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DHAMMAPADA

(Translated by Ven. B. Ananda Maitreya)

VII

The Arahant

- 1. There is no burning for him who has finished his journey, who is sorrowless and free on all sides, and who has broken off all fetters. (90)
- The mindful exert themselves.
 They do not delight in the household life.
 They leave behind their homes just as swans a muddy lake. (91)
- 3. They who store up nothing,
 who take the right view of the food they eat,
 whose minds are fixed on Deliverance,
 —which are devoid of passions,
 which are free from signs (lust and the like)—
 their track is hard to trace,
 like the path of the birds in the sky. (92)
- 4. In whomsoever are the obsessions of mind ended, whosoever take the right view of the food they eat, whosoever lives with their mind devoid of blemishes, whose mind is signless, hard is it to trace the track of such ones, like the path of the birds in the sky. (93)
- 5. Even gods like to see and visit such a one, who keeps himself purged of pride, who is freed from mental obsessions and who has senses mastered, like horses well tamed by a horse-trainer. (94)
- 6. Done with the round of rebirths is a person who is as tolerant as the earth, as firm as the doorpost, as placid as a mudless pond, and dutiful. (95)

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- 7. Whosoever has obtained freedom through perfect wisdom, and is pacified and unshakable, his mind is tranquil, his words are tranquil, and his deeds are tranquil too. (96)
- 8. Whosoever is not credulous, who knows the Unmade, who has cut off all ties, destroyed the basis of rebirth and removed all craving, he indeed is the highest among men. (97)
- 9. Delightful is the place where the saints dwell, whether in a village or a remote forest, the deep pit or the land. (98)
- 10. Delightful are forests (to the saints) where the worldlings find no delight, being lust-free, they delight therein, for they do not hunt for pleasures. (99)

VIII

Thousands

- 1. A single word full of sense which brings peace of mind to the hearer, is far worthier than a thousand utterances full of profitless words. (100)
- 2. A single verse full of meaning that brings peace to the mind of the hearer, is far worthier than a thousand verses full of profitless words. (101)
- 3. One may utter a hundred verses full of vain descriptions. But a single verse that brings peace of mind to the hearer is far worthier than all that. (102)
- 4. One may conquer a million men in a single battle, but one who may conquer oneself is the greatest and best conqueror. (103)
- 5, 6. Conquest of one's own self is better than victory over all others. Neither a god nor a demigod, nor a Māra even with Brahma, can undo the victory of such an one who is self-tamed and lives ever in restraint. (104, 105)

- 7. The homage paid to the purified man, even for one single moment, is far worthier than sacrifices performed monthly for a full hundred years with a thousand pieces of gold each time. (106)
- 8. Paying homage to a purified man for a single moment is worthier than living in the forest tending the sacred fire for a hundred years. (107)
- 9. The performance of oblation or sacrifice by a man for the purpose of earning merit is not worth the fourth part of the merit earned by paying homage to the upright holy man. (108)
- 10. He who reveres and respectfully treats the aged will have four things increased in himself: long life, beauty, happiness and strength. (109)
- 11. A life lived virtuously and meditatively, even for one single day, is worthier than a life of a hundred years, lived viciously and distractively. (110)
- 12. A single day's life of a wise and contemplative man is worthier than a life of a hundred years lived viciously and distractively. (111)
- 13. A single day's life of one who strives hard is better than a life of a hundred years lived by one who is lazy and effortless. (112)
- 14. A single day's life lived by a man who perceives the rise and fall of component things, is worthier than that of a hundred years lived by one who does not perceive the same. (113)
- 15. A single day's life
 of one who perceives the deathless state
 is worthier than a hundred years' life
 of one who perceives not the same. (114)
- 16. A single day's life of one who sees the highest Norm is worthier than a hundred years' life of one who sees not the same. (115)

IX

Evil

- Let one hasten in doing good.
 Let one restrain one's mind from evil.
 The mind of the man that is slack in doing good gets addicted to evil. (116)
- If a man commit evil, let him not commit it repeatedly. Let him not be addicted to it. For, heaping up of evil brings misery. (117)
- Should a man do good, let him do it repeatedly. Let him set his heart upon it, for, blessed is the heaping up of good. (118)
- Even an evil-doer feels happy so long as his evil remains unripe.
 But when his evil ripens,
 then the evil-doer sees its result. (119)
- 5. Even a good man sees ill so long as his good deeds remain unripe.
 But whenever they bear fruit, then the doer of good sees good results. (120)
- 6. Let no man think lightly of evil, saying, "It will not come to me".
 As a pot is filled with water drop by drop, so does the fool, gathering little by little, become full of evil. (121)
- 7. Let no one think lightly of good, saying, "It will not come to me".
 Little drops of water fill up even a big pot.
 Likewise, the wise man, gathering little by little, becomes full of good. (122)
- 8. Just as a merchant with much wealth but with a small caravan, avoids a dangerous road, or as a man loving his life shuns poison, so should one shun all evils. (123)

- 9. If a man has no wound on his palm, he may take poison in his hand.
 For, the poison does not affect the woundless hand, likewise, he is not guilty
 who does a deed with no evil intention. (124)
- Whoever offends a person, innocent, pure and guiltless, evil results will fall upon him, like fine dust thrown against the wind. (125)
- Some are reborn in a mother's womb.
 The evil-doers are bound to the woeful states.
 The doers of good go to happy states.
 The taintless pass away to Perfect Peace. (126)
- 12. There is no place in the world, neither in the sky, nor in the midst of the sea, nor in a mountain cleft, where an evil-doer can live safe from the result of his evil deeds. (127)
- 13. There is no place in the world,
 neither in the sky, nor in the midst of the sea,
 nor in a mountain cleft,
 stationed where,
 one may not be subdued by death. (128)

X

The Rod

- All tremble at the rod, all fear death.
 Feeling for others as for oneself one should neither slay nor cause others to slay. (129)
- All tremble at the rod.
 Life is dear to all.
 Feeling for others as for oneself, one should neither slay nor cause another to slay. (130)
- 3. Whosoever, seeking his own welfare, hurts with rods and the like, living beings who also long for their welfare, he will find no welfare after death. (131)

- 4. But one who seeks his own welfare, does not hurt with rod or the like the beings who long for happiness, such an one will find happiness after death. (132)
- Speak to nobody harshly.
 They that are so spoken to will speak back to you the same way. (133)
- If you can make yourself still as a cracked cymbal, even by this much you have attained to Nirvāna, for retaliation is not found in you. (134)
- 7. As the cowherd leads the kine towards the pasture, so do old age and death drive on the life of beings. (135)
- O brethren, the ignorant, while doing evil,
 do not realize what they do.
 Later, however, they are consumed by the evil deeds they have committed and suffer like one being burnt by fire.
 Furthermore, the unwise man while committing evil deeds, does not realize the consequence thereof.
 The ignorant man is scorched by his own deeds, as if he were burnt with fire. (136)
- 9. He who inflicts pain on the harmless and innocent comes to one of ten calamities: (137)
- 10,11. Severe pain, loss, bodily injury, serious sickness, insanity, danger from the rulers, fearful accusation, loss of relatives, or loss of wealth. He experiences one of these. (138, 139)
- 12. And further, fire will burn down his house.

 After the break-up of his body,
 the same simpleton will go to an unhappy state. (140)
- 13. Nakedness, keeping the hair tangled, covering one's body with mud, fasting, lying on the ground, rubbing with ash, and the practice of the crouching posture—none of these rites can purify a man who has not removed his doubt. (141)

- 14. Though adorned, should one live the higher life, guiltless, calm, self-restrained, resolute, chaste, and refrained entirely from hurting living beings—he is the Brahman, he is the recluse, and he is the monk. (142)
- 15. There is one out of many, who is restrained by modesty and never provokes reproof, as a good horse the whip. (143)
- 16. Be strenuous and urgent
 like a good horse touched with the whip.
 Be endowed with confidence,
 good conduct, effort, concentration,
 and with investigation of the nature
 of component things.
 Be perfect in knowledge and behaviour,
 be heedful, and put aside this great mass of suffering. (144)
- 17. Irrigators lead water wherever they like.
 Fletchers bend arrows.
 Carpenters shape wood.
 The virtuous discipline themselves. (145)

XΙ

Old Age

- 1. What laughter, what joy can there be? Don't you try to seek a light, when the world is ablaze?

 Don't you try to seek a light, when enshrouded in darkness? (146)
- Behold this body adorned,
 a mass of wounds heaped up with bones,
 impermanent and unstable,
 though variously imagined by the majority. (147)
- 3. Worn out is this body, a nest of diseases, which is fragile. Full of corruption, it breaks down. Its vitality ends in death. (148)

- 4. What delight is there, when one sees these white bones like bottle-gourds cast off, (dried and) scattered in the autumn sun? (149)
- A citadel has been built of bones, coated with flesh and blood, a lodge for old age, death, conceit and malice. (150)
- 6. Certainly do royal chariots come to decay.
 This body, too, comes to decay.
 But the Norm realized by the good never comes to decay—thus the good men say to the good ones. (151)
- 7. This unwise fellow grows massive in body; his flesh grows but not his insight. (152)
- 8, 9. Searching for,
 but not finding the builder of this house,
 did I run through many lives within the round of rebirths.
 Now, O builder, you are seen by me.
 Never again shall you build a house for me.
 All your rafters have been broken down,
 and the ridge-pole has been shattered by me.
 My mind has gone beyond component things,
 and thus reached the extinction of cravings. (153, 154)
- They who neither lead the higher life
 nor earn wealth during their youth,
 repent in their old age like old curlews beside a dried pool. (155)
- 11. Neither leading the higher life as a monk, nor earning wealth as a layman during their youth, they lie helpless when aged, bewailing their past days, like arrows shot from a bow lie fallen too far. (156)

XII

Self

If a man holds himself dear,
 let him keep close watch upon himself.
 Let the wise man keep vigil
 during one of the three watches (of the night) at least. (157)

- Let one first establish oneself in proper morals and then preach to others.
 Doing thus, the wise man would not get disgraced. (158)
- Let one mould oneself
 according as one would preach to others.
 Let the well-tamed tame others.
 Hard is it to tame oneself. (159)
- 4. A man is himself the lord of himself.
 What external lord could there be?
 With oneself well subdued,
 one finds a lord rare to get. (160)
- 5. The evil committed, begotten and produced by the fool, crushes the very same doer, even as a diamond bores the flinty gem. (161)
- 6. As the Maluva-creeper brings down a tree, having entwined it all over, so a man's exceeding vice pulls him down to the grade of his enemy's wish. (162)
- 7. Bad deeds, harmful to oneself, are easily done. That which is good and salutary is extremely hard to do. (163)
- 8. A foolish man hugging wrong views, denounces the teachings of the saintly and the pure that live righteously.

 Such an one bears fruit for his own ruin like the fruiting bamboo tree. (164)
- 9. By oneself is evil done.
 By oneself is one defiled.
 By oneself is evil undone.
 By oneself is one purified.
 Oneself is responsible both for one's own purity and impurity.
 No one can purify another. (165)
- 10. Let no one neglect his own duty for the sake of another's. However great it may be, let one consider one's own duty and devote oneself to it. (166)

XIII

The World

- Let one not follow lower practices.
 Let one not live in negligence.
 Let one not follow wrong views.
 Let one not be a prolonger of the world. (167)
- 2. Let one rise up.
 Let one be not negligent.
 Let one do good deeds.
 A doer of good deeds lives happily both here and hereafter. (168)
- Let one do good deeds.
 Let one not do bad deeds.
 The doer of good deeds lives happily both in this life and the life to come. (169)
- 4. Let one look upon the world as a bubble. Let one look upon the world as mirage. Him who thus looks upon the world shall the lord of Death not behold. (170)
- 5. Come and see this microcosm adorned as a royal chariot, in which the ignorant are immersed, while the wise do not cling to it. (171)
- 6. Whosoever, though negligent at first, yet later becomes vigilant, such an one illuminates the world, like the moon emerging from a cloud. (172)
- 7. Whosoever overlays his former vices with virtues later practised, such an one illuminates the world, like the moon emerging from a cloud. (173)
- 8. Blind is the world.Only few can see here.Like the bird that has escaped from the net, only a few go to heaven. (174)

- 9. Swans fly in the sky.

 Those possessed of psychic powers go through the air.

 The wise, defeating the Temptor Māra and his retinue,
 go forth from the world towards Nirvāna. (175)
- 10. A man who transgresses a single law and tells lies, and scoffs at the existence of life after death, there is no evil he can not do. (176)
- 11. Certainly the niggardly do not go to the world of gods. The fools do not commend liberality.

 The wise, participating in the act of giving, will thereby be happy hereafter. (177)
- 12. Better than sole rulership, better than going to heaven, better than lordship over all the worlds is the fruition of Entering the Stream. (178)

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SUTTA NIPĀTA

N. A. Jayawickrama

Additional Abbreviations

AA—Manorathapūranī (Anguttara Nikāya Commentary: PTS, 5 vols., 1924-57; reprinted 1964-73)

Ap-Apadāna (PTS, 2 vols., 1925-7)

DhA—Dhammapada Commentary (PTS, 5 vols., 1906-15; reprinted 1970)

Divy. - Divyāvadāna (ed. E. B. Cowell and R. A. Neil, Cambridge, 1886)

D.P.P.N.—G. P. Malalasekera, Dictionary of Pali Proper Names (India Office Library, London, 1937; PTS, 1960)

I.A.—Indian Antiquary (Bombay, 1872-1933; 1964-)

It.—Itivuttaka (PTS, 1890; reprinted 1975)

J.A.-Journal Asiatique (Paris, 1822-)

J.D.L.-Journal of the Department of Letters (Calcutta)

J.P.T.S.-Journal of the Pali Text Society (London, 1882-1927)

J.R.A.S.—Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society (London, 1843—)

Katre—S. M. Katre, "Early Buddhist Ballads and their relation to the Older Upanishadic Literature" (Ph.D. thesis, London University, 1932)

Kh.-Khuddakapāṭha (PTS, 1915; reprinted 1959)

Kvu-Kathāvatthu (PTS, 2 vols., 1894-7)

Lal.—Lalitavistara (ed. S. Lefmann, Halle, 1902/8)

Mhv/Mvastu—Mahāvastu (ed. E. Senart, 3 vols., Paris, 1882-97; tr. J.J. Jones, SBB, 3 vols., 1949-56)

Nd.—Niddesa, Cūla (PTS, 1918); Mahā (PTS, 2 vols., 1916-7)

Reden—K. E. Neumann, Die Reden Gotamo Buddhos. Aus der Sammlung der Bruchstücke. (Leipzig, 1911; Munich, 1924; Zurich and Vienna, 1957)

S.H.B.—Simon Hewavitarne Bequest (Colombo)

U.C.R.—University of Ceylon Review (1943-67)

Ud.—*Udāna* (PTS, 1885, reprinted 1948)

UdA—Udāna Commentary (PTS, 1926)

Vin.—Vinaya Pitaka (PTS, 5 vols., 1879-83; reprinted 1964)

Vsm.—Visuddhimagga (PTS, 2 vols., 1920-1)

Corrections to Vol. 1, No. 2: P. 75—DA refers to the Sumangalavilāsinī (Dīgha Nikāya Commentary: PTS, 3 vols., 1886, 1931-2; reprinted 1968-71). P. 81, line 16—Thai Shu refers to the Taishō (Tokyo) edition of the Chinese Tripiṭaka.

THE VAGGAS OF THE SUTTA NIPATA

The Atthaka and the Pārāyana Vaggas appear to have been independent collections long before the existence of a separate work called the Sutta Nipāta. The Culla Niddesa which comments on the Pārāyana Vagga and Khaggavisāna Sutta and the Mahā Niddesa which comments on the Atthaka Vagga form the eleventh book of the Khuddaka Nikāya. They make no specific reference to the Sutta Nipāta. In spite of the fact that these two works were commentaries they came to be reckoned as canonical texts, and in turn were commented upon in the fashion of all canonical works. The fact that the Atthaka and Pārāyana Vaggas and Khaggavisāna Sutta had, at one stage, existed independent of a specific collection, does not necessarily prove that all other suttas in Sn. are late. The Niddesas themselves quote from suttas which came to be later included in Sn., besides quoting from other works in the Canon, and parts of Sn. already commented upon in the Niddesas.

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Asoka's Bhābru Edict

Some of the *suttas* included in *Sn.* are mentioned by Asoka in his Bhābru Edict (*vide* U.C.R. VI. 2 p. 81), but often under different names. The Edict inculcates the study of the following passages:—

- 1. Vinaya-samukase,
- 2. Aliya-vasāni,
- 3. Anāgatā-bhayāni,
- 4. Muni-gāthā,
- 5. Moneyya-Sūte,
- 6. Upatisa-pasine and
- 7. Lāghulovāde musāvādam adhigicya.

