices, evils and errors: “lusts, aversion, hunger, thirst, craving, torpor-and-stolidity, fear, doubt, anger, hypocrisy, avarice, love of fame, self-praise, envy and censoriousness.” Čāndideva clearly explains the nature of the impersonal Māra by enumerating several māra-karmāṇi, which are also called “the hooks of Māra” (māra-āṅkuṣa). Lack of earnestness and diligence in study; quarrels and controversies; anxious thoughts for one’s relatives or about the necessaries of life; discord between teachers and pupils; indifference to continual spiritual progress among the recluse; compliance with the advice of bad friends who do not appreciate the ideal of the Mahāyāna, and improper and unsuitable activity: all such things are “the work of Māra”. The Pr. Pā. Aśa. teaches how this Māra can be defeated and frustrated. A bodhisattva never abandons the living beings (i.e., continues to serve them); he regards all phenomena as empty (śūnya); his actions are in harmony with his words; and he is helped and honoured by the Buddhas. These are a bodhisattva’s four weapons against this Māra. Māra is also pained and rendered powerless by the practice of self-control and the acceptance of the true faith. 

(3) The Bodhisattva’s Last Struggle against Māra.

In the bodhisattva’s combat with Māra, both the personal and impersonal aspects of Māra are emphasised with almost equal force. But the final victory is won over the personal Māra, as the mythological element has become more
important than the allegory in the Lal. V. and the Mütu. The bodhisattva’s last struggle with Māra under the tree falls into two parts:—

(i) Māra’s attempt to persuade the bodhisattva to give up the holy life and the pursuit of Enlightenment, and (ii) Māra’s violent attack on the bodhisattva for driving him away from the tree. In the spiritual duel, the impersonal metaphysical Māra is predominant. In the real “battle”, the personal Māra of the myths is the leader of the demon-hordes.

The Mahā-vastu suddenly introduces Māra without dilating on his motive, but Māra explains further on that the bodhisattva’s success will deprive him of his dominion over the multitude. The Mütu, relates several stories to show that the bodhisattva had also outwitted and checkmated Māra on different occasions in his previous lives. In the B. Cū., Māra says that the bodhisattva may conquer his realms and make them empty. Kṣemendra also relates that Māra comes on his own initiative. But the Lal. V. explains that the bodhisattva deliberately challenges Māra and informs him with regard to the situation, so that he may do his worst and also perhaps learn the true law in the end. His defeat would lead to the submission of all the devas of the realm of sensuous Desire and the ultimate conversion of his followers. The bodhisattva then emits a ray of light which communicates his message to Māra. Māra too dreams a dream with thirty-two ominous signs that seem to foretell his doom. Māra gets ready to defend his empire. But it must be stated that his house is divided against itself. The Māra of the Sanskrit treatises has offspring in both aspects of his dual personality. The impersonal Māra has three daughters, who are usually named Rati (Lust, Attachment), Arati (Aversion, Discontent, Unrest) and Trṣṇā (Craving). Ācāvaghoṣa does not follow the Pāli tradition in this respect and gives them other names, viz. Rati, Prīti (in the sense of Love, Attachment), and Trṣṇā (=Trṣṇā). He also speaks of three sons of Māra: Vibhrama (Confusion, Error), Harṣa (Elation) and Darpa (Pride). But the Lal. V. creates a numerous family for the personal Māra, who is said to have “a thousand sons”. Some names are also given, e.g. Sārthavāha, Durmati, Madhuranirghoṣa, Cātabhū, Subuddhi, Sunetra, Ugratejas, Dīrghabhābu, Bhayaṇkara, etc. It is clear that these names are mythical, and not allegorical. They are modelled on the names of the warriors of the Rāmāyaṇa
and the Mahābhārata. The Mṛṣa simply states that Mṛṣa's sons Sārthavīśa and Janisuta tried to dissuade him from attacking the bodhisattva. But the Lal. V. describes a protracted debate between the two parties, into which Mṛṣa's children are divided on account of differences of opinion with regard to the projected conflict. Some were eager for the fray, while the others counselled prudence and discretion. We seem to hear distant echoes of the scenes in Rāvana's palace in Lanka before the struggle with Rāma. It is probable that the Lal. V. is indebted to the Rāmāyanā for this animated discussion.

The account of the bodhisattva's last struggle against Mṛṣa is an amalgam of allegory and myth.

(a) The Allegory. The struggle between the bodhisattva and the impersonal Mṛṣa is really an allegory, like other similar stories of temptation. The bodhisattva's allegorical conflict with this Mṛṣa begins early in his last existence. When he renounces his home, Mṛṣa appears and tells him that he should continue to live in the world, as he may obtain the wheel of universal sovereignty after seven days. Later, when the bodhisattva practises austerities, Mṛṣa comes, tries to persuade him to give up his strivings, and says: "Thou art lean, pale and miserable. Death is near thee. Death has a thousand parts of thee; life is only one part. If thou givest alms and sacrificest (to the gods) day and night, thou shalt gain great Merit: what hast thou to do with striving?" The bodhisattva repels Mṛṣa on this occasion. When he sits under the bodhi-tree, the last fight begins. The Mahā-vastu relates that Mṛṣa tempts the bodhisattva to return to the royal palace and enjoy sensual pleasures, as he is still young and healthy. Mṛṣa also speaks of the great sacrifices (mahā-yajñāni) that should be offered by such a powerful monarch (e.g. asura-medha, purusa-medha, etc.). According to the Lal. V., Mṛṣa exclaims in an envious mood: "Rise, O Prince, rise. Your Merit is such that you can enjoy sovereignty. But how can you obtain Liberation?" The bodhisattva replies that he despises worldly power and grandeur, as he has already sacrificed wealth, limbs and life many times in many existences. The devatā of the earth, Sthāvarā, rises out of the ground and corroborates the bodhisattva's statement. Finally, Mṛṣa sends his daughters to tempt the bodhisattva with their womanly wiles, which are said to be of thirty-two kinds. They engage in a lengthy discussion on the advantages and disadvantages
of the kāmas, and the bodhisattva declares that he is absolutely free from passion and lust. Māra's discomfiture is now complete. The bodhisattva has withstood the temptations of Sovereignty and Love.

Here the allegory ends, and the myth begins.

(b) The Myth. Māra now attacks the bodhisattva with a vast army of hideous and grotesque demons and monsters. It has been suggested that the metaphorical phrase, "Namuci's army", which is applied in the Pādhaṇa-sutta to several sins and vices, gave rise to the conception of a real fourfold army of warriors. But this is hardly probable. The allegory and the myth are derived from different sources. The allegory is the product of the poetic imagination, like Spenser's Faerie Queene and the Prabhadra-candī-odāya; but the myth has its roots in the dim and distant past of the race, when the battles between the devas and the asuras, the Hellenic gods and the Titans, Indra and Vṛtra, Thor and the Jötunn, were first visualised and described. It is almost impossible to bridge the gulf between the simple allegory and the impressive myth in this case. The few moral faults mentioned in the Pādhaṇa-sutta could not have been developed into the terrible horde of ugly, fantastic and repulsive monsters, who are led by Māra's general. Māra is a king and rides an enormous elephant. The demons and monsters are described in detail in the Mīya., the Lal. V., the B. Ct. and the Avadāna-kalpatalā. Some are many-headed, many-armed, many-legged; others have no heads, arms or legs at all. Some vomit serpents; others devour them. Some consume the bones and flesh of men; others belch fire and smoke. The faces and the bodies of some of them are of different colours. Some have faces and ears like those of goats, boars, camels and fishes; the bodies of others resemble those of lions, tigers, monkeys, cats, snakes, tortoises and other beasts. Their bellies are protuberant and speckled. According to Kṣemendra, they number thirty-six kotis (360 millions). These soldiers are armed with arrows, swords, spears, clubs, maces and other deadly weapons. They hurl these at the bodhisattva and also throw burning mountains at him. They shout: "Take, capture, bind, strike, tear, hack, slay, destroy this monk Gautama and the tree." But the missiles and the fire are changed into flowers and a halo of light respectively through the power of the bodhisattva's Love. The bodhisattva has also allies of a sort: the eight devatās of the bodhi-tree and the devas of the Pure
Abode try to discourage and weaken Māra by abusing and reviling him and also by predicting his speedy downfall. The bodhisattva is not dismayed at all: he is supported by noble pride in his own personality and character (ārya-māna). He smiles like a saint and looks round like a lion. Like a lion, too, he coughs and yawns. Māra groans and laments in sixteen ways. In the end, Māra’s army is routed, but the final scene is described in different ways in the principal treatises. According to the Māhā-vastu, the bodhisattva strokes his head thrice, touches his couch and strikes the earth with his right hand. The earth shakes and gives out a deep and terrible sound; and Māra’s hosts sink down and disappear. Māra writes these words with a reed on the ground: “Gautama will escape from my dominion.”

This account is purely mythical; the Earth-goddess seems to help the bodhisattva in some way. But the Lal. V., which intercalates the moral allegory between two onslights by the army, clearly indicates that Māra is defeated by the bodhisattva’s virtue and wisdom. Here the allegory and the myth are strangely intertwined. The army is mythical, but the bodhisattva’s defensive weapons are unmistakably allegorical. He is full of Love (maitrī); he understands by his wisdom that all things, including Māra’s army, are illusory and non-substantial; and he speaks of the practice of the pāramitās in his past lives. He declares that all the Buddhas, devas and living beings, and even the pāramitās, can bear witness to his fulfilment of a bodhisattva’s complete discipline. He then touches the earth with his hand: this mythical act is the last incident of the conflict even in the Lal. V. Māra’s army is then dispersed and destroyed. Aśvaghōsa does not mention the act of touching the earth; he puts a long hortatory speech into Gautama’s mouth. Māra retires, sad and downcast, and his soldiers flee in all directions. In Kṣemendra’s account, too, the bodhisattva does not touch the earth.

It is clear that both Māra and the tree belong to the realm of mythology. They are not mentioned in the earliest Pāli account. According to the Pāli canon, every Buddha has his bodhi-tree. Vipassīn’s tree was a pāṭali, Sikkhīn’s was a pundarīka, and so on. E. Senart thinks that the ancient myth about the struggle for ambrosia (amṛta) has been converted into history in this Buddhist legend. He says: “Dans le Māhābhārata, lors de la lutte que la possession de l’ambroisie soulève entre les Ādityas et les Dainyas, ceux-ci sont armés de flèches,
de massues, d’armes de tout genre. C’est toujours, sous une forme un peu renouvelée, le vieux duel vélique ; quelques traits en ont persisté, presque inaltérés jusque dans la légende des Buddhistes. les démons ont les pieds et les mains coupés (Indra coupe les mains des Asuras) ; chez lui (Māra), la synthèse du caractère démoniaque et du caractère divin est justement l’un des traits les plus frappants. Le trône de l’arbre de Bodhi appartient à Māra ; le Buddha prétend l’en dépouiller. On a plusieurs fois comparé l’histoire de Cālīya et de Māra à cette attaque tentée contre Zaratustra par Aūro Mainyu. La Chāndogya Upanishad connaît l’aśvattha qui donne l’ambroisie. L’arbre de Bodhi est l’arbre céleste. Toute la scène n’est, en dernière analyse, qu’une version particulière du mythe de la conquête de l’ambroisie. La victoire de Cālīya est toute solaire. La légende marque le lever du soleil comme l’heure décisive. E. Senart would be more convincing, if he did not attempt to prove too much. H. Kern, who regards the history of Buddha as an allegory of the movements of the sun and other heavenly bodies, identifies Māra with the Spirit of Darkness, which is defeated by the Sun. A. B. Keith says : “Amid so much mythology, it seems unfair to reject the obvious conclusion that the tree is no ordinary tree, but the tree of life, and that the conflict with Māra represents a nature-myth.”

The conflict between Buddha and Māra is probably intended to be a replica of the struggle between Indra and Vṛtra, as it is described in the Rigveda. The myth is very ancient, as the Zend-Avesta mentions “Verethraghna”. The glory of the old god is transferred to Buddha, who supplants him. There are also some echoes of the war between Rāma and Rāvana. The custom of tree-worship has prevailed in many countries. J. G. Frazer says : “In the religious history of the Aryan race in Europe, the worship of trees has played an important part. Tree-worship is well attested for all the great European families of the Aryan stock. Among the Celts, the oak-worship of the Druids is familiar to every one. Sacred groves were common among the ancient Germans. Proofs of the prevalence of tree-worship in ancient Greece and Italy are abundant. To the savage, the world in general is animate, and trees are no exception to the rule.” Several mysterious trees are also associated with the mythology of different races, e.g. the oak of Dodona, the world-tree of the Chaldaeans, the Yggdrasil of the
Scandinavians, the "Tree of all Seeds" of the Persians, the metal pine of the Japanese, the golden gem-bearing tree of the Egyptians, etc. The bodhi-tree must also be added to this group.

V. ENLIGHTENMENT

When the bodhisattva has defeated Mara's cohorts, he first experiences the four dhyānas. He then acquires the supernal organ of sight in the first watch of the night (dīrya-sakhya). He thus destroys the Darkness (tamas) and produces Light (ālokā). In the middle watch of the night, he remembers his past lives and acquires the knowledge that arises from such remembrance (vidya). In the last watch of the night, when dawn is breaking, he acquires and realises the knowledge of the destruction of the āsavas. He then reflects on the twelve items of the pratityasamutpāda three times. First, he begins with Old-Age-and-Death, and thinks "What existing, does jāra-maraṇa come to be? What is its cause?" He repeats the same question till he comes to avidyā. The second time he begins with avidyā, and thinks thus: "The saṃkūṭas arise from avidyā as cause," and so on, till he reaches the last link of the chain. The third time he starts again with jāra-maraṇa and thinks thus: "What not existing, does jāra-maraṇa not come to be? What is that, by whose cessation jāra-maraṇa ceases?" He proceeds in this way and finishes at avidyā. Then he feels that Knowledge, Insight, Wisdom and Light have arisen within him. He knows the fact and the nature of Pain, of the āsavas, and of the twelve factors of Dependent Origination; he knows their origin and their cessation, and also the Way that leads to such cessation. Thus he acquires the threefold Knowledge and attains supreme and perfect Enlightenment. He knows, understands, discerns and realises all that is to be known, understood, discerned and realised.

He then rises in the air to the height of seven palm-trees in order to convince the devas that he has attained Enlightenment. He utters this verse: "The way is cut off; the dust is laid; the āsavas are dried up; they do not flow again. When the Way is cut off, it does not turn. This is called the end of Pain." All Buddhas must show such a sign. The devas shower flowers on him in recognition of his Buddhahood. Light and happiness spread in all the worlds, which are shaken in six ways. All the Buddhas praise the new Buddha and present him with jewelled
umbrellas, which emit rays of light. All the bodhisattvas and devas rejoice and praise the Buddha.

This is the account of the events accompanying the Enlightenment as given in the Lal. V. In the B. Ct., the bodhisattva remembers his previous existences in the first watch of the night and obtains the divya-caksus in the second. In the Mahā-vastu, the events of the night of Enlightenment are briefly described in the same order as in the Lal. V., but the feat of levitation is not mentioned. The first utterance after Enlightenment is also quite different. It runs thus: "The result of Merit is pleasant, and success in one's aims is also realised; one quickly obtains supreme peace and happiness. The menacing troublesome devas of Māra's realm, who (stand) in front, cannot hinder him, who has done meritorious deeds." In another passage of the Mtu., the first utterance is given as follows: "Having cut off Craving, I abandon the dirt of passion. The dried-up āsava do not flow. The way, which is cut off, does not turn." These words correspond to the verse in the Lal. V.

Our task is done. The bodhisattva, who commenced his career with the "Thought of Enlightenment" many aeons ago, has now become a perfectly enlightened Buddha. Wherefore we respectfully and regretfully take leave of him.

Finis.
NOTES AND REFERENCES
(The abbreviations p. and pp. have generally been omitted after the titles of Sanskrit and Pali works).

CHAPTER I

1 For the conditions and attributes of arahatta in the Pali canon, cf. Brahmagāla-sutta (Dīgha, i, 1-46); Sāmañña-phala-sutta (Dīgha, i, pp. 47-86); Dīgha, i, 177 (Kassapa-sihanāda-sutta); Majjhima, i, 6-11 (Sabbatana-sutta); Samyutta, iii, 28, section 13 (Khandhā- samyutta); Majjhima, ii, 1-22, (Maha-sakuludāyi-sutta); Majjhima, iii, 124-8 (Bhikkhu-sutta); Sutta-nipāta, pp. 115-23 (Vāsettha-sutta); Samyutta, iv, 252 (Jambukhādaka-samyutta); Samyutta, iv, 151 (Salāyatanasamyutta); Aṅguttara, iii, 34 (Sumana-vagga); iii, 421, section ixvi (Devata-vagga); Puggalapānītā, 73 (Navam-puggala); Majjhima, i, 101 ff. (Ceto-khila-sutta); Dīgha, iii, 133 (Pāsādika- suttā); Majjhima, iii, 29 ff. (Chabbisosdhana-suttā); Dīgha, iii, 207 ff. (Sangiti-suttantā).


3 Cf. Dhammapada, 28: “Pabhataṭṭhe va bhummaṭṭhe dhotro bāl e aṭekkhot’i.”

Sutta-nipāta (Khaggaviśaṇa-sutta), pp. 6-7: “Eko care khagga-visaṇa-koppo.” “Mitte sukhajj anukampamāha kāpeti attthā paṭibaddha-citto, etamy bhayaṃ santhave pekkhamāno eko care,” etc.

Mālinda-pañha, 31: “Kānā mahoṣāja idam dukkham nirujjheyya aūdhā-sa dukkham na upajjeyyati etadatthā mahārāja amākam pabbajja anupāda parinibbānaṃ.”

Thera-gāthā, No. 245, p. 31: “Yathā Brahma tathā eko, yathā deva tathā duve, yathā gama tathā tayo, kālāhālam tat’ uttarin iti.”

No. 380, p. 42: “Yasta’satthāya pabbajito agārasma anāgāriyam so me atthe upappatto sabha-saṇeyojana-kkho’ ti” (said by Kassapa).

No. 224: “Titu vijjā upappattā katam buddhavisuddha saṇānaṃ iti” (p. 29), etc.

THE BODHISATTVA DOCTRINE.

5 Vinaya, i., 11, l. 23.
6 Cf. Digka, i., 46: "Kāyassa bhedā uddham jiva-ta-pariyādāna na dakkhiṇī deva-mansā ti."
Sutta-nipata, No. 235, p. 41: "Khaṇṇa puraṇṇa, navam n'asṭhi tambḥavam," etc.
Samyutta, iii., 109 ff. (dialogue between Sariputta and Yamaka). It is denied that Buddha taught annihilation, but it is not affirmed that a monk continues to exist. "Na hi Bhagavā evam vadeyya khīnāsavā bhikkhu kāyassa bhedā uchchijjati vināsati na hoti param maraṇa" (p. 110).

Udāna, viii., 3 (p. 80): "asti bhikkhave ajātām abhūtām akatām aṣṭamkhatām."
Milinda, 96: "parinībbuto Bhagavā na ca Bhagavā pūjana sādyati," etc.

7 Asaṃskṛta-dhātu. The word dhātu, derived from dhā, means "a primary element", and also signifies "factor, item, principle"; "natural condition," etc. The Buddhists divide the entire sum of things into seventy-five dhātu, of which seventy-two are "compounded, made up" (asaṃskṛta) and three are "uncompounded" (asaṃskṛta). L. de la Vallée Poussin translates asaṃskṛta as "inconditionné". The three dhātu, which are uncompounded, are: (1) ākāsa (Space, Ether). (2) Apratisaṃkhyā-nirodha (Cessation, which is not due to premeditation or deliberate intention) ("suppression non due à la sapience"; L. de la Vallée Poussin). (3) Pratisaṃkhyā-nirodha (Cessation, which is due to premeditation or deliberate intention, i.e. nirvāṇa, or the cessation of the production of new thoughts (Abhidharma-koça, i., 5, pp. 6 ff.); cf. "Tables of the Elements" in Th. Stcherbatsky's "The Central Conception of Buddhism", p. 106. Th. Stcherbatsky renders asaṃskṛta as "immutable", and explains pratisaṃkhyā-nirodha thus: "The suppression of the manifestations of an element through the action of understanding (prajñā), e.g. after having realised that the existence of a personality is an illusion, a kind of eternal blank is substituted for this wrong idea."

8 E. Burnouf, Int., p. 97, l. 10.
9 Pr. Pā. Čara, 2, note 2.
10 ERE. ii., 739a.
11 B.C. Ana. Pka., 421.
13 ERE, ii., 739a.
17 K. E. Neumann, Majja. tr., vol. i., p. 620, note 5. K. E. Neumann cites other words like manasattā, manasiṣṭhe, bhavasattā, etc.
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20 Kjœmendra, i, 3; M. Vv., p. 50; J. Rahder, “Glossary,” p. 134.
23 The word *yāna* is generally translated as “vehicle,” also as “boat.” *Hina* is rendered as “lower,” “inferior,” “lesser,” and *Mahā* as “higher,” “greater.” The Tibetan equivalent is *tsegsa*, which means “vehicle” (Tib. Dicy., Das, 585). According to E. J. Eitel, the Chinese also translate *yāna* as “conveyance” (p. 90). But it is doubtful if *yāna* originally meant “vehicle.” It denotes “way, path” in the *Vedas* and the *Upanisads*, e.g. Chāndogya Upd., v, 3.2 (“pathor deva-yānasya pitṛ-yānasya sa vyāvartanaḥ”). In Buddhism, there are more than two *yānas*, and the contrast between *hina* and *mahā* is not the fundamental point. There is the *yāna* of the *pratyeka-buddhas*, and they surely do not need a “vehicle” for their solitary career. It may be suggested that *yāna* in Buddhism originally denoted “Way, Career,” and that the connotation was changed after the publication of the *Sad. Pu.*., with its famous parable of the three *yūnas* (chap. iii). That play on words led to the substitution of the idea of “vehicle” for that of “way.”
24 Sāṅkāra-dhārma. H. Kern translates “heap of dirt.” But dhāna means “receptacle,” not “heap” (from the root *dhā*). Sāṅkāra is rendered as “Kehricht” by Böhltingk and Roth.
25 Diva-sthāna. Mudrā means “seal,” hence a coin with the superscription on it. Literally, *diva-sthāna* means “day’s coin”.
26 Tathāgata. This puzzling word may be construed as *tathā-gata* (“gone thus, in that way”), or *tathā-āgata* (“come thus, in that way”). It has been variously translated as follows: “The Truth-finder” (Chalmers, *Majjh.*, tr., i, 46, etc.); “the Accomplished One” (*Silācāra, Majjh.*, tr., p. 67); “He who has won through to the Truth” (*Dhammaśāṅgani*, tr., 1999); “The Saint who has attained Truth” (J. E. Carpenter, “Buddhism,” p. 259); “Der Vollendete” (H. Oldenberg, “Buddha,” p. 145, note; Nyānatiloka, *Aṭṭhakottika* tr., vol. v, p. 283). The Jainas employ the term *tattva-gaya* (= *tārta-gata*), which is explained as meaning “he who has attained that world, i.e. emancipation” (SBE., vol. xiii, p. 82). R. O. Franke thinks that Tathāgata means “one, who has himself gone on the Way, that he teaches others” (“der so Gegangene,” . . . “derjenige, der diesen Weg, den er lehrt, zuerst selbst zurückgelegt hat”; *Digga*, p. 287). He also points out that Tathāgata simply means “arhat, monk, individual” in several passages (*Digga*, p. 294). C. A. F. Rhys Davids is of opinion that the word means “thus come,” and that Gautama Buddha’s disciples gave him that name, because he “was believed to have come as a teacher in an order, according to which others had come” (“Gotama,” p. 45.)
H. Beckh explains: "Ein So-gegangener, d.h. einer der den Buddha-weg auch wirklich gegangen ist," "der den gleichen Pfad wie alle Buddhas gewandelt" ("Buddhismus," vol. i, pp. 61, 62). Buddhaghosa offers no fewer than eight different explanations, which have been discussed by R. Chalmers in JRAS. 1898, pp. 105 ff.; (a) "He who has arrived in such fashion," i.e. who has worked his way upwards to perfection for the world's good in the same fashion as all previous Buddhas. (b) "He who walked in such fashion," i.e. (1) he who at birth took the seven steps in the same fashion as all previous Buddhas; or (2) he who in the same way as all previous Buddhas went his way to Buddhahood through the four jhānas and the patha. (c) (Tatha and agato), he who by the path of knowledge has come at the real essentials of things. (d) (Tatha and agato), he who has won Truth. (e) He who has discerned Truth. (f) (agato = agado), he who declares Truth. (g) (Gato = pavatto), he whose words and deeds accord. (h) (Tatha and agato) (agata = agada, "medicine, physic"), the great physician, whose physic is all-potent. R. Chalmers derives the word from tatha and agata and interprets it as meaning "One who has come at the real truth". Böthingk and Roth interpret the word as tathā-gata (sich in solcher Lage, in solchem Zustande, befindend; dararti, so beschaffen). Tathāgata occurs in several passages of the Mahābhārata, e.g. ("ajagmuh sahitās tatra yatra rājā tathāgatah," i. 4879; vol. i, p. 179, Calcutta Edition). It is not probable that the doctrine of a succession of Buddhas would be embodied in a term, which belongs to early Pāli literature. This consideration weakens the argument for the derivation tathā-gata. It seems rather pedantic to discover tathā (= Truth) in this word. The simple and natural sense seems to be tathā-gata. On the analogy of the Jaina term and the phrases in the Mahābhārata, we may explain it as "gone there, i.e. to Liberation, nirvāṇa, or whatever the summum bonum may be." It would thus mean "The Liberated One", "One who has reached the goal".

26 Upadhi (Pāli: Upādi). The word upadhi seems to be a wrongly Sanskritized form of Pāli upādi, which is derived from the root dā. It is closely related to upādāna, meaning "fuel", "stuff of life", "substratum of the aggregates" (khandha). Nirvāṇa with upadhi is attained during life on the extinction of the āsava: Nirvāṇa without upadhi simply means "the death of such a saint". The Tibetan equivalent is dōns (thing) or phun-po (= Skt. skunda); Tib. Dicy., Das, 834; M. S. Al. tr., p. 27, note 4.) L. de la Vallée Poussin translates "residue" (JRAS. 1906, p. 964). "Daseinsgrundlage" (M. Winternitz in "Leibebuch", p. 279).

27 Santāna. H. Kern translates "intelligence". The word denotes the series of mental states, which constitute the individual.

Kujata-mulāni: "roots or bases of goodness or merit" (Pāli Dicy.).
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28 Dīrya, 50.9; Lka., 65, verse 150; Avā-.2a, i, 65.1; Pr. Pā. Čāta., pp. 85, 296; Kā. Vy., 46; Kṣemendra, 1, 623.50; Da. Bhā., 65.2, etc.

29 Auddhārya. This term occurs in the lists of the nīvaraṇaś and the sāmyojanaś. As a nīvaraṇa, it is coupled with kaukṛtya (Pāli: uddhacca-kākkuccam). It has been explained as "recklessness", "pride", "la présomption", "vanity", "excitement". In the M. S. Al., it is mentioned with lāya (142.9). It seems to denote a mood of exaltation and self-satisfaction as opposed to self-reproach and dejection.

Cīla-cūta-parāmarśa (Pāli: silabbata-parāmāsa). Cf. Dhamma-saṅgāṇi, sections 1005, 1174. Parāmarśa, derived from mṛć (with parā), means "touching, contact, being under the influence of; contagion". Hence the meaning, "perversion," "infatuation," "inverted judgment."

Sat-kāya-dṛṣṭi (Pāli: sakkāya-dīśṭhi). (Dhamma-saṅgāṇi, section 109.) This Pāli term is explained in two ways: (1) mva-kāya-dṛṣṭi; and (2) sat-kāya-dṛṣṭi. The latter Sanskritized form is generally accepted as correct. It has been translated as "Heresy of Individuality", "Delusion of Self", "The Personality View", etc. L. Feer’s rendering is perhaps inadmissible: "la persuasion que le corps est une chose bonne" (Avā-.2a, tr., p. 14). Literally, sat-kāya means "the body in being, the existing body."

30 Klesa. In Buddhist Sanskrit, this term is derived from klīsa (="to soil, to stain"). Bad butter is called sāṅkiliṣṭha in Pāli (cf. Dhamma-saṅgāṇi, section 1229). The word has been rendered as "passion", "sin", "lust", "les corruptions de mal", etc. (Pāli: kilesa, klesa, sāṅkiliṣṭa).

31 traiḥāṭaka. L. Feer translates, "sous les trois formes." But the word refers to the three worlds.

32 vaśi-candana. L. Feer translates, "froid comme le sandal"; but perhaps the word vaśī corresponds to Pāli vaśīta, and the idea of "fragrance" seems more appropriate than that of "coldness", or both ideas may be combined; "cold like fragrant sandal-wood". E. Burnouf’s interpretation is probably correct: "the sandal-tree and the axe that cuts it down" (aśīf). An arhat sees no difference between them. This is a third simile.

33 Upenḍra. L. Feer translates "Indra, premier et second." But I have followed Monier Williams’s Sanskrit Dictionary.

34 Sad. Pa., 80, ll. 6, 9; 81.1.

35 Pr. Pā. Čāta., 122.10; 130.3 ff.

36 anupadhi-ṛṣita-niśāpa. See note 26 above (Chap. I).

37 M. S. Al., 115.7 ff.

38 M. S. Al., 53.4.

39 M. S. Al., 53.3.

40 B.C. Avā., vii, 29; iv, 7; ix, 49; viii, 145. Bo. Bhā.,
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fol. 96.2 ff. Pr. Pā. Čata., 122, 282, 485. M. S. Al., 40, 98, 168, 171. Čikā, 61.6, 66.11, 50.13. Sad. Pu., 276.8, 129.9, 47.3, etc.
41 Lka., 66.6.
42 Su. Fy., 15.10 ff.
43 Pr. Pā. Āsta., 375.14 ff.
44 Čikā, 14.8.
46 B. C. Ava., vii, 18.
48 Mtu., i, 239.18; Pr. Pā. Čata., 91; Da. Bhū., 25, etc.
49 Mtu., i, 63.2; ii, 394.12.
51 Mtu., ii, 341.2, ii, 397.2. Sam. Rā., fol. 1a.1. Lka., 299, verse 261, etc.
56 M. S. Al., 33.
57 Dicy., 127.13; 205.120.
58 Sad. Pu., 308.9.
59 Bo. Bhū., fol. 39b.6 (sarva-tarka-mārga-samātikrāntatvam).
60 Bo. Bhū., 37a.6, and 37b.3 (nirmalam, apratihetam, sarva-jñānam, asanga-jñānam). M. S. Al., 33.14.
61 Bo. Bhū., fol. 37b. 3-3.
62 M. S. Al., 34.3; 35.14.
64 Ava. ca., i, 7.5, etc. Bo. Bhū., fol. 148b.6; 37b.5.1. M. Fy., section 11.

These three Fields of Mindfulness are defined as follows:

Impartiality or same mental attitude ( sama-cittatā ) towards those who wish to hear or learn, those who do not wish to hear or learn, and those who partake of both characteristics ( suṣṭha-samānaya-, etc.). Cf. Sutta-

nipāta, 383, p. 67. The words may mean "obedient", "disobedient".
67 Ava. ca., i, 7.5. M. S. Al., 186. Csoma, p. 5. Cf. Aṅguttara,
v, 33.7 ff. Majjhima, i, 69 ff.
68 Sthān-āsthāna (Pāli: śānātthāna). This term has been interpreted
in several ways. Csoma de Körös (p. 5) and Nyānatiloka ( Aṅguttara tr.,
vol. v, 282) translate: "what is possible or impossible". D. T. Suzuki
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renders it as "right and wrong". T. W. Rhys Davids, C. A. F. Rhys Davids and Lord Chalmers are of opinion that it refers to the knowledge of specific causal relations. ("Dialogues," iii, 205; Dharmasaṅgāti tr., p. 323; Majjh. tr., i, 46.) P. Oltramare translates: "Il sait ce qui est comme étant, ce qui n'est pas comme n'étant pas" ("La Théosophie Bouddhique," p. 241). S. Hardy explains the term as meaning "the wisdom that understands what knowledge is necessary for the right fulfilment of any particular duty, in whatsoever situation." ("Manual," p. 394). F. Max Müller translates: "Knowledge of admissible and inadmissible propositions" (Dh. 8, p. 51). Silācāra translates: "understands according to truth and fact the true and the false" (Majjh. tr., p. 67).

65 Adhīmukti (Tibetan: mo-pa-sna-tsiogs). Csoma de Körös and D. T. Suzuki read vimukti ("liberation"). But the Tibetan equivalent shows that this is a wrong reading.