1. Saddhammapajjotikā, the commentary on the Niddesas was composed during the reign of Aggabodhi I who ascended the throne (of Ceylon) in 554 A.C. (vide Sdpj. wil)

^{2.} Vide Nd 1. ed. L. de la Vallée Poussin and E. J. Thomas pp. 513-515 and Nd 2 ed. W. Stede pp. 289-290. Sabhiya Sutta is quoted from no less than 14 times, i.e. Sn. 514, is quoted at Nd 1.71, Nd 2. 220; Sn. 516 at Nd 1. 244; Sn. 519 at Nd 1. 87, Nd 2. 214; Sn. 522 (cp. A. III. 345) at Nd. 1. 202, Nd 2. 180; Sn. 527 at Nd 1. 58, 221, 336; Sn. 529 at Nd 1. 93, 205, Nd 2. 256 and Sn. 531 at Nd 2. 255. Sāciloma S. is Quoted from 4 times i.e. Sn. 271 at Nd 1. 16, 364, 471 and Nd 2. 201; Padhāna S. also 4 times, viz. Sn. 436-439 at Nd 1. 96, 174, 333 and Nd 2. 253; Magandiya S. twice, viz. Sn. 844 at Nd 1. 179, 200, and Dhotakamāṇavapucchā (Sn. 1064), Mogharājamāṇavapucchā; (Sn. 1119), Salla (Sn. 576-581 ab cp. D. II. 120), Dvayatānupassanā (Sn. 740-741) and Nālaka (Sn. 715) Suttas once each at Nd 1. 32, 438, 121, 455 and Nd 2. 118 respectively.

Of these seven *dhammapaliyāyas* (sections of the Scriptures) only Nos. 1, 4, 5 and 6 have been observed by scholars to be identical with passages in Sn. All the seven passages are identified to some measure of satisfaction.³

Vinaya-samukase (1) "the Exalted Treatise on Moral Discipline" is identified with the Sāmukkamsikā Dhammadesanā (Ud. V. 3) by A. J. Edmunds in J.R.A.S. 1913 p. 387. Dr. B. M. Barua (J.R.A.S. 1915 p. 809) identifies it with the Singālovāda Suttanta (D. III. 180-194) arguing that Ariyassa vinaya which is the topic of discussion there is implied by the term Vinaya-samukase and that it was intended for the clergy and the laity alike. S.N. Mitra (I.A. 1919 pp. 8-11) suggests the Sappurisa Sutta (M. III, 37-45) on account of the occurrence of the words vinayādhāra and attānam samukkamseti. Bhandarkar (Asoka pp. 87-88) attempts to prove its identity with the Tuvataka Sutta of Sn. (Sn. 915-934) from the fact that it is included by Buddhaghosa in a list of four suttas, three of which can be identified with three of Asoka's dhammapaliyāyas. He adduces further interval evidence and maintains that the Buddha expounds religious practices here, for, pāṭimokkha, paṭipadā and samādhi are some of the topics under discussion.

Muni-gāthā (4) is undoubtedly the Muni Sutta of Sn. (Sn. (Sn. 207-221).⁴ Rhys Davids (J.P.T.S. 1896 p. 95) argues that if Śaila-gāthā (at Divy. 35) meant Sela Sutta, then Muni-gāthā should be the Muni Sutta. He further states 'that Asoka should lay so much stress on this short poem is only in harmony with the tenor of the whole context in the Edict'.

The next dhammapaliyāya Moneyya-sūte (5), is identified with the discourse of the Nālaka Sutta (Sn. 699-723). It was wrongly identified as either A.I. 273 or It. 56 (Rhys Davids loc. cit.); but all available evidence shows that Moneyya-sūte was none other than the Nālaka-discourse. The alternative name for the Nālaka Sutta in Pāli itself is Moneyya Sutta (Chalmers xi), which perhaps owes its origin to the opening word moneyyam. Further, the Sūtra in Mvastu. that corresponds to this discourse is also called Mauneya (Mvastu. III. 387 ff.). The short and unimpressive prose passages at A.I. 273 and It. 56 could not in any way have been the Moneyya-sūte of Asoka, though they deal with Moneyyāni in brief.

Oldenberg and Rhys Davids attempt to identify Upatisa-pasine (6) with a Vinaya passage (Vinaya Texts 3. 149 i.e. Vin. I. 39-41) which gives the story of Sāriputta's conversion as a result of his question to Assaji.

4. Vide Dharmananda Kosambi, I. A. 1912 pp. 37 ff.; Mookerji, Asoka pp. 16 ff. and Bhandarkar, Asoka 85 ff.

Rhys Davids elaborates further on this in J.R.A.S. 1893 p. 693 and J.P.T.S. 1896 pp. 97-98. But Dharmānanda Kosambi (I.A. 1912 p. 40) identifies it with Sāriputta Sutta (Sn. 955-975). It is generally accepted that the passages mentioned by Asoka are short pieces. The people were instructed to study these dharmaparyāyas and perhaps learn them by heart as was the practice then. A passage in verse lends itself easier for memorising than one in prose, and has more poetic appeal. This alone is sufficient reason why Upatisa-pasine cannot be the prose sutta at Vin. I. 39-41.

The seventh "section of the scriptures" called the "Exhortation to Rahula, beginning on the subject of Falsehood" has so far been identified as the Ambalatthikā Rāhulovāda Sutta (M.I. 414-420),5 but the probability is that it perhaps referred to a Rāhula Sutta in verse. The only Rāhula Sutta in verse in the Pali Canon, is found at Sn. 335-342. But the sutta as it exists now, cannot be easily identified with Lāghulovāde musāvādam adhigicya, as it neither begins with $(adhi + \sqrt{kr})$, nor deals with the topic of musāvāda (falsehood) anywhere in the body of the sutta. It has been pointed out by Katre that probably the Vatthugāthā (Sn. 335-336) formed a part of a different Rāhula Sutta and that the concluding sentence in prose links them with the rest of the sutta. He further states that the clue to the verses is found only in the prose formula at the end of the sutta. This other Rāhula Sutta, presumably a part of which is now preserved as Vatthu-gāthā in Sn. was probably the sutta mentioned by Asoka. But all this is purely conjectural. No definite connection can be established between Sn. 335-336 and M.I. 414-420, the other Rāhula Sutta; and there is no conclusive proof that No. 7 in the Edict had any connections with Sn. 335-336 or Sn. 335-342. The only reasons for suspecting that they were connected are:-

- 1. The Rāhula Sutta in Sn. is a comparatively short piece in verse.
- 2. The two, Lāghulovāda and Rāhula Sutta refer to the same person (Rāhula).
- 3. This dhammapaliyāya follows three others in the Edict which are identified with certainty to belong to the same type of literature (i.e. pieces now preserved in Sn.).

Eliminating the Rāhula Sutta as doubtful there yet remain four suttas of Sn. in Asoka's list. The consensus of opinion among scholars is that Munigāthā, Moneyya-sūte and Upatisa-pasine referred to suttas which were included in Sn. Perhaps Bhandarkar is correct when he identifies Vinayasamukase as the Tuvaṭaka Sutta.⁶ There is no doubt that these suttas existed at least as early as the 3rd century B.C. For lack of further evidence it is incorrect to presuppose the existence of Sn. prior to the time

^{3.} Vide Hultzsch, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. I, pp. 172-174 ff.; Dharmanada Kosambi, I. A., 1912 pp. 37 ff.; Rhys Davids, J.P.T.S. 1896 pp. 93 ff.; J.R.A.S. 1898 pp. 683 ff.; Rādhakumud Mookerji, Asoka, pp. 117 ff.; D. R. Bhandarkar, Asoka, pp. 85 ff.; J.D.L. (Calcutta) xx, pp. 1-7; Sylvain Lévi, J.A. 7, 475 ff.; and Oldenberg, Vinaya Pitakam I, xl ff.

^{5.} Rhys Davids J.P.T.S. 1896 p. 95.

^{6.} op. cit.

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of Asoka as there is no specific mention of it either in inscriptions or in any Canonical work.

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The Atthaka Vagga

The Episode of Sona Kutikanna.

On the other hand, the early existence of the Atthaka and the Pārāvana Vaggas as separate collections, can be deduced from the references made to them in other works. The earliest mention of the Atthaka Vagga is at Vin. I. 196, in the episode of Sona Kutikanna, which repeats itself in many other works with various additions and alterations. The Vinava passage runs..āyasmā Sono sabbān'eva Atthakavaggikāni sarena abhāsi (the venerable Sona recited all the sections—or suttas—of the Atthaka Vagga with proper intonation). At Ud. 59 the precise number of suttas in the Atthaka Vagga is also mentioned . . āyasmā Sono . . solasa Atthakavaggikāni sabbān'eva sarena abhāni (the venerable Sona recited all the 16-suttasof the Atthaka Vagga with proper intonation). Dh A. IV. 102, UdA. 312, AA.I. 241 and Th 1 A. I. 459 relate this incident in very much the same words, but with additional commentarial gloss.

The Avadana of Kotikarna (Divy. 20), which is an extract from the Vinaya of the Mūlasarvāstivādins8 mentions the Atthaka Vagga: Athāyuşmāñchrono bhagavatā kṛtāvakāśah asmātparāntikayā guptikayā Udānāt, Pārāyanāt, Satyadrstah, Sailagāthā, Munigāthā, Arthavargīyāni (v.i. arthavadgīyāni) ca sūtrāni vistarena svarena svādhyāyam karoti. (Then the venerable Srona, with the approval of the Bhagavā, rehearsed in detail, with intonation in the accent of an Aparantika, passages from the Udana and Pārāyana, the Satyadrsta (?), the Śaila-gāthā (Sela S), Munigāthā (Muni S.) and the sūtras of the Arthavarga).

In the Avadana of Pūrna at Divy. 34-35, the merchants who embarked with Pūrna are said to have recited the *Udāna*, *Pārāyana*, *Satyadarśa*, Sthaviragāthā, Śailagāthā, Munigāthā and the Arthavargīya Sūtra.

In the Vinaya of the Sarvāstivādins which is found in Chinese⁹ (Tok. XVI. 4. 56a), Śrona is said to have recited the Pārāyana and the Satyadarśa. The Buddha complements his Avantī pronunciation.

The Vinaya of the Mahīśāsakas, preserved in Chinese (Tok. XVI, 2, 30a). contains a version similar to the Pali account in the Vinaya; but the number of suttas is specified as in the Udāna.

The account in the Vinaya of the Dharmaguptakas resembles the version in Pāli and the account in the Vinaya of the Mahīśāsakas. Here (Tok. XV. 5. 53b; chap. 39) Kotikarna is said to have recited the 16 Arthapada without addition or omission.

In the Vinaya of the Mahāsanghikas (Tok. XV. 9.61a; chap. 23) Śrona recites the Astavarga (Ch. Chu Pa-ch'un-ching), and the Buddha questions him on the phrases (pada) and the meaning (artha).

In all these accounts, except in the Vinaya of the Sarvāstivādins, the Arthavargīyāni or the Atthakavaggikāni are mentioned. The additional list of titles in Sanskrit texts is a mere expansion though Sylvain Lévi does not consider it an interpolation:

"On pourrait etre tente de croire que la liste des titres donnée dans le texte sanscrit est une interpolation, si la version tibetaine du Dulva ne venait pas contrôler-et sur certains points rectifier-le texte sanscrit." (ibid. p. 412). The Tibetan version parallel to the Vinaya of the Mūlasarvāstivādins is at Dulva I. 378-405 (cf. Divy. I, Ch. Tok. XVII. 4. 104e-190b).

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Other References in Buddhist Sanskrit Works

Besides the episode of Sona (Śrona), there are numerous references to, and quotations from the Atthaka Vagga. Vasubandhu in his Abhidharmakośa quotes the following verse:-

Tasya cet kāmayānasya chandajātasya dehinah te kāmā na samīdhyanti śalyaviddha iva rūpyate and attributes it to the Atthaka Vagga (cp. Sn. 767).

Yasomitra in his Abhidharmakośa-vyākhyā comments: Tathā hyartha-. vargiyeşüktam iti: Arthavargiyani sütrani yani Kşudrake pathyante teşüktam; tasya cet kāmayānasya iti vistarah. Tasya dehinah kāmayānasya chandajātasya yadi kāmā viṣayā na samṛdhyanti na sampadyante ṣalyaviddha ivāsau rūpyate bādhyate ityarthah. (This is what is meant by the statement that it has been so said in the Arthavargiyas: It is stated in the sūtras of the Arthavargīya found in the Kṣudraka (Nikāya or Āgama?) that the meaning of "if of him who desires etc." is, "If the desires and sensepleasures of a being who yearns and craves for such pleasures are not satisfied nor fulfilled he sulks and is perturbed like one shot with an arrow'').

^{7.} The episode of Sona (Śrona) in Pāli and BSk. is fully analysed and critically studied by Sylvain Lévi in J.A. 1915 pp. 401 ff.

8. Vide Huber, B.E.F.E.O. 1907, Sylvain Lévi, T'oung Pao 1907 and M. Choyannes,

Cinq cents Contes et-Apologues II, 237 ff.

I am indebted to Prof. Sylvain Lévi's analysis of the Srona Episode in J.A. 1915. for these references.

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Bodhisattvabhūmi (p. 48) commenting on the word kānti says thus, Uktam ca bhagavatā Arthavargīyeşu,

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Yā kaścana samyrtayo hi loke, saryā hi tā munir nopaiti

Anupago hyasau kena upādatīta, drstasrute kāntim asamprakurvan (cf. Sn. 897). "And so it has been said by the Bhagavā in the Arthavargī yas, Whatever conventions of the world there are, none of them affects the muni (sage), for he does not move with them, wherefore shall he who forms no sense-attachment to what is seen and heard be guided (by them)?"

The reading kāntim in Bodhisattvabhūmi sheds a new light on the interpretation of the line Sn. 897 d. All MSS., except two Burmese MSS. (Nos. 4 and 5 mentioned at Sn. p.v., P.T.S. ed.) which read khanti, agree on the reading khantim. Nd 2. 165 considers khanti as a synonym for dițțhi, ruci, laddhi, ajjhāsaya and adhippāya, perhaps guided by the occurrence of dittha and suta at other passages in Sn. 10 Sn. A. 558 comments on it as: khantimakubbamāno, ti. pemam akaronto. Chalmers translates Sn. 897d as, "when phenomena of sense appeal to them no more," Fausböll, "he who is not pleased with what has been seen and heard," Neumann, Beim Sehn und Hören angehalten nimmer, and E. M. Hare, "why give accord to things of sight and ear?" All these translators apparently translate the idea correctly, but none of them seems to have questioned the text. According to the reading khantim the corresponding Sk. would be kṣāntim (patience). The word khanti in a context like this may be translated as, "tolerance for" or even "(developing) a weakness for," but such a translation appears unnatural and laboured. If the text had been kantim (from \(\struct kam \)) and not khantim, the idea conveyed would be more in keeping with the context. The reading khantim in BSk. cannot be brushed aside as a wrong Sanskritisation for Pāli khantim. On the other hand, it may perhaps go back to a reading much earlier than Pāli.

There are also a number of passages and lines common to the Atthaka Vagga and other Pāli works. They are fully examined by Franke. 12

24

The Chinese Arthapadam

The complete Atthaka Vagga together with additional stories as a background is found in the Chinese Tripitaka although "it can be said with certainty that there is not and has never existed a Chinese version of the Sutta Nipāta. '13 This section called the I-tsu or Yi-tsou king (Arthapadam) is a translation dating back to the beginning of the 3rd century A.C., according to Anesaki. It occurs as No. 198 in the Taishō Tripitaka. The 16 pieces occur in the following order:-

Kāma Sutta contains	8 li	nes with	ı 3	pādas	each	(No.	1 in	Pāli	Atthak	a Vagga).
Guhaṭṭhaka S. "	16	,, ,,	2	- ,,	,,	(No.	2	,,	,,	,
Dutthatthaka S.,, 4	& 12	, ,	2	,,	,,	ίΝο.	3	,,		"
Suddhatthaka S.,,	16	,, ,,	2	,,	,,	(No.	4		**	"
Paramatthaka S.,,	16	,, ,,	2	,,	,,	(No.	5	,,	"	"
Jarā S.	20		2			(No.	6	,,	77	" /
Tissametteyya S.,,	20		2	,,	,,	(No.	7	,,	,,	"
Pasūra S	23	,, ,,	2	,,	"	(No.	8	"	"	. ,,
Māgandiya S	27	, ,,	ĩ	٠,	,,	(No.	ä	"	,,	"
Kalahavivada S	32 (, ,,	2	,,	,,	`~ ~	11	"	77 1	"
Cūlavivāha S	34	,, ,,	2	,,	,,			,,	,,	,,)
Mahāviyūha S		"	2	,,	,,	(No.		,,	,,	,,)
Tuvataka S		,, ,,	2	,,	,,	(No.	-	,,	,,	·,)
		, ,,	2	,,	,,	(No.		,,	,,	,,)
Säriputta S. 16 &		,, ',,	2	7.5	,,	(No.	~ *	,,	,,	,,)
Purābheda S. ,,	28	,, ,,	2	,,	,,	(No.		,,	,,	,,)
Attadanda S., ,,	40	,, ,,	2	,,	,,	(No.	15	,,	,,	,,

In addition to the prose incorporated with these verses there occur some additional stanzas. The lines beginning with na socanāya at A. II. 62 are found at No. 1 and Sn. 152-179 in No. 13 of the Chinese version, i.e. Tuvataka Sutta.

All this evidence helps to show that the Atthaka Vagga as a collection is old, and Sylvain Lövi¹⁴ concludes, Nous sommes en droit de classer L'Arthavarga parmi les monuments les plus auciens de la litérature bouddhique.

25

Astaka Varga or Arthaka Varga?