66 Dāhutu. See note 7 (Chap. I).

67 The M. V. has indriya-varāvara. But the Dh. 8. and the Pr. Pā. Čata. read indriya-parāpara. which is confirmed by the Pāli text, "indriya paripariyattam" (Anguttara, v, 34). The Tibetan equivalent is mchog-dan-mchog-mu, but mchog corresponds to both Skt. parama and sara (Tib. Dicy., Das, p. 436). Csoma de Körös translates: "the power of knowing what is and what is not the chief organ." Lord Chalmers renders indriya as "hearts".

68 Sarvātṛa-gāminī pratipad. The Pāli text has sahaṭṭha-gāminīpatipadā. (which perhaps points to a possible Sanskrit reading sarvārthina instead of sarvāttra). Csoma de Körös translates: "the power of knowing all the ways of transmigration." F. Max Müller also accepts the alternative reading sarvārthina ("leads to all the highest objects"). Nyānatilokā translates: "Jedweden Ausgang" (= sarvāttra). Lord Chalmers thinks that it means "the future to which every course leads" (Majjh. tr., i, 47). Silācāra renders it as "the way that leads to all states" (Majjh. tr., 67). The Tibetan text has thams-cad-du-hgro-ba (= "going everywhere", Tib. Dicy., Das, p. 300). This shows that sarvārthi-gāminī was not accepted by the Tibetan translators.

69 The Pāli text makes it clear that the compound should be divided in this way: sarva-dhyāna-vimokṣa-samādhi-samāpattināṁ tathārga-eyovadāna-eyovibhā. Lord Chalmers translates eyovadāna as "specific stage" and renders samāpattināṁ as "achievements of Ecstasy, etc." (Majjh. tr., i, 47). But eyovadāna (Pāli: vedāna) means "purification". Silācāra translates eyovibhā (Pāli: vibhā) as "manly endeavour" (without citing any authority), and renders samāpattināṁ as "those aiming at ecstasy", etc. But samāpatti always denotes the four Attainments leading to the formless, non-material worlds (ārūpya-samāpattayāk). Csoma de Körös translates: "Liberation from the
miseries of vice and all sorts of theories” (which is really very wide of
the mark).

71 Cf. Majjhima, i, 71. Aṅguttara, ii, 9.
72 Csoma, p. 249. U. Wogihara, Bo. Bbū., p. 42. M. Walleser,
Pr. Pā. tr., p. 72. S. Lévi, M. S. Al., tr., pp. 13, 303. D. T. Suzuki,
Avu.-ca. tr., p. 12, etc. For viñārada and viñāradya, cf. Sam. Rā.,
fol. 112a.6. Mtu., i, 39.13; iii, 386.14. Lal. V., 403.1,
Avu.-ca., i, 7.5. Su. Vy., 40.1. Cikīd, 351.7. The Dh. S. omits
the third viñāradya
73 M. Vy., p. 10. M. S. Al., tr., p. 27.
74 M. S. Al. tr., p. 27.
75 dhammāḥ. Lord Chalmers translates, “mental states” (Majjh.
tr., i, 48). But this rendering does not suit the context. Silācāra
translates more correctly, “things” (Majjh. tr., p. 68).
76 Csoma de Körös interprets the third viñāradya thus: “Boldness
to teach or prophesy with certainty the immutability of the immanent
virtues” (p. 249). But the Pāli text does not support this rendering.
77 E. Burnouf, Int., p. 150, note. Nyānatiloka says: “Das
Wort ist wahrscheinlich auf sven (gehen) zurückzuführen” (Aṅguttara
tr., vol. v, p. 530).
i, 223.
79 Pāli Dicy., s.v.
80 E. Burnouf, Int., p. 150, note.
81 For the āvenika-dhammas, see M. Vy., section 9. Dicy., 148.
82 nāti ravitam. The Pr. Pā. Čaṭa., has the incorrect reading,
caritam. The Tibetan equivalent is ca-co-med-pa, and S. C. Das translates:
“free from noise or chatter, without fuss”. D. T. Suzuki renders
the phrase as “faultless in his speeches” (“Outlines,” p. 327); but this
is a different idea altogether. H. Jäschke gives the rendering: “not
loquacious or talkative” (Tib. Dicy., 138).
83 D. T. Suzuki translates: “He knows everything, yet he is calmly
resigned.” The Pāli word appatissanakkhā means “want of judgment”
(Dhamma-saṅgani, section 1346, p. 231, “idhekaccu appatissanakkhā
ayyitthā sāhāram sāhārtri”). (Pāli Dicy., s.v.) Csoma de Körös translates:
“no indifference for any undiscussed things.” But it is best to follow
the Pāli text.
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84. The M. Vy. omits vimukti-jñāna-darṣana, and the Dh. S. omits anāgata-dhvani ("knowledge of the future"). The Pr. Pā. Čata. includes both these items in its list, and gives nineteen dharmas instead of eighteen! D. T. Suzuki arbitrarily omits samādhi and includes vimukti-jñāna-darṣana ("Outlines," p. 327). The M. Vy. has hāniḥ, but the Dh. S., the M. S. Al., and the Pr. Pā. Čata. give the reading parihiṇiḥ, which seems to be more correct.

85. Aśvagām apratihatam jñāna-darṣanam. P. Oltramare translates: "la connaissance intuitive et sans limitation" ("Bouddhique," p. 241). Csoma de Korás renders the Tibetan text thus: "occupied with the contemplation of the wisdom which has been neither attracted nor hindered by the time that has hitherto elapsed." But this cannot be the correct interpretation according to the Sanskrit text.

86. Čara. Literally, "motion, walking, doing, behaviour, action, process" (from car, carati). (Pāli Dicy.)


89. M. Vy., section 10.

90. Kathā-vatthu, xviii, 3, p. 561 (n'āthi Buddhassa Bhagavato karanātā).


96. M. S. Al., 48. Pr. Pā. Čata., 73.17. Mtu., i, 57, etc.


98. Mtu., i, 61.10 ff.


100. Sād. Pu., 144 ff.

101. Dīgha, i, 46.

102. Mūlima, 95 ff. "tito sampattiyo paṭilabhanti."

103. Mtu., iii, 226.


105. Sād. Pu., 249.

106. Su. Pr., fol. 52, 1 ff. (na tu cākṣa-muner āyuh cākṣaṁ gacayitum).

107. Mtu., i, 158.11.


L. de la Vallée Poussin (JRAS. 1906, p. 360) has compared the Buddha’s bodies to Kṛṣṇa’s ordinary and glorified bodies (Bhagavadgītā). But it is not proper to mix up the Buddhist notions of upāya-kaññalya and nirvāṇa with the entirely different Hindu doctrine of avatāra (Incarnation).

Su. Pr., fol. 6a ff., “anasti-rudhira-kāye kuto dhātur bhaviṣyatī... dharma-kāya hi sambuddhā dharma-dhātu tathāgataḥ” (fol. 7a. 4).

Sam. Rā., fol. 95b.4, “na rūpa-kāyatāt tathāgataḥ prajñātavyaḥ... dharma-kāya-prabhāvītāḥ ca buddhā bhagavanto,” etc.

Pr. Pā. Cūta, 1211.4.
Divy., 396.28. 158.23. Cikā., 159.7.
Sam. Rā., fol. 95b.4.
M. S. Al., 77.13 ff.
M. S. Al., 48.11. 83.2.
M. S. Al., 49.14.
M. S. Al., 93.1.
M. S. Al., 49.1, 188.6.
Da. Bhū., 83.
Samyutta, iii, 120 (Yo kho Vakkali dhammāṇa passati va maṃ passati). Itivuttaka, p. 91 (dhammāṃ passanto maṃ passati).
Vinaya, i, 14 (cha loke arahanto hosti).
Majjh., i, 482 (na me te vutta-vadiso, etc.).
Vinaya, i, 16 (yathā setthi... yasam kula-pattam na pasessya).
Vinaya, i, 24 ff. (yena Uruvelā tad avatari, etc.).
Anguttara, ii, 38–39 (na kho aham brāhmaṇa manuso-bhaviṣyāmi; Buddha ti maṃ brāhmaṇa dāreñhitī).
Majjh., iii, 15 (anuppannasassajaggassa uppādetā).
Majjh., i, 142, ll. 7–8.
Dīgha, ii, 133 (chavi-vaggo pariyođāto).
Mahāpadāna-sutta (Dīgha, ii, 15). Majjhima, ii, 222 ff.
Mahāparinibbāna-sutta (Dīgha, ii, 103) (kappam od tilthreyya, etc.).
Majjh., ii, 143 (Brahmāyu-sutta, ll. 20–1).
Kathā-sutta, xviii, 1–2 (pp. 559, 561); ii, 10 (pp. 221 ff.) (vohāra-kathā).
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142 Sankheda, iii, 119 ff. (p. 124).
144 R. H. Thouless, "An Introduction to the Psychology of Religion," pp. 136 ff. (Cambridge, 1923). A. G. Tansley, "The New Psychology," p. 88 (London, 1921). "Extroversion is the thrusting out of the mind on to life, the use of the mind in practical life, the pouring out of the libido on external objects. Introversion, on the other hand, is the turning in of the mind upon itself, involving a withdrawal from the external world and the cultivation of an internal mental life."
CHAPTER II

Notes

1. S. Kimura, "Study," pp. 59, 60. "Historically, it must be said that Buddha preached his phenomenological doctrines in an exoteric form to the people and his ontological doctrines in the esoteric form were reserved only for advanced or brilliant men."

2. Dīgha, ii, 100.3. Sāmīyutta, v, 153.18 (Satt-paṭṭhāna Sāmīyutta, "na satthā Ananda Tathāgataṁ dharmena śaṅkīya-muñthi.").


6. Ibid., p. 51.


10. On saddhā, cf. Majjhima, i, 142.8. Dhammapada, 333, "sukhā saddhā patiṣṭhitā," Majjhima, i, 356.2 (Sekha-sutta). Majjhima, i, 478.29 (saddhā-vimutta) (Kiṭāgiri-sutta). Majjhima, ii, 176.21 (Gaṅgī-сутa; "saddhā-bahukārā"). Aṇguttara, iii, 4, ll. 3, 11; iii, 352.20 (Dhammika-vagga). Dīgha, iii, 239.15; iii, 227.7; iii, 237.5 ff.; iii, 238.2; iii, 113.16 (Sampasādaniya-sutta). Sutta-nipāta, 182, 184 (pp. 32, 33), "Saddh’ idha vittam purissasā setṭham; Saddhāya tarati ogham." Dīgha, ii, 217.19 (Jana-vasabhā-sutta: "Buddhe upasa-ppasādena samannāgatā"). Dhammasaṅgāni, section 12, "saddhā skappanā abhippasāde."


13. On the deva, cf. Majjhima, i, 251 ff. (Cūla-taṅha-saṅkhaya-sutta: Sakka receives instruction). Majjhima, ii, 130.18 (Kappakathā-sutta: Some devas must be reborn on earth). Majjhima, i, 73 (Mahā-sīka-nāda-sutta: the devas need nirvāṇa). Dīgha, iii, 218 (Sāṅgīti-sutta: The devas are not free from sense-desires). Dīgha, iii, 28 (Pāṭika-sutta: Brahmas is not the creator of the universe). Dīgha, ii, 263 ff. (Sakka-pañha-sutta: Sakka does homage at Buddha’s feet, p. 269; the devas desire happiness). Dīgha, ii, 208 (Jana-vasabhā-sutta: The devas honour Buddha). Aṇguttara, i, 144 (Sakka is subject to death and rebirth, and is not free from desire, hatred and...
delusion). Samyutta, i, 219 (Sakka is not free from anxiety; Sakka-samyutta).

14 Digha, ii, 259 (Mahāsamaṇḍa-sutta).
16 Sād. Pu., 89.11, 90.2, 229.11.
17 Su. Py., 18, 19.
18 The five ānātārayāṇi are sins, which are immediately followed by retribution and punishment. These are: (1) parricide, (2) matricide, (3) murder of an archa, (4) causing a schism in the Confraternity, and (5) maliciously wounding a Buddha. (Dh. S., section 13. M. Py., section 122. Mtn., i, 244. SBE., vol. xlix, pt. ii, p. 197.
21 ERE. xi, pp. 63, 68.
Kar. Pu., 2.1.
27 Between 305 and 207 B.C. ("Camb. Ind.", i, 172).
28 J. W. McCrindle, "India," p. 201, ll. 1-3.
29 Cf. S. Sorensen, "An Index to the Names in the Mahābhārata."
20 P. 203 (London, 1904).
31 J. M. McCrindle, "India," p. 200, ll. 5 ff.
32 "Camb. Ind.," i, 225.
33 Ibid., p. 518.
34 Ibid., p. 335. P. V. N. Myers, "General History," p. 61 (Boston, 1919).
39 It has been suggested that this epithet only refers to the descent of the Cākya family from the sun. Even if this were so, it would show that the solar myth had already influenced genealogy. Mura is called
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Kṣema-bandhu. So it is probable that aditya-bandhu did not refer only to Gautama Buddha's ancestry. (Cf. E. J. Thomas, "Buddha," p. 217.)

42 H. G. Rawlinson, "Intercourse," p. 163.
48 Eusebius, "History," p. 178, ll. 5 ff. ("he advanced even as far as India").
50 JRAS. 1911, p. 800.
51 V. A. Smith, "Asoka," p. 43.
54 E. W. Hopkins, "India," pp. 152–62. "The parallels here given are almost too close in thought as in diction to have sprung from two independent sources" (p. 157). "Buddhism borrowed from Hinduism, Hinduism in turn from Buddhism, and both probably from Christianity" (p. 161). F. Lorinser, Gītā, pp. 267 ff. "Die Lehren der Bhagavad-gītā... mit aus dem Christentum herübergewachsenen Ideen und Sentenzen zum mindesten stark versetzt sind." "Der Verfasser der Bhagavad-gītā auch Einsicht in die Schriften des Neuen Testamentes genommen."
55 Cf. note No. 52 above.
57 Majjhima, i, 17.6; i, 114.24; i, 163.9.
58 Kathā-vatthu, xxiii, 3, p. 623; iv, 7, 8, pp. 283–90.
NOTES TO CHAPTER II

333

40 M. Pā., sections 26, 28, 29.
42 Cīkṣā, 286.
Kar. Pā., 104. 19.
45 Cīkṣā, 14.
46 Dā. S., section 12.
(New Haven, 1923).
51 E. J. Thomas, JRAS. 1929, p. 359.
54 JRAS. 1915, p. 403; 1906, p. 464.
CHAPTER III

Notes

1 Da. Bhū., II.
3 Bo. Bhū., fol. 120a ff.
4 M. V., section 61.
5 B.C. Ava., Canto II. Cikāṭa., 58, 290.
7 Abhagutta, iv., 373, II. 7 ff.; v., 23, II. 7 ff.
8 Majjhima, iii., 256, II. 7 ff.
9 Puggala, 12, II. 30 ff.
14 The details in this sentence are given on the authority of L. de la Vallée Poussin, "Le Muséon," 1905, p. 4.
16 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4a.1.2 (anumātreṣṣo-avadyaṃ bhaya-yuṣ).
17 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4a.2.1 (kalaha-bhandana-vigraha-vivādeṣu).
18 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4a.2.1 (akryāt).
19 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4a.3.2 (ārdra-cittakāh, bhadrātā, satya-gurukāḥ).
20 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4a.4.1 (guna-priyāḥ).
21 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4a.5.1.2 (paṃśam anikṣād apakāraṃ labhottva nāgghatā-cittaidāṃ prāvāyakuti).
22 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4a.7.2 (prakṛtyā utthānavāṃ bhaveya... abhībhūṣ-ākāruṇkāmatāṃ āśrayam pratīśākkhyāya pravutteye).
23 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4a.8.2-3 (dṛṣṭha-niṣcayo, bhogānām urjane rakṣaste).
24 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4b.1.2 (nāpy-ātmānaṃ paribhavati; nāthyartham khedam āpadyate).
25 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4b.3.2 (ṣukham vata naṣṭhram yam; uravyavasana-praithānāṃ).
26 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4b.4.1 (prakṛtya mando-kilo mando-nivaroyo mando-daunūhāyakah).
27 Bo. Bhū., fol. 4b.4.2 (pāpakā aund-vitarākāḥ).
NOTES TO CHAPTER III

335

"Bo. Bhū., fol. 120b. 3. 1.
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 120b. 4. 1.
"M. S. Al., 11. 19.
"M. S. Al., 11. 14.
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 5b. 2. (kloš-ābhayaśu itvā-keśata āyatanā-keśata ca).
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 5b. 2. 1-2 (mūḍhyā-sūkṣmatāya pāṭa-mitra-

tamśrayaḥ).
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 5b. 2. 2-3 (rājā-caura-pratyrthik-ādy-abhibhūtārya-

āvātantrīrayaḥ; citta-vibhrama[ca].
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 5b. 2. 3. 1. M. S. Al., 11. 25 (upakaraṇa-vihalasya-

ājīvika-gəpeki)"

"Bo. Bhū., fol. 5b. 3. 3. 4. 2. 5. 1 (adita eva aviparita-bodhi-

mārgu-daisikam mitram; na citil[a-prayoga kusīdō).
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 5a. 5. 2 (ācā parimucye)(tā)
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 5a. 5. 3 (na ca tathā itvām apiyikām duṣkha-

vedanāṁ vedayate).
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 5a. 6. 3 (kārunya-cittam pratilabhate).
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 5a. 2. 3. 3. 1. 3. 2 (bhūḍram kalpyam

ṣūla-pakṣya ...

iṣām-śaṅkātā; cṛṣṭhāsyā-dīnyāyā-śaṅkalat-

āṣuktāraya tathāgatāya pada)"

"M. S. Al., 11. 19.
"M. S. Al., 127. 18.
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 120b. 7. 2. 6. 3.
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 121a. 1. 1.
"Bo. Bhū., fol. 121b. 3. 3. 121b. 4. 1.
"Dh. 8., section 14. B.C. Āe., Canto ii. Čikā, 161, 169, 313.
"B.C. Āe., ii, 24. The word, which is translated as "atom",

is avu. This is a very small measure of length. A yojana is equal to

about 7 miles (as much as can be travelled with one yoke of oxen), and

it contains 79 × 384 000 avu. (Lal. V., 149; W. Kirfel, "Kosmologie",

p. 335.)
"B.C. Āe., ii, 26, 48, 49. Cf. Dīgha, i, 85, l. 13. Khaddaka-

pāth, p. 1. Ābhutta, i, 56, ll. 8-9. Triratna may also be rendered

as "Trīṣa Jewel", but the Dh. 8. speaks of trīṣa rataṃni.
"Avā-ya., i, 301. 4; and passim.
"B.C. Āe., ii, 28 ff. Paññā. This reading is supported by the

B.C. Āe. Pk., which adds the comment: "mohā-bhāvatām ātmano
darçvaidi" (shows his own excessive folly). (p. 59.)
"B.C. Āe., ii, 33 ff.
"Rgveda, vii, 86 (vol. iv, pp. 212 ff.) (kimāya āya Varuṇa ...

pra tan me voco ... etc.). Bhāgavat-gītā, xi, 42, 44, 45 (prāśita
deva[ja jagaṇ-nivāsa, etc. pp. 166, 167, Anandaśrama Series, 1908).
"Dīgha, i, 85. Cf. Samaṃutta, iv, 317 ff. (Gāmini-samaṃutta, 

section 8). Majhima, i, 440.
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58 B.C. Ava., iii, 1-3.
57 B.C. Ava., iii, 4-5.
58 Dh. S., section 14.
59 The two words “pains and sorrows” in the translation stand for only one word in the original, dukkha. B.C. Ava., iii, 6 ff.
60 L. de la Vallée Poussin translates: “tant qu’il y aura des maladies” (B.C. Ava. tr., p. 18). The text is: “yāvad rāgā-sūna-r-bhavaḥ” (iii, 7).
61 L. de la Vallée Poussin renders eyathā as “le feu”. But it is preferable to translate literally.
63 Satkrama. Böhtlingk and Roth cite several passages from the Rāmāyana, in which it means “Brücke, Steg über ein Wasser”. The B.C. Ava. Pka. gives no explanation.
66 Lka., p. 46, verse 106; p. 158, verse 38.
NOTES TO CHAPTER III

* Lal. V., 173. 1 ff. 
* Jā. Mā., 226. 23. 
  Kṣemendra, 1, 615. 34. 
* Ibid., 227. 3. 
* Ibid., 227. 5. 
* Ibid., 227. 8. 
* Dīvy., 27, 100, 486. 
* Jā. Mā., 228. 10. 
* Ibid., 228. 14 ff., 231. 1. 
* Ibid., 226. 17, 226. 24, 231. 3. 
* Čākṣ. 287., 14. 
* Ibid., 228. 1-5. 
* Ibid., 8. 12, 288. 6. 
* Ibid., 288. 8. 
* Ibid., 288. 11, 289. 1. 
* Ibid., 98b. 2-2, 3-3. 
* Ibid., 7a. 4-2. 
* Ibid., 7b. 3-3, 98b. 3-1. 

90 These are the five kṣāyās, which are signs of degeneracy. A Buddha is born to counteract them. Cf. Kar. Pu., 16; Su. Vy., 99; Sād. Pu., 43; Lal. V., 248. 13; Čākṣ. 60; M. Vy., section 124; Dh. S., section 91, etc. The Pāli word may literally mean “an astringent decoction of a plant”; it means “astringent” when applied to taste, and “pungent” when applied to smell (Pināya, i, 277, l. 4-5: “nipācī ksatāva-vannam ksatā-gandham ksatāva-rasam”). The old Pāli form is ksatāva (Pāli Dīcy., s.v.). Böhtlingk and Roth cite several passages from Suṃruta, in which it means “a decoction”. But it is difficult to understand the transition from this meaning to the figurative sense, “evils, fundamental faults, calamities”. The Tibetan equivalent is sthīg-ma, which means “sediment, impurity or defilement in food; impurity” (Tib. Dīcy., 501). The Chinese equivalent means “mud” (M. S. Al. tr., p. 78). Böhtlingk and Roth also cite several passages, in which kṣāyā signifies “sediment, impurity” (e.g. Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vii, 26. 2, p. 435: “tasmai mṛdito-kṣāyāya tamaṇaḥ paraḥ dārcyayati bhagavān”). It is probable that the Buddhist technical term is related to kṣāyā in this sense (and not to the meaning “decoction”). It has been rendered as “calamities”, “les cinq fanges,” “les dégénerescences,” “attachments,” “depravities,” etc. (ERE. i, 189b, etc.). The five kṣāyās are enumerated as āyuḥ-kṣāyā, ḍṛṣṭi-, kleśa-, satīva-, kalpa-. These five show signs of degeneracy. The Jainas employ this term in the sense of “sin”, “passion,” and reckon four kṣāyās: kruḍha “anger”, māna “pride”, māyā “deception or illusion”, and lobha “avarice”. (J. Jaini, “Outlines,” p. 94). Cf. Uttarādhyayanasūtra, 31. 6 “vighāhā kṣāyā tannāgam” (p. 216).
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Da. Bhā., 11.13, etc.
82 B.C. Ava., iii, 22.23.
83 Bo. Bhā., fol. 6a, 2.2 to 3.1.
84 Bo. Bhā., fol. 6a, 4.1.
85 B.C. Ava., i, 35.
86 Dā. S., section 15.
88 Pr. Pā. Āṣṭa., 437.
89 Čikṣā, 9.7, 10.5.
90 Mtu., i, 104, 2.
91 Bo. Bhā., fol. 6a, 5.2.
92 Mtu., ii, 368.5 ff.
93 Mtu., i, 46, 97.
94 Mtu., i, 83.
95 Bo. Bhā., fol. 90b, 2.3, 3.1.
97 Bo. Bhā., fol. 9b, 3.1, 4.1, 5.1. Yuktā: "name of certain mythical beings or demi-gods, who are attendants on Kuvera, the god of wealth, and employed in the care of his garden and treasures... they correspond to the genii or fairies of the fairy-tales... Historically, they are remnants of an ancient demonology" (Pāli Dicy.).
98 Bo. Bhā., fol. 10a, 1.2.
99 Bo. Bhā., fol. 8a, 6.2 to 8b, 2.3.
100 Bo. Bhā., fol. 6a, 4.2 (parama-bhadra parama-kalyāṇa).
101 B.C. Ava., i, 10; iii, 27 ff. M. S. Al., 16.
102 Bo. Bhā., fol. 6b, 4.2.
103 Bo. Bhā., fol. 6b, 5.1.
104 Čikṣā, 8.15. B.C. Ava., i, 15.
105 Bo. Bhā., fol. 6b, 6; 7a, 2.
106 Bo. Bhā., fol. 7a, 2.1.
107 Čikṣā, 6, 8.
108 M. S. Al., 15.2. Bo. Bhā., fol. 7b, 2.3. Ava.-āsa, i, 211.5.
Pr. Pā. Āṣṭa., 396.5.
110 Bo. Bhā., fol. 7b, 4.2, 5.1, 5.3.
111 Sam. Rā., fol. 112b, l. 1.
112 Pr. Pā. Āṣṭa., 937 ff.
115 B.C. Ava., v, 102 ff.
116 Bo. Bhā., fol. 8a, l. 4, section 3.
117 Ibid., fol. 8a, 5.1.
118 Ibid., fol. 8a, 5.2.
119 Ibid., fol. 8a, 5.3.
NOTES TO CHAPTER III

120 *Bo. Bhū.* fol. 88, 6.1.
121 *Bo. Bhū.* fol. 94, ll. 1, 2, 3.
122 B.C. Ava., iv, 4.
123 B.C. Ava., iii, 25 ff.
124 B.C. Ava., iv, 12.
125 Pr. Pā. Aṭṭa., 328, 1 ff.
126 Cikāśa, 67-15.
129 JA, 1881, p. 476, ll. 5-7.
130 M. S. Al., 147-25.
131 Da. S., section 112.
133 Ava-śa, i, 4, 1; i, 10, 1, etc.
134 Lal. V, 161, 19, 163, 16, 175, 13, 361, 3 ff., 167, 14, 399, 17.
144 1-4
146 Samyakāvā (Pali: sammatta). It is one of the three rāsīs of Pāli literature. In the Abhidhamma literature, three rāsīs ("accumulations") are spoken of, viz.: micchatta-niyato rāsi, sammatta-niyato rāsi, and aniyato rāsi ("wrong-doing entailing immutable evil results"; "well-doing entailing immutable good results"; and "everything not so determined"). (Pali Dicy.) (Cf. Bo. Bhū., 84b, 4.)
Kathāvatthu, xxi, 8, p. 611 ("sabbe kammā niyata ti," etc.)
147 Su. Vī., 11-21.
149 W. H. D. Rouse translates "place" (Cikāśa, tr., p. 266, 11), but bhūmi in Buddhist Sanskrit means "stage" (of a bodhisattva's career).
150 W. H. D. Rouse translates "animal world"; but sattva means "living being".
151 Kṣemendra, ii, 667, 93, 159, 26, 107, 52, etc.
152 M. Vī., sections 34, 26, 27.
154 vidyā-ācaraṇa-ācāraṇa. This phrase may also be translated "endowed with knowledge and good conduct". Lord Chalmers translates rather freely: "walking by knowledge" (Majjh. tr., i, 45). anuttarā. This word should be construed with the following phrase. The M. Vī. puts them together (section 1, p. 2a). Some scholars take anuttarāh as a separate epithet.
155 Ava-śa, i, 7, 2 ff.; i, 12, 16 ff., etc.
156 M. S. Al., 166, 3.
157 Dīcy., 150, 18.
158 Pr. Pā. Aṭṭa., 212.
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185 Ksiemendra, ii, 259. 32.
186 Ava-ta, i, 186; i, 191. 11.
187 Ksiemendra, ii, 975, 677, 717.
188 On the five gatti, see Divy., 124. 15; Saund. Kā, xi, 62; Ava-ta, i, 16. 12; Kar. Pu., 67. 1; B.C. Ava. Pkh., 589. 15, etc.
189 Pretat. They are not merely "ghosts of the dead" as A. B. Keith assumes ("Indian Mythology," p. 203. Boston, 1917); they are a special class of beings, born in a state of woe.
190 On the six gatti and the asurat, see Lka., 347; Mtu., i, 30; Cikā, 253; Divy., 394. 10; Chiya-lekha, 99; Kā. Vī, 16. 3; Da. Bāh., 62. 9; Ava-ta, i, 215. 5, etc.
191 Cf. Catapatha-Brāhmaṇa, ii, 3. 3. 9 ("iva val punar-mṛtyum nucyaete, p. 94); x, 1. 4. 14 (p. 510) "yajanāṇah punar-mṛtyum apojyati, etc." (Vedic Press, Ajmer, sanāvat 1959.)
192 ERE, xii, 4346.
194 Skandha (Pāli: Khandha). This word is derived from the root skand "to rise," and literally means "shoulder," "upper part of the back;" hence "trunk" of a tree, "bulk or mass in general," "harp," "ingredients or parts," "constituent elements," "sensory aggregates." It has also been translated as "les épaules," "les appuis," "les troncs," "supports," "Daseinselemente," "les Branches," etc.
195 Mtu., iii, 335.
NOTES TO CHAPTER III

180 R. O. Franke, Dīgha, p. 311.
182 Sāṃyutta, iii, 87, ll. 8 ff. (khandha-sāṃyutta).
183 Dīgha, iii, 217. Sāṃyutta, ii, 82, ll. 9 ff.
184 Dhamma-saṅgani, section 62, p. 18.
185 Abhidharma-kośa, i, 15a (vol. i, p. 28).
186 M. Vī., section 104.
187 Milinda, p. 61, l. 20.
188 Th. Stecherbatsky, "Conception," p. 20.
190 Dhamma-saṅgani, section 63.
191 Abhidharma-kośa, i, 16a (vol. i, pp. 30–1)
193 Lñ., 68. Pr. Pā. Čata., 1509. Saund. Kā., xviii, 15, etc.
197 Ava., ix, 78.
198 Lñ., 253. Āva.-ṣa, i, 85, 10; i, 202, 12; ii, 75, 11. Da.
200 B.C. Ava., ix, 78 ff.
201 Pr. Pā. Āṣṭa., 431, 2.
203 M. Vī., section 209.
204 Kṛṣṇendrā, i, 659, 53. Jā. Mā., passim.
205 Da. Bhā., 35. Lal. F., 345, etc.
207 Mundaka Up., i, 1, 6, etc.
208 St. John, iv, 24.
209 Dīgha, ii, 63, 2 ff.
210 Sāṃyutta, i, 122, 10 ff.; i, 124, 9 ff.
212 Mtu., i, 2; i, 46.
214 Cf. Thēra-gāthā, verse 112, p. 16; verse 115, p. 16; verse 493,
216 Āva.-ṣa, ii, 71, 7; ii, 17, 9.
217 Āva.-ṣa, i, 128, 61; i, 133, 101; i, 162, 4.
218 Da. Bhā., 46, 54. Sad. Pu., 207, 10. 263, 10. 312, 1. Lal. F.,
221 M. S. Al., 33. Pr. Pā. Āṣṭa., 518, 12.
222 Çikīñ, 97, 12. M. Vī., section 249.
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138a, 4.1.
M. Fy., section 249.
214 Abhidharma-kośa, iii, 89d-93c, pp. 181 ff. Ariyagutta, ii, 143,
section 156.
215 Miu., i, 77.
CHAPTER IV

Notes

1 Nettipakarana, xxxi. The adjective bodhipakkhiya is applied to the five balas in Sāmyutta, v, 227, and to the seven bojjhanga in Vibhaṅga, 249.
2 Ibid., p. 112.
5 Divy., 207, 208.
6 SBE. x, pt. i, p. 27.
7 Dīgha, ii, 290. Majjh., i, 55 ff.
8 "Dialogues," ii, 324.
11 Lal. V., 34.15.
12 Lal. V., 239.2.
13 Lal. V., 434.16.
15 Lal. V., 273.5.
16 Lal. V., 8.2.
17 Lal. V., 373.4.
18 Pr. Pā. Aṣṭā., 326.7.
19 M. S. Al., 172.22.
21 Da. Bhū., 8.6; 42.15; 44.18.
23 Kar. Pu., 104.
25 Ibid., xiii, 30.
26 Ibid., xvi, 33.
27 Çikīṭā, 356.9.
28 Sam. Rā., fol. 86a, 3.
29 viśameṣu caran. E. H. Johnston suggests several explanations: "On uneven ground," and "among the viśamās (rāga, dveṣa, moha)."
30 But viśayetu might possibly remain, as the blind man without a guide knocks against things as he walks" (Saund. Kā., p. 157).
31 B.C. Ava., v, 108. Ava.-ya., i, 244.10. Sam. Rā., fol. 7b.4.
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30 Viṣṇu-pāda is translated as "mistakes" by L. de la Vallée-Poussin, "Nirvāṇa," p. 152.
32 Lal. V., 33.11.
34 Dīvy., 39.11.
35 Čikā, 81.15.
36 Kṣemendra, ii, 573-32.
37 Pr. Pā. Catā., 1431. Čikā, 228, 209.
Two other elements are sometimes mentioned, viz. ākāśa (ether, space) and viṣṇāna (mentality).
Note.—The word, which is translated as "granaries", is mṛcchri in the Pr. Pā. Catā., and mūṣṭi in the Čikā. In Pāli, it is mūḍa (Dīgha, ii, 293). The Tibetan equivalent is rvaṣma, which means "store-room" (Tib. Dīcy., 463a). It has also been translated as "sample-bag", "sack", "bundle", "provision-bag." It has been interpreted as a distortion of Pāli pūṭosa (see Pāli Dīcy., a.v.). But the Tibetan Dīcy. gives a better meaning.
41 Čikā, 229.
Note.—Ākāśa. This word is derived from kāṣ, literally "shining forth", "illuminated space". It has also been incorrectly explained as a derivative of kṛṣ. It is usually translated as "space" or "ether". But it is better not to translate it.
42 Čikā, 229.
44 Saund. Kā., ix, 6, 29. Čikā, 77.11.
46 Kṣemendra, ii, 211.96.
47 Ibid., i, 959.59.
48 Saund. Kā., ix, 6, 11.
52 Čikā, 229.11. W. H. D. Rouse translates "despair, thieves", (Čikā, tr., p. 217). But the sins and passions are metaphorically spoken of as "thieves", Cf. B.G. Ava., v, 28 (kśa-taikara-rāngho 'yam).
53 Čikā, 77.12.
54 Saund. Kā., ix, 12, 13.
NOTES TO CHAPTER IV