The title Atthaka Vagga calls for attention next. The name Atthaka suggests that the vagga consists of octaves or suttas with eight stanzas each, but only four of its suttas (viz. Nos. 2-5) are proper octaves. It cannot be determined whether these suttas were atthakas (astakas—octaves) or atthakas (arthakas-meaningful utterances) to begin with. Pāli tradition has been very strong in insisting on the name Atthaka. It was customary for Pali compilers to resort to artificial means such as numerals, in their classifications. They may have deemed it proper to call a section Atthaka Vagga even though only a small proportion of its suttas consisted or real octaves. Similar instances may be seen in works like udāna where an important sutta in a vagga gives the name to the whole of it. It was not considered necessary that all the suttas in the vagga should consist of 8 stanzas each, unlike the majority of the nipātas (the earlier ones) of

^{10.} This idea occurs no less than 18 times in Sn. viz. Sn. 797 b=887 a, 793 ab=914 ab. 798 cd, 887 ab (887 b=790 b), 910 ab, 1079 ab=1080 bc, 1082 cd=1083 cd. 788 b= 789 a, 802 ab, 897 d and 778 d=250 d. All these instances (except 250 d) are, found in the sections commented in Nd 1 and 2. 11. Vide E. J. Thomas, History of Buddhist Thought, p. 171 and s.v. P.T.S.

^{12.} Vide R. Otto Franke, Die Sutta Nipāta Gāthās mit ihren Parallelen, Z.D.M.G. 1909-1912 and E. M. Hare, Woven Cadences, (S.B.B. Vol. XV), pp. 203-206.

^{13.} Anesaki, J.P.T.S. 1906-1907, p. 50. 14. J. A. 1915, p. 417.

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Th 1 and Th 2. It would be incorrect to say that only these four atthakas formed the Atthaka Vagga and that the other suttas were subsequently added or grafted from other places. This would imply a tacit acceptance of the incomplete artificial classification of Pāli compilers as final. In fact, the vagga follows a systematic arrangement in which the sutta with the least number of verses is placed first and proceeds gradually in ascending numerical order till the suttas with the highest number of verses are placed last. The order of arrangement of the suttas need not necessarily be as old as the vagga itself, for the Chinese version follows a slightly different order. However, nothing conclusive can be inferred from this.

Almost all the references to the Atthaka Vagga which mention the number of suttas in it speak of the Solasa atthakavaggikāni (Ud. 59, Ud A. 312, DhA. IV. 102 and AA. I. 241). The Chinese version was seen to contain the 16 suttas in full. Despite this general agreement Th IA. speaks of "addhuddhasolasa atthakavaggikāni": (Th IA. I. 459 S.H.B., commentary on Sonatthera's verses at Th 1. 365-369). This statement would imply that the Atthaka Vagga consisted of 56 (3½×16) suttas—an impossibility. Commentarial tradition cannot always be relied upon; and in all probability this statement may have been an exaggeration like the passage at AA. IV. 35 which speaks of 250 stanzas of the Pārāyana, when in actual practice the whole vagga, including the Vatthu-gāthās and Epilogue contains only 174 stanzas. The statement at Th. 1 A.I. 459 can also be interpreted as "56 stanzas of the Atthaka Vagga." It is not possible to find out to what suttas these 56 stanzas belonged. Obviously the 32 stanzas which form the four regular octaves should be included in this number. This leaves 24 verses which should be expected to belong to three other regular octaves; but no such suttas are to be found in the vagga. Furthermore, there is no possible combination of two or more suttas which brings about a total of 24 stanzas. There is no justifiable reason why a commentary of so late a date as 5th century A.C. should ignore some of the suttas and speak of only 56 stanzas when Nd 2. Vin. I. 196 and Ud. 59, leaving aside contemporary commentarial literature, confirm that it did consist of 16 suttas. The reading, addhuddhasolasa atthakavaggikāni is incompatible with evidence furnished by all other sources and therefore can be summarily dismissed as a Commentarial error.

Pāli works uniformly refer to this section as Atthaka Vagga though BSk. and Chinese Buddhist works give it different names. It is called Arthavargīyāni Sūtrāni (v.1. arthavadgīyāni) at Divy. 20 and 35. Vasubandhu and Yaśomitra (supra) call it Arthavargīya. Bodhisattvabhūmi too refers to it as Arthavargīya. The Chinese version gives the name as I-tsuo or Yi-tsouking (Arthapadam). In the episode of Śrona found in the Vinaya of the

Mahīśāsakas¹⁵ (Ch. Tok. XVI. 2. 30a) the reference is to the sixteen Arthakavargīya (Ch. Yi-pin=Artha-varga). The Vinaya of the Dharmaguptakas (Tok. XV. 5. 53b) has it as the sixteen Arthapada (Ch. Yi-kiu=Artha-pada). In the Vinaya of the Mūlasarvāstivādins it is called the Arthavargīyāni Sūtrāni (Dulva: don kyi choms kyi mdo). The Sarvāstivād in Vinaya calls it the Artha-vargīya Sūtra (Tok. XVII. 4. 9b, Col. 5; Ch. Yi-tsing=Artha-vargīya). At Tok. XVI. 4. 56a it is called A-tch'a-p'o-k'i-ye-sieou-to-lou, sūtra des vertues rassemblées and is identified by Lévi (ibid.) as Arthavargīya Sūtra.

It is significant that the majority of these works refer to it as Artha (ka)varga or Artha-pada. The Vinaya of the Mahāsanghikas alone speaks of an Asta-varga, but even here the idea of artha and pada is not absent. It is said that the Buddha questioned Srona on the phrases (pada) and the meaning (artha) after his recital (Tok. XV. 9. 61a, chap. 23). The Vinava of the Mahāsanghikas thus preserves the Pāli tradition at the same time reflecting another common to the rest of the BSk. works. It is quite probable that this section was originally not meant to be described as the "Eights," and BSk, may have preserved an earlier tradition which called these Atthakas Arthakas. The four octaves were probably Arthakas (Atthaka-meaningful statements) at the beginning. Each of these suttas contains in its opening line the words used for their respective titles. Guhatthaka opens with, Satto guhayam bahunābhicchanno (Sn. 772a), Dutthatthaka with, Vadanti ve dutthamanā, pi eke (Sn. 780a), Suddatthaka with, Passāmi suddham paramam arogam (Sn. 788a) and Paramatthaka with, Paramam ti ditthīsu paribbasāno (Sn 796a). These words are used as illustrations in the didactic-ballad discourses to elucidate the meaning, and hence the suttas are Atthakas (Arthakas). It is a mere coincidence that the number of stanzas constituting each of these suttas happens to be eight. The word attha together with the secondary suffix—ka (attha+ ka) may have changed into atthaka (probably) with the influence of Western Prākrit which has a tendency to cerebralise dentals following an r; i.e. $rt \rightarrow -tt$ -and- $rth \rightarrow -tth$. The first change is frequent in Pāli itself; e.g. Sk. ārta > atta. Artha itself is frequently changed to attha, which spelling was later restricted to a specific meaning as "law-suit" (atta). In cpds. artha > attha in Pāli e.g. atthakathā, atthuppatti, etc (s.v., P.T.S.). In the case of the Atthaka Vagga this change perhaps was more accentuated by the mere coincidence that four of its suttas consisted of 8 stanzas each. The weakness of Pāli compilers to be guided by numerical classifications may have finally led to stamp down the name "eights" or "octaves" on this vagga.

The emphasis on attha (weal) in the Pali Canon is evident from the

^{15.} The following references to Chinese works are from Sylvain Lévi, ibid.

numerous instances in which the word occurs. 16 The formula. atthāya hitāya sukhāya (for the benefit, well-being and comfort of) which occurs all over the Canon (e.g. D. III, 211 ff. It. 79, Kh. VIII, 1 etc.). leaving aside all other references to attha, testifies to the importance of this concept. It is probable that the idea underlying the Atthakas of the Atthaka Vagga was related to attha (weal) though fundamentally it was the elucidation of meaning (attha paridipanā) that was aimed at. This may be seen more clearly at Saddharmapundarīka 383 1.3.

Evam idam mahārthasya dharmaparyāyasya dhāranā, vācanā, deśanā Bodhisattvānām anuttarāyāh samyak sambodher āhārakā samvartanti, (In like manner, the learning by heart, the reciting and the teaching of this section of the scriptures of great meaning-or benefit-tends to bring about the perfect and supreme Enlightenment of Bodhisattyas.

All this evidence seems to indicate that the term Atthaka Vagga (also mahāsanghika Asta-varga) was a misnomer arising from an early confusion caused by the occurrence of eight stanzas each in Nos. 2-5 of the Vagga. The term Atthaka is best interpreted as Arthaka as in the majority of BSk. works.

From isolated references to Atthaka Vagga in many Pāli works it is conjectured that "it may possibly have been the name of divisions of other works." In the whole of the Pāli Canon no other Atthaka Vagga can be traced though Anguttara has an Atthaka Nipāta and Th 1 and Th 2 contain Attha Nipātas. Though the absence of other Atthaka Vaggas does not preclude the possibility of the occurrence of other sections bearing that name no references to another Atthaka Vagga have been discovered so far.

26

Pārāyana Vagga

The next vagga in importance is the Pārāvana. It consists of 18 pieces: viz. a prologue in verse called the Vatthu-gāthā, 16 short dialogues in verse called Pucchās and an epilogue in prose and verse. The word Pārāvana occurs thrice in the text itself, but all these references are to be met with in the epilogue; viz. Sn. p. 218, Sn. 1130d and 1131a. The prose passage at p. 218 gives a commentary-like explanation of the term Pārāyana: Ekam ekassa ce pi pañhassa auham aññāva, dhammam aññāva, dhammānudhammam patipajjevya, gacchevy' eva jarāmaranassa pāram, pāramgamanīvā ime dhammā' ti, tasmā imassa dhammaparivāvassa pārāvanam t'veva

17. Malalasekera s.v., D.P.P.N.

adhivacanam. (If one were to comprehend the import of each one of these questions, and realise the Dhamma therein, and follow the path in accordance with the major and minor precepts of the Law, one would cross over to the further shore of old-age and death. As these teachings lead to overyonder, the name Pārāvana is given to this disquisition on the Dhamma). The two stanzas Sn. 1129-1130 express the same idea in verse and explain the title Pārāvana.

Although the title does not occur in any of the Pucchās (or pañhas) the central theme of the vagga is "The Way Beyond" or "Crossing Over." The idea of crossing over of the Flood (ogha) occurs 10 times. 18 The "passing beyond" of this "Sinful State" (visattikā) is mentioned 5 times, 19 and this is an idea common with other canonical texts, particularly Samyutta and Anguttara Nikāyas. The overcoming of birth and old-age (jāti and jarā) which is a necessary accompaniment of the "Going Beyond" is to be met with in 10 places. 20 An idea parallel to this is the abandoning of $(\sqrt{h\bar{a}} \text{ or } pa+\sqrt{h\bar{a}}) \text{ sorrow, or that of } j\bar{a}tijar\bar{a} \text{ (or } j\bar{a}ti \text{ and } j\bar{a}r\bar{a}), \text{ occurring } 7$ times in Sn.21 Connected is the idea of overcoming the material substratum of birth (upadhi) at Sn. 1057b and 1083b. The destruction of $(pa+\sqrt{bhid})$ ignorance (avijiā) occurs at Sn. 1105 f and 1078d, and of craving (tanhā) and attachment (kāma and its synonyms), 9 times.22 The other concepts emphasised are, the state of emancipation (vimokha) at Sn. 1088d, 1105e, and 1189d (the Buddha is called vimutta, the released, at 1101 and the emancipated one is mentioned at Sn. 1071c, 1072c, 1073c, 1074c and 1114d), cessation (nirodha) at Sn. 1037e, the destruction (uparodha, or verb $upa+\sqrt{rudh}$) of evil at Sn. 1036e, 1037df, 1110b, 1111d, tranquility (santi) at Sn. 1066a, 1067a, the tranquilled state (santipada) at Sn. 1096c. nibbāna at Sn. 1061d, 1062d, 1094c, 1108d, 1109d and nibbānapada at Sn. 1086d. Aiita questions the Buddha regarding the taints of the world at Sn. 1032; the dangers arising out of the world are mentioned at Sn. 1032, 1033, of ogha at 1092, 1093 and of sorrow and the arising of Ill at Sn. 1033, 1049, 1050 and 1051. The escape from the evils of the world, the crossing over of the Flood and the attainment of santi or nibbana are the dominant ideas in the vagga. The verb with \sqrt{tar} alone is used no less than 23 times in the Pucchās in addition to verbs like pajahati, thus justifying the title Pārāvana.

The word pāra occurs thrice in the Pucchās (Sn. 1059, 1105 and 1112); but in the latter two instances it is used in praise of the Buddha. In the

^{16.} Vide P.T.S. (s.v.) for examples quoted.

^{18.} Sn. 1052 c, 1059 c, 1064 d, 1069 d, 1070 b, 1081 e, 1082 g, 1083 g, 1096 b and 1101 b.

Sn. 1053 d, 1054 d, 1067 d, 1085 e and 1087 d. Sn. 1045 d, 1046 e, 1047 bd, 1048 d, 1052 d, 1060 d, 1079 f, 1080 f and 1081 g.

Sn. 1056 c, 1057 c, 1058 a, 1082 b, 1079 c, 1020 c, and 1122 f. 22. Sn. 1068 cd, 1970 cd, 1082 f. 1083 f, 1085 c, 1103 a, 1123 d, (at 1101 and 1021 it is used as an epithet of the Buddha).

whole of Sn. the word occurs 43 times, together with its derivatives and cpds., evenly distributed in all the five vaggas. Of these, pāra, "the Beyond," is directly mentioned in five instances; viz. na pāram diguņam vanti (Sn. 714c), tinno ca pāram akhilo akankho (Sn. 1059d), gacche pāram apārato (Sn. 1129d) and maccudheyyapāram (Sn. 1146d). 'The idea of "crossing over" is incorporated in a simile at Sn. 771d, and pārasmim (loc.) occurs at Sn. 1018c and 1020d. This concept is totally different from pāramī or pāramitā of later Buddhism. Pāramgata occurs at Sn. 803d and pāragata at Sn. 21b, 210d, 359b and 638c. Pāra in the line, so bhikkhu jahāti orapāram (Sn. 1c-17c-that monk shuns the here and the beyond) has a different connotation from pāra in the rest of the references. The idea that is diametrically opposed to $p\bar{a}ram + \sqrt{gam}$ is at Sn. 15 b, oram āgamanāya paccayāse (casual antecedents for the return hither). The concept of "going beyond" is to be met with in numerous other canonical works; e.g. S. IV. 174, A.V. 4, M. III. 64, Th 1. 771-773, etc. and is one of the most fundamental tenets in early Buddhism.

27

Its Antiquity

This vagga appears to have been called Pārāyana from the earliest times.²³ Several canonical works refer to it and quote from it. Sn. 1109 is found at S. I. 39 in the Devatā Samyutta, and at S. I. 40 the same stanza occurs with its first line reading, nandī sambandhano loko instead of nandīsamyojano loko. Yet there is no mention of the Pārāyana here. S. II. 47 refers to the Ajitapañha when quoting Sn. 1038, and the stanza is quoted again at S. II. 49 making it the topic of discourse up to p. 50. Anguttara refers to the Pārāyana 6 times. At A. I. 133 Punnakapañha of the Pārāyana is mentioned and Sn. 1048 quoted. At A. II. 45-46 the same stanza is quoted thus: Imā kho bhikkhave catasso samādhibhāvanā, idam pana etam sandhāya bhāsitam Pārāyane Punnakapañhe (These indeed, O monks, are the four meditations on concentration; it has been declared so in the Punnakapañha of the Pārāyana regarding this). The Udayapañha of the Pārāyana is mentioned at A. I 134, and Sn. 1106, 1107 are quoted from it. A. III. 399, 401 quote Sn. 1042 with the opening line reading differently²⁴ and refer to the Metteyyapañha of the Pārāyana. At A. IV. 63 the female lay-devotee Nandamātā is reported as reciting the Pārāyana with proper intonation (sarena) and Vessavana is pleased with it. Sn. 1064 is quoted at Kvu. 94; Sn. 1117 at Ap. 537, 25; Sn. 1118-1119 at Ap. 537, 26-28;

24. Sn. 1042a reads, so ubhantam abhiññāya, while the line at A. III. 399 reads, yo ubhante viditvāna.

Sn. 1119 at Vsm. 656 and Kvu. 64; besides the numerous instances where the verses of the Pārāyana are quoted in Commentaries and quoted and commented on in Nettippakarana.²⁵

Among the references in BSk. works²⁶ many of the following have already been mentioned in connection with the Atthaka Vagga. Divy. 20, 34, include it among the texts recited by Srona and the merchants respectively. The Dulva too mentions it in the episode of Srona. The Vinaya of the Sarvastivadins (Ch. Tok. XVI. 4, 56a) mentions Po-lo-ven (Pārāyana) as one of the texts recited by him, and includes it among the "great suttas" in a passage which is important for the history of the Canon. Po-lo-yen (The Way Across) is the 16th passage out of the 18 mentioned. The Arthavargīyasūtra is No. 17, and the majority of the other passages is from D. In a list of sūtras "which should be taught to novices" occurring in the Vinaya of the Mahāsanghikas (Ch. Tok. XV. 8. 9. 3a) the Pa-ch'ung-ching (Atthaka Vagga) and Po-lo-ven are mentioned at the head. The Vinaya of the Dharmaguptakas (chap. 54) too refers to the Pārāyana. Reference to it is also made in Abhidharmamahāyibhāsā (chap. 4), where it is stated that the Pārāyana was recited at a "Council" of 500 arhats held under Kaniska's patronage. Some of the passages specially cited are the second stanza of Posālamānavapucchā and Sn. 874. Mahāprajñāpāramitā Sāstra in its first chapter quotes the "Question of Mākandika" in the Atthaka Vagga (Sn. 837-840 are quoted), and in chapter 3 "The Question of Ajita in the Pārāyana" (Sn. 1032 ff.). Aśvaghosa refers to the brahmanas of the Parayana in his Buddhacarita (v. 1061) and Sūtrālankāra (canto 43). E. J. Thomas (Life of Buddha, p. 274) mentions the story of Bavari in a later form found among the MSS. discovered in Central Asia and cites Sieg und Siegling, "Tocharische Sprachreste'' I, p. 101.