55 Pipadumaka. Cf. Pāli puḷavaka. The Tibetan equivalent is rnam-par-hous-gshig-pa. Hous means "worm, insect", and gshi seems to mean "residence, abode".
56 B. Cī., Canto iii. Cf. Dīgha, ii, 22.
57 Kṣemendra, i, 689.
58 Dīgha, ii, 295 ff. Maiṣh. iii, 89 ff.
59 J. Jaini, "Outlines" p. 98.
60 Lal. V., 32.21.
61 Čiṣpa-lekhā, verse 88.
62 Bo. Bhā., fol. 46a, 3.2.
63 Kṣemendra, i, 681-77.
64 Bo. Bhā., fol. 82a, 3.1. Çikīḍā, p. 209.6.
65 Çikīḍā, 209.12.
66 Çikīḍā, 230.
67 Lal. V., 263.21.
69 Jā. Mā., 158.7.
72 Dīṣy., 384.5.
73 B.C. Aca., v, 66.
74 Çikīḍā, 277.
75 Ibid., 348-9.
76 Kṣemendra, ii, 939-5.
77 Ibid., i, 43.89.
78 Ibid., i, 165.42.
79 Ibid., i, 29.29; ii, 51.26.
80 Ibid., ii, 1081.174.
81 Sam. Rā., fol. 954-5.
82 Pr. Pā. Čata., 152 ff., 952.
84 ERE, v, 455.
85 Aca.-ça., ii, 192.1 ff.
88 Dhamma-saṅgāti, section 358, p. 73. Dīgha, iii, 221, etc.
89 Cittam praṇghaṇa tanyak pradadhāti. Some scholars translate it as one clause, "fixes and controls his mind." But the Pr. Pā. Čata. gives two clauses (p. 1456), and there is no strong reason why the second clause should be construed with cittā.
90 Nīvaranāni. The five nīvaranas are: (1) Abhidyā or Kāma-cchanda: "covetousness, lust." (2) Vyāpāda: "maleice, ill-will."
(3) Stryāna-middha (Pāli thina-middham): "indolence of mind and body; sloth and torpor". (4) Auddhatya-kaukryam: see note 29, Chap. I. (5) Vicikittā: "doubt." It has also been rendered as "perplexity," "suspense," "a wavering mind," etc. (Dhamma-saṅgani, sections 1153 ff.; M. S. Al., 141; Pr. Pā. Assa., 480.6.)

94. Lal. V., 33.17. M. S. Al., 142.15.

Note.—The following adjectival clauses are sometimes added after the description of each ṛddhipāda: "based upon detachment (viveka), absence of passion (vīrāga), and Cessation, and directed or turned towards renunciation (ēvamārga-parinātā)"); cf. Dīgha, iii, 226.


Six abhijñās are mentioned in the following passages: Sad. Pu., 129.10. M. S. Al., 25, 185. Pr. Pā. Čata., 1636. Kā. V., 60.5. B.C. Ava. Pha., 428.4. Dīvy., 44.25, etc.

96. Cf. Dīgha, iii, 281.
97. Cf. Dīgha, i, 84. Majjh., i, 12, etc.
98. The Bo. Bhū. seems to identify the klesas with the āśravas (fol. 31a, 1-3).
99. Dhamma-saṅgani, section 1229.
100. Dīgha, i, 84. Majjh., ii, 39. Dhamma-saṅgani, sections 1448, 1036.
101. The eight "powers" of Yoge are as follows:—(1) atomization, (2) levitation, (3) magnification, (4) extension, (5) efficacy, the non-obstruction of desire, (6) mastery, (7) sovereignty, (8) the capacity of determining things according to desire. (J. H. Woods, Yoge, p. 278.)
103. Pr. Pā. Čata., 294. The ten directions are North, South, West, East, North-east, East-south, South-west, West-north, Downward (nadir), Upward (zenith).
108. Ibid., fol. 29b.4.1-2.
109. Ibid., fol. 29b.5.1.
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111 M. S. Al., 25.7. Da. Bhū., 70.16.
112 Dīgha, i, 78.1 ff. Sāmyutta, ii, 212.19 ff.

115 Kāyena vaqe vartayati. It may also be rendered: “controls the beings as far as.”
116 L. de la Vallée Poussin translates “verts” (“Le Muséeon,” 1911, p. 156). But the MS. reading is pīta, “yellow.” Cf. Mtu., iii, 115.18 ff.; iii, 410.5 ff. Divy., 161. M. Vī., section 15. Da. Bhū., 35. The items from (b) to (a) are given on the authority of L. de la Vallée Poussin’s article in “Le Muséeon,” 1911, p. 157, as the manuscript is illegible.
118 M. S. Al., 20.12.
119 Ava.-ca., ii, 4.4; i, 3.4.
120 Divy., 150.5.
121 Mtu., ii, 315.12.
122 Bū. Bhū., fol. 66b.6.2.
124 Bū. Bhū., 35b.5.
125 Mtu., iii, 430.13.
127 Sad. Pu., 150.3, 228.5, 313.2. Divy., 150.25.
129 Divy., pp. 144 ff.
130 M. S. Al., 25.6.
132 Mtu., i, 71.1.
133 Ava.-ca., i, 331.12.
135 Ava.-ca., i, 190.5.
137 Ava.-ca., ii, 433; ii, 49.
138 Divy., 201.10.
145 Uttarādhyayana-sūtra: xviii, 5, p. 137, jhayai: kkhaviyaśave;
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xxxiv, 21, p. 243, pāṇcāśāva-ppavatto itihām agutta, ; xxviii, 14, p. 194, pūṣṇam pāṇcāśāvā tuhā.

146 ERE., viii, 17.
149 Bo. Bhū., fol. 31a. 3.1; fol. 31a.2.2.
150 Bo. Bhū., fol. 31a. l. 3, section 2.
151 Bo. Bhū., fol. 31a.3.3.
152 Cf. Dīgha, i, 156. Majjhima, ii, 39, etc.
Pr. Pā. Aṣṭa., 488.11. Maṭh., 388.15. Divy., 37.20. Çikīṭā, 281.9, etc.
154 Mīn., iii, 374.5.
155 Dh. 8., section 24. Pr. Pā. Çata., 671.
156 Divy., 37.29 ff.
158 Lepena. P. E. Foucaux translates “piège.”
159 Gardūla. I have followed P. E. Foucaux’s translation.
160 Paṭāk. P. E. Foucaux translates “matelot”; but the word means “ship.”
161 āuṣṭryante. P. E. Foucaux translates, “dompté.” But the word means “turn round.”
162 ṇādyante. The translation is conjectural.
163 kuṭalārtha. E. B. Cowell translates “the robbers of our happiness and our wealth” (SBE., vol. xlix, p. 112). But it is better to construe thus: “kuṭalam ev-ārthah.”
164 Samudra-nāṣṭram. F. Weller translates from the Tibetan, “die vom Meere umgürte Erde”.
168 Bhāṣṇa-kul-ākula. F. Weller translates from the Tibetan: “die Sinnesfreuden, die an einer Fülle von Schicksalen voll sind.” This seems to suit the context better than E. B. Cowell’s translation: “unsettled as to lot or family.”
169 Anyākāryāḥ. F. Weller states that the Tibetan text corresponds to ananya-kāryāḥ. Čitra. E. B. Cowell translates “rags”; but the
sages are often spoken of as clad in the bark of trees, not in rags. F. Weller translates from the Tibetan: "Baumrinde."

170 tad-trottānām. The Tibetan reading corresponds to "vratānām: "they must lead to the violation of vows."


172 F. Weller translates thus from the Tibetan: "Wenn man sich (ihnen) vereint, nachdem man der Meinung geworden ist, bei Sinnesgenüsten sei geringer Kummer, (so) ist über die Massen keine Sättigung. Wer (möchte) das Gift zu sich nehmen, das den Namen Sinneslust führt, da die Guten (sie) tadeln und (sie) sicher schlecht ist."

173 paripāṇti in E. B. Cowell's text. F. Weller translates from the Tibetan: "Kommt zu leid" (= Skt. pariyāṇti). I have adopted the latter reading.

174 Cf. Lal. V., 325.3.

175 Sārānyān. There is no word in the Tibetan text corresponding to sārānyān (F. Weller).


177 ayatana. The word is derived from the root yam (with a), and literally means "stretch, extent, reach", hence "region", "sphere", etc.

178 F. Weller translates from the Tibetan: "Holzscheit bei der Leichenverbrennung." For such similes, cf. Mt., i, 73.12; ii, 327.3; Lal. V., 329.8. Jā. Mā., 122.9. B.C. Avā, viii, 84, etc.

179 F. Weller translates "die Nächtingal". The Tibetan word does not correspond to sayyā.

180 The Tibetan word corresponds to bhogā (not bhogyā).

181 tanjā. E. B. Cowell translates "name". But tanjā in Buddhist Sanskrit often means "idea, notion.


183 āgurūni. F. Weller's translation, based on the Tibetan text, is evidently incorrect: "schwere und nicht-schwere Gewänder." The parallelism of the verses is lost, and the words yield no proper sense. āgurūni is intended to correspond to sandal-wood in the next line. E. B. Cowell's rendering is preferable: "aloe-wood."


185 Lal. V., 323.21.

186 Mt., ii, 325.20. Lal. V., 324.4.

parikalpa. The past participle parikalpita (of Pali parikkappati) means "inclined, determined, decided, fixed upon".


Ekkaso and ekkasanika, however, often mean "living or sitting alone, one who keeps to himself" (Mil., p. 20).

On Devadatta's proposals, cf. Vinaya iii, 171 (Sanghadisesa, x).

Majjhima, pp. 331–20 ff., 352.2 ff., attharasahi gunehi samopeta bhavana.

Kjærulfsen, i, 881.45; ii, 499.48.

Uttarādhyayana-sūtra, 29.27, p. 203, Tavanam vodānam janayai.


Majjhima, i, 93; ii, 218.

Majjh, ii, 36.2 (Cāra-sakuludāyi sutta).


(Mahā-sīhanāda-sutta).


Lal. V., 250.4, 250.21, 256.15, 251.3, 259.1.
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328 Mtu., ii, 204. 6.
328 Kṣemendra, ii, 39. 122.
328 M. S. Al., 26. 2.

Lk., pp. 1, 309, 359.
327 Dīghā, iii, 253, 283. Dhamma-saṅgāti, sections 58, 95.

Aṅguttara, ii, 141, 142.
328 Dīghā ii, 100, 120.
327 Pāli Dīcy., s.v. indriya.
327 Majjhima, i, 101. 5 ff. (Ceto-khiḷa-sutta). Dīghā, iii, 237. 24 ff.
327 Vide supra, note 10, Chap. II.
327 Āvāsa-ṣaṇḍ, i, 205. 5.
328 Cīkiṭṭā, 316.
328 Lal. V., 392. 17.
328 Lal. V., 400. 19.
328 Mtu., iii, 271. 8, 109. 25.
328 Lal. V., 31. 12.
328 Lal. V., 33. 17.
327 Pr. Pā. Āṭṭā, 386. 8. M. S. Al., 105. 29.
328 Saund. Kā., xii, 37.
328 Mtu., iii, 309. 9.
328 Kṣemendra, i, 1067. 20.
328 Kṣemendra, ii, 861. 1.
328 Cīkiṭṭā, 140. 10.
328 Cīkiṭṭā, 5. 10.
328 Pr. Pā. Āṭṭā, 386. 8.
328 Cīkiṭṭā, 2. 14.
301 Cīkiṭṭā, 3. 6, 3. 13, 4. 2, 4. 17, 3. 10. M. S. Al., 143. 19.
302 Pr. Pā. Āṭṭā, 1442, 1259.
303 pratiṣeṣaṁbhāya. The Dhamma-saṅgāti defines it (section 1353).
The wheel was the symbol of universal sovereignty. Hence the idea of establishing the Kingdom of the dharma.


Lal. V., 34. 4.

M. S. Al., 144. 10.

M. S. Al., 106. 27.


I. yukata in E. Burnouf, "Int.," p. 53, l. 28, and B. Hodgson, "Lit.," p. 15, l. 23. "Nidāna" (books on Causation) completes the list.


M. S. Al., 83. 12 ff.

Bu. Bhū., fol. 43b. 5–6.


Sam. Rā., fol. 113b. 5. Mtu., ii, 131. 17.


Attha-tālini, pp. 115, 116 (section 298, khuddakā etc.).

Mtu., i, 33. 6.


Bu. Bhū., 87b. 6. 2.

Divy., 48. 10. Aua.-ṣa., i, 32. 4.


Lal. V., 34. 7.


See Chap. V.

Tātaka, i, 47.

Cariyā-piṭaka, xy, 4, 11; pp. 102, 103.

Section 153. Translation, p. 28.

Tātaka, i, p. 47, ll. 7 ff.

M. S. Al., tr. p. 8, note 8.


vol. ii, p. 221.


Mtu., iii, 422. 6. Kiemendra, ii, 897, verse 51; ii, 713.

verse 39.

Lal. V., 35. 9.

M. S. Al., 145. 1.

Aua.-ṣa., i, 101. 4.

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344 M. S. Al., 144.
346 Lal. F., 350.5.
347 Da. Bhū., 42.17.
348 Sad. Pa., 17.13 ff.
349 Cf. Vinaya, i, p. 10, ii. 26 ff.
350 Dukkha, "Ill," "Suffering," "Sorrow," etc.

352 M. Vy., section 112.
353 Gīja., 216.9.
360 Gīya-lekha, verse 98.
361 Kṣemendra, ii, 669, verse 99.
362 M. S. Al., 126.20.
364 M. S. Al., 110.25.
365 Ibid., 173.3.
366 Pr. Pā. Čata., 194.9 ff., 463.10 ff.
367 Su. Pr., fol. 126, 1.
371 Kṣemendra, i, 757, verse 50; i, 249.66. Lka., 204, verse 117.
373 Cf. Dīgha, ii, 311. Majjh., iii, 71 ff.; 251 ff. Dhamma-
saṅgāni, sections 297 to 304 (pp. 63–4).
374 Sections 16, 297.
375 Majjh., iii, 22.11 ff.; 71.26 ff.
376 Pr. Pā. Čata., 105.
377 M. S. Al., 145.
378 Aṅguttara, ii, 195.27 ff.
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379 Lal. V., 34. 10.
380 Digha, iii, 215. 7 ff.
381 Majjh., iii, 73, ll. 9 ff.; iii, 251.
382 M. S. Al., 145.
383 Lal. V., 34. 11.
384 Majjh., iii, 75, ll. 19 ff.; iii, 251.
386 Digha, 1. 8 ff.
388 M. S. Al., 145. Lal. V., 34. 15.
391 Aristotle, "Ethics," p. 45, l. 16.
CHAPTER V

Notes


3. E. Burnouf, "Int.," p. 413.


6. Čandrakīrti also derives the word from pāra. He says in the *Madhyamakavatāra*: "Dans le mot pāramitā, "pāram" signifie l'autre bord de l'océan des existences, la qualité de Bouddha qui consiste dans l'abandon complet des obscurcissements de la passion et du connaissable. Le mot pāramitā, c'est-à-dire "Parvenu à l'autre bord" (pāragata) est formé par le non-suppression de la désinence casuelle d'après la règle, 'Il n'y a pas éliisión devant le second terme du composé'; ou bien, appartenant au groupe du type *pradāra*, il présente la fin du second terme (= pāra-gamitā." (Cf. *Pāṇini*, vi, 3, 109, "Le Muséon," 1907, pp. 277-8.)


13. R. Garbe, Āśākhyā, p. 43.


15. M. S. Al., 180. M. Vy., section 33, etc.

16. Dh. S., 37. M. S. Al., 99, etc. See note 7 above.


20. Dīgha, i, 110, 2; i, 148, 7. Cf. Mtu., iii, 357, 12; 413, 2.

21. M. S. Al., 100, 1 ff., 107, 3 ff.


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22. M. S. Al., 139-140.
26. M. S. Al., 100.16.
27. M. S. Al., 166.18.
31. M. S. Al., 102.3 ff.
32. Čikṣā, 90.
33. M. Fy., sections 93, 80, 51, 78.
34. Cf. Chāndogya Uūd., ii, 23.1 (traye dharma-skandhā yajño dhyananam dānam iti, p. 113).
35. Brhadāraṇyaka Uūd., vi, 2.16 (atha ye yajñena dānena tapasā lokāṁ jayanti, p. 816).
36. Cf. Dīgha, ii, 354 (Pāṇāśiti-sutta). Aṅguttara, vi, 235 (Dāna-vagga); i, 91 (Dāna-vagga); iii, 32 (Samana-vagga); iv, 60 (Mahāyāna-vagga); Sīhanāda-vagga, iv, 392. Itivuttaka, sections 26, 98, 22 (pp. 19, 98, 16). Jātaka, i, 20.45. Saṁyutta, v, 351, 392 (Sotāpatti-samyutta). Dhammapada, verses 354, 223. Sutta-nipāta (Māgha-sutta). Peta-vatthu, i, i (p. 1); ii, 8.3 (p. 22); ii, 4.9 (p. 17).
38. Čikṣā, 24 ff.
40. Bo. Bhū., 47a.5.2-3.
41. M. S. Al., 112.14. Čikṣā, 82.15.
47. Divy., 295.
48. Čikṣā, 129.1, 127.17.
50. Divy., 429 ff.
51. Čikṣā, 87.5.
52. Ava-ṣa., i, 158.10.
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52 Avo-ṣa., i, 313 ff.
54 Bo. Bhū., fol. 49a.2 (upidāya, badhāya, bandhanāya).
55 Bo. Bhū., fol. 48b.4.3.
56 Bo. Bhū., fol. 48b.1.3 and 49a.1 (madya, jāla, yantra).
57 Bo. Bhū., 49a.1.1.
58 Bo. Bhū., fol. 49a.4.1, 50a.7.1, 50a.5.2 (apathyam; yāta-
kānām upapratirūpaṁ dānam; prapāṭha-patantāya; dharmega cāsāhasena).
59 Bo. Bhū., fol. 54b.5.1 ff. (parittam; kṛchch-urjītan deya-dharmān).
61 Bo. Bhū., fol. 47b.5.3, 48a.4 (yathā-kāmaka-rāṇyaṁ vā para-
varṣyaṁ para-vīdhyaṁ utmaṇaṁ pareṣāṁ anuprayacchati).
63 Bo. Bhū., 49a.6 (papakam; samvardhakam).
64 Bo. Bhū., fol. 50a.1.2. Tā. Mā., 166.15.
65 M. S. A., 113.3. Bo. Bhū., fol. 90b.2.1, 50b.6 (prasāda-
prāmudya-sahagataḥ). Tā. Mā., 237.5, 52.23, 204.7, etc. Avo-ṣa.,
i, 171.9. Kṣemendra, ii, 837.27, 127.32, 829.28, etc.
Tā. Mā., 222.22.
67 Bo. Bhū., fol. 50a.1.1.
68 Bo. Bhū., fol. 55b.1.2 (nīca-cīttaḥ).
69 Bo. Bhū., fol. 56a.2.2, 49b.5 (śaṃcīttaḥ).
70 Bo. Bhū., fol. 55a.1 ff., 50a.2.1 (uddhataṁ atamanṛtānām
ākṛṣṭah, etc.). M. S. A., 112.5 (pātra-dānata apātra-dānata
savaṭṭa dānata sava-kāla-dānata).
71 Čikṣā., 145, 165.
72 Tā. Mā., 154.5.
74 Mu., ii, 79.13, 80.4.
75 Bo. Bhū., fol. 31a.7.1 (aśhya bhavati mahā-bhogo mahā-pakṣo).
i, 123.1, 1055.1; ii, 829.27.
77 Bo. Bhū., fol. 50a.5.1 (annada bali bhavati vasudo varṇavān
bhavati cakṣajñānān dipadaḥ).
78 Avo-ṣa., i, 172.8.
79 Čikṣā., 274.9.
80 Mu., ii, 363.12. Čikṣā., 34.5. Kṣemendra, i, 877.25,
647.5, 651.19; ii, 81.65, 637.47, 999.4, etc.
80 Avo-ṣa., i, 173.6 ff. and passim. Divy., 290.22 ff.
81 varana-tala-pratīṣṭhitāḥ. "The soles of his feet become smooth
or well-set." (Cf. the thirty-two lokāṇiṣṭ of a mahāpuruṣa.)
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89 Bo. Bhā., fol. 90b. 1. 1. Cas. 4. 1. M. S. Al., 165. 3. Čikṣā., 146. 10.
91 Bo. Bhā., fol. 55b. 7. 2.
92 Bo. Bhā., fol. 50b. 2. 2.
93 Bo. Bhā., fol. 54a. 5.
94 Bo. Bhā., fol. 50b. 4. 5.
95 Lal. V., 352. 11, 162. 6, 180. 6. Mtu., i, 78. 16; ii, 340. 22.
96 Jā. Mā., 41. 1, 238. 22, 2. 18, etc. Čikṣā., 8. 2, 232. 10, 184. 12, etc.
97 Da. Bhā., 11. 15, 13. 13, 18. 17, 19. 8, 43. 8, 42. 12, 46. 3, 47. 23, 52. 10, 52. 14, 60. 7, 63. 24, 70. 24, 71. 2, 73. 16, 78. 19, 82. 6, 88. 12, 90. 1, etc.
98 Pr. Pā. Čata., 1455. 8, 282. 11, 1461. 8, etc. M. S. Al., 11. 5, 14. 3, 31. 14, 33. 22, 167. 42, 84. 24, 124. 30, 167. 39, 172. 67, 174. 74, etc. Kṣemendra, ii, 57. 42, 831. 6, 909. 1, etc.
99 Pr. Pā. Čata., 1461. 8 ff.
100 Čikṣā., 146. 10.
101 Čikṣā., 146. 10.
102 Jā. Mā., 41. 1.
103 Lal. V., 180. 18.
104 Kṣemendra, 1. 1.
106 M. S. Al., 161. 6.
107 Čikṣā., 19.
108 M. S. Al., 162-4.
111 Shakespeare's "Merchant of Venice", Act iv, Scene 1, l. 178.
112 Čikṣā., 286. 8 ff.
113 M. S. Al., 176. 27. B.C. Ava., viii, 90 ff. Mtu., iii, 387. 12.
114 M. S. Al., 19. 17.
115 B.C. Ava., viii, 90, 95.
116 B.C. Ava., viii, 110, 131, 136, 140.
117 Bo. Bhā., fol. 37b. 7. 2 (ātma-hitāya para-hitāya); fol. 151a. 7. 3 (eva-par-ārtha prayujyate). M. S. Al., 104. 7, 105. 21, 108. 39, 111. 50, etc. Ava-ṣa., i, 2. 4, 23. 9, 346. 8, etc. B.C. Ava., i, 24. Kṣemendra, ii, 667. 93, 133. 52. Da. Bhā., 20. 4. Lal. V., 192. 11.
118 Bo. Bhā., fol. 92. 4.
120 M. S. Al., p. 13, verse 12; p. 108, verse 36; p. 111, verse 49. Čiṣya-lekha, verses 100 ff. Pr. Pā. Čata., 1462. 1. B.C. Ava., v, 84; iii, 17 ff. Kṣemendra, ii, 583. 72; i, 1133. 59; i, 1061. 23.
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112 Kṣemendra, ii, 857. 59.
113 Pr. Pa. Çatā., 1462. 1.
114 B. C. Ave., viii, 173.
116 Kṣemendra, ii, 955 ff.
117 Tennyson’s “In Memoriam”, lv.
118 Jā. Mā., 169. 16.
123 Kṣemendra, ii, 49 ff.
125 Sam. Rā., fol. 154a.
127 Ave-sa, i, 187 ff.
128 Kṣemendra, ii, 119 ff.
130 Kṣemendra, i, 25.
131 Kṣemendra, i, 61 ff.
133 Jā. Mā., 33.
135 Pojadh. “Bei den Buddhisten Wiederholung des Gelübdes” (Skt. Dicy. Pbh.). This word corresponds to Pali uposatha (Vedic upavasatha, the eve of the Soma sacrifice, day of preparation). It means the day preceding four stages of the moon’s waxing and waning, viz.: 1st, 8th, 15th, 23rd nights of the lunar month. On the 15th day of the half-month, the Buddhists held a chapter of the Order. Laymen observed special vows. (Pali Dicy.)
139 Da. Bhū., 54. 15. Min., 86. 7. Vajra, 21. 12, 7. 10. Çikṣā., 275. 10, 69. 16, etc.
NOTES TO CHAPTER V

140 Kṣemendra, i, 1161.87.
141 Lai. P., 312.2, 244.19, 270.16, 352.22.
142 Mṭa., i, 301, ii, 63.16.
144 Ava-ṣa., i, 221. Kṣemendra, ii, 645.11, 735, 16, 797.97.
146 Jā. Mā., 28.22.
147 Cikṣā, 31.19. Kṣemendra, i, 1089.3.
151 Ava-ṣa., ii, 85.9, and passim. Kṣemendra, ii, 191.56 and passim.
152 Kṣemendra, ii, 3 ff.
153 Kṣemendra, i, 973.1, 707.169, 969.100; ii, 11, 31 ff, 191.46, 505.65, 701.34, 483.103, 43.142, etc.
154 Kṣemendra, i, 707.169.
155 Kṣemendra, ii, 11.31.
156 Ibid., ii, 11.32.
158 Ibid., xv, 40.
159 Sutta-nipāta, 166 (p. 128).
160 Aṅguttara, i, 287.2.
161 Dīgha, i, 55, and passim.
162 Majjhima, iii, 203.3.
163 Milinda, 294.17, 295.
164 Milinda, 297.10.
167 Mṭa., i, 8.
171 Cikṣā, 29.
172 Cikṣā, 32.
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176 Saund, Kā., xiii, 27.
177 M. S. Al., 101. 22.
178 M. Vy., sections 80, 93, 51, 78.
180 Mtn., ii, 357. 6.
182 Ibid.
183 Mtn., iii, 435. 6.
184 "Dukkha," "ñila-gandha." Kṣemendra, ii, 869. 29.
185 Da. Bhā., 57. 4.
186 Māh., 143. 1. Lal. V., 279. 7. Sad. Pu., 681. Mtn.,
187 Dhamma-saṅgāni, sections 1055, 1059. Dhamma-saṅgāni, tr.,
pp. 254 ff.
188 Dīvy, 154.
190 Māh., 143. 1.
191 Dhamma-saṅgāni, section 1060; tr., p. 259.
192 Čikṣā, 209.
193 Dhamma-saṅgāni, section 1061; tr., p. 260.
194 Čikṣā, 219.
195 Lka., 90. 9.
197 Mtn., iii, 421. 11. Dīvy, 129.
198 Čā. Mā., 208. 5 ff.
199 Su. Vy., 58, 61.
200 M. S. Al., 172 ff.
202 J. Jaini, "Outlines," pp. 97, 133. In Zoroastrianism, humata,
hākhta, hucarita (ERE, vol. v, p. 515a). "Good thought, word and
203 Sam. Rā., fol. 192b. 6 ff.
205 Bo. Bhā., 58b. 3, 58a. 3, 58b. 2, 58b. 6, 3 ff., 59a. 1, 2.
59a. 2.
206 Sam. Rā., fol. 200a. 2. Pr. Pā. Çata., 110. 15, 681. 12, 279. 16.
110. Pr. Pā. Āṣṭa., 324, 427.
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The Bible, Exodus, chap. xx.

Cf. Paśādika-suttanta (Dīgha, iii, 133). Siṅgāloveda-suttanta (Dīgha, iii, 182, l. 1-2).

Dīgha, i, 3 ff. Aṅguttara, ii, 83; i, 273. (Āpāyika-vagga).

Vinaya, i, 83.


Pr. Pā. Čāta., 132. Avaśaśākāra, i, 301.4, 324.10. Kṣemendra, i, 850.18.


Mtu., ii, 99.

Pr. Pā. Āśā, 324.

Jā. Mā., 100 ff.

M. Vy., section 267.


Mtu., ii, 33.15.

M. Vy., section 92. Dā. Ś., section 56.

Cf. Sāmyutta, iv, 342 ff. Dīgha, iii, 74.


Br. Bhā., fol. 75a.1.1, "Yathāhaṃ-arthā jīvitena na me kaścīf īśītād vyaśapayet," etc. Kṣemendra, ii, 125.22.

Kṣemendra, ii, 841.4.

Kṣemendra, i, 85.96; ii, 633.36 ff.; ii, 965.15; ii, 659.

Cf. Vinaya, i, 137. "ekindriyaṃ jīvam vīheṣṭhāna bahū," etc. Vinaya, i, 97, l. 1-3, "pāṇa jīvitā na vṛpotahbo.


Kṣemendra, i, 807.10; ii, 731.4. Avaśa., i, 289 ff.; i, 319 ff.

Čikīd, 159.1.

Jā. Mā., passim.

Ka. Vy., 46.

B. C. Ava., vii, 18. Čikīd, 284.

Kṣemendra, ii, 423.17.


Čikīd, 144.14, 131.12, 174. Kṣemendra, i, 78.

Lka., 244 ff. (245, 246, 248, 257, 259).

B. C. Ava., v, 97. Čikīd, 134-9.

Kṣānti-sauratya (Pāli: saračca). Not saurakhyā, as is found at Mūl., ii, 354; Sād. Pa., 234.8, etc. See U. Wogihara, Bo. Bhū., F. 43.

Bo. Bhū., 79a.6: "sarvam cāpakāram kṣamate ... sarvatra decc ... rahasi vā mahājana-samakṣam vā ... rātrān divā vā," etc.

Cīkṣā., 185. Mūl., i, 85.15.


Bo. Bhū., 79a.5.

Ibid., 79a.4.

Ibid., 76b.3.


Bo. Bhū., 77a.3.

B. C. Ava., vi, 22, 25.

B. C. Ava., vi, 42, 46.

Bo. Bhū., 76a.7.

B. C. Ava., vi, 49, 99, 100.


B. C. Ava., vi, 80, 89, 96.

Bo. Bhū., 79a.4.1.

B. C. Ava., vi, 119.

Bo. Bhū., 79a.2-3 (jumunashah; ānanda-jātaḥ).

Sam. Rā., fol. 113b. Bo. Bhū., fol. 79a.4, 80a.2.

Bo. Bhū., fol. 77b.5.6; 78a.1, 2, 3, 6; 78b.3; 79b.4.5.


U. Wogihara, Bo. Bhū., p. 20. Anuttattika-dharma-kṣānti (Pr. Pā. Aṭṭa., 310.2; Su. Vy., 40.4; Vajra, 44.1; Lkā., 12.10, 81.3; Kar. Pu., 105.27, etc.). This term has also been rendered as follows:—F. Max Müller: "resignation to things to come" (Su. Vy., tr., 71. SBE., vol. xix). L. de la Vallée Pousin: "patient contemplation of the absence of birth of things" ("Le Muséon," 1905, p. 52); "Upholding the doctrine of the non-production of things" (ERE, ii, 747b).

Cf. Saṃyutta, iv, 60. Majjhima, iii, 267.

Dīvy., 38 ff. Kṣemendra, i, 899 ff.


Kṣemendra, i, 781 ff.; i, 933 ff. Jā. Mā., 181.17 ff. In the K88., the hermit is wounded by robbers (p. 381).

Kṣemendra, ii, 915 ff. Ava-.ṣa., i, 177.

Kṣemendra, ii, 531 ff.

Kṣemendra, ii, 945.

Ava-.ṣa., i, 180.