From all these references, specially those in the Pāli Canon, which are older than the BSk. works, it is evident that the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ existed very early as a separate collection. Nowhere is Sn. mentioned when quotations are made from various $pa\tilde{n}has$. This is further proof that the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$, like the $Atthaka\ Vagga$ goes back to a period prior to the compilation of Sn. The various quotations also show that the questions of the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ have not undergone the rigid classification and arrangement found later in Sn. They are invariably called $pa\tilde{n}has$ and not $pucch\bar{a}s$ unlike in Sn.

W. Stede (Nd 2, p. xx) suggests that these pañhas may have existed in "some arrangement other than that which enumerates them simply as Pucchās 1, 2, etc." By carefully analysing the various MSS. of Nd 2 he notes that the Niddesa makes it "conclusive to a certain extent that groups

^{23.} Also Vide § III; Anesaki, J.P.T.S. 1906-7 p. 51, mentions that no less than 13 references are made to it in early texts.

^{25.} Vide Otto Franke and E.M. Hare, ibid.

^{26.} Op. cit. (Sylvain Lévi).

of pucchās existed separately before they were set in the present arrangement, or were taken out of their present setting because they were greater favourites than others." The popularity of the Ajita Sutta perhaps led to its being placed at the head of the vagga. Metteyya and Punnaka Pañhas can be considered to have been equally popular, judging from the quotations made from them in Pāli works; and this probably explains their position as second and third respectively in the vagga. Udaya Pañha is also quoted from, but it is placed as No. 13. Stede concludes that either of Nos. 3 and 4 may have formed the last sutta of a separate group.

It is generally accepted that Nd 2 is older than Sn. The latter does not yield any information regarding the arrangement of these pucchās. All the 16 pieces are called *Pucchās*, whereas in Nd 2 some are called *suttas*; (viz. Nos. 1 and 3, and the others are called pañhas). The minor variations in the mode of referring to and commenting on these pieces in Nd 2 may shed some light on this question. Stede²⁷ shows that Nd 2 is uniform as regards the concluding statements in the Commentaries of the suttas up to No. 3; e.g. Ajita Sutta Niddeso samatto, etc. that Nos. 4 and 5 are numbered after the comments on them (e.g. Mettagu pañham catuttham samattam, etc.), and that the numeration ceases after No. 5. He questions whether Nos. 1-5 formed one separate collection. It is quite probable that Nos. 1-3 formed one collection and that Nos. 1-5 another, so that the group Nos. 1-3 was either included in the bigger group Nos. 1-5, or the earlier group was Nos. 1-3 which was later extended up to No. 5. It is quite obvious that Nos. 6-16 formed a group or groups independent of Nos. 1-5. The position of the popular Udaya Pañha as No. 13 may suggest that it may have been placed at the head of another group consisting of Nos. 13-16 just as the well-known Ajita Pañha was placed at the head of the earlier group (Nos. 1-3 or 1-5). The probability is that Nos. 6-16 consisted of two groups viz. Nos. 6-12 and 13-16. All these pieces were, at a subsequent date, taken together and gradually worked out into a legend by introducing Bāravī, the brahmin of the South.

28

The Vatthu Găthā

The legend of Bāvarī leads to the question of the relationship of the vatthu-gāthā and the epilogue to the pucchās of the Pārāyana. The Niddesa leaves the vatthu-gāthā (v.g) uncommented and it is doubtful whether they were known to its author. In some MSS, of Nd 2 (vide Nd 2 introduction)

the text of the v.g. and that of the epilogue is to be met with, while in others only that of v.g. The inclusion of the v.g. and the epilogue in MSS. of Nd 2 does not help one to determine whether the author was acquainted with these two pieces, for it may have taken place long after the writing of Nd 2. The fact that the v.g. are not commented upon in the work shows either that the v.g. did not exist at the time of the writing of Nd 2. or that they may have existed in some form or other, but were not accepted as authentic by the author. The early occurrence of v.g. in verse is highly doubtful, but it is probable that the versification of an earlier existing prose legend may have taken place somewhere about the same time as the composition of the v.g. of the Nālaka Sutta. This introductory prose legend cannot be considered very old, for all the internal evidence of the v.g. and the epilogue shows that these pieces were at least a few centuries younger than the pucchās. It is probable that the legend of Bāvarī which was introduced as an ākhyāna-narrative by the reciters of these ballads, underwent certain changes and modifications as time went on, and finally became fixed in the present metrical rendering. The outcome is a short kāvya in itself in true epic-style.

The opening stanzas easily suggest their kinship with epic literature. A Kosalan brahmin (from Sāvatthi?) comes to the Southern Country (Dakkhināpatha of Deccan) and settles down at Mulakā (reading with Nd. 2 and Chalmers) on the banks of the upper Godhāvarī in the country of the Assakas (Aśmaka), probably not very far from Patițțhāna (Pratișțhāna, the modern Paithan about 19.5° N 75° E).28 Then another brahmin visits him and demands (text, yācati—begs, Sn. 980d) 500 pieces. When Bāvarī replies that he has no money the other curses. The pronouncement of the curse (Sn. 983), its description (Sn. 984), the repercussions on Bāvari (Sn. 985), the appearance of the devatā (Sn. 986) and the conversation that ensues (Sn. 987-993) are truly characteristic of epic poetry. There are numerous instances of similar situations in the Sanskrit epics and other literature. The pronouncement of the curse in Nalopākhyāna and the gradual denouement of the plot in it could be compared with the legend of Bavari. The comparatively later jataka literature affords many parallels. Neumann (Reden p. 547) compares Sn. 984 with the description of the curse in Sakuntala. The tidings of the Buddha given by the devata cause immense joy in Bāvarī who summons his pupils and bids them visit the Buddha. In reply to their question as to how they would be able to recognize the Buddha, Bāvarī replies that he could be distinguished by the 32 characteristics of a mahāpurisa (super-man). He instructs them

^{27.} Ibid p. xxi.

^{28.} B.C. Law, in "India as described in the Early Texts of Buddhism and Jainism" pp. 157, 158, 218, tries to establish that this Bāyarī was Pasenadīs teacher (Sn. A. II, 580) and that when he built his hermitage "near the Pancavaṭī during Pasenadī's reign there came into existence a high road connecting Rājagaha and Patiṭṭhāna." (ibid. p. 219).

not to ask their questions verbally, but merely to think of them, so that the Buddha would give the appropriate answer.

The sixteen brahmins wend their way north through Patitthana to Māhissati (Māhīsmatī) south of the river Vetravatī which divides the Mandala of Avantī into north and south, the north having its capital at Ujjenī (modern Ujjain) and the south at Māhīsmatī.²⁹ and known as Avanti Dakkhināpatha.30 From there they proceed to Uijenī north of the river and to Gonaddha.31 They continue east to Vedisa known as "The Forest City" (Sn. 1011d, Vanasavhaya, identified by Cunningham with modern Bhīlsa in Gwalior State, 26 miles N.E. of Bhopāl), and then north-east to Kosambi (Kauśāmbī), and next north to Sāketa, Setayya and Sāvatthi, the capital of the Kosalas, then eastwards to Kapilavatthu (Kapilavāstu) of the Sākyas, and the city of Kusinārā (Krsīnagara) of the Mallas, then further north to Pāvā and Bhojanagara in the Malla country in the Himalayan foot-hills and finally south-east to Vesālī of the Magadhas and Pāsānaka cetiya near Rājagaha where they meet the Buddha. They are satisfied with the answers to their "mental" questions and salute the Buddha. With the invitation of the Buddha to ask him questions to have their doubts cleared, they begin asking questions one by one.

The vatthu-gāthā, as a whole, depict conditions much later than the time of the Buddha, or even the time of the compilation of the pucchās. Internal evidence and linguistic data show that they are decidedly later than the pucchās. It will be useful to analyse the internal evidence which consists chiefly of a study of the names of places mentioned in the story. the terms and technical expressions used, signs of the growth of the concept Buddha and the doctrinal emphasis. Firstly, the v.g. show intimate knowledge of the Dakkhināpatha, of far-off places like Mulakā (not identified) and Patitthana in the land of the Assakas north-western Hyderabad). The road taken by the 16 manayas was the trade-route running from North to South-East (Sāvatthi to Rājagaha).³² The simile at Sn. 1014b, mahālābham va vānijo (as a merchant-longs for-great gain) seems to allude to the caravan-men who followed these trade-routes. Even if the first route did exist as early as the time of Pasenadī (according to Sn.A. 580) it cannot be said that Buddhism had spread to these southern regions so early as the time of composition of the pucchās. It must have taken a considerable period of time before Buddhism spread to these regions, and places like Māhissati, Ujjenī, Gonaddha and Vedisa were

far away from the cradle of Buddhism. A knowledge of these places in the v.g. presupposes a time when Buddhism was known to the people in Dakkhiṇāpatha even if it had not spread there. It is also of interest to note how the brahmins looked upon this region. Baudhāyana Grhya Sūtra V. 15 considers this region as unholy land.

Surāṣṭraṃ Sindhu Sauyīram Avantī Dakṣiṇāpathaṃ. Etāni brāhmano gatvā punah saṃskāram arhati.

(It behoves a brahmin who goes to Surāṣṭra, etc., to perform his sacraments again). cp. Divy. 19. It is needless to say that under these conditions Brahmanism could not have spread to these regions very early. If that was so it is difficult to explain how Bāvarī a brahmin, and other brahmins mentioned in the v.g. could find their way here to a land so far south, even to the furthest limits of the unholy land. If Bāvarī was a historical figure he must have lived at a time when the brahmins had begun to consider the Dakkhiṇāpatha no longer as unholy land. This fact and the knowledge of the trade-route to the south-west suggest that the v.g. reflect a period when Dakkhiṇāpatha was well-known to Buddhist writers. The first time that this region is expected, with some degree of certainty, to have come under the influence of Buddhism, is during the reign of Asoka when he sent out his missionaries far and wide, Mahādeva was sent to Mahisamaṇdela and Rakkhita to Vanavāsa (cp. Vedisam Vanasavhayam both presumably in Dakkhiṇāpatha. (Mhv. 12, 3-4).

The terms and technical expressions used in the v.g. point to a comparatively late period. The use of the words visaya (in Assakassa visaye—Sn. 977a) and mandira (in Kosalamandira-Sn. 996a, and Kusinārañca mandiram -Sn. 1012d) needs investigation. The word visava in the sense of region, country or kingdom may have had its origin in epic or Classical Sanskrit. It is not used in this meaning in Vedic. The nearest approach to it in old Pāli is to be found in words like Pettivisaya or Yamavisaya (the realm or domain of Petas and Yama respectively). This usage in the v.g. appears late. The word mandira is frequently found in late Sk. in the sense of house or mansion, as in Pali. Here it apparently stands for a political or regional division. If these regions were independent kingdoms (or cities as in the case of the latter) they would rather be referred to as desa or rattha, or nagara or rājadhāni. It is probable that these two mandiras were two of many such mandiras within a large empire. Such an empire came into existence for the first time in India's history under Candragupta (322-298 B.C.)33 and the next great empire was that of Asoka (272-232 B.C.)33. It may then be possible that the v.g. were written at least after the time of Candragupta. (Other available evidence tends to show that they were of still later date).

^{29.} Vide D. R. Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures 1918, p. 54.

^{30.} B. C. Law, op. cit. p. 104.

^{31.} According to B.C. Law (ibid p. 74), Māhīşmatī was later known as Gonaddha. But this is very doubtful and improbable.

^{32.} Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 103.

^{33.} V. A. Smith, Early History of India, p. 206, assigns these dates.

The next point of interest lies in Sn. 1000-1001. The sixteen manayas learn from Bāvarī that the Buddha's distinguishing marks are the 32 characteristics. Here the v.g. present a phase of development in the Buddha-legend, for it is not his teaching that is mentioned, but his outward marks. Sn. 1001 dogmatically states that there are two, and only two, courses of action open to a being who has these 32 marks on his body. This is further proof of a gradual crystallization that has set in. There are a few epithets used in the v.g., e.g. sambuddho (7 times), 34 sabbadhammānapāragū (Sn. 992b), pabhankara (Sn. 991d), vivattacchadda (Sn. 1003c) and anāvaranadassāvī, among others at Sn. 991, 992, 995, 996, 1003, etc., but the majority of them are found in the older parts of the prose Nikāyas as well.

The phrase pubbevāsanavāsitā (Sn. 1009d) "impressed with the resultant force of their former deeds"35 too sheds some light on the date of the v.g. The doctrine of vāsanā is apparently alien to early Buddhism, though the same idea may be found in germinal form in phrases like pubbe katani kammam (actions done in the past). The developed idea as such is to be seen at Miln. 10, pubbe vāsanāya coditahadayo (his heart impelled by former impressions); Miln. 263, pubbevāsitavāsanā (cp. Sn. 1009d), and Vism. 185, katasamanadhammo, vāsitavāsano, bhāvitabhāvano (he who has discharged the obligations of a recluse, has the resultant force of his former deeds impressed on him and has developed his meditations). Vāsanā is often mentioned in Nettippakarana where it occurs no less than 12 times, 36 in a slightly different sense though fundamentally the same. Some suttas here are called vāsanābhāgiya (pertaining to v.). All the works in which this term is employed reflecting on an accepted theory of vāsanā, are comparatively late. Of them the date of Vism. is to some extent certain; i.e. 5th century A.C. Hardy limits the date of Nett. between 2nd century B.C. and 5th century A.C. though he is more inclined to favour a date in the neighbourhood of the latter limit.³⁷ Mrs. Rhys Davids in her Milinda Questions suggests a date towards the beginning of the Christian Era to Miln.; and in her Outlines of Buddhism p. 103, she assigns the date 80 B.C. These instances show that all the other references to vāsanā do not go back earlier than 2nd century B.C. This fact may, to some extent, help in determining the date of the v.g. All these references to vāsanā presuppose the existence of at least, a contemporary belief in "former impressions". It has already been noticed that this term does not occur in earlier Pāli works. It is probable that the concept of pubbe-

vāsanā was further developed into a fuller theory by the time of the Commentaries. The frequent occurrence of this idea in Nd 2 is very significant. The concluding passages in the comments on each of the 16 pucchās contains one standard phrase in which the word vāsanā occurs—(vide Nd 2, p. xxiv). Ye tena brāhmanena saddhim ekajjhā ekappayogā, ekādhippāyā, ekavāsanavāgitā. (They who were together with the brahmin. of similar undertakings, of similar intentions and impressed with similar former impressions).

It has been noticed earlier that either the v.g. did not exist at the time of the compilation of Nd 2, or if they did exist in some form or other they were not accepted as authentic by the writer of Nd 2. The occurrence of the same idea in both Nd 2 and the v.g. shows that neither belonged to a period prior to the development of a theory of vāsanā. The probability is that both the v.g. and Nd 2 were not separated from each other by a long interval of time, and that the subject-matter of the v.g. may have existed in some form before Nd 2 was compiled, and that the latter was influenced by it. This would explain the occurrence of the phrase ekajjhā, etc. in Nd 2 in spite of the fact that the v.g. are left uncommented in it. In the light of the above observations it may be inferred that these references to vāsanā do not date back earlier than 2nd century B.C., and that both the v.g. and Nd 2 which were separated by a short interval of time do not go back earlier than the earliest limits of the period to which Nett., Miln. and Vism. can be assigned; i.e. 2nd century B.C. As regards the v.g. this is further borne out by linguistic data.

The v.g. contain words and linguistic forms belonging to various periods. There are older forms lying side by side with much younger ones. These older forms are the same as the already existing early gāthā-forms and belong to a stratum which is generally called "the Gāthā-dialect." They either preserve the gāthā-idiom or are borrowings modelled on the language of the gāthās. There are numerous instances of younger forms, some betraying a strange resemblance to epic Sanskrit. It also contains highly developed and perhaps Sanskritic idioms and usages. Even though there is a preponderance of older forms, the younger forms show that these gāthās should belong to a later period. The idioms, Assakassa visaye (Sn. 977 a), vasī Godhāvarī kūle (Sn. 977) are purely Sanskritic. Tasseva upanissāya (Sn. 978 a) is a peculiar usage, which Bdhgh, comments as upayogatthe c'etam sāmivacanam, tam upanissāyā'ti attho,'' (Sn. A. 581). The verb vācati (Sn. 980d) in the present tense following another in the past (āgañchi-Sn. 979 d) is typical of Sk. epic poetry. Bhavam nānupadassati (Sn. 983b) is again the Sk. idiom though the verb is a historical future form. Other instances of verbs in the present tense following a verb in the past are at Sn. 985, ussussati and na ramati after āhu in Sn.