M. S. Al., 102.1.

B. C. Ava., vii, 2. Bo. Bhū., fol. 80a.3.
NOTES TO CHAPTER V

353 Bo. Bhû., fol. 50a.1.
357 Bo. Bhû., fol. 81a.2.
358 M. S. Al., 114.5. Kar. Pu., 104.10.
359 Mtu., iii, 436.6.
360 Čikṣā, 112.8, 357.
361 Kṣemendrā, i, 1119.1; ii, 955.1. Lal. V., 373.17, 372.10.
363 M. S. Al., 109.1.
364 Dh. S., section 108.
365 B. C. Aea., vii, 60, 61, 67. Bo. Bhû., fol. 82a.3. Čikṣā, 190.
366 Bo. Bhû., fol. 81b.7 (sahalasya ca yathā-dharmaṃ prati-
karaṇa-patyayat).
367 Bo. Bhû., 82a.5.3.
368 Bo. Bhû., 82b.3.4. Čikṣā, 191.5.
369 Bo. Bhû., 81b.3.3; 82b.2. Da. Bhû., 57.6.
370 B. C. Aea., vii, 18, 25.
371 Sad. Pu., 218.11.
372 Bo. Bhû., 98a.4. Čikṣā, 190.4.
373 Bo. Bhû., 40a.6, 81b.6, 98a.3.
374 Bo. Bhû., 44b.5, 116b.5.3 (laukikeṣu sarva-śāstrīṣu kaṇḍalam).
375 Bo. Bhû., 43b.6.2, 44b.2.2.
378 B. C. Aea., v, 47.
380 Bo. Bhû., 82b.3, 80b.5.
381 Ibid., 82a.5.
382 Čikṣā, 255.
383 B. C. Aea., vii, 16, 31, 49, 55.
384 Čikṣā, 278.4.
385 Ibid., 17.
386 Bo. Bhû., 80b.3.
387 B. C. Aea., vii, 70, 71, 60.
389 B. C. Aea., vii, 62, 63, 65.
390 Lal. V., 166.11.
391 Mtu., ii, 90 ff.
392 Lal. V., 166.20.
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322 Kṣemendra, ii, 995.
324 Mtu., ii, 94-15 ff.
325 Kṣemendra, ii, 319 ff.
326 Ava-sa., ii, 80.
327 Ava-sa., ii, 181.
328 Ibid., i, 324-8: i, 344-2.
329 Ibid., i, 336 ff.
330 IHQ., vol. iii, No. 4, p. 691.
332 "Gotama," p. 78.
333 Bo. Bhā., fol. 82b.6.
334 M. S. Al., 102.1.
335 Pr. Pā. Čata., 95. Tā. Mā., 112.3.
336 Pr. Pā. Čata., 276.
337 Mtu., ii, 117.16; ii, 140; iii, 50. Kur. Pu., 111.11.
341 Ibid., 231-15 ff.
342 Ibid., 34-3 ff.
343 Ibid., 110.10.
344 Ibid., 107.15, 108.12.
345 Cikṣā, 193.5, 114.3.
346 Kṣemendra, ii, 299 ff; ii, 631.28; ii, 795-84.
347 Ava-sa., ii, 37; ii, 3; ii, 101; ii, 16, etc.
348 Kṣemendra, ii, 690.
350 Lat. V., chap. xii, p. 142.
351 Sad. Pu., chap. xii, pp. 263 ff, 383.1, 378.7.
352 Ava-sa., ii, 1-51.
353 Vide supra, notes 137, 345, Chap. V.
354 Kṣemendra, ii, 895.
355 Sad. Pu., 474.1, 263, 264.
356 Mtu., i, 103.10.
360 Cikṣā, 69.7.
361 Pr. Pā. Čata., 1456.
363 Sad. Pu., chap. xiii, p. 279-5, etc.
365 Gautama’s Dharma-sūtras (iii, 2-3), “Brahma-cārt gṛhasthāḥ bhikṣu voikhānāsa iti teṣām gṛhasthāḥ yonir uprajananaṇatoḍ itareṣām” (p. 22,
Anandagrama Series, Poona, 1910. Manu (iii, 78), "tasmāj jīvetth-


436 Cf. Tertullian: "De Habitu Muliebri"; "You are the devil's
gateway," etc., cited in E. M. White's "Woman in World History",
p. 307 (London, 1924). Gregory Nazianzen: "Fierce is the dragon,
cunning the asp; but woman has the malice of both" (ibid., p. 308).
Clement of Alexandria: "It should bring shame to a woman to reflect
of what nature she is," etc. (ibid., p. 308).


438 Sam. Rā., fol. 121a. 5.


Sad. Pā., 309. 10 ff. Lka., 308. Shakespeare, "As You Like It,
Act II, Scene i, l. 16."

441 Čikṣā, 199. 10. 200. 13 ff.

442 Ibid., 201. 5.


444 Pr. Pā. Čata., 1443, etc. Tā. Mā., 232. 4.

445 Bo. Bhā., fol. 120a ff.


447 Mitu, iii, 421.


alten Indien," p. 1. ERE. viii, 159. A. B. Keith, "Philosophy,

450 Pr. Pā. Čata., 1411. 1.

451 Metta: Cf. Metta-sutta (Khuddaka-Pāṭha, pp. 8-9). Dhamma-
pada, 3, 4, 5, 129, 130, 197, 291, 223. Sutta-nipāta, 73, 507, 146-51,
967. Metta-vagga (Aṅguttara, iv, 150). Vinaya, i, 301-2 (Buddha
tends a sick monk). Saṃyutta, i, 208 (Yakha-saṃyutta). Tevijja-
sutta (Dīgha, i, 250 ff.). Aṅguttara, i, 183, and i, 196-7 (Buddha
and his disciples practised these meditations). Aṅguttara, iii, 196
(advantages of metta). Tātaka, i, 47. Thera-gāthā, 645-9. Dhamma-
saṅgaṇī, section 1056, etc.

452 Pr. Pā. Čata., 1179, 550, etc.

453 The Sanskrit formula adds more nouns and adjectives to the
Pāli text.


456 Lal. V., 287. 9.

457 Čikṣā, 212. 10.

458 Aea-ṣa, i, 291. 2; i, 31. 15. Kṣemendra, i, 1125. 25. Pr. Pā.
Čata., 256. 4.
THE BODHISATTVA DOCTRINE

459 Avaśā, i, 57.10.
460 Dh. S., section 131. Čikā, 212.12 ff.
461 Avaśā, i, 31.9.
462 Mū., iii, 523.
464 M. Vī., section 72. In connection with these exercises, the regulation of breathing (inhalation and exhalation) is also recommended. This practice is included in the longer list of the anusmṛti (ānāpānānusmṛti), Pr. Pā. Čata., 1429. Cf. Majjh., iii, ff. 79 (Ānāpanatattva-sutta).
465 M. Vī., section 68.
468 Dīgha, i, 37 ff.
469 Lal. V., 244.14.
470 Mahā-parinibbāna-sutta (Dīgha, ii, 156).
471 Pr. Pā. Čata., 1444, and passim.
473 niṣpritiham. This word is not found in the Pāli text.
474 E. Senart thinks that pariṇādha here means "suppressed", as the commentator Bhoja interprets pariṇādhi in Yo. Sū., i, 43, as meaning āravicīlaya (suppression). Thus this fourth dhārā would be equivalent to the ultra-cognitive samādhi (asamprajñāta). RHR, vol. xiii, 1900, pp. 345-64. But Bhoja lived as late as the eleventh century! His interpretation of pariṇādhi cannot be applied to the old Buddhist texts. 
475 pratihatā (Resistance, Repulsion). The Abhidharmakośa explains thus (chap. i, p. 53): "On appelle supratīgha ce en quoi et à l'égard de quoi la connaissance (manai) peut être empêchée de naître par un corps étranger."
478 Dīgha, ii, 57.
479 This word has been interpreted in different ways. (1) "Who make others' creation serve their own ends" ("Compendium"). (2) "Created by others, but possessed of great power" (Pāli Dīcy.). (3) "Having control of Pleasures fashioned by others" (H. C. Warren, "Buddhism," p. 511). The name may mean "who control or exercise power over the creations of the gods immediately below them on the list".
NOTES TO CHAPTER V

Cf. Sāmaññā-phala-sutta (Dīgha, i, 70 ff.).
Lka., 97 ff.
Sam. Rā., fol. 60b. 3 ff.
Dh. S., sections 101, 136.
Lka., 73-1.
57. 11. Kā. Vy., 86. M. S. Al., 148. 77. Sad. Pu., 136. 12, etc.
Cīkṣā., tr., p. 6.
Divy., 42. 8. Kṣemendra, i, 903. 61.
Kar. Pu., 121. 19.
Bo. Bhū., 836. 6 ("tamyak-saṅceṣodanāya" ; "bhoga-viheñānāṁ
ekapānām," etc.).
RHR., vol. xlii, 1900, p. 364.
Lka., 247, 256.
On the four stages of Yoga, see the Commentary on Yo. Sū.,
iii, 51 (p. 169). (Abhyāśi, Rambhara-prajñāb, etc.)
Bo. Bhū., 32a. 2. 3. Pr. Pā. Čata., 95.
Bo. Bhū., 84b. 7. M. S. Al., 82. 2. Dh. S., section 110.
M. Vy., sections 41, 42, 78, 80. Dh. S., section 65. Five
cakṣus are mentioned in Buddhist literature: (1) Māma-cakṣus (the
physical eye); (2) Divya-cakṣus (the supernal organ of sight; this
has been described above); (3) Prajñā-cakṣus (the eye of Wisdom);
(4) Dharma-cakṣus (the eye of the Doctrine or Truth); (5) Buddhaca-
kṣus (the eye of the Enlightened One). (Vajra, 38: M. S. Al.,
143; Pr. Pā. Čata., 296, 538; Mtu., i, 158. Cf. E. J. Thomas,
"Buddha," p. 213.)
Bo. Bhū., 85a. 6, 84b. 7. Lal. V., 179. 1, 169. 13.
M. S. Al., p. 301, verse 15; p. 109, verse 41.
Bo. Bhū., 84a. 7. 2 (dharmāṇāṁ praviccayaḥ). M. S. Al., p. 106,
verses 27, 28.
Bo. Bhū., 84b. 7, 85a. 3, 85b. 2.
M. S. Al., 112.
Pr. Pā. Āsā., 1, 2, 405, 529, 396, 525, 344, 431, 282, 311,
Sam. Rā., fol. 35a. 3-4. "asītī nāṣitī ubhe 'pi antā," etc.
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315. Lka., 54.
316. Mdh., 11.13, 592.7.
317. Majjhima, ii, 32 (Cāla-sahukudāyi-sutta). "Imāsmin sati, idam hoti; imās' uppāda idam upapajjati," etc.
323. Kṣemendra, ii, 599.
324. It is also represented as a blind camel led by a driver. (L. A. Waddell, "Buddhism," p. 107.)
328. Kṣemendra, ii, 599.
331. Kṣemendra, ii, 599.
333. Mū., iii, 66.
335. Pr. Pā. Čata., 864.
336. Lka., 323.
337. Lāt. V., 378.4.
341. E. Burnouf, "Int.," p. 434.
349. Sānghavutta, ii, 30.
NOTES TO CHAPTER V

335 Lka., 1. M. S. Al., 149. 2.
336 Pr. Pā. Čāta., 842, 1216, 1360, 136, 141, 1197, 1643, 1440.
337 Vajra., 21. 5, 41. 11, 42. 8, 43. 16, 23. 7, 38. 9, 37. 13.
338 B. C. Āva., ix, 142, 143, 146, 148, 149, 150.
342 Lka., 74. 5.
343 Pr. Pā. Āsta., 348. M. S. Al., 58.
348 Lka., 280, 294.
349 M. S. Al., 54, 59.
350 B. C. Āva., ix, 2.
351 Lal. V., 314. 16, 263. 1.
352 M. Vy., section 34.
353 Pr. Pā. Čāta., 1324.
354 Sad. Pu., 12, 14, 19, 380.
355 Da. Bhā., 46.
356 Pr. Pā. Āsta., 325. 17.
358 Pr. Pā. Āsta., 472, 373, 310, 311, 386, 379.
359 Lka., 204.
360 Bo. Bhā., fol. 101b. 5.
361 Ibid., fol. 102a. 2.
362 Ibid., fol. 102a. 2.
(Edinburgh, 1889).
364 Sad. Pu., 72 ff.
365 Sad. Pu., 101 ff.
367 Sad. Pu., 319. 1.
368 Sad. Pu., 273. 11. 278. 10.
369 Sad. Pu., 279. 5, 284. 7.
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529 Cikā, 60.10 ff.
531 Dīgha, iii, 152 (section 16). Aṅguttara, ii, 32 (section 32).
533 Bo. Bhū, fol. 90a.1.2.
535 Bo. Bhū, fol. 100a.5.2.
537 Bo. Bhū, fol. 100a.6.
538 M. S. Al., 139.1.
542 M. S. Al., 139.
543 Bo. Bhū, fol. 100a.6.3.
545 Pr. Pā. Cātā, 1470.
546 M. S. Al., 139.
547 Bo. Bhū, fol. 100a.7.2-3.
548 Pr. Pā. Cātā, 1470.22.
549 Saund. Kā, xviii, 11.
550 Lat. V, 35.19.
551 Sad. Pa, 293.5.
552 Pr. Pā. Cātā, 4.5, 68.3.
556 Su. Vy, 18.19.
557 Kar. Pa, 8.
559 Su. Vy, 26.
560 Cikā, 94.11, 96.1.
561 Sad. Pa, 396.3. Lka, 260.4.
563 Cikā, 140 ff.
564 Ibid., 142.
566 Dh. S., section 52.
567 M. Vy, section 25.
568 Svāhā. This exclamation is borrowed from the ancient Vedic literature. It is associated with prayers and incantations. It means “Heil”, “Segen”, “Hail”, “Blessing”, “Amen” (Skt. Dicy. Phgb. and Macdonell). A. A. Macdonell suggests that it is derived from the root ah. It is an old indeclinable auspicious word.
CHAPTER VI

Notes

Pr. Pā. Čaṭa., 67. Lka., 10.1, etc.
2 M. S. Al., 183.
3 Dīgha, ili, 220. Eleven stages of training at Aṅguttara, v, 342 ff.
5 Ābhoga. The Pali word ābhoga means "idea", "thought", (probably from the root bhuj "to enjoy"). L. de la Vallée Poussin explains ābhoga as "acte de se tourner vers", "acte d'attention" (from bhuj "to bend"). Cf. Milinda, p. 97, l. 10, "na hi bhante uparatassa vātassa ābhago vā manasikāro vā." Also, M. S. Al., tr., p. 8, note 7.
6 D. T. Suzuki translates unābhoga as "effortless, purposeless, not being aware of conscious strivings" ("Studies," p. 378).
7 Da. Bhū., 20, 30, 37, 41, etc.
8 Da. Bhū., 21, 30, 37, 41, etc.
10 Ibid., p. 176.
11 Cf. L. de la Vallée Poussin's French translation of these terms in "Le Muséon," 1907, p. 314. (Madhyamakāvatāra).
CHAPTER VII

Notes

2 Mtu., i, 38.
3 Mtu., i, 49 ff.
4 Mtu., i, 47.
5 Kṣemendra, ii, 931.
7 Mtu., i, 197. Lal. V., 25. 5 ff., 23. 10 ff.
8 Lal. V., 26. 15 ff., 28. 16.
9 Dīgha, i, 115 ("samane khaṇa bhasa Gotamo ubhāto sujāto," etc.).
10 Lal. V., 55. 3 ff. Mtu., ii, 8. 17.
11 Mtu., iii, 411. 4. Kṣemendra, i, 665. 7.
15 "Indian Mythology," p. 195 (Boston, 1917). J. S. Speyer has discussed the question in ZDMG. 1903, pp. 305–10. In the sculptures of Bharhut and Bara-budur, the elephant has only two tusks. J. S. Speyer is of opinion that the Pali word chaddanto means "Zähmer der Sechs" (danto to be derived from "dam"). He rejects the hypothesis that "six" may refer to the six rival teachers, who are mentioned in the Pali canon. He thinks that the word denotes the six organs of sense, and says: "Wenn von einem Zähmer der Sechs die Rede ist, soll man doch zunächst an die fünf Sinnesorgane und das maṇḍar denken." The epithet was then applied to the elephant and misunderstood as meaning "six-tusked". But this explanation does not seem to be grammatically sound.
16 Mtu., i, 213. Lal. V., 60 ff.
17 Mtu., i, 218. 10 ff. Lal. V., 83. 10.
18 Lal. V., 85. 1 ff.
NOTES TO CHAPTER VII