^{34.} This word occurs 7 times in the v.g. and twice in the epilogue, viz. Sn. 992 a, 994 a, 995 f, 998 d, 1003 c, 1016 a, 1031 a, 1145 c, 1147 c. There are 10 other occurrences in Sn.-3 in Uraga Vagga and 7 in Mahā Vagga.

^{35.} Vide P.T.S. for vāsanā and vāsita; vāsanā=impression (Rhys Davids).

Also vide P.T.S., s.v.

^{37.} Nettippakarana (P.T.S.) Introduction p. xx.

984 d. The idiom bhotī jānāti (Sn. 988 a) is also Sanskritic. The loc. sg., asmim in asmim puthavimandale (Sn. 990 b) is very near Sk. asmin, as usually Pāli has imasmim. Puthaulmandala as a term referring to the world belongs to late Sk. The words visaya and mandira have already been discussed. The word apacca (Sn. 991c) is seldom used in Pāli although it goes back to Vedic apatya; but it is in frequent use in Sk. In spite of the old forms the sufficiently numerous younger forms are ample proof that the language of the v.g. taken as a whole is rather late. This is quite in accord with the overwhelming internal evidence which definitely shows that the v.g. are of no great antiquity.

29

It was stated earlier that the vatthu-gāthā were meant to introduce the subject but apart from the legendary introduction which has little bearing on the pañhas (pucchās), the latter are still independent suttas. Bāvarī the brahmin, is spoken of as the teacher of the 16 māṇavas; and in the epilogue Pingiya is represented as singing Buddha's praises in Bāvarī's presence and converting him. This, apparently, is the only connecting link between the legend in the v.g. and epilogue and the pucchās. Yet, a rather successful attempt has been made to incorporate in this legendary epic, the pucchās, and to establish a connecting thread running through the whole vagga. However, one loses all contact with the story of Bāvarī in the pucchās. The Buddha is seen answering the eager questions of some would-be followers. Nothing else can be gathered from the pucchās about these interlocutors of the Buddha, except what can be seen from their views and philosophical leanings.

The position of the story of Bāvarī in the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ is best summed up in the words of E. J. Thomas, "The $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ is indeed old...There is no reason for thinking that this legend in its present form is of the same age as the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$... It is evident that even though the legend may be old, the same cannot be said of the details that may have been introduced when it was recast." 38

30

Uraga Vagga

Proceeding to the other three vaggas, the Uraga Vagga calls for attention next. It has already been mentioned (U.C.R. VI, 1) that the Uraga Sutta which has been placed at the head of the vagga has given its name to the

whole section. In many respects the opening Uraga Sutta resembles the Khaggavisāna Sutta, but unlike the two Yakkha-ballads, Hemavata and Ālavaka Suttas or Parābhava and Vasala Suttas which deal with practically the same topic, the two are not placed together in the vagga. Both Uraga and Khaggavisāna Suttas are didactic ballads with regular refrains runting through them, and dealing with similar topics. Another poem which can be classed in the same category is Muni Sutta which resembles the other two in both subject-matter and style though the refrain is confined to only 8 out of its 15 stanzas (i.e. Sn. 212-219). All these three suttas are archaic in character. Available evidence suggests the independent existence of Khaggavisāna and Muni Suttas, prior to the compilation of Sn. The former is commented in Nd 2 (as an independent sutta) and is quoted in full at Ap. I, 8-13 (Paccekabuddhāpadāna) while the latter is mentioned in Asoka's Bhābru Edict as Muni gāthā, and in several other instances along with other sections of the Scriptures (supra).

Dhaniya and Kasibhāradvāja Suttas are similar to these three in subjectmatter, but form a different type of ballad. They can be grouped together as dialogue-ballads though the latter in reality is a narrative-ballad with the dialogue in mixed prose and verse. In both of them there is a great deal of the dramatic-element; both are didactic to a certain extent and both deal with farmers who eventually became lay-disciples. The former contains highly antithetical alternate verses uttered by Dhaniya the herdsman and the Bhagava respectively, while the latter in its main section (Sn. 76-81) contains one question by the brahmin and a long answer given by the Buddha in metaphors stating counterparts to some important Buddhist concepts, in the various implements used and actions done in ploughing. In both these suttas the Buddha is represented as retracing the very words of the interlocutors giving them a new value and a new twist so that the higher truths of his message are brought within the limited scope of a ploughman's (for herdsman's) terminology, One would normally expect these two suttas too to be grouped together like Nos. 6 and 7 and Nos. 9 and 10, on account of their similarities in style and theme and the technique employed in them.

The next poem Cunda Sutta differs from the first four suttas in theme and general tone. It presupposes a time when some monks were seen leading a life of evil and sin (Sn. 89). The gradual crystallisation of ideas regarding the ideal monk (Sn. 86) and the motive of preventing the lay ariyasāvakas losing their faith in the virtuous monks on account of these evil-doers (Sn. 90) show that the poem belonged to an age of developed monasticism. The inclusion of this sutta here perhaps serves to connect the four earlier suttas of lofty ideals with the three popular suttas that follow. The first of these enumerates the causes of man's downfall and

deterioration (parābhava), the second details the characteristics of a vasala (an out-caste in the strict Buddhist sense), and the third is a treatise on metta (amity). The only characteristic that is common to Cunda Sutta and the two that follow it is that all three of them are dialogueballads. In the grouping together of the two suttas, Parābhava and Vasala may be seen signs of an attempt at some sort of arrangement of the suttas. Although the next sutta, Metta, is a didactic ballad it shares something in common with the two proceeding suttas—all three of them being popular in character and intended for the benefit of both monk and layman. Metta Sutta occurs in both Kh. (No. IX) and the Catubhāṇavāra (Parittas), whereas the other two are found repeated in the Parittas only.

The next two suttas, Hemavata and Alavaka, are of high literary merit both containing the dramatic element to some extent. The fact that they deal with yakkhas appears to have been the reason for their being grouped together. The next sutta (Vijaya) contains a list of the parts of the human body, in poetical form. Placed last in the vagga is the old Muni Sutta, which probably entered the vagga last of all.

Judging from the subject-matter, type of ballad, and the grouping of poems in the vagga, it appears that this section now known as the Uraga Vagga consisted of only 10 suttas at a certain stage; thus:

Group I, Suttas 1-4,

No. 5 separating Groups I and II,

Group II, Nos. 6 and 7,

No. 8 separating Groups II and III,

Group III, Nos. 9 and 10.

This clearly explains the position of the old Muni Sutta as the last member of the vagga, placed immediately after so late a piece as the Vijava Sutta. In spite of its resemblance to Khaggavisāņa and Uraga Suttas in language, style and theme, it has not been grouped with them.

31

Culla and Maha Vaggas

The next two sections of Sn., Culla Vagga (Cvg.) and Mahā Vagga (Mvg.) consist of 14 and 12 suttas respectively. The total number of stanzas comprising the 14 suttas of Cvg, is a little more than half that of Mvg. (i.e. Cvg. 183, and Mjg. 361). The majority of the suttas in Cvg. are short pieces whereas those of Mvg. are comparatively longer. This perhaps may have been the reason for naming these two sections as Culla and

Mahā Vaggas respectively. Yet there are exceptions as regards the length of the suttas in the two vaggas. The most outstanding are Brahmanadhammika Sutta (No. 7 of Cvg.) consisting of 32 stanzas, Dhammika Sutta (No. 14 of Cvg.) consisting of 29 stanzas and Subhāsita Sutta (No. 3 of Mvg.) containing only 5 stanzas in addition to the introductory prose. There are 7 suttas in Cvg. containing 10 stanzas or less, 39 and 5 containing a number ranging from 17 to 12.40 The other two are the exceptionally long suttas just mentioned. Five suttas of Myg. contain 32 or more stanzas each, 41 in addition to the prose in the majority of them; and the number of stanzas in six others ranges from 20 to 26.42 The Subhāsita Sutta which is exceptionally short for this vagga has already been mentioned. It is curious to note that both the long suttas in Cvg. are named Dhammika and that they occur as seventh and fourteenth members of the vagga. The fact that one of them is the last sutta of the vagga, and that they occur at regular intervals may suggest that they did not originally belong here.

The suttas of Cvg. may be classified roughly into two categories: 1. dialogue-ballads and 2. didactic-ballads; but the classification is not complete by itself. On the one hand, all the suttas are didactic in some degree or other, but on the other, practically each sutta seems to represent a type by itself. Amagandha and Sammāparibbājaniya Suttas are dialogueballads entirely in verse where the interlocutor speaks but once and the Buddha replies with a discourse. An interesting feature is the refrain running through the discourse in both suttas. They deal with topics of general interest in all periods of the history of Buddhism. Kimsīla Sutta also appears as such a dialogue, although the questioner's name is not mentioned. It is highly didactic and may equally be classed with the pure didactic-ballads.

There are four dialogue-ballads with prose introductions. The first of them, Mahāmangala Sutta is highly popular in character, and the second Sūciloma is didactic. Both these suttas introduce supernatural beings as interlocutors. The former contains a refrain while the latter has none The next Vangisa Sutta, is an ode in the form of a dialogue-ballad. This is the least didactic of all the 14 suttas in Cvg.; yet, it is by no means lacking in it. Here the interlocutor plays a more active part than in the other dialogue-ballads of this vagga. The last Dhammika Sutta is an eulogy of the Buddha followed by a discourse dealing with the sīlas and such other topics. There are also four didactic-ballads entirely in verse; viz. Hiri Dhammacariya, Nāvā and Utthāna Suttas. Nāvā Sutta is named after the simile employed in it (Sn. 321) and the other three after their opening

^{39.} Nos. 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10 and 11.

^{40.} Nos. 1, 2, 4, 12 and 13. 41. Nos. 4, 6, 9, 11 (with vatthu-gāthā) and 12. 42. Nos. 1, 2, 5, 7, 8 and 10.

words as in the case of Kimsīla Sutta. The opening question in Kimsīla Sutta can be explained as a vatthu-gāthā, although it is not specifically mentioned so as in Rāhula Sutta. The Rāhula Sutta differs from the above four in that it has two vatthu-gāthās consisting of a question and an answer, and ends with a concluding prose sentence. The Brāhmaṇadhammika Sutta is essentially didactic in its verse section, but it contains an introductory prose dialogue and concludes with a confession of faith in prose. The opening Ratana Sutta cannot be placed in any particular category. It is neither a didactic poem nor a dialogue, but a paritta of later date with a good deal of saccakiriyā (asseveration). The Culla Vagga thus presents a confused mass.

It is not quite possible to sift out the suttas that were included in the vagga subsequent to the formation of a vagga as such, or spot out at a glance the suttas on which the vagga was built later. On the whole, this section as a vagga is decidedly later than the Atthaka and Pārāyana Vaggas, and probably later than many suttas of the Uraga Vagga. As regards individual poems, the occurrence of the two long suttas (Nos. 7 and 14) in a section of short (culla) suttas leads one to the inference that they originally did not belong to this vagga. One may be justified in saying that these two were probably either importations to the vagga or were in existence in some other collection prior to the formation of Culla Vagga. Another sutta that appears foreign to the vagga is Ratana Sutta. From its internal evidence and linguistic data it will be seen that it is a comparatively late poem. This, along with the fact that it occurs at the head of the vagga seems to suggest that it need not necessarily have belonged to this vagga at the outset. Neither does it follow from this that the Cvg. was older than these three suttas; and the question of whether the two longer suttas belonged to another group of suttas (vagga) before Cvg. came into existence will be discussed later.

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Mahā Vagga

The suttas of the Mahā Vagga are a little more uniform in character. The Pabbajjā, Padhāna and Nālaka Suttas are narrative-ballads with occasional dialogue. It has already been noticed that these three suttas represent the earliest beginnings of a life of the Buddha in verse (U.C.R. Vol. VI, 2). It is established beyond any doubt that the Nālaka Sutta is the same as the Moneya-sūte of Asoka's Bhābru Edict. An analysis of Nos. 1 and 2 of Mvg. shows that they are very old pieces. Sylvain Lévi⁴³ identifies

Pabbajjā Sutta as being mentioned in the Vinaya of the Sarvāstivādins (chap. XXIV) in a passage which refers to other texts as well, which he considers are of great importance for the history of the Canon. Of the other nine suttas, eight (except Salla, No. 8) are "mixed-ballads." Seven of them are dialogues. It has been pointed out that No. 3, Subhāsita Sutta, is too short for a section of "long" suttas (mahā). Nos. 4-7, 9 and 10 are uniform in every way. No. 8 is a didactic-ballad deriving its name from the oft-used metaphorical term salla occurring in stanza 19 (Sn. 592). The Dvayatānupassanā Sutta stands as a class by itself in the whole of Sn. It conveys the general impression of a late sutta. Its position as last in the vagga, as in the case of Ratana Sutta which is at the head of Cvg. seems to strengthen the supposition that it was an additional accretion, though its lateness is not necessarily proved thereby. Evidence for its lateness is to be sought in the sutta itself.

The majority of the pieces in Mvg. can be called "mixed-ballads" with dialogue; viz. Nos. 3-7, 9 and 10. Six of these, including No. 3, Subhāsita Sutta, are best described as "sutta- ballads," i.e. they are discourses in the form of mixed-ballads-and the latter is more in the nature of an exposition (veyyākaraṇa), rather than a ballad proper. There are also four such "sutta-ballads" in Cvg. viz. Nos. 5, 7, 12 and 14, which occur in a regular pattern in the vagga. (Suttas 5 and 12 resemble each other in outward form: both are short mixed-ballads with dialogue, though fundamentally the latter is an ode followed by a discourse, while the former, a didactic discourse in answer to a question. The pair Nos. 7 and 14 has been discussed at length.) The suttas 6 and 13 too resemble each other in many respects, both being entirely in verse. The only difference between the two is that the former is a straight-forward didactic poem while the latter is a didactic discourse in answer to a question; but the two are similar in outward form. The symmetry seen in these three pairs of suttas cannot be a mere accident. It seems likely that in building up the Culla Vagga these suttas have been so placed as to work out a definite pattern.

This leads to the question whether these suttas belonged to some other group or vagga before Cvg. came into existence. If there was any such group some of the suttas now found in Mvg. should also have been included in it, for, the existence of a section called Māhā Vagga without a corresponding Culla Vagga is very doubtful. The resemblance of suttas 4-7, 9, and 10 of Mvg. to the four "mixed-ballads" of Cvg. in form and style suggests that they too may have been included in such a group. There is nothing to prevent No. 8 of Mvg. being in the same group, for it could

^{43.} J. A. 1915. Regarding Bimbisārapratyudgama he says, "Le P'in-po-cha-lo-po-lo-cha-k'ia-mo-nan, 'Bimbisāra vient au-devant' est sans doute le Pabbajjāsutta du Sutta Nipāta." cp. Mvastu. II. 198, Vinaya of the Mūlasarvāstivādins, Sanghabhedavastu chap. 4: Vinaya of the Dharmaguptakas, Upasampadāvastu chap. 31.

^{44.} Examples of Mahā and Cūlla (Cūla) Vaggas occurring together in the Canon are too numerous and need no mention here. Vide D.P.P.N., Malalasekera, s.v.

be argued that as No. 9 in Mvg. is rather expository in character, No. 8 which is an expository didactic poem should have been placed in front of it as in the present vagga. But the greater probability is for the same type of "mixed" dialogue-ballads to be grouped together, like the pucchās of the Pārāyana. This would mean that the hypothetical vagga consisted of Cvg. 5, 7, 12 and 14 and Mvg. 1-7, 9 and 10.

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This reflects no light whatsoever on the question of the age of the suttas found in these two vaggas. Beyond any reasonable doubt Moneyva Sutta (Nālaka discourse) could be placed among the oldest suttas in Sn. The age of the suttas does not necessarily determine whether they belonged to a particular group (or groups) or not, for, they can exist independently and be introduced into other collections at subsequent dates; e.g. the old Muni Sutta, a comparative new-comer to Uraga Vagga. This further justifies the exclusion of old suttas like Pabbajjā, Padhāna and Nālaka from the reconstructed group of ballads. Moreover the position of these suttas in Myg. indicates that they were probably additions made when two vaggas grew in place of a vagga of mixed-ballads. (This need not necessarily have belonged to Sn., and its independent existence like the Pārāyana or Atthaka Vagga is not improbable). Pabbajjā and Padhāna Suttas were placed at the head of Mvg. (and not Cvg.) probably on account of their length. The only plausible explanation of the position of the short Subhāsita Sutta as the third member of the vagga is that it could have occurred in some collection or other together with the preceding suttas; but this is highly improbable. As it differs considerably from the "sutta-ballads" it cannot be surmised that it may have occurred immediately before Sundarikabhāradvāja Sutta in an earlier group. As regards the Salla Sutta, its length and the expository nature of the following (Vāsettha) sutta may have been responsible for its inclusion in the present Mahā Vagga, and probably it did not exist together with the others in an earlier group. The Nālaka Sutta seems to have been introduced immediately after the regular "mixed-ballads." The chief reason for its inclusion here and not in Cvg. is its length. One would normally expect this sutta to be placed beside the other two suttas which are directly connected with the life of the Buddha. The fact that this is separated from them also suggests that these three suttas did not originally belong here, but were introduced after the two groups Mvg. and Cvg. were formed.

It may also be possible that the three suttas, Pabbajjā, Padhāna and Nālaka were earlier found together in one group at a certain stage, and that eight suttas were added after the Padhāna Sutta to make up the Mahā Vagga. The fact that these three suttas belong to an early stratum does not necessarily imply that they may have been the only suttas of their class. Moreover, Nālaka Sutta does not form a continuous narrative

with the other two suttas. A comparison with the later BSk. sources. such as Lal. which aims at dealing with a continuous life of the Buddha. or Mvastu, which contains accounts of incidents connected with his life. shows that these three suttas in Sn. deal with only three of the numerous incidents reported in later sources. It is quite probable that some suttas parallel to those found in Lal. and Mvastu, were lost and that Sn. contains only a partial picture. The fact that only these three are preserved shows that they are but fragments of an earlier stratum brought to light at a subsequent date and included in the group now known as Mahā Vagga. It has already been pointed out that their relative position in the vagea shows that they are additions made to the vagga rather than parts of its framework. From these it is evident that Mvg. was not built upon these suttas but it grew incorporating them.

It is not possible to determine whether any one of these two vaggas was earlier than the other (as a vagga). Neither of them is a perfect "finished" chapter. Though the majority of the suttas conforms to the designations Culla and Maha, in length, many exceptions have already been noted. The themes in the "minor" suttas (i.e. those in Cvg.) are equally lofty as those of the suttas in Mvg. Therefore the possibility of the two sections being named according to the nature of the themes can be set aside. There is no perfect uniformity in the type of suttas in both vaggas though as many as six suttas of Mvg. can be classified as "mixed" dialogueballads. The same type of sutta is to be seen in Cvg. too; viz. Nos. 4. 5. 7, 12 and 14, though the didactic element seems to predominate in them. The commonest type of sutta in Cvg. is the pure didactic-ballad entirely in verse. 45 but Mvg. No. 8 (Salla Sutta) too can be said to belong to the same type. The similarity of these two vaggas even on this point suggests that they cannot be separated from each other in point of time. Both vaggas date back to the same period, and the occurrence of the older suttas in Mvg. proves nothing beyond the fact that they were incorporated into the vagga during the time of its compilation, which perhaps was synchronous with the collation of Sutta Nipāta as an anthology.

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^{45.} There are seven such suttas; viz. Nos. 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 13.

SUNNATĀ—ANATTĀ

Rada Ivekovic

For the connection $su\tilde{n}\tilde{n}at\bar{a}$ —anattā the Theravāda exegesis insists on the limitation of the range of $su\tilde{n}\tilde{n}at\bar{a}$ to that of anattā. One specific text, the $Su\tilde{n}\tilde{n}atalokasuttam$, where $su\tilde{n}\tilde{n}am$ is defined as neither attā nor attaniyam, is a very short discourse that expresses the idea concisely:

'Venerable Ananda questioned the Exalted One thus:

-They say the world is nothing, it is void. But how is it void, Sir?

—Because, Ānanda, the world is nothing in itself (attena) and nothing for itself (attaniyena), they say it is nothing. And what is nothing in itself and nothing for itself? The eye, Ānanda, is nothing in itself and nothing for itself. The form, Ānanda, is nothing. ... Eye consciousness. ... Eye contact, Ānanda, is nothing in itself and nothing for itself. The feeling that arises at an experience, be it pleasant or unpleasant or indifferent is nothing in itself and nothing for itself. That is why, Ānanda, because the world is nothing in itself and nothing for itself, they say of it that it is nothing, suñño."

Thus, here, no trace of suññam attained to by pure contemplation, no trace of suññam as the point where our attention reaches attributeless collectedness of mind and where the only remaining preoccupation is that of keeping this body alive, knowing the facts about its anattā and anicca-nature and about suññatā, or rather living in a state of suññatā. The world is declared to be suñña, nothing, not in relation to our consciousness and cognizance, but on a lower plane, because it is anattā, suñño attena and suñño attaniyena. Being nothing of itself and nothing for itself, that is—nothing in it being independent and self-reliable (paticca-samuppāda), not having any independent value of its own, it is suñño. Suñña is the synonym of anattā and anicca here.

This seems to be the true Theravāda exegesis of the term suññatā, avoiding carefully to take it further to its logical consequences for fear of being "accused of nihilism". And particularly when it comes to Nibbāna Theravādins are at odds as to how to define this peculiar state and shrink from considering only the negative definitions found in the Canon (for fear of nihilism), as also the positive ones (apprehension of being accused of a positive-metaphysical stand-point). They took the idea of the middle path literally and applied it here to avoid any philosophical

implications. But what is Nibbāna if not the merging of consciousness into this state of $su\tilde{n}\tilde{n}at\bar{a}$? In what way is it deliverance if it does not allow of $su\tilde{n}\tilde{n}am$ and if $su\tilde{n}\tilde{n}am$ stands only for $anatt\bar{a}$? And how is $anatt\bar{a}$ to be understood if there is no wider notion, $su\tilde{n}\tilde{n}at\bar{a}$, as a logical outcome of a true doctrine of anicca and $anatt\bar{a}$?

There is hardly anything we can say about Nibbāna. It is one of those things that have to be lived to be really thought of, let alone understood. But one thing at least can be done: we can tell what is not Nibbāna, as has so often been done in the scriptures. And they say it is unborn, unbecome, unformed, unspeakable; it is that which is no-greed, no-delusion, no-passion. Theravādins are afraid of both "extremes", taking the one to lead to uccheda-vāda, annihilationism, the other to sassata-vāda, eternalism. They so oppose these two theories and carefully tread the "middle path", whatever that may mean. As the Venerable Nyānaponika Thera of Sri Lanka puts it:

"The saying of the Buddha quoted here speaks of the duality (dvayatā) of existence (atthitā) and non-existence (naithitā). These two terms refer to the theories of eternalism (sassataditthi) and annihilationism (ucchedaditthi) which are the basic misconceptions of actuality that occur again and in many variations, in the history of human thought. Eternalism is the belief in a permanent substance or entity, be it conceived as a multitude of individual souls or selves (created or not), or as a monistic worldsoul, a deity of any description, or as a combination of any of these notions. Annihilationism, on the other hand, believes in the temporary existence of separate selves or personalities, which are entirely destroyed or dissolved after death... These two extreme views stand and fall with the assumption of something static of either permanent or impermanent nature. They will lose their basis entirely if life is seen in its true nature as a continuous flux of material and mental processes arising from their appropriate conditions—a process which will cease only when these conditions are removed. This will explain why our text introduces here the formula of Dependent Origination (paticca-samuppāda) and its reversal, Dependent Cessation.

"Dependent Origination, being an unbroken process, excludes the assumption of an absolute Non-existence, or Naught, that is supposed to terminate, by necessity, individual existence; while the qualifying word dependent indicates that there is also no absolute, i.e. independent existence, no static Being per se but only an evanescent arising of phenomena, dependent on likewise evanescent conditions.

"Dependent Cessation excludes the belief in absolute and permanent Existence, and shows on the other hand, that there is no automatic lapse

^{1.} Suññatalokasuttam, S.N. XXXV, 85; tr. by R.I.

into Non-existence, but that the cessation of relative existence is likewise a conditional occurrence.

"Thus these teachings of Dependent Origination and Dependent Cessation are a true Doctrine in the Middle, transcending the extremes of Existence and Non-existence."²

Symptomatic of the Theravāda standpoint, the Venerable Nyānaponika Thera brings in the paticca-samuppāda formulation to explain the facts of existence, for it would be risky to dig any further. But the paticca-samuppāda, although it is a structural pattern of the dynamics of existence, and its examplification (with no attempt to be exhaustive), offers no satisfactory philosophical approach. And, what is more, the paticca-samuppāda does not have anything to do with the meditative and cognitive outcome of the problem (except if stress be properly put on avijjā and viññāna in a deeper sense—which shows clearly that it is aware of it). It never mentions among its numerous nidānā (as the Ven. Nyāṇaponika Thera rightly observed) the term suñña. But it does not follow, from this, that it (quote) excludes the assumption of an absolute Non-existence or Naught, that is supposed to terminate, by necessity, individual existence, and this for two reasons:

- 1. "Absolute Non-existence", or "Naught" is here opposed to Existence, and is supposed to succeed to it, end it, and terminate, by necessity, individual existence. But, Nibbāna, in terms of suñña-ditthi taught by the Buddha, as we understand it, could never be that. Terms of succession, end, termination, are inapplicable here, lest they change the meaning of the word in question, because if a thing is terminable at all, it is also something, there is something that can be terminated. Non-existence in the true Buddhistic way, according to Pali as also to Nāgārjuna, can only be beyond both existence and non-existence, nothing as compared to either of them, completely out of relation to either.
- 2. The paticca-samuppāda, being an attempted description of the phenomenon of existence, naturally does not mention anattā, let alone suñña. But it presupposes it. If we go back to the implications of the two key-nidānā, avijjā and especially vinnāna, the anattā idea at the bottom will appear obvious. And this is only an aspect of the broader thesis of suññatā, nullity.

And finally, at the end of the quoted passage, the Venerable Nyāṇa-ponika Thera says: "Thus these teachings of Dependent Origination and Dependent Cessation are a true Doctrine in the Middle, transcending the extremes of Existence and Non-existence." But, by way of paticca-

samuppāda alone, which is not a method or means of achieving a goal, we can hardly transcend anything and, if such far-fetched words are to be used in connection with the paticca-samuppāda formula, we can easily retort that it does not transcend existence since it is all about existence, and likewise with Non-existence since it does not suppose it in the first place (at least as a contrast to Existence). But suñña presupposes transcending the two extremes.

Further in the same publication, the Venerable Nyāṇaponika says: "Hence, we need not be surprised that even Nibbāna, the Buddhist's goal of deliverance, has been wrongly interpreted in the sense of either of these extremes: existence or non-existence...

"In the early days, when knowledge of Buddhist teachings had just reached the West, most of the writers and scholars took Nibbāna as Non-existence, pure and simple, with a few exceptions like Schopenhauer and Max Müller. Consequently, Western writers all too lightly condemned Buddhism as a nihilistic doctrine teaching annihilation as its highest goal, which these writers described as philosophically absurd and ethically reprehensible."

It is quite clear from the terms nihilistic and annihilation he makes use of, that the Ven. Nyanaponika, in conformity with the Theravada views, takes suñña-vāda for uccheda-vāda because it does not take the matter to its logical consequences. If it were teaching annihilation, the doctrine would have to presuppose something to apply it to, and "annihilation" would be synonymous to "destroying, breaking up." But suññatā, contrarily, cannot be comprehended if it be different from an undistinctive state of void, with no beginning (implied in the "a" prefix to "annihilation"), and not determined by action. That is why "nihilism" conveys the idea with more precision than "annihilation". If suññatā is identified with ideas of uccheda-ditthi, it is clearly not acceptable to Pali Buddhism. And this is exactly what Theravadins do. In this way, wanting to oppose suñña-vāda to sassata-vāda as two extremes of which Buddha's teaching, as they understand it, is the middle way. They really oppose uccheda-vāda (which they don't differentiate from suñña-vāda) to sassata-vāda, although the real opposites are clearly uccheda-vāda and suñña-vāda.

It has been established by now that viññāṇa-vāda is correlative to suñña-vāda and anattā-vāda. The doctrine of viññāṇa-vāda is the first step to suñña-vāda (not talking in terms of the Mahāyāna). For, if any ultimate reality be denied, there remains nothing except consciousness. This doctrine has been elaborated by Vasubandhu and Asanga in vijñaṇa-vāda

^{2.} Anatta and Nibbāna, by Nyāṇaponika Thera, BPS, Kandy, 1959, p. 1 ff. Underlined by R. I.

^{3.} Ibid.

(5th century A.C.). Atomistic materialism is categorically denied in Vasubandhu's *Trimsatika-kārikā*, the Thirty Verses. He claims that the existence of minute material entities, atoms, cannot be proved. We never experience atoms and anyway we have access only to our consciousness of it and nothing can be ascertained beyond it. As it is not proved, then, that anything exists of its own (see *paticca-samuppāda* in Pali Buddhism), we only have objects or "contents of cognitive consciousness", *viññatti* (Skt: *vijñapti*). All this is based on the supposition of *ksanika-vāda*, momentariness. The idea of substance is a logical construct with no footing in reality.

PALI BUDDHIST STUDIES IN THE WEST

Russell Webb

During the 18th. and 19th. centuries Pali Buddhist studies in the West were confined to the closed realm of professional academics—linguists, lexicographers, grammarians, folklorists, archaeologists, et al. The Pali language was itself usually regarded as an adjunct of Sanskrit and even today is rarely taught in isolation. Such studies were promoted by lone individuals, all of whom have been described in one or other of the following indispensable textbooks: The Western Contribution to Buddhism by William Peiris (Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi, 1973); A Brief History of Buddhist Studies in Europe and America by J. W. de Jong (serialised in The Eastern Buddhist, Otani University, Kyoto, May and October 1974, and published separately, with an index, by Bharat-Bharati, Varanasi, in January 1976).

Eighteen months ago a questionnaire was circulated amongst those universities in the West where Pali and early Buddhist studies were conducted and, on the basis of the replies in conjunction with reports of private enterprises in these fields, the following series of articles is presented.

1. U.K.

Buddhist-orientated studies were, for many years, confined to London, but today almost the reverse position is the case, with provincial universities taking the lead. As it was, Oriental studies lagged behind those in France and Germany until the last quarter of the 19th, century.

Of interest is the early history of the School of Oriental and African Studies, London, which was the premier institution of its kind in the U.K. The following survey was paraphrased from the Introduction in the first issue of the Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies (BSOS, 1917) by Philip J. Hartog (Academic Registrar of the University of London): the first school for Oriental languages in London was the Oriental Institution in Leicester Square. It was established by John B. Gilchrist, under the patronage of the East India Company, and flourished between 1818-26. It was employed mainly for teaching Hindi to medical students. Dr. Robert Morrison, a Chinese scholar, founded another institute which taught Chinese, Sanskrit and Bengali. This lasted a mere three years, 1825-8.

University College (founded 1826-8) saw Chairs of Oriental Literature and Hindi established at an early date. At Kings College (founded 1829-31), Oriental languages and literature were taught from 1833.

^{*} This chapter has been extracted from the writer's Ph.D. thesis, "The Problem of Soul in Pāli Buddhism" (University of Delhi, 1972). Mrs. Iveković has contributed a number of papers on Buddhism to Yugoslav periodicals and, from 1974, has taught Indian philosophy in the Department of Philosophy at Zagreb University.

In 1886 the Royal Asiatic Society appointed a committee to investigate the causes and suggest remedies for the sparse facilities existing in the field of Oriental studies in England. Letters were sent to the Governing Bodies of universities, colleges and schools together with the City Livery Companies. At the Annual Report presented in the following year, it was revealed that a mere thirty-one replies had been received including only a single encouraging response from the Hebdomadal Council at Oxford. The only material support came in the form of a ten guinea donation from the Merchant Taylors' Company!

As an interim measure, a School of Modern Oriental Studies was housed in the Imperial Institute between 1890-1902. Max Müller delivered the inaugural lecture with the Prince of Wales (later Edward VII) in the chair. No permanent income was forthcoming although it attracted the Ouseley Scholarship Fund in 1901 to the tune of £5,000.

A conference of interested societies was held on 11th. December 1905 at which the Senate of the University of London was urged to press for government action. Eventually, after protracted negotiations which lasted between 1909-17, the "London Institution" (founded 1807) in Finsbury Circus was utilised for the School of Oriental Studies which was formally opened by George V on 23rd. February 1917. Certain faculties were transferred from University and Kings Colleges and the first intake of students in July of that year numbered 125. (The words "and African" were added to the official name of the School in 1938.)

Dr. (later Sir) E. Denison Ross (1871-1940), Keeper of the Stein Antiquities in the British Museum and Professor of Persian at University College, was made the first Director. (The present Director is Sir Cyril Philips, Professor of Oriental History and Vice-Chancellor of the University of London. The Dean is E. H. S. Simmonds, Professor of Languages and Literatures of South East Asia.)

In the field of Pali Buddhism, R. C. Childers (1838-76) was first Professor of Pali and Buddhist Literature at University College (1873-6—see p. 8 for life sketch). The next in line was T. W. Rhys Davids (1843-1922) who held the same post from 1882-1904 until his appointment as Professor of Comparative Religion at Manchester. He founded the Pali Text Society (PTS) in 1881 and was one of the founders of the School of Oriental Studies. His wife, Caroline (1858-1942), was appointed Reader of Pali during their stay in London. (Their vast contribution can be gauged with reference to Peiris or the PTS catalogue.)