26 Agvalajana Gṛhya-sūtra, i, 7, 19 ("aṣṭa-ainām . . . sapta-pādāṇya-  
abhyyukramayāt"); etc.: p. 33, Bibliotheca Indica Series).  
27 Mtu., ii, 20. 18.  
28 B. Cet., i, 33.  
30 T. Keightley, op. cit., p. 103: J. H. Philpott, "The Sacred  
31 Lat. V., 120. 5.  
32 Lat. V., 125. 19 ff.  
33 Lat. V., 156.  
34 Lat. V., 122. 7.  
35 Lat. V., 145. 4 ff.  
36 Lat. V., 153. 1 ff.  
Mtu., ii, 29. 19 ff. Kṣemendra, i, 669. 29 ff. (Cf. Dīgha, ii, 17;  
iii, 142.) The items Nos. 21 and 22 may also be interpreted thus:  
"He has one hair to each pore, and his hair rises straight upward and  
curls to the right." But the M. Vy. says: "Each hair curls to the right  
and the hairs rise upward." The list in the M. Vy. agrees with that  
given in the Lat. V. The M. Vy. has only sama-lalāṭa (No. 3); the  
mark No. 7 is divided into two items; the items 5 and 6 are given as  
one mark; the adjective in No. 9 is asaṇkha (very white); the feet are  
not described as "even" (sama); the wheel is both on the hands and  
the feet, and it is not described. These are the chief points of difference  
between the M. Vy. and the Lat. V. The Dh. S. really mentions more  
than thirty-two signs. The hands are also described as "well-set".  
Several new items are added: e.g. a "straight body", "a white jaw",  
"the gait of a swan". The tongue is not described as "slender"  
(tanu); the skin is "white" instead of "fine" (jākṣma); the wheel  
is on both the hands and the feet. These are the chief points of difference  
between the Lat. V. and the Dh. S. The Mtu. describes the signs  
by short adjectives, some of which cannot be clearly understood.  
38 E. Burnouf, "Lotus," p. 553. "Sa tête est couronnée par  
40 Ibid., p. 134.  
41 Ibid., pp. 139-40.  
Lat. V., 106. The eighty minor marks (anuyoṣṭājanāt) are not very  
important. Some of them may be mentioned here. The nails are of  
the colour of copper; the fingers are round and beautiful; the gait is  
like that of a lion, an elephant, a swan and a bull (I); the abdomen is
deep; the lines of the hand are soft, deep, long and straight; the lips are red; the voice is sweet and pleasant; the ears are equal in size; etc. For a complete list in English and French, see Dāk. S., pp. 55 ff., and P. Foucaux, Lāt. V. tr., pp. 96 ff.

44 Rāṇḍyana, p. 1 (i, 1-9-10-11).
45 Dīgha, i, 9 (section 21), “iti eva-rāpañya tirucchaṇa-vijjāya paṭi-
virato Samanā Gocano.”

47 Lāt. V., 129. Mtu., ii, 45. In the Lāt. V., the bodhisattva experiences four ahyānas.

48 Candra-rīja Bhaṇḍārī, Bhagavān Mahāvīra, p. 123 (Bhānpura, 1924).

50 Cf. Aṅguttara, i, 145 (section 38.2).
51 Lāt. V., 161 ff.
52 Lāt. V., 217 ff.
58 Cf. Sutta-nipāta, 355 (p. 62). Dīgha, i, 93.10 (piṭake pi Kaṇhā ti saṁjñānanti).
59 Sutta-nipāta, p. 15, l. 3. Majjhima, iii, 60, l. 29.
60 Dīgha, ii, 109 (aṭṭha kho imā Ananda parisā, etc.).
61 Samyutta, i, 103 ff. (mahantaṃ hattirāja-vannam ahhinimmi-
niteś, etc., p. 104; mahantaṃ sapparāja-vannam, p. 106).
62 Samyutta, i, p. 114 (section 9); p. 112 (section 7).
63 Majjhima, i, 332 (Kinnu kho me kucchi gavgaru, etc.).
64 Samyutta, i, 128 ff. (Bhikkhuni-samyutta).
65 Samyutta, iii, 124.
66 Vinaya, i, pp. 21, 22 (baddha’i sabba-pāsehi, etc.).
67 Jātaka, i, 72-3. N.B.—150 leagues, not 250. (E. J. Thomas.)
68 Samyutta, i, 115 (tava rūpā tava cakkhu-samphasa, etc.).
69 Majjhima, iii, 94 (labhati tassa Mārā atāraṃ, labhati tassa Māro āramnapaṃ).
70 Sutta-nipāta, pp. 74-8 (verses 425 ff).
71 Samyutta, iii, 189, “tevaṃ Rādhā rūpam Mārā ti pāsia,” etc.
72 Pr. Pā. Čada, 71. Aco-ja, i, 215-7. Čikā, 244-4.
73 Lāt. V., 283.20.
75 Da. Bhā, 90. Lāt. V., 261.6. 262.20. 263.4.
76 E. Windisch, “Māra,” p. 186.
NOTES TO CHAPTER VII

78 Lal. V., 130.8.
77 Kṣemendra, ii, 585.61. B. Ct., xiii, 2.
78 Kṣemendra, i, 713.1.
79 Ibid., i, 95.136; ii, 323.8.
80 Da. Bhū., 53.18.
83 Dīvy., 357, 361, 363.
84 Pr. Pā. Čārta., 1186.
85 Cikṣā, 49 ff.
86 Dīvy., 357. Kṣemendra, ii, 575.42.
87 Dīvy., 145.
88 Cikṣā, 39, 40.
89 Ibid., 49.
90 Cikṣā, 139-9.
Cikṣā, 198.10. Dh., 8, section 80. Mtu., iii, 281.7. L. de la Vallée Poussin mentions only three Māraī in his article (ERE. viii, 407a), but the Mahāyānists made a fourfold division.
92 Pr. Pā. Čārta., 485.
93 Da. Bhū., 62.5.
94 Pr. Pā. Āsta., 385.
97 Cikṣā, 49 ff.
98 Pr. Pā. Āsta., 448.
99 Cikṣā, 42.16.
100 Mtu., ii, 404.20, 408.9, 241.13 ff., 244.5 ff., 246.3 ff., 250.20 ff.
101 B. Ct., xiii, 4-5.
102 Kṣemendra, i, 725.44.
103 Lal. V., 300.
104 Ibid., 301.
105 Ibid., 378.4.
106 B. Ct., xiii, 3.
107 Lal. V., 308.15.
108 Ibid., 308 ff.
109 Mtu., ii, 408.10 ff.
110 Lal. V., 308 ff.
111 Rāmāyaṇa, Yuddha-Kāṇḍa, targa 8, 9, 10, 14, 15, 16 (vol. ii, pp. 113 ff.).
112 Jātaka, i, 63 (māriṣa mā nikkhami).
113 Lal. V., 261.
114 Mtu., ii, 238.
115 Lal. V., 317.20.
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118 Lal. V., 319. 3.
117 Ibid., 320 ff.
123 Lal. V., 318. 11.
124 Lal. V., 333.
125 Mūn., ii, 280. 1.
126 Mūn., ii, 283. 4.
127 Lal. V., 340. 21.
128 B. Ct., xiii, 57 ff.
129 Kṣemendra, i, 729 ff.
130 Majjhima, i, 247 (so kha ahaṃ Aggivessana oderikanāhāraṃ āhārabhāṣita, etc.).
130 Dīgha, ii, 4 (section 8).
130 H. Kern says: “La vérité indéniable de la légende, sauf quelques détails insignifiants, n’est pas celle de l’histoire, mais celle de la mythologie de la nature. ... Le Buddha est un de ces avatāras, celui du dieu solaire, ... La lutte entre le bodhisattva et Māra, le représentant de l’obscurité, appartient, au moins dans ses traits essentiels, aux mythes les plus anciens de notre race. ... Le Dieu solaire était tantôt loué comme chasseur des ténèbres, comme exterminateur d’êtres méchants, géants et autres monstres, tantôt comme la source abondante de bénédictions pour la terre entière, à cause de la lumière bienfaisante dont il illumine la terre et le ciel ... chez les Indiens, le grand Libérateur du monde est le Dieu solaire. ...” (“Histoire,” i, 50, 239, 241, 243, 245).
NOTES TO CHAPTER VII

126 SBE., vol. xxiii, p. 231 (Bahrām Yāji), "We sacrifice unto Verethraghna," etc.
126 Lal., V., pp. 343 ff. B. Ct., xiv, 2.
128 Miu., ii, 416. 6.
APPENDIX

CHRONOLOGICAL NOTES ON THE PRINCIPAL SANSKRIT TREATISES THAT HAVE BEEN UTILISED FOR THIS ESSAY (compiled from various sources)


(2) Lalita-vistara (“Extended Account of the Sport”). Nos. 159 and 160 in B. Nanjio’s catalogue. Translated into Chinese four times: A.D. 221-63, 308, 420-79, and 683. Its oldest parts may be assigned to the third century B.C., and its final redaction to the sixth century A.D. (second century, according to M. Winternitz).


(3) Sad-dharma-pundarika (“The White Lotus of the true Dharma or Faith”). Nos. 134, 136, 138, 139 in B. Nanjio’s catalogue. Translated into Chinese in A.D. 255, and later. The earliest part (chaps. i-xx) may belong to the first century B.C., while the supplementary chapters (xxi-xxvi) date from the third century A.D.

(4) Sukhāvatī-vyāha (“The Structure or Arrangement of the Region of Bliss”). The word vyāha has also been translated as “description”. This treatise exists in two recensions, of which the larger was translated into Chinese in A.D. 148-70. Nos. 23 (5), 25, 26, 27 and 863 in B. Nanjio’s catalogue. Dates from first century B.C. The smaller treatise may be assigned to the fourth century (Nos. 199, 200 in B. Nanjio’s catalogue).

(5) Ācārya’s Buddha-carita and Saundarananda-Kavya. The original Buddha-carita is available in Sanskrit only in a truncated form (Cantos i-xiii and 32 verses of Canto xiv). Ācārya was the preceptor of Kaniśka, who flourished in the first century A.D.
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(6) Asa-saharika Prajñā-pāramitā ("The Perfection of Wisdom" in 8,000 "verses"). No. 1 (a) in B. Nanjio's catalogue. Translated into Chinese A.D. 179. It may be assigned to the first century B.C.

(7) Čatra-saharika Prajñā-pāramitā ("The Perfection of Wisdom" in 100,000 "verses"). No. 1 (a) in B. Nanjio's catalogue. Translated into Chinese A.D. 659. Belongs probably to the fifth century A.D. Only chapters i-xii have been utilised.

(8) Vajra-chchedika Prajñā-pāramitā ("The Diamond-Cutter: a Treatise on the Perfection of Wisdom"). Nos. 1 (i), 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 in B. Nanjio's catalogue. First translated into Chinese about A.D. 400. Dates from the fourth century A.D.

These treatises on Prajñā-pāramitā are attributed to Nāgārjuna, who lived in the second century A.D. (according to M. Walleser and S. Beal). But internal evidence proves that they were not written by the same author. We may regard "Nāgārjuna" as a group-name for the pioneers of the Mahāyāna, the most eminent of whom was the philosopher Nāgārjuna.


(9) Mūla-madhyamaka-kārikā ("Verses on the fundamental doctrines of the Madhyamika school"). This treatise is also attributed to Nāgārjuna.

(10) Dharma-saṅgaha ("Compendium of the Doctrine"). It is erroneously attributed to Nāgārjuna. It may be assigned to the seventh or eighth century A.D., as it was translated into Chinese in the tenth century. No. 812 in B. Nanjio's catalogue.

(11) Avadāna-catake ("A Century of instructive Stories"). No. 1324 in B. Nanjio's catalogue. First translated into Chinese A.D. 225-53. The word dināra is mentioned in it. Early second century A.D. The first ten stories are Mahāyānist in spirit; the rest belong to the Hinayāna.


(12) Divya-avadāna ("The Heavenly Stories"). Nos. 1343, 1344 in B. Nanjio's catalogue. The oldest portions date from the second century B.C.; they were included in the Vinaya of the Mūla-sarvāstivāda sect. The final redaction may be assigned to the sixth century A.D. (third century, according to M. Winternitz). Mainly Hinayāna.


(14) Mahāyāna-śrāvānīkāra (“The Ornament of the Mahāyāna Texts”), with a prose commentary. The verses are usually attributed to Asaṅga, who lived in the fourth century A.D. But H. U. has proved that they were written by Maitreyanātha, to whom he assigns the date 270-350. The prose commentary was composed by Vasubandhu, who lived in the first half of the fourth century (according to N. Péri, BEFEO, xi, 1911, p. 384).

Cf. JRAS. 1905, p. 43, ll. 17-19; JA. 1890, tome xvi, p. 553; M. 8, At. tr., p. 2; ERE, xiii, 256a; U. Wogihara, B. Bhū., p. 16; A. Barth in RHR., vol. xxviii (1893), p. 258, note 2; ZFD, Bd. 6, Heft 2, 1928, pp. 217, 223, 224.

(15) Bodhisattva-bhūmi. This is the only portion of the Yog-ācārya (ācārya-bhūmi-sūtra) that is available in Sanskrit. It has been attributed to Maitreya or Asaṅga (fourth century A.D.). The palm-leaf manuscript dates from the ninth century. Cf. U. Wogihara in ZDMG, 1904, p. 452. In a few passages the MS. reading is corrupt, e.g. fol. 125a, 4, section 2; fol. 126b, 2, 2; fol. 126b, 6, 3.

(16) Luṅkāvatāra-sūtra (“The treatise on the Visit to Ceylon”). Nos. 175, 176, 177 in B. Nanjio’s catalogue. Translated into Chinese in 443, 513, and 700-4. The versified tenth chapter is not found in the earliest Chinese version. Approximate date: Early fourth century.


(17) Samādhi-rāja-sūtra (“Treatise on the King of Samādhi, Modes of Concentration”). This treatise is the same as “Candra-dipasamādhi-sūtra”, which is mentioned in B. Nanjio’s catalogue (Nos. 191, 192). First translated into Chinese about A.D. 450. Belongs to the fourth century.

(18) Suvarṇa-prabhāśa (“The Splendour of Gold”). In its original form, it was translated into Chinese in A.D. 397-439, and again in an expanded version in the seventh century. Nos. 126, 127, 130 in B. Nanjio’s catalogue. The earliest recension may be assigned to the fourth century A.D.


(20) Jātaka-mālā (“The Garland of Birth-stories”). It was written by Aśvaghoṣa, whom Tārānātha identifies with Aśvaghoṣa and Mātṛceta! He may be assigned to the sixth century. An earlier date has been suggested (fourth century) on the ground that one of his treatises
was translated into Chinese in A.D. 434 (Nanjo, No. 1349); but this small pamphlet was almost certainly not written by Aryacura, especially as the *Jaśaka-mālā* was not translated into Chinese. Some verses from this book are quoted in the inscriptions describing the paintings in the Ajanta caves.


(21) *Rāṣṭrapāla-paripṛcchā* ("The Inquiry of Rāṣṭrapāla"). This treatise was translated into Chinese early in the seventh century. No. 23 (18) in B. Nanjo's catalogue. Probable date: Sixth century.

(22) *Nāga-ānanda* ("The Joy of the Nāgas or Serpent-folk"). This play is attributed to King Harṣa (Harṣadeva, Harṣavardhana), who lived in the first half of the seventh century.

(23) *Cikā-samuccaya* ("Compendium of Teaching"). The author was Čāntideva, who probably lived in the seventh or eighth century. A Tibetan version of the treatise dates from the early ninth century. Cf. Tāranātha, p. 5.

(24) *Bodhi-cary-avatāra* ("The Entrance to the Practice or Career for Enlightenment"). This is a poem by Čāntideva. There seems to be no reason to doubt the authenticity of the last canto.

(25) *Čīga-lekha* ("Letter to a Disciple"). This short poem is attributed to Candragomin. S. Lévi has shown that this author lived in the seventh century (BEFEO. 1903, p. 38). Cf. Tāranātha, p. 152, ll. 14, 15.


(28) *Bodhisattve-avadāna-kalpadatā* ("The wish-fulfilling Creeper of the Stories of the bodhisattva"). This treatise contains 108 versified narratives, of which 107 were composed by Kṣemendra and the 108th was added by his son. Kṣemendra lived in the eleventh century. Cf. R. Mitra, "Sanskrit Buddhist Literature of Nepal," p. 57 (Calcutta, 1882).
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