Mabel Bode (d. 1922) was the first Lecturer in Pali at the School. She gave an initial series of four lectures on Pali Buddhism in March 1909 from

which a Pali Class developed under W. W. Seton of University College. She is best remembered for her monograph, *The Pali Literature of Burma* (Royal Asiatic Society, London, 1909, reprinted 1966). W. F. Stede (1882-1958), who, with Rhys Davids, co-edited the *Pali-English Dictionary* (1921-5), was appointed an additional Lecturer in Pali in 1926, was promoted to Lecturer in Pali and Sanskrit two years later and ended his career as Reader in Pali (1945-9). For the PTS he had edited the *Cūlanid-desa* (1918) and the *Sumangalavilāsinī* (Vols. II and III, 1931-2). He was succeeded as Reader by his daughter, Mrs. D. A. L. Maskell, until her untimely death in 1956. Her edition of the *Kankhāvitaranī* was post-humously published by the PTS in 1957. Finally, P. S. Jaini (who edited the *Milinda-Tīkā* in 1961), occupied the post of Reader in Pali and Buddhist Sanskrit during his stay in London (1960-8).

Today, neither Pali nor Buddhist Sanskrit, let alone early Buddhism, is taught at the School. Asian studies are almost exclusively restricted to the fields of linguistics, economics and secular literature. J. C. Wright is Professor of Sanskrit in whose Department (of India, Pakistan and Ceylon) Pali was supposed to have been taught. In practice, few facilities exist for tuition in this subject and little interest is engendered as a result. At the B.A. level, Pali is an optional subject in three courses: (i) Sanskrit—during the second year one additional classical language is prescribed, Pali, Prakrit, Avestan or Tibetan; (ii) South Asian Studies (a) in one of the three alternative courses in regional studies, one modern language can be combined with the ancillary study of an appropriate classical language (Sanskrit, Pali, Persian or Arabic); (b) in the field of modern languages and history, a subsidiary course is available in Pali for students reading for a B.A. in Burmese.

In addition to the foregoing, a special diploma in Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Aryan Languages is available. The second of five papers deals with translations from, amongst other specified texts, Pali and the inscriptions of Asoka; for the former, Dines Andersen's Pali Reader is the recommended textbook. The fourth paper includes questions on the sounds, forms and syntax of Pali.

The South Asia section of the Library includes 159 ola leaf MSS, 1,110 books in Pali together with a copy of probably every work on Pali and early Buddhism that has appeared in English and European Languages.

Only during the last decade or so have relevant courses become generally available at the following academic centres:-

Oxford: serious Oriental studies may be said to have originated with Max Müller who was appointed Curator of the Bodleian Library in 1856

and held the (new) Chair of Comparative Philology from 1868 until his death in 1900. He founded the Sacred Books of the East (SBE) series, and edited the Sacred Books of the Buddhists (SBB) under the auspices of the PTS. The town is renowned as being the home of the Clarendon Press (which published the above two series) and Blackwell's, which is probably the only serious provincial rival to Oriental bookshops in London.

At The Oriental Institute the only teacher of Pali and Buddhism is Dr. Richard Gombrich who bases his tuition of the former on A. K. Warder's Introduction to Pali. Dr. Gombrich (who was Secretary of the Oxford University Buddhist Society during his student days), is designated University Lecturer in Sanskrit and Pali, although his main interest lies in editing and translating rare Sinhalese Pali texts. He also writes on modern sociological themes in Sinhalese Buddhism, as exemplified in his classic study, Precept and Practice: Traditional Buddhism in the Rural Highlands of Ceylon (OUP, London, 1971).

Cambridge: was the spiritual home of Robert Chalmers (1858-1938) and Edward Thomas (1869-1958). Chalmers had learnt Pali before taking up the post of Governor-General of Ceylon in 1913 and later became President of the Royal Asiatic Society and Master of Peterhouse (1924-31). He formed part of the team of scholars under E. B. Cowell that translated the Jātaka (1895-1907), and, under the guidance of Rhys Davids, edited the Majjhima Nikāya (Vols. II and III, 1896-1902). He also produced a translation of this Nikāya which appeared in the SBB series as Further Dialogues of the Buddha (1926-7). His metrical translation of the Sutta-Nipāta appeared in the Harvard Oriental Series (HOS) as Buddha's Teachings (1932).

Thomas was head of the Oriental Languages Department of the University Library and was attached to Emmanuel College. With de la Vallée Poussin, he edited the *Mahāniddesa* (PTS, 2 vols., 1916-7). He also compiled three anthologies: *Buddhist Scriptures* (1913), *Early Buddhist Scriptures* (1935) and *The Road to Nirvana* (1950)—all published in London.

Today, K. R. Norman lectures in Pali and Prakrit in the Faculty of Oriental Studies. (Buddhism is taught in the Faculty of Divinity by Dr. J. Lippser.) Prescribed textbooks include Warder's Introduction to Pali and Geiger's Pali Literature and Language together with specified parts from the Majjhima Nikāya and Milindapañha. Norman's own contributions have included: Pali Tipitakam Concordance (ed. Vol. II, parts 4-9) and new translations of the Thera-therīgāthā (Elders' Verses, PTS, 2 vols., 1969/71) and the Sutta-Nipāta (awaiting publication by the PTS).

Durham: the School of Oriental Studies is incorporated in the Faculty of Arts. In the Department of Indology, Dr. Karel Werner (who left Czecho-

slovakia in 1968) teaches Pali based on Andersen's Reader and Geiger's grammar. On average, forty students opt for the one-year course in Indian Civilisation which includes several lectures on Pali Buddhism.

Manchester: in the Department of Comparative Religion, Lance Cousins lectures on Buddhism, Sanskrit and Pali. Recommended text-books include Warder's Introduction, Gombrich's Precept and Practice, Lamotte's The Spirit of Ancient Buddhism, Nyāṇatiloka's Word of the Buddha and Saddhātissa's The Buddha's Way. Cousins is the youngest member of the Council of the PTS for whom he is editing the tīkā on the Samyutta Nikāya. A practising Buddhist, he was Chairman of the Cambridge University Buddhist Society whilst an undergraduate. He is Chairman of the Samatha Trust (f. 1973) and of the Manchester Buddhist Vihāra Association.

The Head of the Department, Prof. Trevor Ling, is sympathetic to Buddhism and is currently President of the local Vihāra Association. His books include A Dictionary of Buddhism (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1972), Buddhism and the Mythology of Evil (George Allen & Unwin, London, 1962)—a survey of references to Māra in the Vinaya and Sutta Piṭakas—and The Buddha (Maurice Temple Smith, London, 1973; Pelican Books, 1976).

Lancaster: the Department of Religious Studies was established in 1967 under Prof. Ninian Smart, who specialises in the philosophy and history of religions. Dr. Andrew Rawlinson teaches Buddhism whilst David J. Smith lectures on Indian religions (to 30-40 students on average), Sanskrit and Pali. Warder's is the main textbook.

Buddhism is included in the B.A. and B.Ed. courses. In the syllabus for the M.A. in Religious Studies, basic Pali texts are prescribed, including the *Dhammapada*, *Mahāparinibbāna Sutta* and *Milindapañha*.

Of non-university bodies, the aims and objects of the PTS and PBU are described on pp. 51-2 and 55-6. The work of the former may best be gauged by reference to their current catalogue and annual Report.

In the early 1960s feelers were put out to sympathisers in Oxford University with a view to establishing a Chair of Buddhist Studies. The prime mover was Ven. Dr. H. Saddhātissa (the Head of the London Buddhist Vihāra) and in order to further this object, the Buddhist Studies Trust was formed on 25th. June 1964. During Dr. Saddhātissa's absence in Ceylon, however, Ven. H. Ratanasāra (another Sinhalese bhikkhu) assumed the leadership of the Trust and endeavoured to obtain financial assistance from some Asian governments. In the event, no aid was forthcoming and the London Buddhist College was opened at the Hamp-

stead Buddhist Vihāra on 12th. October 1964 by the Thai ambassador. The Governing Body included Dr. Saddhātissa, Ven. Ratanasāra (Principal), Dr. I. B. Horner, Prof. A. L. Basham and Maurice Walshe.

Two one-year courses were prescribed for a Certificate and Higher Certificate in Buddhist Studies. Papers One in each course were devoted to the "Essentials" and "Outlines of Theravāda Buddhism" respectively. Paper Four of the Higher course was devoted to the study of the Appamādavagga of the Dhammapada Commentary, the Nanda and Meghiya vaggas of the Udāna, and the Khuddakapātha. Recommended textbooks included Warder's, Geiger's, Buddhadatta's Higher Pali Course and Winternitz's History of Indian Literature.

Unfortunately, this venture proved to be years ahead of its time and activities were terminated within one year due to lack of patronage.

A decade later, however, circumstances favoured a more sustained programme of studies. Ven. M. Vajiragnāṇa and Anthony Haviland-Nye had been conducting classes in Buddhism and Pali at The Working Men's College in Camden (London) during 1972-4 when they decided to ensure a continuance of such studies on a more permanent basis. Accordingly, on 5th. May 1974, the British Buddhist Association was formed, the first two Objects of which are: "To provide systematic instruction in the Dhamma, primarily based on Pali source materials", and "to promote canonical, textual and linguistic studies". A permanent centre was subsequently acquired in the form of 48 Crowndale Road, NW11TP (adjacent to the College) in the following year. (Dr. I. B. Horner was elected Patron of the Association.)

An ambitious five-year programme was drafted and is proving successful in terms of the numbers of adult students that attend the classes. These are held on almost every evening of the week, mainly at the College. Year 1 is devoted to "Basic Buddhism" and, during three terms, covers all aspects of Theravāda Buddhism. Year 2 is devoted to a study of the "Abhidhamma" through the medium of the Abhidhammatthasangaha (the classic medieval manual). During Years 3 and 4, the Visuddhimagga is studied. "Textual and Commentarial Studies" are pursued from Year 5 onwards.

The intention of this long-term course is to guide students from the fundamentals of the Dhamma to a knowledge of the deeper philosophy and the original Pali texts themselves. For this reason, Pali is only taught to second-year students onwards, using Warder as the main text-book. Eventually, it is hoped to implement a graduated reading plan to enable students to work their way through the four main Nikāyas during their years of study.

The practice of the Dhamma is also encouraged by means of a devotional meeting, meditation class and public lectures or Dhamma talks.

At the London Buddhist Vihāra a Pali class was first held in July 1928 at the pre-War premises in Gloucester Road. This was conducted by one or other of the three newly-arrived Sinhalese bhikkhus, P. Vajirañāna, D. Paññāsāra and H. Nandasāra. At the end of 1932, the Indian bhikkhu. Ananda Kausalyayāna, initiated a "Scripture Study" class. After the Second World War, Ven. U. Thittila, the renowned Burmese Abhidhamma scholar, conducted a Pali class in relation to his Abhidhamma Class at the shortlived Sāsana Kari Vihāra (Belgrave Road, S.W. 1-1949-52). A Dhammapada Class was held at the new premises of the London Vihāra in Ovington Gardens (Knightsbridge) in 1954 under Ven. Vinīta and two years later his Sinhalese successors, Mirisse Gunasiri and Mahānāma, initiated classes using the following texts: Visuddhimagga, Abhidhammatthasangaha, Sutta-Nipāta, Dīgha and Majjhima Nikāyas. In addition, Pali classes were formed using Buddhadatta's New Pali Course (both parts). However, none of the foregoing activities, with the exception of U Thittila's, continued for more than a year at a time.

The London Vihāra moved to Chiswick in April 1964 and two years later, Ven. H. Dhammaloka, conducted weekly Pali and Sutta Classes for about a year (until his departure). Tuition in Pali was continued from early 1968 (on the basis of Buddhadatta) by Ven. M. Vajiragñāṇa, who, in addition, briefly revived the Sutta Study and Abhidhamma (using the Abhidhammatthasangaha) Classes in September 1969. Mrs. I. R. Quittner began her series of monthly expositions from the Majjhima Nikāya (on the basis of the PTS translation) from September 1971. The Pali Class was transferred to The Working Men's College in September 1972 and was not held at the Vihāra until the spring of 1976 when Ven. K. Piyatissa attracted a few new pupils. He is engaged in devising a new grammar which will have a more direct appeal to Western students.

The Buddha Study Association (active 1956-60) sponsored more specific courses. During the first half of 1956, G. F. Allen (the Hon. Secretary) conducted a study group in the Atthaka and Pārāyana vaggas of the Sutta-Nipāta at Stanton Coit House (South Kensington). In the autumn and winter of the same year, Mrs. A. A. G. Bennett conducted a similar group in the first sixteen suttas of the Dīgha Nikāya. (In both cases, the texts under review were subsequently published: The Buddha's Philosophy—George Allen & Unwin, London, 1959; and Long Discourses of the Buddha'—Chetana, Bombay, 1964.) Special winter lecture series were given on the Pali Canon at the London Vihāra in 1957-60. Various guest speakers were invited, including Ven. Saddhātissa, Ven. Paññāvaḍḍho, Ven.

Dhammiko, Miss Horner and Mr. R. E. W. Iggleden (who had been entrusted with the Abhidhamma Class during the absence of U Thittila).

Much of the work in purely Pali scholarship and in promoting an interest in Pali literature amongst the Buddhist or sympathetic public has, however, been performed by isolated individuals on an unco-ordinated basis. In this connection, perhaps it should be remembered that even the output of the PTS is largely the result of individual scholars. The achievements of the most well-known British supporters or those domiciled in the U.K. (excluding those already referred to at the universities) are briefly described below:-

F. L. Woodward (1871-1952) was the first Principal of Mahinda College in Galle (Sri Lanka) before retiring to Tasmania. He edited the Commentaries on the Samyutta Nikāya (Sāratthappakāsinī, 3 vols., 1929-37), Thera-gāthā (3 vols., 1940-39) and Udāna (1926); and translated the Samyutta Nikāya (Kindred Sayings, Vols. III-V, 1924-30), Anguttara Nikāya (Gradual Sayings, Vols. I, II and V, 1932-6), Udāna and Itivuttaka (Minor Anthologies II, 1935). Undoubtedly, his best known work is the classic anthology, Some Sayings of the Buddha (OUP, London, 1925) which ran into eight editions and was chosen to commemorate the Golden Jubilee of The Buddhist Society, London, in 1974. He also translated the Dhammapada which appeared as The Buddha's Path of Virtue (London, 1921).

E. M. Hare (1893-1958) was a pupil of Woodward and spent much of his life as a tea planter in Ceylon. He translated the Anguttara Nikāya (Gradual Sayings, Vols. III and IV, 1934-5) and the Sutta-Nipāta (Woven Cadences, 1948), but will be chiefly remembered for his editorship of the Pali Tipiṭakam Concordance (Vol. I, 1952-5; Vol. II, Parts 1 and 2, 1956-7).

Miss I. B. Horner has been President of the PTS since 1959 and has devoted her life to promoting a knowledge of Pali literature. She has edited the Commentaries on the Buddhavamsa (Madhuratthavilāsinī, 1946—she has recently translated this which will be published in due course) and the Majjhima Nikāya (Papañcasūdanī, Vols. III-V, 1933-8) and translated the entire Vinaya Pitaka (The Book of the Discipline, 6 vols., 1938-66), Majjhima Nikāya (The Middle Length Sayings, 3 vols., 1954-9), Buddhavamsa, Cariyāpiṭaka and Vimānavatthu (Minor Anthologies III and IV, 1938 and 1942) together with the Milindapañha (Milinda's Questions, 2 vols., 1963-4). She has, also, a large number of papers to her credit together with the classic study, Women under Primitive Buddhism (London, 1930; Delhi, 1973; Amsterdam, 1975).

Nānamoli (1905-60) was probably the most brilliant English Pali scholar since Rhys Davids and Miss Horner. In the short space of ten years as a bhikkhu in Ceylon, he mastered Pali and translated the Khuddakapāṭha with its Commentary (Minor Readings and Illustrator, 1961), Nettippakarana (The Guide, 1962) and Peṭakopadesa (Piṭaka-Disclosure, 1964); his rendering of the Paṭisambhidāmagga ("The Path of Discrimination") has remained unpublished. Buddhists will remember him for his translation of the Visuddhimagga (The Path of Purification) which was first published by Ananda Semage in Colombo (1960). He also edited and translated the Pāṭimokkha (Mahāmakut, Bangkok, 1966) and translated a number of suttas for the BPS, Kandy.

H. Saddhatissa has been Head of the London Buddhist Vihāra for almost twenty years (since April 1957), during which period he has devoted much of his time to the PTS, of which he is a Council member. For the Society he has edited the *Upāsakajanālaṇkāra* (1965), with a summary in English, and the *Dasabodhisattuppattikathā* (1975), with its translation (*The Birth-Stories of the Ten Bodhisattas*); together with the *Concordance* (Vol. III, Parts 2-4, 1968-71). Additionally, he has compiled original papers on "The Pali Literature of Thailand" (in *Buddhist Studies in Honour of I. B. Horner*, D. Reidel, Dordrecht, 1974) and "Pali Studies in Cambodia" (in *Buddhist Studies in Honour of the Ven. Walpola Sri Rahula*, expected to be published in 1976 by *Vīmaṃsā*, Colombo). His new translation of the *Sutta-Nipāta* has appeared serially in *Buddhist Quarterly* (the journal of the British Mahābodhi Society) since Spring 1969.

A. K. Warder is currently Professor of Buddhism at Toronto University. He edited the *Concordance* (Vol. III, Part 1, 1963; and Parts 2-4 with Dr. Saddhātissa). His main contribution has been *Introduction to Pali* (1963), which was based on lectures he gave on the Dīgha Nikāya, and *Pali Metre* (1967).

Records indicate that a few were and are able to translate or adapt Pali texts independently of any academic body. Of all the early non-Buddhist writers, the Wesleyan missionary **D. J. Gogerly**, (1792-1862) seems to have been the most sympathetic student of Pali Buddhism. During his stay in Ceylon in the second quarter of the 19th. century, he translated a number of Sinhalese Pali MSS which were published in the Ceylon Friend and more academic periodicals. His collected works are contained in two volumes which were published simultaneously in London and Colombo in 1908: Ceylon Buddhism—the first book contains extensive translations from the Vinaya Pitaka whilst the second time includes a wide selection of suttas.

Francis J. Payne (1869-1954) was one of the main pillars of the Buddhist

movement between the World Wars and, apart from private promotion of Pali literature, he summarised the four main Nikāyas (available only in MS form). J. F. McKechnie (1872-1951), who lived in Burma as Bhikkhu Sīlācāra for many years, condensed a third of the Majjhima Nikāya which was published as The First Fifty Discourses (2 vols., Breslau and London. 1912 and 1924). He also produced a version of the Dhammapada for The Buddhist Society of Great Britain and Ireland (Way of Truth, London, 1915). At the present day, John D. Ireland in London has proved to be a most prolific writer and translator. Apart from papers to Buddhist periodicals, he has had two anthologies published by the BPS, Kandy: Samyutta Nikāya (I, 1967) and The Discourse Collection (from the Sutta-Nipāta, 1965). He is currently preparing a new translation of the Udāna.

A number of other Buddhists have contributed varying works—translations, anthologies, expositions—details of which are contained in *An Analysis of the Pali Canon* (BPS, 1975) which includes an exhaustive bibliography of Pali Buddhist works in English.

Finally, a list of relevant items that have appeared in the only U.K.-based academic journals that feature (occasional) Pali Buddhist articles now terminates this survey on the U.K.:-

Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society

- 1862 (Vol. 19): "Comparative Arrangement of Two Translations of the Buddhist Ritual for the Priesthood, known as the Prātimoksha or Pātimokkha" (pp. 407-480)
- 1870: "The Lesser Readings" (Khuddakapāṭha, tr. R. C. Childers, with notes—pp. 309-325, 339)
- 1871: "Two Jātakas", V. Fausböll (pp. 1-13)
 "Notes on Dhammapada, with special reference to the question of Nirvāṇa", Childers (pp.219-230)
 "On the Origin of the Buddhist Arthakathās", Mudaliyar L. Corneille Wijesinha (pp. 289-302)
- 1875: "The Upasampadā-Kammavācā, being the Buddhist Manual of the Form and Manner of Ordering Priests and Deacons", J. F. Dickson (pp. 1-16) "Mahāparinibbāna Sutta" (text only, upto p. 48 of translation—

pp. 49-80)

- 1876: "The Pātimokkha, being the Buddhist Office of the Confession of Priests", J. F. Dickson (pp. 62-130)
 "Mahāparinibbāna Sutta" (continued to end of text—pp. 219-261)
 - N.B. The sutta was off-printed for Trübner's Oriental Series, London, 1878. The expected translation did not materialise.

- 1879: "On Sandhi in Pali", Childers (pp. 99-121)
- 1880: "Buddhist Nirvana and the Noble Eightfold Path", Oscar Frankfurter (including suttas 4, 5 and 9 of the Salāyatanavagga, Samyutta Nikāya—pp. 548-574)
- 1892: "Schools of Buddhist Belief" including an analysis of the Kathā-vatthu T. W. Rhys Davids (pp. 1-38)

 "A Collection of Kammavācās" (from Mandalay), Herbert
 Baynes (pp. 53-75)

 "Bhūridatta Jātaka Vatthu" (from the Burmese), R. F. St. Andrew
 St. John (pp. 77-139)
- 1893: "Temiya Jātaka Vatthu" (ibid.—pp. 357-391)
 "Women Leaders of the Buddhist Reformation" (describing the thirteen bhikkhunīs from the Manorathapurānī) Mabel Bode (pp. 517-566, 763-798)
 "Kumbha Jātaka" (from the Burmese), St. John (pp. 567-570)
- 'Suvanna Sāma Jāṭaka'' (ibid.—pp. 211-230)
 'The Vedalla Sutta, as illustrating the Psychological basis of Buddhist Ethics'', C. A. F. Rhys Davids (pp. 321-334)
 'The Madhurā Sutta concerning Caste'', R. Chalmers (pp. 341-366)
 'The Raṭṭhapāla Sutta'', Walter Lupton (pp. 769-806)
- 1896: "Pāli Elements in Chinese Buddhism: a Translation of Buddhaghosa's Samanta-pāsādika", J. Takakusu (pp. 415-440)
 "Vidhura Jātaka" (from the Burmese), St. John (pp. 441-475)
- 1898: "The King of Siam's Edition of the Pali Tipitaka", Chalmers (pp. 1-10)
 "Tathāgata", Chalmers (pp. 103-116)
- 1901: "The Upāsakajanālaņkāra". L. D. Barnett (p. 87)
- 1904: "Index to the First Words of the Slokas of the Dhammapada", E. B. Cowell and Mary Ridding (pp. 711-717)
- 1916: "The Sutta Nipāta in a Sanskrit Version from Eastern Turkestan", A. F. Rudolf Hoernie (p. 709)
- 1923: "The Abhidhamma-Pitaka and its Commentaries", C. A. F. Rhys Davids (pp. 243-250)
- 1931: "Notes on Some Pali Words", E. H. Johnston (pp. 563-592)
- 1933: "An Overlooked Pali Sutta" (Anguttara Nikāya, III, 40), C. A. F. Rhys Davids

- 1937: "The Self: an overlooked Buddhist Simile" (from the Cūla Saccaka Sutta, Majjhima 35), ibid. (pp. 259-264)
 "Formulation of Pratītyasamutpāda", B.C. Law (pp. 287-292)
- 1939: "Some Observations on the Jātakas", ibid. (pp. 241-251)
- 1967: "Translation and Embellishment in an Early Burmese Jātaka Poem", John Okell (pp. 133-148)

Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies

- 1963: (Vol. 26): "The Pāli Lokanīti and the Burmese Nīti Kyan and their Sources", Ludwik Sternbach (p. 329)
- 1965: "Mahādibbamanta: a paritta manuscript from Cambodia", P. S. Jaini (p. 61)
- 1973: "Pali phāsu-and dātta", R. L. Turner (p. 424)

For further reading

- Gunawardene, D. H. Pandita: F. L. Woodward: Out of His Life and Thought (Wesley Press, Colombo, 1972).
- Iggleden, R. E. and C. W.: "A Biographical Sketch" (of Miss Horner) in *Buddhist Studies in Honour of I. B. Horner* (ed. L. Cousins, et al. D. Reidel, Dordrecht, 1974).
- Peiris, William: The Western Contribution to Buddhism (Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi, 1973). Vide "Britain", pp. 1-80.
- Sīlācāra: A Young People's Life of the Buddha (5th. edn., W. E. Bastian, Colombo, 1953). Vide Preface for his life-sketch.
- Welbon, Guy Richard: The Buddhist Nirvāna and Its Western Interpreters (University of Chicago Press, 1968). Vide pp. 146-153 for Childers and pp. 221-247 for T. W. and C. A. F. Rhys Davids.

BOOK REVIEW

Des Geistes Gleichmass. Festschrift zum 75. Geburtstag des Ehrwürdigen Nyāṇaponika Mahāthera. Verlag Christiani, Konstanz, 1976. 203 pp. Portrait.

The title of this 75th birthday tribute to Ven. Nyāṇaponika may be rendered 'Equanimity'. It is a handsome token of respect and gratitude to the senior Western-born bhikkhu, who is not only a distinguished scholar (I value in particular his Abhidhamma Studies) but one who, through the foundation of the Buddhist Publication Society, has done as much as any individual to spread the knowledge of the Dhamma throughout the world. He was born, of Jewish stock, in Germany, and it is karmically interesting to learn from Max Kreutzberger's personal narrrative how an early training in the publishing world gave him the needful technical knowledge for making such a venture a success so many years later. Other details of his life, from his birth in 1901 in Hanau (home of the Grimm brothers) as Sigmund Feninger, to his arrival in Ceylon in 1936 to become a pupil of the great Nyāṇatiloka, and all that followed, are narrated by Hellmuth Hecker, while Erich Fromm tries briefly to indicate his importance for the modern world, as seen by a psychologist.

Other contributions touch on aspects of Dhamma. A German pupil, Bhikkhu Shantideva, treats of how Buddhism through love conquers sorrow and death. Ven. Kassapa discusses the problem of changing the world, and Paul Debes considers the conditions for the opening of the Wisdom Eye, and this is followed by a brief meditation on the arising and passing away of the worlds by Lama Anagārika Govinda, who also adds a short poem on 'Harmony'. Other contributors are Carlo Gragnani, Hellmuth Hecker (on the varieties of 'thirst'), Max Hoppe, Fritz Hungerleider, Georg Krauskopf, Hurt Onken, Friedrich Schäfer and Peter Voltz (on 'Painting as Meditation').

This is not a series of scholarly studies such as was recently presented to Dr I. B. Horner, but a collection of personal tributes, of varying worth, perhaps, but all indicative of the love and respect the Venerable Mahāthera has evoked among some of those who know him well.

M. O'C. Walshe

NEWS & NOTES

Kapilavatthu

On p. 106, footnote 4, the author of "The Kosambī Suttas" makes the following statement: "The site of the city of Kapilavatthu has not so far been located with certainty, and it is doubtful whether it ever existed as such".

Controversy surrounding the precise location of the capital of the Sakyas flared up at the beginning of 1976 when, in its issue of 24th January, the *Times of India* published the item, "Lost City of Kapilavastu Found". This article quoted the Indian superintending archaeologist, K. M. Srivastara, as saying that the site of this city could now be located at Piprahwa, in the Basti district of Uttar Pradesh.

The evidence for this assumption lay in the discovery of two soap-stone reliquaries and forty terracotta seals, some bearing Brahmi inscriptions. In addition, excavations have been carried out at Piprahwa by the Archaeological Survey of India since 1962.

The Department of Archaeology of Nepal, however, promptly responded to this story. The Buddha Jayanti Celebrations Committee in Kathmandu published the Department's statement in May under the title, Tilaurakot the ancient city of Kapilavastu. In this brochure, the Department reiterated its well-documented claim—generally accepted by most archaeologists since the end of the 19th. century—that Tilaurakot, in the western Terai, is identical to Kapilavatthu.

New Pali Dictionaries

An interesting letter has been received from Mr. Robert A. Martin, Jr., who is a graduate of Columbia University (New York). He is currently researching on a M. A. thesis on sīla, kusala and akusala in the Abhidhamma and hopes to specialise in canonical text criticism, beginning with the Vinaya Pitaka.

He describes his ordination at Vajiradhammapadip Temple (a Thai wat in New York) on 16th. May—the first Theravāda ordination on American soil—and how he spent five weeks as a sāmanera. Also, the fact that a Society for Buddhist Studies has been formed in Earl Hall, Columbia University (N.T. 10027), under the direction of David Dell.

The main part of his letter—written in Pali—is summarised as follows: "One of the problems in modern Pali correspondence in the West is the absence from the PTS Dictionary of many modern terms which appear in Buddhadatta's English-Pali Dictionary. It would be highly desirable

if the second edition of the PTS Dictionary, now in course of preparation, could include all these terms, so that A can write in Pali using Buddhadatta and B can then translate into English using the PTSD. Furthermore, the PBU should encourage the use of Pali as a living, modern language, and should encourage the publication, in the *Review*, of articles, letters, etc. in that language. Finally, efforts should be made to publish a more workable English-Pali dictionary than that of Buddhadatta, which poses many problems with its usage. Possibly a provisional list could be serialised in the *Review*.

"One of the main problems with Buddhadatta is that when he lists several Pali words for one modern English term, no information is provided which would assist one in deciding which Pali term to use. Often, such words have quite different meanings and connotations. Since they are not listed in the PTSD, there is no way to cross-check them."

The Editor will welcome constructive comments in response to the foregoing. Practical offers of assistance should, however, be addressed direct to Mr. Martin at 600 W. 122 St., New York 10027.

To aid the study of Pali, moreover, the Review will, from the next issue, serialise Ven. Ananda Maitreya's new and unpublished Pali Grammar and Composition.

Deutsch-Pali Wörterbuch. This monumental work by Dr. med. Helmut Klar (Heidelberg) has been finally published by Octopus-Verlag of Vienna, after remaining in MS form for many years.

Dr. Klar, who learnt Pali whilst attending meetings at Das Buddhistische Haus (Berlin-Frohnau) over forty years ago, has accumulated 7,400 German words and linked them with 14,200 equivalent words in Pali. Thus German Buddhists and students of Pali now have access to an invaluable guide to translation work, hitherto confined to the English-speaking world through Buddhadatta's *Dictionary*.

This contribution to Pali studies is made more valuable when one remembers that its compiler is not a professional academic. Indeed, Western universities have made little contribution to Buddhist studies and tend to ignore the work made by dedicated "amateurs".

Deutsch-Pali Wörterbuch is available at DM 35.00 from Octopus-Verlag, Postfach 53, A-1236 Vienna, Austria.

Pali Readers

Prof. A. K. Warder, currently teaching in the Department of Sanskrit and Indian Studies at the University of Toronto, has made the following helpful suggestions: "For the continuing study of Pali after finishing my

Introduction, I would suggest reading the suttas. You could begin with the Dīgha Nikāya, where you will find the originals of the texts given in my book, but without the cuts, and more in similar style. The grammar in my book should be quite sufficient for reading these and for most other canonical texts, as it is in fact very comprehensive. Some of the texts in verse, especially the Jātaka, contain additional archaic forms, for which you could refer to Geiger's Pali Literature and Language. The one book you will definitely need is the PTS Dictionary (this also explains a number of grammatical points). You should bear in mind that whereas my grammar and vocabulary are descriptive or 'synchronic' in principle, both Geiger and the Dictionary are historical or 'diachronic' and try to explain Pali by reference to Vedic and Indo-European.

"At a later stage you will want to look at Buddhaghosa's commentaries and other medieval works. There you will find considerable differences of style, vocabulary and to some extent grammar from the canonical language. These are covered in the *Dictionary* and in Geiger...if you know what is in my *Introduction* you will be able to read whatever you like with the aid of the *Dictionary*, only you would find the texts in verse heavy going at first."

Paraphrasing the Sutta Pitaka

An English subscriber, Mr. Roger Tite, who this year graduated from Leeds University in Comparative Religion, has put forward some suggestions for making the Discourse section of the Pali Canon more readable.

In recommending the method of paraphrasing to achieve this end, he writes: "First, a number of phrases and passages which are often used should be written down in alphabetical order, both for use in summarising and for later checking. Second, a simple cross-index should be prepared for longer passages so that, in a similar way, work can be avoided by 'repeating the summary in earlier suttas which can thus be found quickly Third, all sutta-summaries must be written out in full. The PTS edition often has a section replaced by a cross-index note. For example, sutta 71 might quote in the middle '.. see sutta 27, lines 31-39, but substitute Ananda for Kassapa...'. This should be avoided in a proper summary. (Of course, if one sutta repeats another except for a change of names, one could write: 'Sutta 36, the same as for sutta 34, except that the Buddha talks to Ananda and not Kassapa', and then merely give the different ending. This will avoid referring back for, possibly vital, pieces of information.) Fourth, the final paraphrase should include, (a) an index in number order of the subject-matter of each sutta (together with crossreferences to suttas dealing with the same topic); and (b) a cross-index (for scholars) of identical passages."

Sīlācāra's totally neglected work, The First Fifty Discourses, represents the only published anthology of length which endeavoured to reproduce part of the Sutta Piṭaka in an appealing style of language, by eliminating those tedious repetitions which characterise the contents of the Majjhima Nikāya in particular.

Unfortunately, very few Buddhists are willing to discuss seriously the ideal of a "New English Canon". It seems incredible to recall that, for example, Chalmers and Hare, men in public positions, should have employed language in their translations that would neither be recognised nor used by the public!

Mr. Tite is to be congratulated, therefore, on persisting, in the face of indifference, to complete his paraphrase of the Majjhima Nikāya based on extent English versions. As with the letter from Mr. Martin, above, the Editor would welcome constructive comments with a view to publishing them in the *Review*.

Reprints and New Works

The Book of the Discipline V (PTS)

The Middle Length Sayings I (PTS)

Dictionary of Pali Proper Names (PTS)

Pali Tipiṭakam Concordance: Vol. I A-O (7 parts, 1952-5)

II K-N. (9 parts, 1956-75)

III P- (5 parts to date, 1963-72)

The Path of Purification (2 vols., Shambhala Publications, Berkeley)
Pali Buddhist Texts—Rune Johansson, 2nd. edn., revised and enlarged.
(Available from Curzon Press Ltd., 88 Grays Inn Rd., London, W.C. 1.)

Sāratthasangaha. Tr. G. H. Sasaki (MS, Tokyo, 1975). Vide pp. 229-230 of Malalasekera's Pali Literature of Ceylon for details of this text.

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